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An examination of leading through change using Snyder's hope theory and Lewin's 3-step model

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AN EXAMINATION OF LEADING THROUGH CHANGE USING SNYDER'S HOPE

THEORY AND LEWIN'S 3-STEP MODEL

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by

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my family. To the love of my life, Lora Nicole, none of this would be possible without you. Thank you for your love, friendship, patience, and support. To my children, Lane Nicole, Nathan Lane, and Briar Lane, you give me purpose and a strong belief that the days ahead will be our best. I love you more than you'll ever know, and I hope you smile when you think of me.

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ABSTRACT

Never has the world experienced such rapid change, and the environment in which organizations operate necessitates increased change capability and organizational agility (Argyris, 1991). Strebel (1996) found success rates for change initiatives in *Fortune* 1000 companies ranged from a low of 20% to a high of 50%. Later studies would substantiate Strebel's (1996) findings, claiming that, on average, failure rates of transformational change initiatives approach 70% (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). Suppose this is so, and companies wish to thrive in such a dynamic environment. A fundamental understanding of why change efforts fail and how to drive more positive outcomes across organizations must be examined. With transformational leadership best practices well documented and time-tested change management models available to all, what then is missing?

Applying Snyder's (2002) hope theory, this study explores how the narratives of hopeful leaders advance organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. Through narrative inquiry, stories of hopeful change leaders offered ways and means for developing hopeful thinking in themselves, other organizational change leaders, and followers participating in organizational change. The narratives also addressed dynamics inhibiting hopeful thinking, complementing and enhancing Lewin's (1947a) three-step change management model. Fifteen narrative approaches aligned with unfreezing, changing, and refreezing an organization are surfaced. Most importantly, suggestions are made for how change leaders can operationalize the building blocks of hope throughout their organizations.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Is there a more important gift aspiring global leaders might offer the world than hope?

Often misunderstood but rarely discounted, the power of hope is repeatedly referenced by

scholars and thought leaders around the world. Luthans and Avolio (2003) concluded, "The force

multiplier throughout history has often been attributed to the leader's ability to generate hope"

(p. 253). Gardner (1990), author of *On Leadership*, famously stated, "The first and last task of a

leader is to keep hope alive. Never denying the difficulties, they must keep confidence

unimpaired" (p. 195). Time and again this hopeful philosophy proves true, and research has

demonstrated hopeful thinking is measurable as both a leader trait and an individual's state of

being; serving as a reliable predictor of higher-level athletic performance, favorable educational

outcomes, better physical health, and mental wellbeing (Curry et al., 1997; Shorey et al., 2002;

Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991;

Snyder et al., 2002). Financial performance, employee engagement, and organizational resilience

of professional working environments have also been linked to high-hope leadership in

significant ways (Norman et al., 2005; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). With such powerful evidence

of hopeful thinking's ability to advance positive outcomes, a gap in current research is revealed

specific to how change leaders operationalize hope throughout their organizations.

Examining the relationships among hope, leadership, and change, the mechanisms by

which leaders affect hope, and the most effective ways to use a high-hope leadership paradigm

when advancing change in organizations presents an opportunity to close the gap in current

research. Further research is significant because scant literature connecting the responsibility of a

leader, the mindset of a high-hope thinker, and a proven change management toolset in pursuit of

optimal outcomes exists. Connecting hope, leadership, and change presents the opportunity to do

just that; and as Smedes (1998) so elegantly pointed out, "Our spirits were made for hope the way our hearts were made to love, and our brains were made to think, and our hands were made to make things" (p. 7). To explore the connection of hope, leadership, and change further, the intersection of hope theory (Snyder, 2002); transformational leadership (Bass, 1985); and Lewin's (1947a) three-step model for change will be examined.

Background of Study

The concept of positive psychology was first mentioned in the late 1990s; and although constructs such as hope had previously been studied, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi's (2000) goal was to establish an entire field devoted to individual well-being and the circumstances, abilities, and qualities that allow people to flourish. They wanted to remind the world that psychology was more than healing, curing mental illness, and the study of weakness and disease. Psychology also included "making the lives of all people more productive and fulfilling, and identifying and nurturing high talent" (Seligman, 2002, p. 4). Seligman (1999), credited with the creation of positive psychology, lamented:

> How has it happened that social science views the human strengths and virtues—
> altruism, courage, honesty, duty, joy, health, responsibility, and good cheer—as
> derivative, defensive, or downright illusions, while weakness and negative motivations
> such as anxiety, lust, selfishness, paranoia, anger, disorder, and sadness are viewed as
> authentic? (p. 181)

Born of a need to balance the scientific study of disease and weakness with strength and virtue, positive psychology celebrates the reality that human strengths play a meaningful role in the attainment of health and happiness (Seligman, 2002; Sheldon & King, 2001). Featuring uplifting aspects of the human experience, positive psychology includes, but is not limited to,

flow, self-efficacy, hope, optimism, self-esteem, and problem solving (Snyder, 2002). Each of

these theories exhibit similarities but possess individual difference scales that support their

discriminant validity and, therefore, should be considered individually (Snyder, Harris, et al.,

1991). This research focuses specifically on hope theory.

Hope theory establishes hope as a construct composed of goal-oriented agency (i.e.,

willpower) and pathways thinking (i.e., waypower; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002).

This trilogy of goals, agency, and pathways anchor change management in a world where desired

outcomes are consistently achievable. Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) expanded on this, noting:

> Beyond the fact that higher hope people appear to set more difficult goals (by objective
>
> but not phenomenological standards) and that they evidence a more positive, challenge
>
> like set as they pursue these goals, the present results indicate that higher hope people are
>
> more certain they will attain their goals. (p. 582)

A high-hope mindset that is constantly setting goals, seeking out paths to attainment, and

possessing the drive to pursue them relentlessly, appears to complement almost any change

management toolset.

While focused on group dynamics, Lewin (1947a, 1947b) introduced the idea of

constantly competing forces simultaneously driving change and maintaining the status quo in his

groundbreaking work on the quasistationary equilibrium of human systems. Born of Lewin's

(1947a) research was the original change management model comprising three steps: (a)

unfreezing, where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity;

(b) changing behavior, where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c)

refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions. This change management

toolset has proved powerful throughout the years; and albeit explored outside the context of hope

theory (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002), Lewin (1936) understood the significance of hope more than a decade before authoring his innovative work on change, attempting to measure willpower and its relationship to individual needs, purpose, and goals. Almost a century ago, the harmonious relationship between hope and change began to reveal itself. As a leader seeks to push organizational change forward using the toolset of unfreeze, change, and refreeze (Lewin, 1947a), a mindset possessing goals, willpower, and waypower seems to pull consistently those effected ever closer to desired outcome (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). When, where, and how the dual threat of mindset and toolset can be combined to create optimal outcomes should also be considered.

At the center of effective change management, and positioned well to leverage a hope paradigm, is the leader. Herth (2007) described "leadership from a hope paradigm" as a mindset that "involves three components: strengthening the hoping self, minimizing hope inhibitors, and creating a vision of hope in others" (p. 12). There appears to be, at minimum, a surface-level connection between the mindset of a hopeful thinker and an effective change management toolset. There also seems to be a connection to a leader's identity and ultimate responsibilities. Leadership, through both direct and indirect interactions, is described by Bass and Avolio (1994) as "a philosophy and approach for a leader to employ for developing followers, transforming these followers into leaders, and fostering the performance of followers that transcends expected or established standards" (p. 27). Stogdill (1950) connected leadership more closely to change management within an organization, referring to it "as the act of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (p. 4). Of significance for this study, Stogdill's definition of leadership aligns seamlessly with Snyder, Harris, et al.'s (1991) description of goal-directed agency.

Within the lexicon of leadership theory resides transformational leadership, which seeks to balance emotions and values with long-term goals, connecting the leader and follower roles in a way that taps into the motives and goals of both (Bass, 1985). Motivating followers to exceed even their own expectations, transformational leadership inspires commitment to a goal, the team, and higher-level needs (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Four distinct components make up transformational leadership, which aims to assist followers in reaching their full potential: (a) idealized influence, serving as a moral and ethical role model; (b) inspirational motivation, setting high expectations and inspiring team pursuit; (c) intellectual stimulation, making space for creative and innovative thinkers; and (d) individualized consideration, considering follower needs and wants (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994). A salient argument can be made that proven leadership practices, those forged in the crucibles of life and having stood the test of time, should be promoted to the status of leadership responsibility. Through this lens, a leader's responsibility, the untapped potential of a hopeful mindset, and a time-tested change management toolset will be examined further.

Statement of Problem

Never has the world experienced so much and such rapid change. Globally, corporations are transitioning from connecting billions of people to a time of connecting trillions of things. Big data is proving disruptive across almost all sectors of the economy. More important, recent events throughout the United States and around the world have resulted in much-needed social reform movements that require organizations simply to be better. Whether it be diversity and inclusion, fairness and equity, climate change, material transparency, or just being a good corporate citizen, social responsibility amplifies the need for organizational agility and change ability. In addition, the COVID-19 global pandemic has fundamentally changed the nature of

how businesses operate around the world, opening an entirely new paradigm for when and where work should take place and transforming global supply chains almost overnight.

The current environment necessitates the need for increased change capability and organizational agility. Moreover, this need has been accelerating at an ever-increasing pace, and organizations would do well to respond. As far back as 2002, Goltz and Hietapelto stated, "With an ever more rapidly changing environment, the ability of organizations to adapt to change is critical in today's world and change efforts are now fairly common in organizations" (p. 4). For this reason, and at the most basic of levels, improving agility and change ability across organizations surfaces as mission critical for the sustainment of long-term success.

However, what is concerning is how often change efforts fail. As Kotter (2006) pointed out, "Most major change initiatives, whether they are intended to drive quality, boost productivity, improve culture, or alter a company's overall direction, generate only lukewarm results" (p. 3). Most change leaders fail miserably because they do not fully understand the process orientation of change, instead confusing it for an event (Kotter, 2012). Strebel (1996) found success rates for change initiatives in *Fortune* 1000 companies ranged from a meager 20% to a high of 50%, suggesting awareness of a need to be better is not enough. Later studies would substantiate Strebel's (1996) findings, claiming that, on average, failure rates of transformational change initiatives approach 70% (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). Schein (2017) posited, "Though the change process can be analyzed in terms of stages, it is increasingly becoming in many organizations a perpetual way of life" (p. 339). If this is so, and companies wish to thrive in such a dynamic environment, a fundamental understanding of why change efforts fail and how to drive more positive outcomes across organizations must be examined. With transformational leadership best practices well documented, and with time-tested change

management models available to all, what then is missing? Following this progression, an argument can be made that the mindset of a hopeful leader may serve as a key ingredient for improving the success rates of attempted change initiatives. The problem, therefore, is a lack of understanding for how hopeful leaders advance positive outcomes in organizational change.

Purpose of Study

Hope is a reliable predictor of higher-level athletic performance, favorable educational outcomes, better physical health, and mental wellbeing (Curry et al., 1997; Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). The concept of high-hope leadership has also been attributed to better financial performance, employee engagement, and organizational resilience of professional working environments (Norman et al., 2005; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Such powerful evidence of a leader's ability to leverage hopeful thinking to advance positive outcomes in life reveals the importance of understanding transformational leadership through a hope paradigm. Applying Snyder's hope theory, the purpose of this study is to explore how hopeful leaders advance positive outcomes in organizational change.

Significance of Study

Sergiovanni (2005) once said:

Perhaps the most important and perhaps the most neglected leadership virtue is hope. One reason why hope is neglected is because of management theories that tell us to look at the evidence, to be tough as nails, to be objective, and in other ways blindly face reality. (p. 77)

However, only recently has hope been included in the examination of emerging leadership models and theories (Adams et al., 2002; Herth, 2007; Reichard et al., 2013; Youssef & Luthans,

2007). While the body of literature relative to transformational leadership, change management, and hope theory continues to grow, there is a gap linking all three and their potentially amplified ability when combined to advance positive outcomes in organizational change. Central to the significance of this study is its potential to increase awareness and improve the understanding of a hopeful change leader's methods, impact, and overall value.

Burns (1978), a transformational leadership expert, noted, "Hopes are closely influenced by leaders who arouse or dampen them" (p. 117). Emphasizing the power of hope, Koestenbaum (1991) later agreed, noting:

> A leadership mind is characterized by hope…What is needed is hope, the realistic perception that there is a way out, that there is a future, that there is a solution…The leader has the capacity and the will to take charge of generating hope. (p. 65)

It is, therefore, proffered that the research findings from this study will benefit leaders, researchers, educators, and instructional designers focused on global leadership and change throughout academic, government, and professional realms. Moreover, while it would be easiest to focus on any one of these three realms, Etzkowitz and Zhou (2018) identified the significance of simultaneously considering all three in a triple helix model they see emerging globally. The triple helix,

> holds that the theoretical framework of innovation originated in industry, is strengthened by inclusion of government's role and takes it a step further, and links innovation and entrepreneurship to the university as a fundamental source of novelty. A triple helix regime typically begins as university, industry, and government enter into a reciprocal relationship with each other in which each attempts to enhance the performance of the other. (Etzkowitz & Zhou, 2018, p. 39)

In fact, the scholars argued that the secret to innovation hotbeds such as Silicon Valley and Boston result from this configuration "in which the three spheres interact and take the role of the other, with initiatives arising laterally as well as bottom-up and top-down" (Etzkowitz & Zhou, 2018, p. 23).

It is also believed that the research findings may inform strategic, long-term, talent management processes throughout these same organizations, specifically in the fields of human capital and talent management. A better understanding of the hopeful change leader's value to an organization has the potential to bolster talent identification, talent selection, training, developing, retention, and promotion processes. Perhaps most important, it is proffered that findings from this research will provide an innovative approach to change management that reveals consistently more positive outcomes. As a result, this work also hopes to stimulate future research connecting hope theory, transformational leadership, and change management.

Theoretical Framework

This study examines how hopeful change leaders do, in fact, advance organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. To understand better the hopeful leader's ability to advance positive organizational change, this study sought to examine the intersection of a transformational leader as defined by Bass (the person), Snyder's hope theory (the mindset), and Lewin's three-step change model (the toolset). It is this combination, seen in Figure 1, that sets the theoretical framework for the research.

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework

Bass's Transformational Leadership (The Person)

Building on Burns's (1978) leadership research, Bass (1985) summarized the task of a

transformational leader as motivational, leading to greater than expected outcomes in one of

three interrelated ways: (a) leveling up awareness, importance, and value assigned to both

intended results and methods of achieving them; (b) putting the organization's needs ahead of

one's own self-interests; and (c) arousing higher-level needs as defined by Maslow (1943) within

followers. As previously stated, transformational leadership seeks to balance emotions and

values with long-term goals; connecting leader and follower roles in a way that taps into the

motives and goals of both (Bass, 1985). Bass and Avolio (1994) elaborated on this idea, noting

specifically the need for transformational leaders to serve as role models for those they lead, give

meaning and purpose to work, foster environments that promote innovation, and play an active

role as both coach and mentor to their followers. These ideas are best summarized by "The Four

I's—individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 26).

Snyder's Hope Theory (The Mindset)

Hope is more than just wishful thinking or a utopian fantasy (Tillich, 1965). Hope connects human beings to their faith and eternal life and carries them through seemingly helpless situations. What underpins hope is the fundamental belief in a brighter tomorrow and an awareness that change is both possible and right. Perhaps no one captures this idea better than Scollon and King (2011), who described social progress as "the human capacity to notice a discrepancy between how things are and how they might be" (p. 1). Critical to the human condition and our ability to flourish, the science of hope is a well-established and universal construct valued across almost all cultures (Hellman, 2016). Empirically, it is known hope matters. As the literature bears out, high-hope individuals more frequently experience wellbeing, be it social, psychological, or physical (Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2000).

At least 26 definitions of hope exist, and the majority of them fall into an emotion- or cognition-based category (Lopez et al., 2003). However, hope theory was developed to include both cognitive and emotional elements (Snyder, 2002). An area of focus within positive psychology, hope theory establishes hope as a two-dimensional construct comprising goal-oriented agency (i.e., willpower) and pathway thinking (i.e., waypower; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). This potent combination anchors change management in a world where desired outcomes are consistently achievable.

Lewin's Change Model (The Toolset)

A full 75 years after its inception, organizational thought leaders such as Schein (2017) continued to recommend Lewin's (1947a) change management model, referencing it as best

practice and comprising three steps: (a) unfreezing, where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity; (b) changing behavior, where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c) refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions. Foundational to ongoing research in change management, Lewin's model was chosen for its elegant combination of simplicity and effectiveness.

Often attacked for being too simple, the nine principles of planned change that underpin Lewin's work have set the standard for change management for decades and are the driving force for using this model (Crosby, 2021). Of those, five principles align almost perfectly with this study: (a) Lewin's theory development incorporated rigorously applied scientific methods, which can be clearly described; (b) Lewin's "training-action-research triangle" sets the stage for research and future interventions; (c) global integration builds on Lewin's focus around group versus individual dynamics; (d) Lewin's "change as three steps" offers a practical approach for operationalizing change; and (e) Lewin's worldview included the social construction of reality, which is essential because "leveraging group dynamics opens a doorway for influencing individuals at the level of values and beliefs" (Crosby, 2021, p. 9).

Research Questions

The objective of this study is to examine leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory, in order to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to advance positive outcomes in organizational change efforts. Through this study, the researcher sought to achieve the primary objective using the following research questions:

The central guiding research question for this study is:

- What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance positive organizational change relative to Lewin's Change Theory?

Subquestions include:

- RQ1: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing?

- RQ2: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change?

- RQ3: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing?

Definition of Terms

The following definitions are used for this study:

- *Apathy*: Apathy is considered to be the last of three stages in the demise of hope, noting "Persons become apathetic when they acknowledge defeat and cease all goal pursuits…is a vegetative, uncaring state that can last indeterminately, stifling one's continued development" (Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000, p. 42). In this context, apathy is presented as the opposite of hope.

- *Cognition*: Cognition is "all forms of knowing and awareness, such as perceiving, conceiving, remembering, reasoning, judging, imagining, and problem solving. Along with affect and conation, it is one of the three traditionally identified components of mind" (American Psychological Association [APA], 2022a, para. 1).

- *Coping*: "Coping is defined as attempts to address demands perceived as taxing or exceeding one's personal resources" (Moreno et al., 2021, p. 319). According to Rand and Touza (2021), high-hopers perceive value in managing current stressors more often than low-hopers do. They also pointed out that hope will shield them from future stressors and boost their self-confidence, resulting in a more optimistic outlook on the future.

- *Despair*: Despair is considered to be the second of three stages in the demise of hope, noting, "When in despair…the individual still is focused on a blocked goal, but feels

an overwhelming sense of futility about overcoming the related obstacle (or

obstacles)" (Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000, p. 42).

- *Emotion*: Emotion is defined as "a complex reaction pattern, involving experiential,

  behavioral, and physiological elements, by which an individual attempts to deal with

  a personally significant matter or event" (APA, 2022b, para. 1). Examples include the

  emotion of fear following threat or the emotion of shame following disapproval.

- *Expectancy*: Expectancy is represented by "the force on a person to exert a given

  amount of effort in performance of his job," and the belief that goal attainment is

  possible with this amount of effort (Vroom, 1964, p. 284). Simply put, people choose

  among action alternatives to maximize force where strong expectations exist for

  positive outcomes (Vroom et al., 2005).

- *Hope*: Hope is defined as "the perceived capability to derive pathways to desired

  goals, and motivate oneself via agency thinking to use those pathways" (Snyder,

  2002, p. 249).

- *Hopefulness*: "Hopeful thinking involves both the perceived capacity to envision

  workable routes and goal-directed energy" (Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2000, p. 250); the

  authors went on to posit, "that agency and pathway thoughts are iterative. For

  example, an increase in pathways thinking is likely to increase agency, which, in turn,

  fuels further pathways thought and so on throughout the goal-pursuit sequence" (p.

  250).

- *Hopelessness*: Hopelessness is a set of cognitive schemas with negative expectations

  for the future as their common denominator (Beck et al., 1974). The stages of

  hopelessness are conceptualized as moving from hope to apathy (Rodriguez-Hanley

& Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1994b). Apathetic behavior, then, is indicative of true

hopelessness.

- *Idealized influence*: Idealized influence is present when transformational leaders "behave in ways that result in their being role models for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted…demonstrate high standards of ethical and moral conduct…avoids using power for personal gain and only when needed" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).

- *Individualized consideration*: Individualized consideration is present when transformational leaders "pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth by acting as coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively achieve higher levels of potential" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).

- *Inspirational motivation*: Inspirational motivation is present when transformational leaders "behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader gets followers involved in envisioning attractive future states" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).

- *Institution*: An institution is "An organization, establishment, foundation, society, or the like, devoted to the promotion of a particular cause or program, especially one of a public, educational, or charitable character: This college is the best institution of its kind" (Dictionary, n.d., para. 1).

- *Intellectual stimulation*: Intellectual stimulation is present when transformational leaders "stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning

assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members' mistakes" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).

- *Leadership*: Leadership is defined as "the act of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Stogdill, 1950, p. 4).

- *Optimism*: Optimism, according to Seligman (as cited in Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2021) "is an explanatory style that uses personal, permanent, and pervasive causes to explain positive events and external, temporary, and situation-specific attributions for negative events" (p. 824).

- *Organization*: According to Bittner (1965), the term organization is defined as "stable associations of persons engaged in concerted activities directed to the attainment of specific objectives" (p. 239). For the purposes of this study, the term organizations represents all types of organizations and institutions (e.g., for-profit, nonprofit, government, etc.).

- *Positive psychology*: Positive psychology gathers together under one large tent those who work on the positive side of life, creating a field that emphasized the scientific study of what makes life worth living and how it can be built (Downey & Henderson, 2021; Seligman, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

- *Rage*: For this study, rage is considered to be the first of three stages in the demise of hope, noting, "When a person experiences rage, which is the very first reaction when profoundly blocked, that person still has energy and drive to pursue alternative goals (albeit not necessarily effectively). People often commit misguided, impulsive, and

self-defeating acts while enraged" (Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000, p. 41).

- *Self-efficacy*: Snyder (2000) described self-efficacy as when "the person engages in a cognitive analysis so as to comprehend the relevant contingencies for goal attainment. …In turn, these outcome expectancies reflect the person's perceived capacity to carry out those actions that are inherent in the outcome expectancies" (p. 15).

- *Self-esteem*: Coopersmith (1967) defined self-esteem as "the evaluation the individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to himself…is the personal judgement of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds toward himself" (p. 4).

- *Transformational change*: Transformational change is "a deliberate effort to improve the system" (Lippitt et al., 1958, p. 10).

- *Transformational leadership*: Bass (1985) defined transformational leadership as motivating others to achieve higher than expected outcomes by raising "our level of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes. …By getting us to transcend our own self-interests for the sake of the team. …By altering our need level on Maslow's (or Alderfer's) hierarchy" (p. 20).

Positionality

Savin-Baden and Howell (2013) emphasized the importance of positionality within research, noting specifically "that it reflects the position that the researcher has chosen to adopt within a given research study" (p. 71), and went on to list three key methods for a researcher to determine and develop their own positionality. By placing themselves in relation to the subject, the participants, and the study's context and procedures, a researcher can reveal the numerous ways in which their own worldview will affect the entire process and final conclusions (Savin-

Baden & Howell, 2013). Holmes (2020) added a fourth component, that of time, to this overall

consideration, explaining that clarifying one's positionality both takes time and evolves over

time. However, developing one's positionality effectively allows for the mitigation of bias and

partisanship in the researcher's eventual findings (Rowe, 2014).

The researcher's world view is a blend of both social constructivism and social

constructionism. Social constructivism is defined by Creswell and Creswell (2018) as believing

"that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work" by "developing

subjective meanings of their experiences," which leads "the researcher to look for the complexity

of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas" (p. 8). Harasim (2017)

expanded on constructivism, noting it "refers both to a learning theory (how people learn) and to

an epistemology of learning (what is the nature of knowledge)" (p. 62). Constructivist learning

theory is based on the idea people construct their own knowledge, and that reality is determined

by the lived experiences of the learner. Through the process of reflecting on previous

experiences, Harasim (2017) posited a learner can leverage new concepts and ideas to construct

knowledge while interacting with their social environment. As an epistemology, constructivism,

> holds that knowledge is essentially subjective in nature, constructed from our perceptions
>
> and usually agreed upon conventions. According to this view, we construct new
>
> knowledge rather than simply acquire it via memorization or through transmission of
>
> those who know to those who did not. (Bates & Poole, 2003, p. 28)

However, emphasizing the group over the individual, social constructionism offers a

slightly alternative world view, "because of its emphasis on the communal basis of knowledge,

processes of interpretation, and concern with the valuational underpinnings of scientific account"

(Gergen, 1985, p. 272). Social constructionism honors the dialectic between social reality and

individual existence throughout the course of history, and is principally concerned with describing, explaining, or otherwise accounting for the world we live in through one or more of the following assumptions: (a) a single person's experience of the world is not in itself indicative of how the world is actually understood, (b) social artifacts produced throughout history as a result of active interchanges among people in relationships shape our understanding of the world, and (c) social processes will ultimately govern the magnitude with which a given form of understanding will be carried into the future and not empirical validity of a perspective (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Gergen, 1985).

Specific to the subject and participants, and prior to the research, the belief was held that many leaders within organizations have had some degree of training in leadership, change management, or dimensions of hope theory, whether explicitly or implicitly, consciously or unconsciously, as a result of their professional journey. It was also believed that more seasoned leaders have higher rates of exposure to the tools necessary to advance positively organizational change. However, it was important to recognize that not all leaders have been formally exposed to these concepts, and that many factors beyond what is being discussed here contribute to the overall perception of success (e.g., luck). The assumption that leaders of organizations will be interested in learning more about the narratives of those having advanced positive organizational change underpins this entire study. However, it is understood that while some leaders will be interested in learning more about the narratives associated with positive organizational change, others may not understand or appreciate its merit. Last, there is an awareness that some leaders may personally or professionally disagree with the researcher's assessment that the combination of transformational leadership, hopeful thinking, and a three-step model for change positively advances a change effort with greater effect.

Additionally, by gathering narratives of organizational change leaders, the assumption is made that those involved with the research possess other requisite qualities and experiences that qualify them to hold formal leadership positions. Simply aspiring to be a leader, therefore, is not assumed to be a driving force for the attainment of leadership positions. An awareness of changing career trajectories is also important, as interests and aspirations may change as one moves through personal and professional experiences. Perhaps most important, for this research, it is assumed that the narratives being shared are real. However, as Kim (2016) highlighted, with all narrative inquiry, the information being shared through story is a specific individual's reality and may not be indicative of how others present at the time of an event remember or experienced the same event.

Organization of Study

Organized into five chapters, Chapter 1 of this research proposal introduced the research topic, beginning with a background of the present study. The problem statement, purpose statement, and significance of the research follow the background. Research questions were introduced within the context of a theoretical framework. Key terms and operational definitions used throughout the text were listed separately. Then, the positionality of the researcher was provided. Finally, the chapter concluded with an organization of the study and brief chapter summary.

Chapter 2 features an integrative literature review that begins with a brief history of hope and research. Conceptualizations of hope are presented, leading to a deep dive of Snyder's hope theory. Methods for the measurement and assessment of hope, key relationships within the positive psychology family, applications of hope theory, and developers and inhibitors of hope are then discussed. The connection of hope theory with leadership and organizational change is

examined. Last, foundational to this study, the concept of a hopeful change leader is introduced.

Chapter 3 discusses the research approach, which will be qualitative, looking for the meaning ascribed to social or human problems by individuals and groups alike (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Richards & Morse, 2013). The researcher's world view is a blend of social constructivism and social constructionism. Social constructivism is defined by Creswell and Creswell (2018) as believing "that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work" by "developing subjective meanings of their experiences," which lead "the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas" (p. 8). The social constructivist lens recognizes there are many ways of knowing the world and studying the interactions of people, leading the researcher towards Narrative Inquiry. Primarily because of the participatory nature of the researcher-researched interaction, Narrative Inquiry, which uses stories as data and analysis to understand better what we know and how it fits within a specific context, surfaces as the methodology of choice (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2012). Using both stories from participants and stories created by the researcher while gathering information, stories were utilized as the method to understand social patterns.

Chapter 4, dedicated to data analysis and research results, opens with a brief restatement of purpose and review of the methodological approach. Sampling criteria are then highlighted prior to a summary of the sample set demographics. Data sources and data collection procedures are discussed, followed by research limitations and delimitations. Methods for verification and trustworthiness are then reviewed, as well as ethical considerations for the overall study. Research results and data analysis are then presented in a way that informs the key findings of the study, paying specific attention to addressing the research questions. The chapter concludes with an overall summary of the research, data, and findings, before introducing the research

conclusions presented in the final chapter.

Chapter 5 serves to summarize the key findings and recommendations of the overall study. This chapter begins by revisiting the nature of the study, problem statement, purpose of the research, theoretical framework, and research questions. Research design, methods, and ethical issues of the study are once again reviewed. Finally, before highlighting the study's findings, conclusions, and consequences, data analysis processes are described, paying particular attention to validity and reliability. The chapter ends with conclusions and suggestions for additional areas of potential study.

Chapter Summary

The objective of this study was to examine leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory, in order to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to advance positive outcomes in organizational change efforts. To achieve this objective, the researcher proposed an examination of the connections among hope, leadership, and change; the process by which leaders influence hope; and how best to leverage a high-hope leadership paradigm when advancing transformational change in organizations. The researcher posited that if companies wish to thrive in such a dynamic environment, a fundamental understanding of why change efforts fail and how to drive more positive outcomes across organizations must be understood.

It was, therefore, emphasized that hopeful change leaders do, in fact, advance organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. To understand better the hopeful leader's ability to advance positive organizational change, this study sought to examine the intersection of a transformational leader as defined by Bass (the person), Snyder's hope theory (the mindset), and Lewin's three-step change model (the toolset). Using Narrative Inquiry as the methodology of choice for this study, stories from participants

and stories created by the researcher while gathering information were used as the method to

understand social patterns.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

The conceptual structure of this research examines leadership using Snyder's (2002) hope theory to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to advance positive outcomes in organizational change. For the purposes of this study, the term organization represents all types of organizations and institutions (e.g., for-profit, nonprofit, government, etc.). This literature review focuses on three main topics: (a) Snyder's (2002) hope theory, (b) the intersection of hope theory and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), and (c) the hopeful change leader's ability to advance positive outcomes using Lewin's (1947a) three-step model for organizational change. Roberts and Hyatt's (2019) eight-step process, which they pointed out is fluid in nature and not necessarily intended to flow sequentially, was used for this literature review. The eight steps include:

> (a) identify keywords or descriptors, (b) create search queries, (c) identify relevant literature sources, (d) search the literature and collect relevant materials, (e) critically read and analyzing the literature, (f) synthesize the literature, (g) organize the literature, and (h) write the literature review. (Roberts & Hyatt, 2019, p. 116)

The process was activated by identifying keywords to be researched (e.g., hope, optimism, efficacy, positive psychology, organizational change, hopeful leadership, and transformational leadership) and then creating search queries for each.

Peer-reviewed scholarly articles were curated using APA PsycARTICLES, ProQuest Databases, SCOPUS Databases, and Sage Journals Online. Creswell and Creswell (2018) advised using Google Scholar to identify pertinent books and papers and broaden the collection of available literature across numerous fields and sources in order to ensure a thorough search. Search words and phrases for Google Scholar mirrored those used for scholarly databases.

Synonyms of each were also used as search terms. However, careful consideration was given to ensure all resources curated via Google Scholar passed the standards of peer review (Roberts & Hyatt, 2019). Cited references within found resources were also used to expand the relevant and timely literature available for review.

A combination of chronological and general-to-specific approaches were then employed to provide structure for organizing the literature review (Roberts & Hyatt, 2019). First, the chronological approach was used to introduce key themes and highlight their emergence during the last century. Second, the broader overview of content was then refined to examine material most closely related to hope theory, transformational leadership, and organizational change. A topic outline matching the table of contents was then created, and references were sorted accordingly prior to writing the literature review.

A Brief History of Hope and Research

Long before the creation of hope theory (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002), there was a story of hope. Dating as far back as 700 BC, perhaps the oldest and most recognizable story of hope unfolds in Hesiod's (1993) tale of Pandora, sent to Earth by Zeus to exact revenge for Prometheus having stolen fire from the gods and giving it to humanity. Dowry jar in hand, or what is commonly referred to as Pandora's box today, Pandora was directed never to reveal its contents upon arriving on Earth. As the gods predicted, she was unable to resist temptation, eventually releasing plagues to torment human minds and bodies for eternity. What remained stuck under the lid of that jar was hope, and whether hope escaped from the jar remains a subject of debate to this day (Smith, 1983). For millennia, world-renowned thinkers and philosophers such as Sophocles, Nietzsche, Plato, Shakespeare, and Franklin would tap into the power of hope; and in many cases, just as Hesiod (1993) did thousands of years ago, through a negative

lens (Snyder, 2000).

Almost a century ago, and central to this paper's theme, concepts that underpin hope theory showed up in some of the most groundbreaking research on group behavior, organizational development, and change management. Lewin (1936), in his work leading up to "Frontiers in Group Dynamics," sought to understand a person's willpower and its relationship to individual needs, purpose, and goals. In fact, Lewin referenced himself and other thought leaders examining what would become foundational aspects of hope theory as far back as the 1920s in pursuit of this understanding (Lewin, 1922; Lewin & Sakamura, 1925; Ovsiankina, 1928; Zeigarnik, 1927). Intentional or not, once Lewin (1936) looked deeper at Gestalt theory and the field of will, affection, and personality, the relationship between hope and transformational change began to form.

Studies evaluating the lack of hope, or what is clinically referred to as apathy today (Gwinn & Hellman, 2022; Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder, 2000), also began to emerge. Examining instances of sudden, yet inexplicable, death around the globe, Cannon's (1942) review of psychogenic-related death demonstrated just how powerful the absence of hope could be. There were, in fact, countless examples of what could only be described as death from fear across multiple continents and countries. This was significant because fear is an emotion fundamentally linked to hope (Coker, 2016), the power of which is revealed by the true story of a native turned missionary in North Queensland.

Fully believing he had been condemned to death by a famous witch doctor on the outskirts of his hometown, there were indications that the native turned missionary was unquestionably weak and had fallen seriously ill. However, upon examination, a local medical doctor could not detect fever, pain, or any other sign of disease. The ailments appeared to be

entirely of the mind. Only after the medical doctor engaged the famous witch doctor and threatened his food supply did he agree to visit the ailing man's bed. There the witch doctor informed the native missionary it was all a misunderstanding, and that he had not actually been condemned to die. Hearing this news, and once again hopeful, the missionary physically recovered within hours and was back to work before sunset that very same day (Coker, 2016).

Slightly more than a decade later, attempting to research sudden and psychogenic death in a laboratory, Richter (1957) conducted a gruesome, yet informative, experiment with wild and domesticated Norway rats. Richter's intent was to reveal the underlying mechanisms of the sudden death phenomenon described in Cannon's (1942) earlier observations. Using swimming jars filled with water, a baseline was established for how long domestic and wild rats would take to drown. Richter, introducing what he referred to as despair, then clipped the rats' whiskers to eliminate what was possibly their most important contact with the general surroundings. As a result, the average time to drown decreased dramatically, in some instances from more than 80 hours down to just a few minutes. As Richter (1957) described:

> The situation of these rats scarcely seems one demanding fight or flight—it is rather one of hopelessness; whether they are restrained in the hand or confined in the swimming jar, the rats are in a situation against which they have no defense. This reaction of hopelessness is shown by some wild rats very soon after being grasped in the hand and prevented from moving; they seem literally to "give up." (p. 196)

Richter then made a slight modification to the experiment so that the impact of hope could be better understood. Just before each rat signaled the appearance of giving up, he lifted them out of the water for a few minutes' rest. "In this way," he wrote, "the rats quickly learn that the situation is not actually hopeless; thereafter they again become aggressive, try to escape, and

show no signs of giving up" (Richter, 1957, p. 196). Richter then emphasized that after introducing hope, the rats simply refused to die.

More recently, hope has been viewed in a much more positive light. Although it is evident that renowned thinkers and researchers have demonstrated an awareness of and appreciation for the significance of hope for centuries, the formal examination of hope using more scientific approaches did not begin until the late 1950s and 1960s. Psychiatrists such as Schachtel (1959), Menninger (1959), Frankl (1963), Frank (1968), and Melges and Bowlby (1969) were the first to connect hope with positive expectations for goal attainment. Around this same time, researchers in the field of psychology were beginning to examine hope as well, reaching similar conclusions (Cantril, 1964; Farber, 1968; Mowrer, 1960b; Stotland, 1969). Unfortunately, as Frank (1968) recognized then, and Snyder (2000) would later point out, "Although promising, their work did not capture the support of the wider scientific community who remained skeptical about hope" (p. 4). The tide was about to turn, however.

Tillich (1965), for example, began to view hope as "easy for the foolish, but hard for the wise," and lamented that "everybody can lose himself into foolish hope, but genuine hope is something rare and great" (p. 17). Tillich, a German-born philosopher and theologist, was one of the first scholars to begin looking past the word hope as merely wishful thinking or a utopian fantasy while connecting its importance to faith and eternal life. Around this same time, a faction of medical professionals began to view hope and positive emotion as a real and meaningful step in the recovery process (Frank, 1968, 1973, 1975; Menninger, 1959; Pelletier, 1977; Siegel, 1986; Simonton et al., 1978). As the idea of hope progressed into the 1970s and 1980s, a variety of professions began developing theories around hope, expanding knowledge specific to the subject of hope into areas as important as nursing and psychology (Farran et al., 1995).

In the late 1990s, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi would coin the term positive psychology. Although concepts such as hope had been studied, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi's (2000) goal was to establish an entire field devoted to human well-being and the circumstances, abilities, and qualities that allow people to flourish. They wanted to remind the world that psychology was more than healing, curing mental illness, and the study of disease. Psychology also included "making the lives of all people more productive and fulfilling, and identifying and nurturing high talent" (Seligman, 2002, p. 4). In the 10 years following its introduction, thousands of articles related to positive psychology were published in peer-reviewed journals (Azar, 2011). Not without its critics, who have argued positive psychology moved too swiftly toward application, it is this branch of psychological research that sets the stage for the creation of hope theory.

Conceptualizations of Hope

Although the focus of psychology for decades has been healing damage and disease, there was a place for topics as far ranging as love and play to education and work (Seligman, 2002; Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). It is the positive side of psychology that makes space for hope as a science today. Seligman (2002) connected positive psychology to the future through hope by explaining, "The field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about positive subjective experience: well-being and satisfaction (past); flow, joy, the sensual pleasures, and happiness (present); and constructive cognition about the future—optimism, hope, and faith" (p. 3). In this sense, hope is our connection with a brighter tomorrow. Snyder (1994b) expanded on this connection, describing hope as a life-sustaining force rooted in our relationship with the future. Although this idea seemed accepted throughout available literature, more widely debated has been whether hope is an emotion or cognition.

The casual observer seems to align their understanding of hope with Merriam-Webster (n.d.), which defined hope as "a desire accompanied by expectation of or belief in fulfillment" (para. 1). There are at least 26 theories and definitions of hope; however, almost all are categorized as emotion- or cognition-based (Lopez et al., 2003). APA (2022b) defined emotion as, "a complex reaction pattern, involving experiential, behavioral, and physiological elements, by which an individual attempts to deal with a personally significant matter or event" (para. 1). Lazarus (1999), for instance, examined the function of hope as an emotion and means of coping with sorrow. Through this lens, a person recently diagnosed with terminal cancer might experience the emotion of hope while processing their new circumstance. APA (2022a) defined cognition as, "all forms of knowing and awareness, such as perceiving, conceiving, remembering, reasoning, judging, imagining, and problem solving" (para. 1). Beck et al. (1974) used the cognitive lens to explore the absence of hope and its effect on various psychopathological conditions. Hope as cognition suggests mental action that leads to the expectation of positive outcomes. Although the two perspectives seem to be converging, they should be examined separately first.

Hope as Emotion

Hope is typically conceptualized as an emotion and seems to be most closely related with feelings that allow one to hold on to their belief in an ability to persevere no matter how dire the situation. More importantly, social scientists have been able to develop this construct throughout the years. For example, Mowrer (1960b), as part of his research with animals, originally presented the emotion of hope as a secondary reinforcement propelling animals toward their goals only after a stimulus associated with something pleasurable occurred. From Mowrer's behavioral perspective, emphasis should be placed on environmental stimulus and the

researcher's ability to observe responses.

French philosopher Marcel's view of hope, detailed later in Godfrey's (1987) work on the philosophy of human hope, examined the impact of hope when coping with the environment. This view aligned closely with the social-constructivist's belief that reality is determined by lived experiences and assumes hope is only applicable in seemingly helpless situations. As recently as the 1990s, Averill et al. (1990) presented hope as an emotion that is governed by cognition, with an individual's environment playing a meaningful role in the creation or destruction of hope. Lopez et al. (2003) expanded on Averill et al.'s (1990) presentation of hope, noting that hope is, "most appropriate when goals are (a) reasonably attainable, (b) under control, (c) viewed as important by the individual, and (d) acceptable at a social and moral level" (p. 92).

Hope as an emotion has even been explored in the domains of public policy, consumer behavior, professional selling, and marketing. MacInnis and de Mello (2005), for example, examined how emotions were caused by specific interpretations of a situation or environment in the domain of product evaluation and choice. They would go on to define hope as "a positively valenced emotion evoked in response to an uncertain but possible goal-congruent outcome," and assumed people interpret their situation along five dimensions: "(a) goal congruency, (b) personal agency, (c) certainty, (d) normative/moral compatibility, and (e) importance" (MacInnis & de Mello, 2005, p. 2). MacInnis and de Mello (2005) argued that importance, certainty, and goal congruency relate specifically to a three-faceted conceptualization of hope as an emotion that involves hoping, having hope, and being hopeful.

Hope as Cognition

Models that operationalize hope as cognition far outnumber those viewing hope through an affective lens and have been around for almost as long. Using the cognitive lens, Erikson

(1964) saw hope as a driving force for healthy cognitive development and defined hope as "the enduring belief in the attainability of fervent wishes, in spite of the dark urges and rages which mark the beginning of existence" (p. 118). Other researchers focused on expectancy, which the APA (2022c) defined as:

> The internal state resulting from experience with predictable relationships between stimuli or between responses and stimuli. This basic meaning becomes slightly more specific in some fields. For example, in cognitive psychology, it refers to an attitude or mental set that determines the way in which a person approaches a situation, and in motivation theory, it refers to an individual's belief that his or her actions can produce a particular outcome (e.g., attainment of a goal). (para. 1)

Expectancy was foundational to several theorists examining hope. Stotland (1969) defined hope as "an expectation greater than zero of achieving a goal" (p. 2). Gottschalk (1974) saw hope as a quantifiable amount of optimism associated with the belief that pleasant outcomes are probable. Staats and Stassen (1985) viewed hope as "the affective cognition" (p. 235), and Staats (1989) would later go on to define hope as "the interaction between wishes and expectations" (p. 367). Finally, Breznitz (1986) related hope to "a fleeting thought or to a description of a cognitive state" (p. 296). As Lopez et al. (2003) would later point out, "Breznitz distinguishes between hope and the work of hoping, with the work of hoping being an active process in which one must be engaged to truly experience the essence of hope" (p. 93).

Snyder's Hope Construct

Originally conceptualized as the opposite of excuse making, the origin of hope theory harkens back to Mehlman and Snyder's (1985) research on how people separated themselves from errors and failures. If there were an explanation for how people excused themselves from

less desirable outcomes (e.g., excuse theory), Snyder (1989) believed there must be an explanation for how people moved closer to optimal or desired outcomes. After a sabbatical dedicated to discussing hope and goals with people, he discovered that the paths to those goals and the drive to follow them consistently surfaced. Snyder would go on to label these components pathways and agency, setting the stage for what we know as hope theory (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b). Since then, Snyder has evolved the hope construct to include roles for both cognition and emotion. Snyder established hope within the realm of positive psychology as a two-dimensional construct comprising goal-oriented agency (i.e., willpower) and pathway thinking (i.e., waypower; Snyder, 1994b; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). Emotions follow cognition under this conceptualization of hope, and anchors change management in a world where desired outcomes are consistently achievable.

More than a decade before hope was presented as a theory within positive psychology, Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) were uncovering the power of hope, noting:

Beyond the fact that higher hope people appear to set more difficult goals (by objective but not phenomenological standards) and that they evidence a more positive, challenge like set as they pursue these goals, the present results indicate that higher hope people are more certain they will attain their goals. (p. 582)

In support of this idea, Snyder and teams developed and validated an individual difference measure of hope, where they offered two formal definitions (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991). The first described hope as "a positive motivational state that is based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals)" (Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991, p. 287). The second definition described hope as, "a cognitive set that is based on a reciprocally-derived sense of

successful agency (goal-directed determination) and pathways (planning to meet goals)"
(Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991, p. 571). These ideas would mature during the next decade, always
centered around the building blocks of goals, willpower, and waypower, leading to the creation
and maturation of Snyder's hope theory (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002).

Snyder's Hope Theory

Hope theory has since defined hope as "the perceived capability to derive pathways to
desired goals, and motivate oneself via agency thinking to use those pathways" (Snyder, 2002, p.
249). The temporal sequence of hopeful thinking, pictured in Figure 2 and moving from left to
right, is broken into three phases: (a) an individual's learning history, (b) the pre-event phase,
and (c) the event sequence phase (Rand & Touza, 2021; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al.,
2002).

Stemming from early childhood, learning history represents the foundation of an
individual's ability to identify paths toward desired goals and motivate oneself to action (Snyder,
1994a, 1994b). With respect to learning history, the success and failure of previous goal pursuits
weigh heavily on the iterative process of hopeful thinking. Snyder (2002) characterized these
feelings as the emotion set, which affect how future goal pursuits are anticipated. All combined,
these concepts represent the individual's mindset prior to any future goal pursuits. Rand and
Touza (2021) expanded on this concept, noting, "High-hope individuals have emotional sets that
routinely contain feelings of confidence and joy; whereas low-hope individuals have emotional
sets that are characterized by passive and negative feelings" (p. 427).

Figure 2

Snyder's Hope Theory
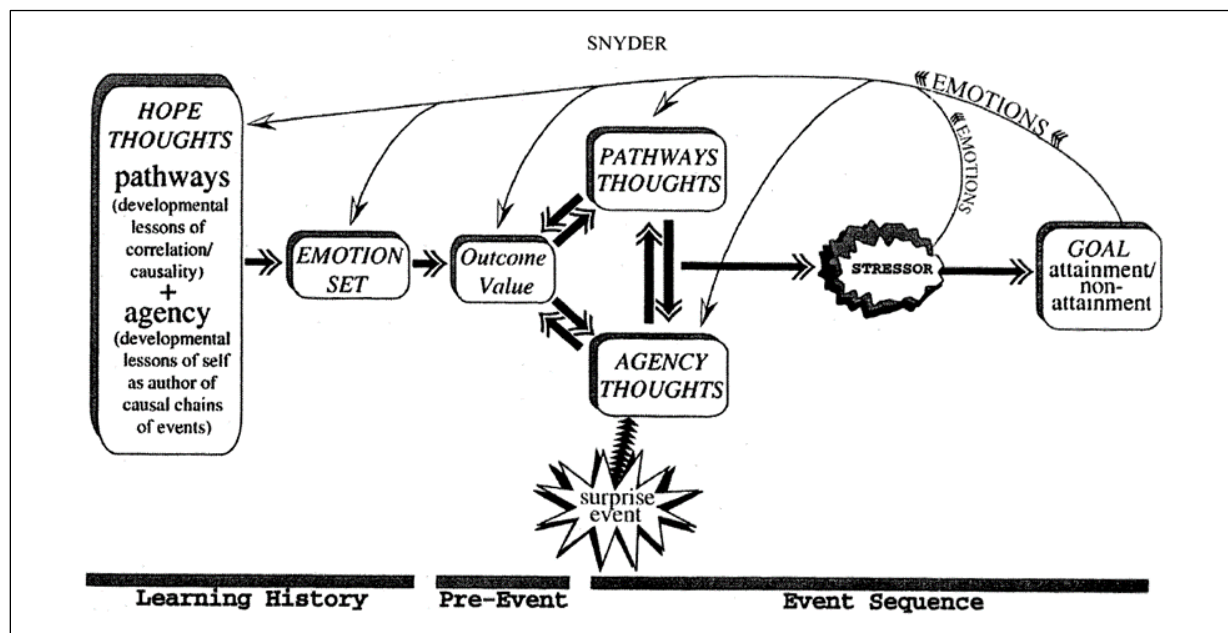
Note. From "Hope theory: Rainbows in the Mind," by C. R. Snyder, 2002, *Psychological Inquiry, 13*(4), p. 254 (https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1304_01). Copyright 2002 by Taylor & Francis Group. Reprinted with permission. (see Appendix A)

In the pre-event phase, where anticipated value of future goals is evaluated, the individual must determine if a desired outcome is even worthy of pursuit. Outcomes that activate the event sequence phase "must have reasonably high importance to necessitate continued mental attention" (Snyder, 2000, p. 12). If an outcome is determined to have enough worth, and the event sequence is activated, an iterative process between the pre-event and event sequence begins. Highlighted by the bidirectional arrows in Figure 2, pathway thoughts and agency within the event sequence constantly influence an individual's appraised outcome value. This suggests context matters, and that the true value of a desired outcome cannot fully be determined until the event sequence is activated (Snyder, 2002). As the process unfolds, this value-check loop may

drive anticipated values to a level whereby continued effort is deemed unnecessary, and the goal pursuit can be stopped. However, if the goal remains of sufficient value, pathway thoughts, agency thoughts, and goal pursuit ensue. Averill et al. (1990) supported the argument that goals must be of sufficient value to occupy conscious thought and went on to elaborate that hope flourishes with intermediate probabilities of goal attainment.

Goals (Attainment or Nonattainment)

Goals anchor Snyder's hope theory, and seemingly pull an individual through the entire process of hoping. For this reason, goals will be discussed first as part of hope theory's event sequence. Evidenced by decades of research, the one thing academics studying the construct of hope seemingly could agree on was that human beings are goal-directed creatures (Cantril, 1964; Erickson et al., 1975; Farber, 1968; Frank, 1968; Frankl, 1963; French, 1952; Gottschalk, 1974; Lewin, 1938; Melges & Bowlby, 1969; Menninger, 1959; Mowrer, 1960a; Schachtel, 1959; Stotland, 1969). Described by Gwinn and Hellman (2022) as the essence of being human, a salient argument can be made that every waking moment in a human being's life is dedicated, in some form or fashion, to goal attainment. This idea is built upon in goal setting theory, which established an underlying assumption that all human actions are both purposeful and intentional, and that goals are the mental targets necessary to guide human behavior (Latham & Locke, 1991; Lee et al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Pervin, 1989).

Binswanger (1990) went on to demonstrate that goal-directed action for all living organisms, not just human beings, demonstrates three specific characteristics: (a) the source of energy required for action is self-generated, (b) the action possesses significant value (i.e., survival), and (c) that the action is caused by a goal. Motivating action essential to life, goals, then, are the targets of cognitive action and provide the conscious intellectual activity that

underpins hope theory to this day (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b, 1998; Snyder et al., 1999; Snyder, Sympson, et al., 2000; Stotland, 1969). Lopez (2013) would later posit, "Hope is built from the goals that matter most to us, that we come back to again and again, and that fill our minds with pictures of the future" (p. 24).

There are two specific goal types addressed within hope theory (see Table 1), those being positive and negative goal outcomes (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). Positive Type 1 goals are in pursuit of something additive, such as: (a) wanting to buy a house, (b) wanting to preserve good health, or (c) wanting to finish a degree. Goals can also reflect wanting to avoid or stop a negative Type 2 outcome before it happens. Avoiding prolonged exposure to sunlight, or consistently wearing sunscreen, both aimed at minimizing the chance of skin cancer, are examples of negative goal outcomes.

Table 1

The Two Major Types of Goals in Hope Theory

Type 1—Positive goal outcome
A. Reaching for the first time
B. Sustaining present goal outcome
C. Increasing that which already has been initiated
Type 2—Negative goal outcome
A. Deterring so that it never appears
B. Deterring so that its appearance is delayed

Note. Adapted from "The two major types of goals in hope theory," by C. R. Snyder, 2002, *Psychological Inquiry, 13*(4), p. 250 (https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1304_01). Copyright 2002 by Taylor & Francis Group.

Pathways Thoughts (Waypower)

Both Craig (1943) and Pinker (1997) posited that a primary purpose of the human brain is to link our present to imagined futures by anticipating causal sequences. It is this purpose that is revealed by a goal or mental target sufficiently valued in a way that activates the hope event sequence. Moreover, it is people's ability to conceptualize time and adjust behavior with a primary purpose of reaching a future goal that underpins pathways thinking (Rand & Touza, 2021). Built on the idea of connecting one's current state with a desired future state over time, pathways thinking, also known as waypower within hope theory, is defined as the mental capacity one calls upon to establish one or more effective pathways to reach a desired goal (Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). Very few have captured the need for pathways thinking more elegantly than de Saint-Exupery (2018), describing a goal without a plan as nothing more than a wish. Snyder (2000) emphasized the importance of pathways thinking by acknowledging that life often presents unforeseen obstacles that do not allow for the simple pursuit of goals. In fact, when faced with barriers, it is often necessary to produce multiple routes toward goal attainment—a key attribute of high-hope minded individuals (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b). Snyder (2002) elaborated:

> Pathways thinking should become increasingly refined and precise as the goal pursuit sequence progresses toward the goal attainment. Differences in this process should appear, however, depending on the trait hope level of the person. That is to say, high-hope people more so than low-hope people should more quicky tailor their routes effectively so as to reach their goals. (p. 251)

Agency Thoughts (Willpower)

Simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways

to reach goals has little value without action. As agents, people must also believe they have the capacity to make or stop things from happening if they are to activate the hope event sequence (Lopez, 2013). Agency, therefore, represents an individual's perception that they can and will motivate themselves in pursuit of a goal (Rand & Touza, 2021; Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). Snyder (2002) defined agency thinking, the motivational component of hope theory often referenced as willpower, as "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (p. 251). Serving as the driving force in hopeful thinking, willpower is what initiates movement, maintains progress, and is often perceived as perseverance in an individual's goal journey (Snyder, 1994b, 2000). Some of the most influential leaders of our time have emphasized the significance of willpower. As Gwinn and Hellman (2022) pointed out:

> Mahatma Gandhi focused on the importance of willpower often. Gandhi said, strength does not come from physical capacity. It comes from an indomitable will. Author Dan Millman put it this way, willpower is the key to success. Successful people strive no matter what they feel by applying their will to overcome apathy, doubt, or fear. (p. 10)

Last, the significance of agency thinking is amplified when individuals encounter barriers between themselves and desired goals. In such instances, agency once again manifests as the motivation component, only this time toward the best alternate pathway in the goal journey (Snyder, 1994b).

Combining Pathways and Agency Thinking

Considered both iterative and additive, it has been posited that waypower increases willpower, which in turn amplifies waypower, and so on through hope theory's event sequence (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). As hope theory's event sequence unfolds, therefore, "The agency and pathways components enhance each other in that they are continually affecting and being

effected by each other" (Snyder, 2000, p. 10). For this reason, Snyder et al. (2002) emphasized that hopeful thinking requires the combination of goal-directed energy and planning to meet goals. Snyder (2002) operationalized various levels of hopeful thinking with this description:

> The full high-hope person (i.e., high pathways and high agency) will have iterative pathway and agentic thought that is fluid and fast throughout the goal pursuit sequence; conversely, the full low-hope person (i.e., low pathways and low agency) will have iterative pathway and agentic thought that is halting and slow (if at all operative) in the goal sequence. (p. 252)

The Role of Emotions

Up to now, Snyder emphasized the cognitive aspects of hope theory. However, highlighted above and visible in Figure 2, hope theory has evolved to include roles for both cognition and emotion. Snyder (2000, 2002), having connected emotions to progress toward personal goal pursuits, emphasized the thinking process within hope theory's event sequence. Accordingly, "The unimpeded pursuit of goals should produce positive emotions, whereas goal barriers may yield negative feelings" (Snyder, 2000, p. 11). It is expected, then, that differing emotional sets manifest in high-hope (i.e., positive emotions) versus low-hope (i.e., negative emotions) individuals when pursuing goals (Snyder, 2002). However, it is important to note that Snyder et al. (1999) paid special care in pointing out that goal-directed agency, and not emotions, underpin future goal-related performance.

Surprise Events and Stressors

As hope theory matured from 2000 to 2002, two outside influences were introduced to hope theory's event sequence: those being surprise events and stressors (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). This development is significant, with the creator of hope theory demonstrating an

openness to meaningful impact from outside forces on a specific individual's goal pursuit journey. Rand and Touza (2021) defined a surprise event as "one that occurs outside the context of an ongoing goal pursuit, and it can be positive (e.g., receiving a call from a long-lost friend) or negative (e.g., finding out the friend lost his home in a hurricane)" (p. 428). Experienced outside of hope theory's normal goal pursuit thought process, surprise events elicit a secondary emotion set related to the context of a specific goal pursuit and can prove additive or dilutive to agency thinking (Snyder, 2002). Snyder (2002) defined stressors as, "any impediment of sufficient magnitude to jeopardize hopeful thought" as the individual progresses through the event sequence (p. 254). It is the combination of perceived success or failure, emotions, surprise events, and stressors that ultimately form a feedback and feed-forward mechanism throughout the temporal sequence.

Measurement and Assessment of Hope

Along with the development and evolution of any theory, hope theory being no exception, valid and reliable individual-difference measures must be developed in a way that accurately reflects the construct's structure (Snyder et al., 2002). Lopez et al. (2003) asked the questions:

> Do you have hope? It is a simple question. If your answer is yes, then how much hope do you have? And do you have enough? If the answer to the initial question is no, then would you describe yourself as hopeless or have you pursued false hope down difficult paths? (p. 91)

Representing many different views throughout the last 50 years, and summarized in Table 2, researchers have attempted to address these questions with a long list of self-reporting and observational measures of hope.

Table 2

Instruments for Measuring Hope (Presented in Chronological Order)

Self-Reporting Measures of Hope

- The Hopelessness Scale (Beck et al., 1974)

- Gottschalk Hope Scale (Gottschalk, 1974)

- The 1975 Hope Scale (Erickson et al., 1975)

- Miller Hope Scale (Miller & Powers, 1988)

- Hope Index (Staats & Stassen, 1985)

- The Expected Balance Scale (Staats, 1989)

- The Hope Index: Measuring Two Sides of Hope (Staats, 1989)

- Herth Hope Scale (Herth, 1991)

- Nowotny Hope Scale (Nowotny, 1991)

- Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991)

- Adult State Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1996)

- Children's Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1997)

- Adult Domain Specific Hope Scale (Sympson, 1999)

Observational Measures of Hope

- Comparing self-ratings to observational ratings (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991)

- Narrative Hope Scale (Vance, 1996)

- Inferring hope level via a person's writing (McDermott & Snyder, 1999; Snyder, 1994b; Snyder et al., 1997)

- Interviewing for Hope (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000)

However, with such a long list of definitions and instruments supported by the academic community, it is easy to see why a multifaceted understanding of the hope construct is both possible and confusing (Lopez et al., 2003). Lopez et al. (2003) went on, stating, "Although some theorists carefully operationalize hope, others rely on vague impressions, further muddying our understanding of the concept. Enigmatic and philosophical definitions do not lend themselves well to either quantitative or qualitative measures of hope" (p. 103). Psychometric qualities, theoretical conceptualization, scale administration, and the age of the population being evaluated should also be factored in when selecting a particular hope scale (Lopez et al., 2003).

For the forementioned reasons, and for this research, diagnostic instruments capable of determining an individual's perceived goal-directed agency and pathways thinking are of the greatest importance. Accordingly, the following instruments were examined for assessing hope in others: (a) Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991), (b) State Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1996), and (c) Adult Domain Specific Hope Scale (Sympson, 1999). However, direct questioning is not always desired or feasible. Therefore, observational measures of hope that include interviewing and narrative approaches aimed at assessing the building blocks of hope theory must also be examined in detail. All combined, the following instruments were used to inform the coding process as part of a narrative inquiry.

Adult Dispositional Hope Scale

Commonly referred to as the Hope scale, and most often labeled the Goals scale when administered, Snyder, Harris, et al.'s (1991) Adult Dispositional Hope scale is a self-reporting instrument designed to measure dispositional hope in adults ages 15 and older (see Appendix B). Requiring about 2 to 5 minutes for completion, this 12-item inventory is simple to administer and can be hand scored in less than 2 minutes (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000). Rose and Sieben (2018)

referred to the Adult Dispositional Hope scale as psychometrically strong with high validities and reliabilities, highlighting Snyder, Harris, et al.'s (1991) original research samples demonstrated Cronbach alphas ranging from .74 to .84 and test-retest reliabilities of .80 or higher throughout periods exceeding 10 weeks. Confirmed to fit well across genders and ethnicities (Roesch & Vaughn, 2006), this two-factor model of hope "has been corroborated via principal components exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis" (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000, p. 59).

Adult State Hope Scale

Administered as the Goals scale for the present, and designed to assess goal-directed thinking at a specific moment in time, Snyder et al.'s (1996) Adult State Hope scale is a self-reporting instrument used to study how state hope (here and now) is related to ongoing goal pursuits in the realms of sports, work, and relationships (see Appendix C; Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000). Rose and Sieben (2018) compared dispositional to state hope, noting, "Dispositional hope appears to be more focused on the distal goals that remain further out on the horizon of an individual's goal pursuit, while state hope pertains to the proximal goals that one is more immediately pursuing" (p. 85). Snyder et al. (1996) reported Cronbach alphas for the six-item instrument ranged from a low 0.82 to a high of 0.95, demonstrating strong support for internal reliability. Test-retest correlations ranged from 0.48 to 0.93, which Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000) pointed out, "should vary because of the differing situations in which the State Hope Scale is taken…comparing any two days across a four-week study (e.g., days 1 and 30 or days 29 and 30)" (p. 68.). Snyder et al. (1996) also reported the State Hope scale and the Dispositional Hope scale have a correlation of 0.79, suggesting that while an individual's State Hope scale score will most certainly shift at any specific moment in time, it should fluctuate around the mean level of

their Dispositional Hope score.

Adult Domain Specific Hope Scale

Although Snyder's original construct of hope was theorized to cover all of life's domains, Sympson (1999) hypothesized an examination of domain-specific hope was necessary. With a better understanding of both how a person prioritizes life arenas and their domain-specific hope level, targeted interventions of higher value may be realized (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000; Sympson, 1999). This led to the development of the Domain Specific Hope scale (see Appendix D), a 48-item instrument measuring agency and pathways specific to six life arenas that include: (a) social relationships, (b) academics, (c) romantic relationship, (d) family life, (e) work, and (f) leisure activities (Sympson, 1999). After rating the importance of and satisfaction in each of these life arenas on a Likert scale from 0 to 100, domain specific items are then evaluated on an 8-point Likert scale (1 = *definitely false* to 8 = *definitely true*).

Observational Measures of Hope

There are times when self-reporting is either not desired, impractical, or not possible. In these instances, modified versions of the various hope scales may be used to analyze individuals through observational means, with moderate correspondence between self-ratings and observational ratings especially present when the researcher knows the participant well (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). In support of this approach, Lopez et al. (2003) stated, "Observing hope in action may be one of the most meaningful ways to determine if individuals have the intangible qualities that connect them to their goals, and this can be accomplished with some reliability" (p. 99). A comprehensive list of questions pertaining to the building blocks of hope, presented in Appendix E, were subsequently developed for both interview and observational means to help guide the researcher through the process of identifying existing levels of hope in others (Lopez,

Ciarlelli, et al., 2000). Snyder (1994b) also stressed that people consistently reveal their own levels of hope in both written and spoken word, noting that one's "diary, letters, poems, telephone conversations, as well as almost any written or audiotaped format wherein you have disclosed information about yourself may serve as a naturalistic index of hope" (p. 72).

When observing for hope, the researcher is specifically looking for instances where a goal is described and then gauging the quality of willpower and waypower present through the goal journey (Snyder, 1994b). The researcher also wants to be cognizant of any barriers that emerge along the way, paying close attention to how the individual responds to unforeseen obstacles (McDermott & Snyder, 1999). Vance (1996) would build on these ideas, developing the Narrative Hope Scale in her dissertation work at the University of Kansas. While further validation of her work is needed, Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000) encouraged cautious use of this approach from clinicians and researchers alike, highlighting the unobtrusive nature of narrative to determine hope both now and throughout history. A summary of characteristics for often-used hope measures used in this research is presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Characteristics of Hope Scales

Name of hope index	Target age	Number of items	Administration time (minutes)	Internal Reliability	Construct Validation
Dispositional Hope Scale	15–100	12	2–5	0.74–0.84	Excellent
State Hope Scale	15–100	6	2–5	0.82–0.95	Strong
Domain Specific Hope Scale	15–100	48	7–15	0.93	Strong

Name of hope index	Target age	Number of items	Administration time (minutes)	Internal Reliability	Construct Validation
Hope Scale—Observer	15–100	8	2–5	—	—

Note. — indicates that data regarding psychometric properties are not available because the reliability and validity of these measures have not been rigorously examined. Adapted from "Diagnosing for strengths: On measuring hope building blocks," by S. J. Lopez, R. Ciarlelli, L. Coffman, M. Stone, and L. Wyatt, in C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Handbook of hope: Theories, Measures, and Applications* (p. 73), 2000, Academic Press. Copyright 2000 by Academic Press.

Key Relationships

The creators of hope theory understood its strong resemblance to select other theories throughout the realm of positive psychology and were, therefore, intentional about highlighting key characteristics that ensured discriminate validity (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). Highlighted in Table 4, the comparison includes: (a) hope, (b) two theories of optimism, (c) self-efficacy, (d) self-esteem, (e) and problem-solving.

Table 4

Hope Theory Compared With Other Positive Psychology Theories

Operative Process	Hope	Optimism: Seligman	Optimism: Scheier and Carver	Self-Efficacy	Self-Esteem	Problem-Solving
Attributions		xxx				
Outcome value	xx	x	xx	xx	x	x
Goal-related thinking	xxx	x	xx	xxx	x	xxx

Operative Process	Hope	Optimism: Seligman	Optimism: Scheier and Carver	Self-Efficacy	Self-Esteem	Problem-Solving
Perceived capacities for agency-related thinking	xxx		xxx	xxx		
Perceived capacities for pathways-related thinking	xx		x	xx		xxx
Emotions	xx	x	x	x	xxx	x

Note. Adapted from "Implicit and explicit operative processes and their respective emphases in hope theory as compared to selected positive psychology theories," by C. R. Snyder, 2002, *Psychological Inquiry, 13*(4), p. 257 (https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1304_01). Copyright 2002 by Taylor & Francis Group.

x Operative process is implicit part of model.

xx Operative process is explicit part of model.

xxx Operative process is explicit and emphasized in model.

Thus, interpret more plus signs (none to *x* to xx *to xxx*) as signifying greater emphasis attached to the given operative process within a particular theory.

Seligman's (1991) optimism emphasized an individual's attempt to distance themselves from past negative outcomes, where hope theory maintained a positive orientation toward reaching a desirable and goal-related future state (Snyder, 2002). Scheier and Carver's (1985)

theory of optimism accounted for both pathways thinking and goal-directed agency; however, their model emphasized agency-like thought. Hope theory, on the other hand, gives equal weight to pathways thinking and goal-directed agency, as well as emphasizing the iterative nature of both throughout a goal journey (Snyder, 2002). While Bandura's (1982, 1997) self-efficacy theory is perhaps most closely related to hope theory, its emphasis is on situation-specific goals, whereas Snyder's (2002) hope theory "emphasizes goals, but they may be enduring, cross-situational, situational goal-directed thoughts, or all three. In self-efficacy theorizing, people are hypothesized to analyze the contingencies in a specific goal attainment situation" (p. 257). Self-esteem, while anchored to the underlying pursuit of goals, is described as an interpreted mood that results from personal judgements of worthiness (Coopersmith, 1967; Hewitt, 1998; Wells & Marwell, 1976; Wylie, 1974, 1979). In this sense, hope theory is revealed as a driver and predictor of self-esteem during the pursuit of underlying goals (Snyder et al., 1996). Finally, while problem-solving theory requires a desired goal and problem-solving that resembles pathways thinking (D'Zurilla, 1986; Heppner & Hillerbrand, 1991), hope theory activates agentic thinking and emphasizes its importance for understanding and promoting change (Snyder, 2000).

Applications of Hope Theory (Predicting Positive Outcomes)

Before the formal creation of hope theory, Curry et al. (1997) were already exploring hope's relationship to academics and athletics, determining that high-hope athletes were more likely to succeed during stress-filled competitions than their low-hope counterparts. Shortly thereafter, Snyder et al. (1999) would establish a reliable correlation between hope and superior academic performance throughout grade school, high school, and university. Their work indicated that high-hope thinking related directly with higher test scores, higher overall grade

point averages, and in at least one case accurately predicted the final grades of college students (Snyder et al., 1999). This would be corroborated more than a decade later by multiple studies (Day et al., 2010; Dixson et al., 2018; Rand et al., 2020).

Physical health has also been examined through the lens of hope, where it was established that high-hope thinking plays an important role in the prevention of and response to physical illness (Duncan et al., 2021; Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2000). Kwon (2002) explored the correlation between hope and mental health, concluding hope is related to better overall psychological adjustment. Hope has even been connected to large-scale applications of mental health and the ability to protect large segments of society from frustration, despair, and aggressive action by enacting laws that allow for pursuit of goal-directed activities by the largest number of people (Snyder, 1994b; Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2000). Merolla (2017) even found hopeful thinking to play an additive role in the conflict resolution process of romantic relationships.

The connection of hope with favorable outcomes transfers to organizational leadership as well. Norman et al. (2005) proffered, "Hope is a strength that has many important implications for today's embattled organizations—both in terms of effective leadership and employee retention and performance" (p. 55). A strong connection between hope and organizational resiliency would eventually be made, which the authors concluded leads to higher levels of operational success (Norman et al., 2005). Youssef and Luthans (2007) were successful in establishing a link between hope and productive organizational behavior, which promoted favorable workplace outcomes, increased job satisfaction, happiness at work, and most importantly, organizational engagement. Kahn (1990) described employee engagement as the process of people presenting and absenting themselves during task performance, noting

specifically that engaged employees better understand expectations, form strong interpersonal relationships, and experience meaning in their daily work.

Developing and Inhibiting Hope

With the connection of hopeful thinking and positive outcomes well established, and specific to the domains of leadership and change management, it is critical to understand whether high-hopers are born with these traits or if hope can be manufactured. Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) asked the question, "Do low-hope people profit by particular interventions that are aimed at agency and pathways? More generally, what are the interactions between the dispositional variable of hope and the situational variable of treatment?" (p. 583). In simpler terms, are there interventions that develop or inhibit hope? Snyder (2002) would later answer this question, and while he acknowledged that people in general possess varying levels of hope, he was also quick to point out that "hope is learned," and emphasized that "we learn hopeful, goal-directed thinking in the context of other people" (p. 263).

Counter to the belief that hope is learned was Maier and Seligman's (1976) theory of learned helplessness, which argued, "When events are uncontrollable, the organism learns that its behavior and outcomes are independent and that this learning produces the motivational, cognitive, and emotional effects of uncontrollability" (p. 3). The theory posited that as animals learned nothing they did mattered, an expectation would emerge that nothing they do in the future matters either (Seligman, 2018). The net effect of this phenomenon was learned helplessness. It would be 50 years before neuroscience turned this theory on end, revealing that helplessness was not learned; however, control was, and therefore hope (Maier & Seligman, 2016; Seligman, 2018).

In what would eventually be dubbed the hope circuit of the brain, Maier and Seligman

(2016) later discovered that the "prelimbic region of the ventromedial prefrontal cortex is involved in two separate functions—the detection of control in a circuit with the dorsal medial striatum and then acting to inhibit the dorsal raphe nucleus" (p. 357). This discovery does not suggest that animals are born helpless. Rather, prolonged exposure to negative experiences reveals a genetic response to sustain energy and ultimately survive that manifests as helplessness (Seligman, 2018). Seligman (2018) elaborated, "This meant that helplessness is not learned; it is some kind of mammalian default response to bad things" (p. 373).

These findings would eventually substantiate Snyder's (2002) belief that hope is learned and that there are pathways for defeating helplessness (Maier & Seligman, 2016). What triggers the hope circuit is perceived control, which causes the brain to "react to bad events as if they are escapable, thereby prolonging trying. This is why expert athletes, soldiers, and pilots are calm under pressure. Their brains detect and expect control when others panic and freeze" (Seligman, 2018, p. 375). Maier and Seligman (2016) even suggested that perceived control was enduring, transituational, and immunized subjects from passive and anxious feelings in the face of stressors. Therefore, today's neuroscience suggests that hope can, in fact, be created by introducing the perception of control (Maier & Seligman, 2016; Seligman, 2018).

Luthans and Jensen (2002) went on to operationalize the work of Snyder and others by offering human resource development teams seven specific guidelines for developing hope as part of their leadership development activities:

> The guidelines include, (a) Clarify and form organizational and personal goals that are specific and challenging. Inclusion of numbers, percentages, and target dates will help in goal specificity, and forming difficult (not impossible) stretch goals will help make these goals challenging; (b) Use what Snyder called a stepping method to break the goals down

into manageable sub steps that will mark progress and enable at least small wins and success; (c) Develop at least one (preferably more) alternative or contingency pathway(s) to the goal with an accompanying action plan. Put as much thinking and effort into developing pathways and action plans for the goal as went into setting the goal; (d) Acknowledge the enjoyment in the process of working toward goals, and do not focus solely on the final attainment; (e) Be prepared and willing to persist when obstacles and problems are met. Proactively formulating the pathways will help frame the realization that obstacles may appear and help spur subsequent persistence as problems do emerge; (f) Be prepared and skillful in knowing when and which alternative pathways to choose when the original route to goal accomplishment is no longer feasible or productive. What if and scenario planning and training can help to build such skills; (g) Be prepared and skilled in knowing when and how to regoal to avoid the trap of false hope. The manager and/or the empowered employee must know when persistence toward a goal is not feasible, regardless of the chosen pathway(s). If absolute blockage to the original goal exists, then the hopeful manager and/or empowered employee must recognize when and how to alter or change the goal. Rehearsals and experiential training can strengthen this re-goaling insight and skill. (p. 315)

Ten years later, Feldman and Dreher (2012) tested the impact of these ideas in a 11/2-hour intervention, trying to understand the possibility of quickly and successfully raising levels of hopeful thinking in college students using similar concepts to those above. In their research, a four-part intervention included: (a) crystalizing a personal goal, (b) a brief education on the building blocks of hope, (c) a goal mapping exercise using the building blocks of hope, and (d) a visualization exercise to foster hope (Feldman & Dreher, 2012). In the goal mapping exercise,

students would engage in hope-based planning by simply writing three different paths they might take to achieve their goal, identify potential obstacles along each path, potential paths around those obstacles, and strategies for maintaining agency along the goal pursuit journey (Feldman & Dreher, 2012). Using prompts, the final visualization step asked students to imagine their goal pursuit experience all the way through accomplishment using as many senses as possible in a way that allows them to feel positive emotion and increased agency (Feldman & Dreher, 2012). Feldman and Dreher (2012) were able to demonstrate that a single 90-minute intervention can increase an individual's level of hope.

It has been established that hopeful thought can be created, and, therefore, can also be destroyed. Environments that lack boundaries, consistency, and support are at risk of diminished hopeful thinking (Snyder, 2002). Neglect, physical abuse, the loss of a job, traumatic events, or the loss of a loved one are all silent killers of hopeful thinking (Snyder, 2002). Rodriguez-Hanley and Snyder (2000) distinguished the psychological stages a person will move through when goal-directed thinking is impeded (see Figure 3), from hope to: (a) rage, where agency remains high but reactions are often misguided, impulsive, and self-defeating; (b) despair, characterized by an overwhelming sense of futility despite remaining focused on the goal; and (c) apathy, where the person lacks interest or concern for matters of general importance and appeal. As Rodriguez-Hanley and Snyder (2000) described it, "Persons become apathetic when they acknowledge defeat and cease all goal pursuits" (p. 42); and went on to describe apathy as "a tragedy in the sense that the person loses a sense of joy, as well as any possibility of potential contributions to others and society more generally" (p. 42).

Figure 3

The Psychological Stages of Losing Hopeful Thinking
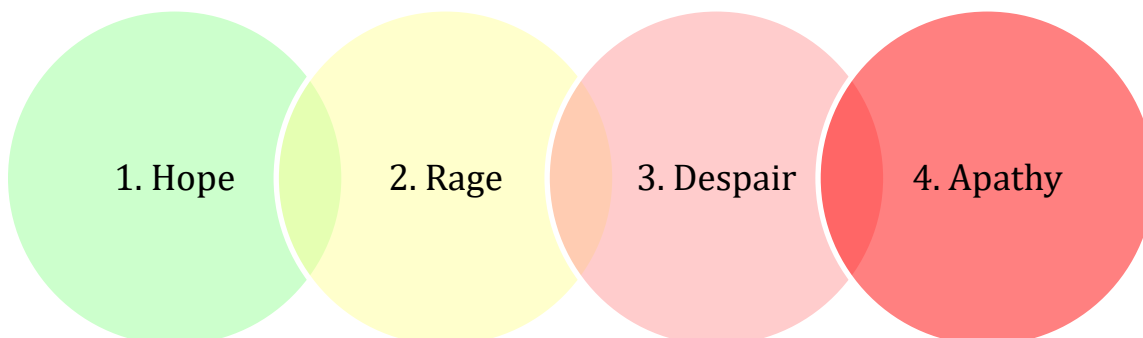
Note. Adapted from "The demise of hope: On losing positive thinking," by A. Rodriguez-Hanley and C. R. Snyder, in C. R. Snyder (Ed.), *Handbook of hope: Theories, Measures, and Applications* (p. 41), 2000, Academic Press. Copyright 2000 by Academic Press.

Measuring Hope Across Cultures

Hope has been examined through a variety of societal and institutional lenses, including: (a) acculturation, (b) language, (c) ethnicity, (d) economics, (e) age, (f) gender, and (g) religion, revealing hope as a truly global phenomenon (Lopez et al., 2003; Lopez, Gariglietti, et al., 2000; McDermott & Snyder, 1999). Rose and Sieben (2018) bolstered this claim, noting "Extensive research has supported the validity and reliability of hope measurement across genders, ethnicities, adults and children, and differing life domains" (p. 90). Cross-cultural interest has led to the Hope scale being translated into at least nine different languages spanning three different continents (Lopez, Gariglietti, et al., 2000). While Lopez et al. (2003) were quick to warn against the risks of assuming hope looks and behaves identically across cultures, they also pointed out, "As suggested by historical writing and anthropological accounts, hope is a universal construct— all people during all times have valued the role hope plays in their lives" (p. 100). Underpinned by this belief, cross-cultural hope research includes hope, language, and academic adjustment of

Mexican immigrants; the hope, faith, and identity of Jewish children and African Americans; and the hope and risk-taking behaviors of gay men to name a few; "providing evidence that people, irrespective of ethnicity, religion, and sexual orientation, can tap into their hopeful reserve to facilitate adjustment, growth, and self-care" (Lopez, Gariglietti, et al., 2000, p. 234).

The Challenges With False Hope

While introducing hope theory, Snyder (2002) was sure to warn of the perils of false hope, stating, "Over-zealous conclusions not only represent bad science, but they can quickly undermine the credibility of what has come to be called positive psychology" (p. 264). He went on to discuss three drivers of false hope that manifest as criticism of hope theory and must be actively managed. There is: (a) false hope that results from out-of-touch illusions, (b) false hope that results from poorly chosen goals (e.g., too big, maladaptive, or generally bad), and (c) false hope that results from bad planning (Snyder, 2002). Any of these conditions render hope less virtuous and may reflect problematic thinking.

Connecting Hope Theory and Leadership

Seligman (2002) linked positive psychology to the future through hope by explaining, "The field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about positive subjective experience: well-being and satisfaction (past); flow, joy, the sensual pleasures, and happiness (present); and constructive cognition about the future—optimism, hope, and faith" (p. 3). In this sense, hope is our connection with a brighter tomorrow. Snyder (1994b) expanded on this connection, describing hope as a life-sustaining force rooted in our relationship with the future. It is this relationship with the future that offered the final linkage of hope and leadership. While describing the five best practices of exemplary leadership, Kouzes and Posner (2017) would formally connect leadership with the future, and, therefore, hope, when they posited, "The

domain of leaders is the future. The work of leaders is change" (p. xiv).

This linkage between hope and leadership has not been lost on academia either. Several scholars have used dimensions of positive psychology, including hope theory, to underpin their work on leadership and adjacent subjects. Examples include Youssef and Luthans (2007), who studied the impact of hope in their examination of positive organizational behavior. Luthans (2002) described this type of research as, "the study and application of positively oriented human resource strengths and psychological capacities that can be measured, developed, and effectively managed for performance improvement in today's workplace" (p. 59). As part of their study, Youssef and Luthans (2007) proposed that the positivity of a hopeful leader, "is likely to contribute not only to higher job performance in his or her new role but also to more satisfaction, greater work happiness, and higher organizational commitment" (p. 783). In another study, one specifically referencing goal orientation from hope theory, the broaden-and-build theory of Fredrickson (2001, 2003) looked at thought-action repertoires and problem-solving techniques that improve performance and well-being at work. In a complementary field formally referred to as positive organizational scholarship, the study of positive outcomes, processes, and attributes of organizations and their members would use positive psychology in their research as well (Cameron & Caza, 2003; Cameron et al., 2004).

More direct scholarly connections between hope and leadership have also been made. Luthans and Avolio (2003) used the combination of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and positive psychological practices in their authentic leadership development model. Luthans and Avolio (2003) would go on to define authentic leadership in organizations as:

> A process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated

positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development. The authentic leader is confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical, future-oriented, and gives priority to developing associates to be leaders. (p. 243)

In her work on education leadership, Herth (2007) discussed the importance of understanding hope and its ability to inspire and influence change. She went on to outline her view of leadership from a hope paradigm, which involves a mindset that: (a) strengthens the hoping self, (b) minimizes hope inhibitors, and (c) creates a vision of hope in others (Herth, 2007); she would later call for additional research on both the impact of hopeful leadership and methods for developing hopeful thinking in others. Finally, in their literature review of hope and existing theories, Helland and Winston (2005) identified four processes effective leaders can employ to influence positively and motivate followers, which are: (a) understanding the value followers place on a specific goal pursuit and their expectations related to both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, (b) establishing a common vision and inspiring pursuit in a way that satisfies both individual and organizational needs, (c) activating agency through goal setting in a way that clearly establishes value and attainability, and (d) establishing commitment to a goal journey by means of providing the necessary support and resources necessary for goal attainment. To conclude their review, Helland and Winston (2005) also recommended future theory-based research that integrates hope theory and leadership, noting the importance of specific focus on the behaviors exhibited by hopeful leaders that impact organizational members and valued organizational outcomes.

While the connection of hope and leadership is evident throughout the literature, there is scant research linking the amplified effect of hope, leadership, and change. Few theories within

the lexicon of leadership focus so heavily on change as transformational leadership, which seeks to balance emotions and values with long-term goals; linking the roles of leadership and followership in a way that taps into the motives and goals of both (Bass, 1985). Bass and Avolio (1994) laid out five general lessons for connecting leadership and change: (a) successful change is most often initiated by transformational top-level leaders who anchor their efforts with a clear vision of the future; (b) change is underpinned with effective training, organizational structure, and effective rewards and recognition; (c) common assumptions were consistently brought into question; (d) the quality and sustainability of change was prioritized over the speed of change; and (e) human capital systems were viewed as mission critical for the change effort. By applying these lessons, transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) was included in the theoretical framework of this study and employed as the primary method for defining and identifying leaders who were involved with this research.

Introduction to Transformational Leadership Theory

Motivating followers to exceed even their own expectations, transformational leadership inspires commitment to a goal, the team, and higher-level needs (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leadership, emphasizing that these leaders not only motivate their followers to achieve objectives but also help them grow into capable leaders. Aimed at helping followers realize their full potential, there are four specific factors attributed to transformational leadership: (a) idealized influence, serving as a moral and ethical role model; (b) inspirational motivation, setting high expectations and inspiring team pursuit; (c) intellectual stimulation, making space for creativity and innovation; and (d) individualized consideration, considering follower needs and wants (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994). Each of these factors should be considered

individually.

Idealized Influence

First and foremost, a transformational leader's behavior must serve as the gold standard

for those they seek to lead (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass (1985) related the idea of

idealized influence directly with organizational culture, which consists of "its core values, its

basic philosophies, and its technical, financial, and humanistic concerns" (p. 24). Schein's (2017)

examination of culture supports this idea, defining the culture of a group as,

> the accumulated shared learning of that group as it solves its problems of external
>
> adaptation and internal integration; which has worked well enough to be considered valid
>
> and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, feel,
>
> and behave in relation to those problems. (p. 6)

Moreover, these building blocks of culture are present in the artifacts (e.g., buildings and

processes), espoused values (e.g., mission, vision, and core values), and general assumptions for

the way work simply gets done in any organization (Schein, 2017). With values clarified and

confirmed, leaders can create congruency and set a desired example of behavior by aligning their

actions and values in what Kouzes and Posner (2017) described as modeling the way. Through

the process of roll modeling, respect is established, trust can flourish, and most important,

followers identify with and want to emulate their leaders (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass &

Avolio, 1994; Kouzes & Posner, 2017; Schein, 2017). Using idealized influence, leaders

establish themselves as both moral and ethical, as people who are willing to share risk, and as

people who can be counted on to do the right things (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Inspirational Motivation

Through the lens of transformational leadership, inspiration is born of meaning and

challenge within the work that needs to be done (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Leaders, therefore, must behave in ways that inspire a shared vision for the future and motivate their followers through both words and action (Avolio, 1999). Kouzes and Posner (2017) took this idea two steps further: first, through shared aspirations and the pursuit of common vision, and second, through reward and recognition best practices referred to as encouraging the heart. Bass (1985) provided several examples of inspirational leadership: (a) instilling pride in others, (b) building morale through pep talks when a group is discouraged, (c) using personal behavior to set expectations, (d) providing personal encouragement to build confidence in followers, and (e) complimenting a job well done. By clearly communicating goals, establishing organizational commitment to those goals, and aligning the goals with a shared vision for the future, a transformational leader provides inspirational motivation to their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Intellectual Stimulation

As Bass (1985) once stated, "Transformational leaders stimulate extra effort among their followers" and went on to describe that they "evoke such heightened effort by means of their intellectual stimulation" (p. 98). Bass (1985) related intellectual stimulation to the transformational leader by explaining, "we mean the arousal and change in followers of problem awareness and problem solving, of thought and imagination, and of beliefs and values, rather than arousal and change in immediate action" (p. 99). Expanding on this idea with greater detail, Bass and Avolio (1994) later described intellectual stimulation as when "Transformational leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways" (p. 3). Kouzes and Posner (2017) referred to this as challenging the process and described the phenomenon as a

two-pronged approach that looks outward for innovative and creative ways to improve, and then learns through experience via risk taking and experimentation. Key to intellectual stimulation is the leader's ability to create an environment of psychological safety (Schein, 2017). This requires that leaders focus on the what in problems rather than the who, and refrain from public criticism when individuals make a mistake (Avolio, 1999). If the transformational leader is successful in this regard, "Nothing is too good, too fixed, too political, or too bureaucratic that it can't be challenged, changed, retired, and/or abandoned" (Avolio, 1999, p. 46).

Individual Consideration

The final behavior a transformational leader must adopt when seeking superior results is to consider and value individual needs along the change journey (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Acting as a coach and mentor, expressions of individualized consideration range from appreciation for a job well done to constructive criticism, from unique ways of leveraging talent to assigning special projects, or by creating and supporting means of opportunistic learning (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Bass (1985) posited that individualized consideration is featured in the process of one-on-one consultation, whereby "each subordinate is asked to discuss his concerns and expectations about his own job, his superior's job, and their working relationship. Then the superior shares some of his expectations about his own job, his subordinate's job, and their relationship" (p. 83). This type of leadership is also evident in the practices of management by walking around and active listening, whereby the leader interacts with followers on a personal level in their place of work while signaling awareness and appreciation for the whole person (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994).

It is this leader-member exchange that results in a reciprocal understanding of what success looks like, and clearly demonstrates an acceptance of individual differences in terms of

needs and desires (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994). Kouzes and Posner (2017) referred to this practice as enabling others to act, a process where the leader fosters collaboration, builds trust, and facilitates relationship building. This practice also strengthens the leader's follower base by increasing self-determination and developing competence (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). Bass (1985) stated that, through individualized consideration, the leader "increases confidence, and fulfills some of the follower's need to know," Bass went on, highlighting, "Such contact is expected to enhance the follower's self-image, desire for information, fulfillment of needs that are very special or unique to that follower, and the follower's sense of some ownership of decisions of consequence to him" (p. 97).

The Intersection of Hope and Transformational Leadership

Luthans and Avolio (2003) asserted, "The force multiplier throughout history has often been attributed to the leader's ability to generate hope" (p. 253). To understand better how leaders generate hope, and more important, use hopeful leadership to advance positive organizational change, the narratives of leaders are examined in this study. The question becomes: Which leaders should be examined? To ensure the narratives selected lead to valid and reliable results through the lens of effective change, Bass and Avolio's (1994) five general lessons for connecting leadership and change were used in the sample selection process via the following questions: (a) Was successful change initiated by a transformational top-level leader who anchored their efforts with a clear vision of the future?; (b) Was the change effort underpinned with effective training, organizational structure, and effective rewards and recognition?; (c) Were common assumptions consistently brought into question?; (d) Was the quality and sustainability of change prioritized over the speed of change?; and (e) Were human capital systems viewed as mission critical for the change effort? In addition, were any or all of

transformational leadership's building blocks present in the leader's story?—those being: (a) idealized influence, serving as a moral and ethical role model; (b) inspirational motivation, setting high expectations and inspiring team pursuit; (c) intellectual stimulation, making space for creativity and innovation; and (d) individualized consideration, considering follower needs and wants (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994).

Connecting Hope Theory and Organizational Change

What underpins hope is the fundamental belief in a brighter tomorrow and an awareness that change is both possible and right. Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000), some of Snyder's earliest collaborators in the development of hope theory, boldly stated, "From a clinician's perspective, hope is the stuff that facilitates change" (p. 58). Moreover, their confidence is merit based. Goal-directed agency and pathways thinking repeatedly play meaningful roles in renowned works on leading through change from scholars such as: (a) Bridges and Bridges (2016), (b) Heath and Heath (2010), (c) Kotter (2006), (d) Lewin (1947b), (e) Meadows (2008), (f) Schein (2017), (g) Senge (2006), and (h) Weick (1995).

In their seminal work on managing transitions, for example, Bridges and Bridges (2016) discussed both the responsibility and tasks of a leader as they relate to organizational change management. They described the two primary tasks of change leadership as first, driving the collaborative development of goals, and second, of serving as a constant reminder for both what success looks like and why its important (Bridges & Bridges, 2016). More important, they prioritized the responsibility of a leader over their change-related tasks, emphasizing the significance of leading people through change as mission critical. Throughout their work, Bridges and Bridges (2016) returned to ideas easily mapped to the building blocks of hope (e.g., goals, willpower, and waypower), and summarized their thoughts as follows:

The single biggest reason organizational changes fail is because no one has thought about

endings or planned to manage their impact on people. Naturally concerned about the

future, planners and implementers all too often forget that people have to let go of the

present first. They forget that while the first task of change management is to understand

the desired outcome and how to get there, the first task of transition management is to

convince people to leave home. You'll save yourself a lot of grief if you remember that.

(p. 42)

Additional examples include Kotter (2012), who addressed goal-directed agency,

barriers, and pathways thinking when he stated that change leadership "defines what the future

should look like, aligns people with that vision, and inspires them to make it happen despite the

obstacles" (p. 28). Heath and Heath (2010) referred to hope as the fuel for change (i.e., agency),

and described hope as "precious to a change effort" (p. 141). Weick (1995) spoke to the demise

of hope, specifically citing rage, while developing his thoughts on emotional responses to

interrupted event sequences (i.e., barriers). Finally, Lewin (1936), more than a decade before

introducing his innovative three-step model for change, was leveraging the building blocks of

hope while attempting to measure a person's willpower and its relationship to individual needs,

purpose, and goals. Lewin's (1947a) model, it would seem, was unknowingly connecting hope

and change a full 55 years prior to Snyder's (2002) current version of hope theory.

Fast forward to the present, and organizational scholars such as Schein (2017) and

Crosby (2021) continue to recommend Lewin's (1947b) approach to change management,

referencing it as best practice and comprising three complex yet practical steps: (a) unfreezing,

(b) changing behavior, and (c) refreezing. Even Kotter's (2006) widely adopted eight-step model

can be mapped seamlessly to Lewin's original work. Foundational to ongoing research in change

management, Lewin's model was chosen for this study because of its elegant combination of simplicity and effectiveness.

Introduction to Lewin's Three-Step Change Model

Lewin (1947a, 1947b), while focused on group dynamics, introduced the idea of constantly competing forces simultaneously driving change and maintaining the status quo in his groundbreaking work on the quasistationary equilibrium of human systems. Born of Lewin's research was the original three-step model for change. Often attacked for being too simple, the nine principles of planned change that underpin Lewin's work have set the standard in change management for decades (Crosby, 2021), those being:

(a) Scientific Methods, (b) Training—Action—Research, (c) Group Dynamics, (d) Democratic Principles and Leadership, (e) Group Decision, (f) Change as Three Steps, (g) Field Theory, (h) Social Construction of Reality, and (i) Everlasting Change for the Betterment of Humanity. (p. 3)

These principles serve as foundational elements to future research, noting specifically: (a) Lewin's theory development incorporated rigorously applied scientific methods that can be clearly described, (b) Lewin's "training-action-research triangle" sets the stage for research and future interventions, (c) global integration builds off of Lewin's focus around group versus individual dynamics, (d) navigating change as three steps using the field approach offers a complex yet practical mental model, and (e) Lewin's worldview included the social construction of reality, which is essential because "leveraging group dynamics opens a doorway for influencing individuals at the level of values and beliefs" (Crosby, 2021, p. 9). For these reasons, this research measured a hopeful change leader's ability to advance positively organizational change using Lewin's (1947a) three-step model comprising: (a) unfreezing, where the change

leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity; (b) changing behavior, where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c) refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

Lewin's Three-Step Model for Change
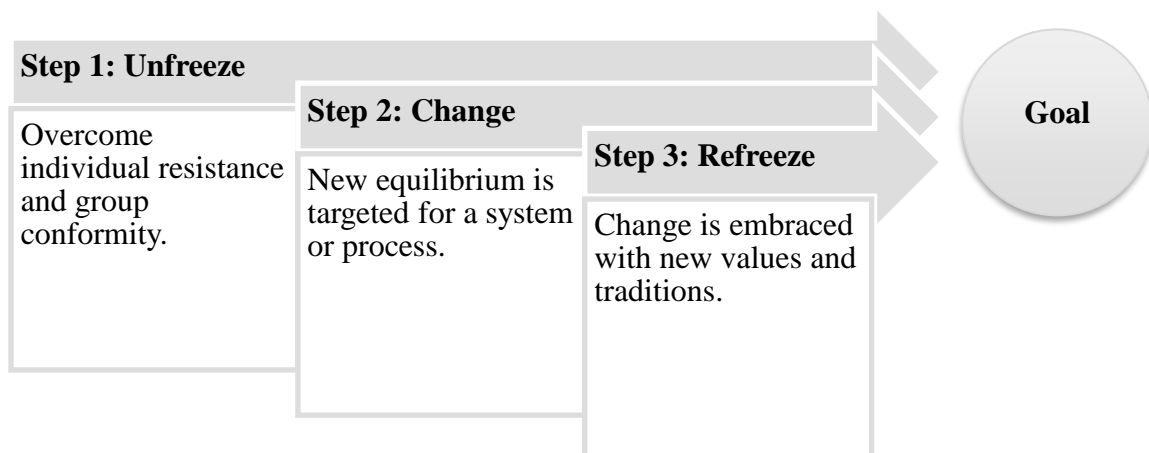
Step-1: Unfreezing

Unfreezing is where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity. Lewin (1947a, 1947b) introduced the idea of competing forces constantly driving change and maintaining the status quo (i.e., resistance) in his groundbreaking work on the quasistationary equilibrium of human systems. As Burnes (2004b) described Lewin's belief about change and human systems, Lewin "argued that the equilibrium needs to be destabilized (unfrozen) before old behaviors can be discarded (unlearnt) and new behavior successfully adopted" (p. 985). Inherent in this idea is the notion of resistance.

Only a year later, Coch and French (1948) expanded on Lewin's work, presenting a preliminary theory that "resistance to change is a combination of an individual reaction to frustration with strong group-induced forces" (p. 520). To understand better behavior, they conducted a study with two purposes: (a) to determine why people resist change so strongly, and

(b) to understand better what can be done to overcome this resistance (Coch & French, 1948).

More contemporary thinkers use the term *resistance to change* "as an explanation for why efforts to induce large-scale changes in technology, production methods, management practices, or compensation systems fall short of expectations, or fail altogether" (Oreg, 2006, p. 73). There are even theorists such as Dent and Goldberg (1999), who felt the notion of resistance to change, rather than potential consequences of change such as losing one's job, misclassified underling problems that result in failed change efforts.

In an attempt to capture how those effected feel, think, and respond to change, Oreg (2006) defined resistance to change "as a tridimensional (negative) attitude towards change, which includes affective, behavioral, and cognitive components" (p. 76). This attitude can easily be related to the head (i.e., cognitive), the heart (i.e., affective), and the hand (i.e., behavioral) when relating the significance of resistance to leadership theory and popular change models. Oreg's (2006) work also introduced an amplified complexity that must factor for individual personalities and situational context when attempting to conceptualize resistance. For instance, employees surrounded by those opposed to change seem more likely to be influenced toward a negative outlook. Most important, and correlated with all three elements associated with resistance to change, is trust and that,

> a lack of faith in the organization's leadership is strongly related to increased reports of anger, frustration, and anxiety with respect to change, to increased actions against it, and in particular to negative evaluations of the need for, and value of, the organizational change. (Oreg, 2006, p. 93)

There are many different views of resistance to change. Ford and Ford (2009) offered three specific lenses through which to view resistance to organizational change: (a) mechanistic,

(b) social, and (c) conversational. The mechanistic view, dating as far back as Lewin's (1947a, 1947b) original work on change management and overcoming resistance, suggests resistance is the result of natural two-sided interactions (e.g., proposals and responses) and should not be considered inherently bad. In fact, this view argues resistance should be considered neutral, noting, "Although our habit is to think of organizational resistance as something exceptional, the naturalness of resistance in organizations is evidenced in everyday resistance" (Ford & Ford, 2009, p. 1). From this perspective, the forces of change and resistance are no different or less natural than the same forces presented by a boat floating on water.

The social view presents resistance as exceptional behavior, which is almost always dilutive to the change effort. From this perspective, resistance occurs exclusively when responding to change and treats resistance as personal property thought of as over there or in them/it (Dent & Goldberg, 1999; Ford et al., 2008). Expanding on the limits of taking a social view toward resistance, Ford and Ford (2009) explained, "Remembering that resistance is an interactive phenomenon enables change agents to make adjustments in plans, forums, and messages that will deepen the quality of interaction and gain valuable intelligence for effective change" (p. 6).

Last, the conversational view argues against a world where everyone shares a single experience. This requires change agents and change recipient's alike work toward a common understanding and collectively make sense of their surroundings (Ford & Ford, 2009; Weick, 1995). The conversational view makes space for both factual and interpreted realities. This allows for contextual differences of opinion for what constitutes change and enables the construction of conversations that amplify the chances of success (Ford & Ford, 2009). The value of this view is, "Change, as well as resistance, then becomes a function of which

conversations agents choose to engage in and the appropriateness of those conversations" (Ford & Ford, 2009, p. 17).

Just as there were views of resistance to change, there are many types of resistance to change. Drazin and Joyce (1979) summarized resistance to change by relating stages in organizational innovation and the decision-making process with various natures of resistance. Those impacted by change move through a cycle of awareness, attitude formation, change implementation, and sustained results, which lead to, among other things, feelings of personal threat, the formation of resistance parties, passivity, aggression, and if left unmitigated, sustained organizational dysfunction (Drazin & Joyce, 1979). However, they built upon this early work by adding a descriptive second dimension to the typology of resistance to change: one relating "to the motivation or intention of the segment of the organization that is resisting change" (Drazin & Joyce, 1979, p. 305). The second dimension comprises three subdivisions, which gives us a first look at the various types of resistance: (a) oppositional, characterized by its purposeful nature to resist change; (b) inactive, or passive, characterized by more nonintentional choices; and (c) misdirected, characterized by such things as poor planning or a lack of resources (Drazin & Joyce, 1979). Although these early descriptors align well with Oreg's (2003) description of behavioral resistance, Drazin and Joyce (1979) lacked an understanding of how the mind and heart contribute to types of resistance more difficult to spot and perhaps more costly (e.g., organizational commitment).

There are also a significant number of causes for resistance to change. Oreg (2003) originally presented six sources of resistance within a person or group as: "(a) reluctance to lose control, (b) cognitive rigidity, (c) lack of psychological resilience, (d) intolerance to the adjustment period involved in change, (e) preference for low levels of stimulation and novelty,

and (f) reluctance to give up old habits" (p. 680). Oreg (2006) later built upon his work on resistance to form a definition of resistance to change, where resistance is presented as a negative and three-dimensional attitude toward change and included affective, behavioral, and cognitive components. These components are directly affected by each individual's personality and the context within which change is occurring, and create different experiences related to the change initiative. Oreg (2006) described this further, stating:

> The affective component regards how one feels about the change (e.g., angry, anxious); the cognitive component involves what one thinks about the change (e.g., Is it necessary? Will it be beneficial?); and the behavioral component involves actions or intention to act in response to the change (e.g., complaining about the change, trying to convince others that the change is bad). Of course, the three components are not independent of one another, and what people feel about a change will often correspond with what they think about it and with their behavioral intentions in its regard. (p. 76)

There are other drivers of change resistance as well. Organizational cynicism, signaling the erosion of trust in leadership, and the consequence of previously failed attempts at change chief among them (Grama & Todericiu, 2016). The lack of trust is a result of those impacted not fully understanding the motivation for why change is happening in the first place. Schein (2017), expanding on Lewin's (1947b) idea that competing forces are constantly driving change and maintaining the status quo, posited survival anxiety must be greater than learning anxiety or resistance is sure to follow. Survival anxiety, or guilt, is the pain resulting in the realization of a need for change (Schein, 2017). Learning anxiety results from an organization's need to give up old habits and learn new ways of thinking, resulting in one of five fears: (a) loss of power or position, (b) temporary incompetence, (c) punishment for incompetence, (d) loss of personal

identity, or (e) loss of group membership (Schein, 2017). Schein (2017) also believed "it is the interaction of these to anxieties," those being survival and learning, "that creates the complex dynamics of change" (p. 325).

It has been determined the root cause of resistance to change is usually not difficult to uncover, as organizational benefits are believed incongruent with the perceived best interests of the individual. Recent studies have also confirmed that resistance to change can be predicted (Oreg, 2003; Wanberg & Banas, 2000), and that resistance is dilutive to job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Wanberg & Banas, 2000). Oreg's (2003) research on the individual differences measure established and validated a scale for measuring individual differences in resistance to change. The four-faceted structure measures (a) routine seeking, (b) emotional reactions, (c) short-term versus long-term focus, and (d) cognitive rigidity achieved satisfactory reliability. Judge et al. (1999) believed there is also a correlation between behavioral traits and change resistance and called for research in this area. Though Oreg (2003) believed the resistance to change scale to be much more practical than attempting to measure personality traits such as risk aversion or self-esteem, an ability to predict resistance not only complements research on institutional drivers of resistance, but also has implications for personnel selection and training within organizations.

Of critical importance when overcoming resistance is first to convey understanding of why change is happening. Schein (2017) posited, "If you conclude that you do need to change something, you have to get very precise and concrete about what you want to change and why" (p. 319). He went on to offer two principles that come into play when taking on change. First, the change leader must create an environment where survival anxiety is greater than learning anxiety (Schein, 2017). Survival anxiety, or what Schein (2017) also referred to as guilt, is the driving

force that pushes individuals to accept something is wrong and change is necessary. Learning anxiety, the force working against survival, is best described as defensive avoidance in the name of preserving our sense of self and perceived effectiveness (Schein, 2017). Argyris (1986) took this idea a step further and argued leaders need to excel at self-identifying defensive routines and amplifying their ability to unlearn.

For survival anxiety to be greater than learning anxiety, all stakeholders must realize that the potential pain for not changing far outweighs the pain of having to learn new skills or encounter new social dynamics. Second, anxiety about having to learn new behaviors must be prioritized over reducing anxiety that results from having to change. To do this, Schein (2017) offered an eight-step process for creating psychological safety: (a) clearly communicate an overwhelmingly positive vision for change; (b) make sure all involved receive adequate training to enable the changed behavior; (c) involve the learners by giving them ownership in the informal learning process; (d) involve entire learning groups and teams; (e) allocate the necessary resources (e.g., time, money, coaching, and the like); (f) positively model the way, providing evidenced based success; (g) create support groups for navigating uncertainty; and (h) remove barriers while building new support systems and structures.

The forementioned research on resistance suggests several strategies for how leaders activate Step-1 of Lewin's (1947b) change model. Ford et al. (2008) made a salient argument that change leaders must first let go of prevailing views and recognize that the actions of change agents actually contribute to the occurrence of resistance. Ford and Ford (2009) expanded on this, noting, "Agents who are aware that resistance is co-authored in their relational interactions can be responsible for the way they interpret the actions and communications of recipients" (p. 15). Failing to legitimize the recommended change initiative, intentionally or unintentionally

misrepresenting the facts involved, omitting a formal call to action, even resisting resistance

contributes to the overall experience. Ford et al. (2008) believed resistance should be viewed as a

resource; they went on to state:

> Change recipients' reactions to change are not necessarily dysfunctional obstacles or
>
> liabilities to successful change. On the contrary, recipients' reactions can have value for
>
> the existence, engagement, and strength of a change, serving as an asset and a resource in
>
> its implementation and successful accomplishment. (p. 368)

Geller (2003) built upon the idea of a leader's influence on change by comparing and

contrasting the actions of a leader type versus a manager type in a change environment. He

explained this as managers manipulate through the use of extrinsic consequences and leaders

build relationships that encourage self-management and drive self-accountability. Various styles

can be drawn upon as well, depending on the situation's need for direction or motivation. Geller

(2003) believed it necessary to balance coaching, delegating, instructing, and supporting

leadership styles with the individual's or group's needs. Coaching can be used for providing

specific direction and the necessary support when barriers arise. Delegating is useful for

agreement on what needs to be done, allowing the individual or group to determine how the

work gets done. Instructional leadership is useful when motivation is not lacking, but skill or

understanding are. Finally, there are some who just need a pat on the back for a job well done,

which is where the value of supportive leadership is revealed (Geller, 2003).

Step-2: Changing Behavior

Changing behavior, the second of three steps, is where a new equilibrium is targeted for a

system or process and brings to bear the full force of Lewin's field theory, understanding of

group dynamics, and action research methodology (Burnes, 2004b). Field theory looks deeply at

the relationships and values of both groups and subgroups, and fundamentally shifts the leader's lens from simple goal attainment toward "a change from the present level to the desired one" (Lewin, 1947a, p. 32). In the tool chest for driving and sustaining change, the most reliable tool is argued to be group decision (Crosby, 2021). Lewin (1947a) viewed group decision, as opposed to individual procedures, as the superior method for advancing positive organizational change. He argued that when a leader succeeds at changing group standards, the same forces at play will "tend to facilitate changing the individual and will tend to stabilize the individual conduct of the new group level" (Lewin, 1947a, p. 36). Finally, action research emphasizes the importance of allowing those who face a specific challenge to solve it (Crosby, 2021; Lewin, 1946, 1947a, 1947b).

The notion that Lewin's (1947a) change process is linear is quickly countered by the introduction of action research. Rosenbaum et al. (2018) highlighted the failure of any linear criticism of Lewin's model, stating his "linkages with action research in the course of his work with certain social groups provided the basis for a more complete picture of change, and underpinned a more iterative approach to change than many writers have since commented on" (p. 288). Ultimately, it is action research that considers the social science that suggests those facing a problem are most likely to implement a lasting solution (Crosby, 2021). Through an iterative process of research, action, evaluation, and further action, Lewin's (1946) action research stressed personal reflection and new insights as key ingredients for advancing positive organizational change (Burnes, 2004a). From the change leader's perspective, Schein (2017) identified two mechanisms with which to drive new behavior, those being: (a) playing the part of a role model followers can psychologically identify with and deem worthy of imitation, and (b) nurture a mindset of trial and error that encourages solutioning to persist until something works

and fits within the context and environment of the problem.

Step-3: Refreezing

Refreezing, the final step in the model, is when change is embraced with new values and traditions, which Lewin (1947a) stressed the importance of when introducing change as three steps. Lewin (1947a) stated:

> A change toward a higher level of group performance is frequently short lived; after a
> shot in the arm, group life soon returns to the previous level. This indicates that it does
> not suffice to define the objective of a planned change in group performance as the
> reaching of a different level. Permanency of the new level, or permanency for a desired
> period, should be included in the objective. (p. 34)

Burnes (2004a) went so far as to state his belief that this is the very reason Lewin created the three-step change model in the first place.

Applying Lewin's (1947a) field theory, where driving forces promote change and restraining forces oppose it, Robbins (2003) suggested policy and procedures as simple mechanisms for institutionalizing change. However, the complexity of successfully refreezing an organization requires "changes to organizational culture, norms, policies and practices" (Burnes, 2004b, p. 986). As Schein (2017) later pointed out, this can only be achieved by affecting observable structures and processes, espoused values, and the underlying assumptions for how things get done. He also warned of the pitfalls of incongruency, suggesting new behaviors must align with the environment and other personalities involved should the change leader wish to avoid a new round of resistance (Schein, 1996). From Schein's (2017) perspective, human systems are "potentially in perpetual flux; the more dynamic the environment becomes, the more that may require an almost perpetual change and learning process" (p. 337).

The Intersection of Hope and Lewin's Change Model

Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000), some of Snyder's earliest collaborators in the development

of hope theory, boldly stated, "From a clinician's perspective, hope is the stuff that facilitates

change" (p. 58). To understand better how hopeful leadership advances positive organizational

change, the narratives of leaders are examined in this study. To ensure the narratives selected

lead to valid and reliable results through the lens of effective change, this research measures

advancing organizational change using Lewin's (1947a) three-step model comprising: (a)

unfreezing, where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity;

(b) changing behavior, where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c)

refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions.

Synthesis and Conclusions

Never has the world experienced so much and such rapid change, and the environment in

which organizations operate necessitates the need for increased change capability and

organizational agility (Argyris, 1991). However, what is concerning is how often change efforts

fail. As Kotter (2006) pointed out, "Most major change initiatives, whether they are intended to

drive quality, boost productivity, improve culture, or alter a company's overall direction,

generate only lukewarm results" (p. 3). Not realizing that change is a process rather than an

event, change leaders for most companies fail miserably (Kotter, 2012). Strebel (1996) found

success rates for change initiatives in *Fortune* 1000 companies ranged from a low of 20% to a

high of 50%, suggesting awareness of need is not enough. Later studies would substantiate

Strebel's (1996) findings, claiming that, on average, failure rates of transformational change

initiatives approach 70% (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). Schein (2017) posited,

"Though the change process can be analyzed in terms of stages, it is increasingly becoming in

many organizations a perpetual way of life" (p. 339). If this is so, and companies wish to thrive in such a dynamic environment, a fundamental understanding of why change efforts fail and how to drive more positive outcomes across organizations must be examined.

With transformational leadership best practices well documented, and with time-tested change management models available to all, what then is missing? Following this progression, a salient argument can be made that the mindset of a hopeful change leader might serve as the key ingredient for improving the success rates of transformational change initiatives. The problem, therefore, is a lack of understanding for how hopeful leaders advance positive outcomes in organizational change. As the topic of hope has matured, a sizable knowledge base has emerged. Time and again, research has demonstrated high-hopers possess a far greater capacity to achieve optimal outcomes in areas ranging from psychological and physical health to academic and athletic performance (Snyder, 2002). Research central to high-hope leadership is just starting to emerge, connecting hope to improved financial performance, employee engagement, and organizational resilience in professional working environments (Norman et al., 2005; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). However, where further research is required is understanding the effects of high-hope leadership on organizational change efforts. The question at hand, broadly speaking, is whether hope can be operationalized in a way that more consistently generates positive outcomes when seeking transformational change in organizations?

Although each dimension of this study's theoretical framework (hope, leadership, and change) has sufficient research independently, there is little research examining their potential amplified power when harnessed together. Poignantly asked, is the sum greater than each of its parts? Youssef and Luthans (2007) shared this sentiment when they stated:

Despite a well-established theoretical foundation and supporting empirical research on

constructs such as hope, optimism, and resilience in positive psychology (see Snyder &

Lopez, 2002), when applied to the workplace, both conceptual analysis and research on

these capacities are scarce and fragmented (Sutcliffe & Vogus, 2003). For example, in the

Handbook of Positive Psychology, only 1 of the 55 chapters is devoted to workplace

applications. (p. 792)

The purpose of this study is to examine leadership and change using Snyder's hope

theory, and to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to advance positively

transformational change in organizations. An integrated literature review produced three

dominant themes for hopeful change leaders, which are often referred to as the building blocks of

hope, those being: (a) goals, (b) pathways thinking (waypower), and (c) agency thinking

(willpower). Table 5 highlights cited authors whose work has contributed to the established body

of knowledge related to transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), Lewin's (1947a) three-step

model for change, Snyder's (2002) hope theory, and the three main building blocks of hope.

Table 5

Theoretical Framework Summary and Contributing Scholars

Hope Theory		
APA (2022c)	Kwon (2002)	Roesch & Vaughn (2006)
Averill et al. (1990)	Latham & Lock (1991)	Rose & Sieben (2018)
Azar (2011)	Lazarus (1999)	Schachtel (1959)
Babyak et al. (1993)	Lee et al. (1989)	Scheier & Carver (1985)
Bandura (1982, 1997)	Lewin (1922, 1936, 1938)	Seligman (1991, 1999, 2002)
Beck et al. (1974)	Lewin & Sakamura (1925)	Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi
Binswanger (1990)	Locke & Latham (1984,	(2000)

Hope Theory

Breznitz (1986)	1990)	Sieben (2013)
Campbell & Kwon (2001)	Lopez (2013)	Siegel (1986)
Cannon (1942)	Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000)	Simonton et al. (1978)
Cantril (1964)	Lopez, Gariglietti, et al.	Snyder (1989, 1994a, 1994b,
Coker (2016)	(2000)	1995, 1998, 2000, 2002)
Coopersmith (1967)	Kahn (1990)	Snyder et al. (1996)
Craig (1943)	Lopez et al. (2003)	Snyder et al. (1999)
Curry et al. (1997)	Luthans & Jensen (2002)	Snyder et al. (2000)
Day et al. (2010)	MacInnis & de Mello (2005)	Snyder et al. (2002)
de Saint-Exupery (2018)	McDermott & Snyder (1999)	Snyder, Cheavens, et al.
Dixson et al. (2018)	Mehlman & Snyder (1985)	(1999)
Duncan et al. (2021)	Melges & Bowlby (1969)	Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991)
D'Zurilla (1986)	Menninger (1959)	Snyder, Irving, et al. (1991)
Erickson et al. (1975)	Merolla (2017)	Snyder (1997)
Erikson (1964)	Miller & Powers (1988)	Snyder, Irving, & Anderson
Farber (1968)	Mowrer (1960a, 1960b)	(1991)
Farran et al. (1995)	Norman et al. (2005)	Snyder, Sympson, et al.
Feldman & Dreher (2012)	Nowotny (1991)	(2000)
Frank (1968, 1973, 1975)	Ovsiankina (1928)	Staats (1989)
Frankl (1963)	Pelletier (1977)	Staats & Stassen (1985)
French (1952)	Pervin (1989)	Stotland (1969)
Godfrey (1987)	Pinker (1997)	Sympson (1999)

Hope Theory		
Gottschalk (1974)	Rand et al. (2020)	Tillich (1965)
Gwinn & Hellman (2022)	Rand & Touza (2021)	Vance (1996)
Heppner & Hillerbrand (1991)	Richter (1957)	Wells & Marwell (1976)
	Robinson & Rose (2010)	Wylie (1974, 1979)
Herth (1991)	Rodriguez-Hanley & Snyder (2000)	Youssef & Luthans (2007)
Hewitt (1998)		Zeigarnik (1927)
Hong et al. (2012)		
Juntunen & Wettersten (2006)		

Transformational Leadership Theory		
Avolio (1999)	Cameron & Caza (2003)	Kouzes & Posner (2017)
Bass (1985, 1990)	Cameron et al. (2004)	Luthans (2002)
Bass & Avolio (1993, 1994)	Fredrickson (2001, 2003)	Luthans & Avolio (2003)
Bass & Riggio (2006)	Helland & Winston (2005)	Schein (2017)
Burns (1978)	Herth (2007)	Youssef & Luthans (2007)

Change Management Theory		
Argyris (1986)	Geller (2003)	Oreg (2003, 2006)
Bridges & Bridges (2016)	Grama & Todericiu (2016)	Robbins (2003)
Burnes (2004a, 2004b)	Heath & Heath (2010)	Rosenbaum et al. (2018)
Coch & French (1948)	Judge et al. (1999)	Schein (1996, 2017)
Crosby (2021)	Kotter (2006, 2012)	Senge (2006)
Dent & Goldberg (1999)	Lewin (1936, 1946, 1947a,	Wanberg & Banas (2000)

Change Management Theory		
Drazin & Joyce (1979)	1947b)	Weick (1995)
Ford & Ford (2009)	Meadows (2008)	
Ford et al. (2008)		

Chapter 3: Methodology

After briefly restating the background, purpose, and research questions for this study, Chapter 3 locates the work within narrative inquiry, a study of leader's stories related to their intentional efforts to improve a system (Clandinin, 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Pinnegar & Daynes, 2007). Definitions and a detailed overview of the researcher's approach, methodology, methods, and tools are then provided. Sampling techniques, instrumentation, and data collection strategies are outlined, paying specific attention to the reliability and validity of the study. Human subject protections are addressed, noting that this study gathered data exclusively from various publicly available and accessible sources, and the chapter goes on to discuss research limitations and mitigation of potential researcher bias. Chapter 3 concludes with a summary of the overall project proposal.

Background of Study

Never has the world experienced so much and such rapid change. For this reason, Goltz and Hietapelto (2002) lamented, "With an ever more rapidly changing environment, the ability of organizations to adapt to change is critical in today's world" (p. 4). However, what is concerning is how often change efforts fail. As Kotter (2006) pointed out, an alarmingly high percentage of organizational change efforts generate only marginal success or fail all together. Strebel's (1996) research supports this claim, having found success rates for change initiatives throughout *Fortune* 1000 companies ranged from a meager 20% to a high of 50%. Later studies would substantiate Strebel's (1996) findings, claiming that, on average, failure rates of transformational change initiatives approach 70% (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). If companies wish to thrive in such a dynamic environment, a fundamental understanding of why some organizational change efforts fail, and, perhaps more important, why others succeed must

be examined. With transformational leadership best practices well documented, and with time-tested change management models available to all, what then might improve a change leader's chance of advancing positive outcomes in organizational change? Central to this research, the realm of positive psychology emerged as the target for identifying potential answers.

With the intention of establishing an entirely new discipline devoted to human well-being and the circumstances, abilities, and virtues that help people thrive, Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) coined the term positive psychology. They wanted to remind the world that psychology was more than healing, curing mental illness, and the study of disease. Seligman (2002) felt strongly that psychology included "making the lives of all people more productive and fulfilling, and identifying and nurturing high talent" (p. 4). Born of a need to balance the scientific study of disease and weakness with strength and virtue, positive psychology celebrates human strengths and their ability to play a meaningful role in the attainment of health and happiness (Seligman, 2002; Sheldon & King, 2001). Featuring uplifting aspects of the human experience, positive psychology includes, but is not limited to, flow, self-efficacy, hope, optimism, self-esteem, and problem solving (Snyder, 2002). Hope theory, a branch of the positive psychology family tree and focus of this research, establishes hope as a two-dimensional construct comprising goal-oriented agency (i.e., willpower) and pathway thinking (i.e., waypower; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002).

Purpose Statement and Research Questions

In the domains of education, sports, and numerous aspects of physical and mental health, hope is a predictor of successful outcomes (Curry et al., 1997; Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). The concept of high-hope leadership has also been attributed to better financial

performance, employee engagement, and organizational resilience of professional working

environments (Norman et al., 2005; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Such powerful evidence of

hopeful thinking's ability to effect positive outcomes in life reveals the importance of

understanding leadership through a hope paradigm and hopeful thinking's ability to impact

positive outcomes across organizations. The purpose of this study is to examine leadership and

change using Snyder's hope theory, and to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to

effect positive change in large-scale organizations. An integrated review of the literature

revealed three primary themes for hopeful change leaders, which are often referred to as the

building blocks of hope, those being:

- *Goals*: Pulling individuals through the entire process of hoping, goals anchor

  Snyder's (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002) hope theory. Described by Gwinn

  and Hellman (2022) as the essence of being human, goal setting theory builds upon

  the assumption that all human actions are both purposeful and intentional, and that

  goals are the mental targets necessary to guide human behavior (Latham & Locke,

  1991; Lee et al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Pervin, 1989). There are two

  specific goal types addressed within hope theory, those being positive (i.e., wanting to

  buy a house) and negative (i.e., minimizing the chance of skin cancer) goal outcomes

  (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002).

- *Pathways thinking (waypower)*: Built on the idea of connecting one's current state

  with a desired future state over time, pathways thinking, also known as waypower

  within hope theory, is defined as "the mental plans or roadmaps that guide hopeful

  thought" (Snyder, 1994b, p. 8). Snyder (2000) emphasized the importance of

  pathways thinking both at the outset of a change journey and within it,

acknowledging that life often presents unforeseen obstacles that do not allow for the simple pursuit of goals. In fact, when faced with barriers, it is often necessary to produce multiple routes toward goal attainment; a key attribute of high-hope minded individuals (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b).

- *Agency thinking (willpower):* Simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways to reach goals has little value without action. Snyder (2002) defined agency thinking, "the motivational component of hope theory often referred to as willpower," as "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (p. 251). Serving as "the driving force in hopeful thinking," willpower is what initiates movement, maintains progress, and is often perceived as perseverance in an individual's goal journey (Snyder, 2000, p. 4).

While there are existing theoretical frameworks for hope, leadership, and change, there is scant literature available on the combination of all three aimed at understanding whether there may be an amplified effect when attempting to lead through change. Leaders may be better able to navigate successfully increasingly changing circumstances by developing a deeper knowledge of hopeful thinking and its capacity to promote constructive organizational transformation. The objective of this study was to examine leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory, and to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to impact positive outcomes in organizational change efforts. This study sought to achieve this objective by establishing the following research questions:

The central guiding research question for this study was:

- What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance positive organizational change relative to Lewin's Change Theory?

Subquestions include:

- RQ1: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing?

- RQ2: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change?

- RQ3: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing?

Research Design

This study employed Snyder's (2002) hope theory as the foundation for the theoretical

framework to examine if a hopeful mindset plays a meaningful role in a leader's ability to

advance positively organizational change. Bass's (1985) transformational leadership theory was

used in sampling, specifically to identify the leader through optimal behavior, and Lewin's

(1947a) three-step model for change was used to measure success across all three steps. The

researcher's approach was qualitative, looking for the meaning ascribed to social or human

problems by individuals and groups alike (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Richards & Morse, 2013).

The researcher's world view was a blend of both social constructivism and social

constructionism.

Social constructivism is defined by Creswell and Creswell (2018) as believing "that

individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work" by "developing

subjective meanings of their experiences," which leads "the researcher to look for the complexity

of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas" (p. 8). The social

constructivist lens recognizes there are many ways of knowing the world and studying the

interactions of people. However, emphasizing the group over the individual, social

constructionism offers a slightly alternative world view, "because of its emphasis on the

communal basis of knowledge, processes of interpretation, and concern with the valuational

underpinnings of scientific account" (Gergen, 1985, p. 272). Social constructionism honors the

dialectic between social reality and individual existence throughout the course of history, and is principally concerned with describing, explaining, or otherwise accounting for the world we live in through one or more of the following assumptions: (a) a single person's experience of the world is not in itself indicative of how the world is understood, (b) the concepts that describe the word are social constructs that have evolved as a result of ongoing interactions between individuals in relationships over time, and (c) social processes will ultimately govern the magnitude with which a given form of understanding is maintained and not empirical validity of a perspective (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Gergen, 1985).

Through the dual lenses of constructivism and constructionism, it is "an understanding of the relationship of the researcher to the researched," that surfaced as the methodology of choice for this study (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2012, p. 9). Narrative Inquiry uses stories as data and analysis to better understand what we know and how it fits within a specific context (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2012). As Rosenberg (2022) so beautifully stated, "For millennia, humans have embraced the power of stories to capture the richness, nuances, and complexities of human life, and to give meaning to lived experiences. Narrative inquiry is a qualitative methodology that is based on this tradition" (0:02). Czarniawska (1997), an organizational researcher, pioneered narrative as an effective method of study related to organizational theory in her reflections on the nature and intensity of organizational transformation. Building on her work, this research was concerned with how narratives are used to "express, embody, catalyze, and effect change" within large-scale organizations (Andrews et al., 2011, p. 30).

Narrative research is defined as a type of qualitative inquiry in which the lives of individuals are studied by a researcher using stories they offer about their lived experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Riessman, 2008). The researcher then restories this material into a

narrative timeline and "combines the participant's life with those of the researcher's life in a collaborative narrative" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 2). Using both stories from participants and stories created by the researcher while gathering information, stories were utilized as the method to understand social patterns while examining leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory.

Data Sources and Collection Procedures

Many types of data are available to inquirers actively conducting a qualitative study, including: (a) field observations, (b) face-to-face interviews, (c) document review, (d) audiovisual, (e) social media, (f) email and text messages, (g) websites, and (f) digital archives of other materials (Clandinin, 2007; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). As Kim (2016) noted, limited access to archival data with primary source material was once cost prohibitive and time-consuming, but thanks to the Internet, it has never been easier than it is today. Public access to a wide range of digital files now makes this possible. Therefore, data collection for this study was focused exclusively on document review, audiovisual, and other digital materials that could be gathered from publicly available and accessible venues. There were no interactions with human subjects, meaning this study met the federal guideline criteria classified as nonhuman subjects research as noted by Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (Pepperdine University, n.d.).

When collecting data, Roberts and Hyatt (2019) connected the credibility of any research with "the quality of the procedures you used to select the sample" (p. 148). To ensure credibility, sampling for this research used Roberts and Hyatt's (2019) four-step sampling process, which included: (a) quantifying the number of individuals included and their location, (b) why the researcher selected a specific sample size, (c) the criteria used for sample inclusion, and (d) a

step-by-step guide for exactly how the sample was selected. Although one or two individuals are typically recommended for narrative inquiry (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Huber & Whelan, 1999), the final sample size was determined using Charmaz's (2006) concept of saturation, where data collection stops when new data no longer offer additional insights, themes, or properties. Using saturation to govern the number within the sample size is supported by Roberts and Hyatt's (2019) note on qualitative research, that being, "There is less concern for large sample size and more emphasis is placed on details of the setting and or situation, the participants, and rich descriptions of the participant's experiences" (p. 148).

To establish the criteria used for sample inclusion, a purposeful sampling strategy was used, meaning, "The inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 158). Of the many sampling types that fall under the umbrella of a purposeful sampling strategy, a criterion-based approach that seeks leaders who meet a specific criterion was used for quality assurance (Creswell & Poth, 2018). To increase the likelihood for relevant and accurate data that inform an understanding of the central guiding research question for this study, the following sampling criteria were applied: (a) organizational or institutional leaders with executive status, meaning they had the power to put plans, actions, or laws into effect at the time the narrative was created; (b) clearly demonstrated one or more of the four behavioral characteristics of Bass's (1985) transformational leadership, those being "individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 26); (c) Using the English language, has told a story of leading through transformational change that can be measured across Lewin's (1947a) three-steps, those being unfreezing, changing behavior, and refreezing an organization; and finally (d)

their narratives can be examined using document review, audiovisual, and other digital materials that can be gathered from publicly available and accessible venues.

Because data collection featured publicly available and accessible narratives, the researcher role was one of "complete observer," meaning, "the researcher is neither seen nor noticed by the people under study" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 168). Following Angrosino's (2007) best practices for establishing an observational protocol, both descriptive and reflective notes were used to describe the dates, places, and times of observations, hunches, and learnings. Creswell and Poth (2018) emphasized the importance of recording aspects, noting the researcher should "describe what happened and also reflect on these aspects, including personal reflections, insights, ideas, confusions, hunches, initial interpretations, and breakthroughs" (p. 168).

Finally, data organization, storage, and security were managed with the utmost urgency. Data storage best practices were used to ensure backup copies were created, the highest quality digital files were retained, and a master list of information was gathered and stored separately from the data (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The anonymity of all subjects within the study was protected with common obfuscation techniques such as masking their names so as to avoid disclosure of potentially harmful information. Additionally, because certain data were identifiable to a specific source, composite participant profiles were employed. Finally, a data collection matrix was created and used as a visual method for locating and identifying information.

Data Analysis Techniques

Clandinin and Connelly (2000), building on Dewey's (1938) theory of experience as the philosophical underpinning of narrative inquiry, highlighted "thematic analysis, linguistic analysis, structural analysis, and, more recently, visual analysis" as viable techniques within

narrative inquiry (p. 12). Regardless of technique, thinking narratively required the researcher to tend to three commonplaces, those being: (a) temporality, which locates an event or thing in time and appreciates that it possesses a past, perceived present, and implied future; (b) sociality, which balances the feelings, hopes, desires, reactions and dispositions of the researcher and researched with the cultural and social conditions of the time; and (c) place, which accounts for the concrete location of where both the event and inquiry take place (Clandinin, 2007, 2013; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000). Data analysis was not mutually exclusive of collection, either. Creswell and Poth (2018) noted, "The process of data collection, data analysis, and reporting writing are not distinct steps in the process—they are interrelated and often go on simultaneously in a research project" (p. 185).

The amount of data that can accumulate in a qualitative study can be quite voluminous, and while there were a variety of approaches for making sense of the data (Roberts & Hyatt, 2019), Creswell and Poth (2018) offered a framework referred to as the data analysis spiral, which comprises: (a) data collection, management, and organization; (b) documenting emergent ideas, (c) describing and classifying codes into themes, (d) interpreting and maturing themes, (e) data visualization, and finally (f) presenting the findings. Creswell and Creswell (2018) offered a process map detailing the above sequence of events (Figure 5), which was used as the data analysis approach for this research.

Figure 5

Data Analysis in Qualitative Research
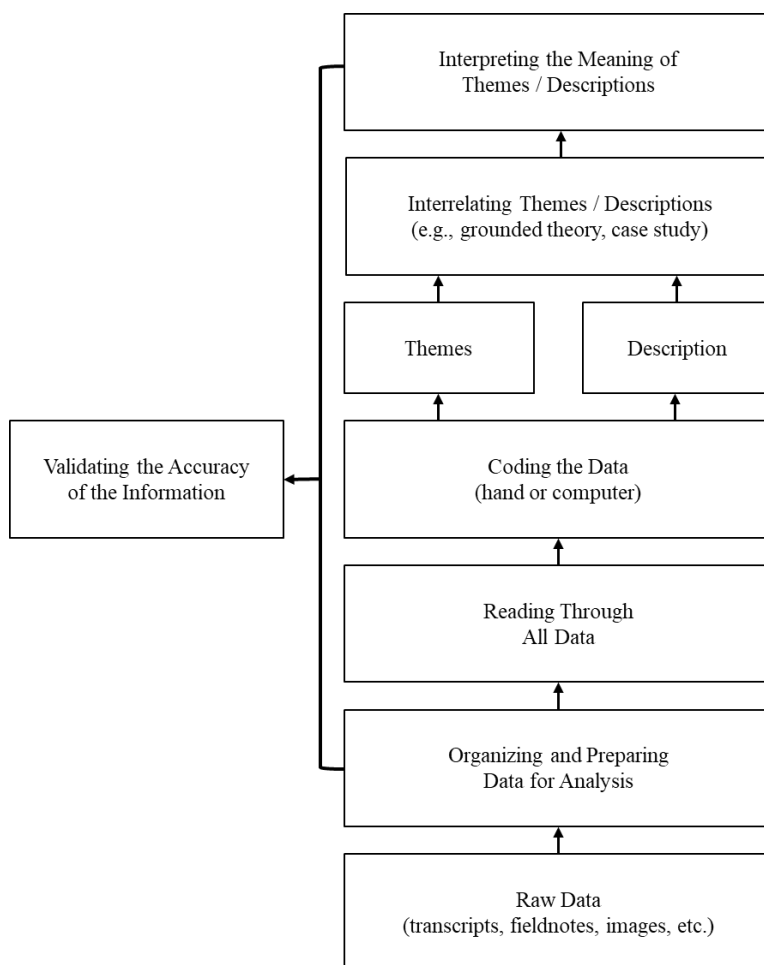
Note. Adapted from *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed., p. 194), by J. W. Creswell and J. D. Creswell, 2018, Sage. Copyright 2018 by Sage.

Creswell and Creswell (2018) went on to offer details specific to each analytical step as follows:

(a) *Organize and prepare the data for analysis.* This involves transcribing interviews, optically scanning material, typing up field notes, cataloguing all of the visual material, and sorting and arranging the data into different types depending on the sources of information; (b) *Read or look at all the data.* This step provides a general sense of the

information and an opportunity to reflect on its overall meaning. What general ideas are

participants saying? What is the tone of the ideas? What is the impression of the overall

depth, credibility, and use of the information? Sometimes qualitative researchers write

notes in margins of transcripts or observational field notes, or start recording general

thoughts about the data at this stage. For visual data, a sketchbook of ideas can begin to

take shape; (c) *Start coding all of the data*. Coding is the process of organizing the data

by bracketing chunks (or text or image segments) and writing a word representing a

category in the margins. It involves taking text data or pictures gathered during data

collection, segmenting sentences (or paragraphs) or images into categories, and labeling

those categories with a term, often based in the actual language of the participant (called

an in vivo term); (d) *Generate a description and themes.* Use the coding process to

generate a description of the setting or people as well as categories or themes for analysis.

Description involves a detailed rendering of information about people, places, or events

in a setting; and (e) *Representing the description and themes.* Advance how the

description and themes will be represented in the qualitative narrative. The most popular

approach is to use a narrative passage to convey the findings in the analysis. (p. 193)

Validity and Reliability

Kumar (2019) warned of the risks when performing a narrative inquiry using secondary

data sources; most important among those are the validity and reliability of the study. Richards

and Morse (2013) echoed this sentiment, stressing that the researcher follow two specific rules

when designing a qualitative inquiry: (a) pay specific attention to fit of research questions with

the data collected and methods used, and (b) to ensure each step in the analysis is properly

accounted for. Qualitative validity is defined by Creswell and Creswell (2018) as "the means that

the researcher checks for the accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures" (p. 199). Qualitative reliability "indicates that the researcher's approach is consistent across different researchers and among different projects" (as cited in Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 199).

To ensure credibility and maximize the degree to which the research results can be applied to the general population of interest, Kallet (2004) stressed the importance of both internal and external validity. Internal validity, or a study's overall credibility, depends on how well its conclusions match the experiment's results; and external validity measures a study's ability to generalize to a larger population (Kallet, 2004). Subsequently, great care was given to sample selection. First and foremost, leadership could not be confused with profiteering in this research. Second, academic, government, and professional realms must be accounted for to generalize best findings against Etzkowitz and Zhou's (2018) triple helix.

There are eight strategies that can be used in qualitative research design to ensure validity, of which Creswell and Creswell (2018) recommended using multiple approaches. For this study, the following approaches were incorporated: (a) triangulation, (b) rich descriptions, (c) bias clarification, (d) presentation of discrepant information, and (e) peer debriefing. Using multiple publicly available and accessible sources, each was examined in detail using triangulation to identify converging perspectives and justify emergent themes. Rich descriptions were used to describe the settings and narratives focused on conveying realism to future readers. Self-reflection and reflexivity were used to create a transparent approach to clarifying and proactively managing bias. Discrepant yet relevant data were presented to ensure different perspectives are given voice in the findings. Finally, a peer debriefing process was used to incorporate perspectives beyond the researcher. All combined, these steps added to the validity of the study's findings.

To ensure reliability, this research emphasized the importance of transcript accuracy and coding discipline (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gibbs, 2007). First, a rigorous review of the transcripts helped to identify any obvious mistakes. Second, a consistent cross-check–recheck cycle was used to avoid drift in the definition of codes while comparing them to those developed by others. Last, during the peer debriefing, the researcher sought intercoder agreement. The cumulative effect of these steps was used to ensure the reliability of the researcher's approach.

Researcher and Reflexivity

Creswell and Poth (2018) highlighted that the researcher's social status, gender, culture, and personal politics are all reflected in their writing. Because the researcher serves as the primary data collection instrument within narrative inquiry, the reflexive process of identifying personal values, assumptions, and biases at the outset of the research was critical (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Describing reflexivity, Ibrahim and Edgley (2015) keyed on the essence of the researcher's need not to be blinded by data, but rather to elevate one's thinking into theoretical contributions. This process of self-reflection on biases and preferences was fundamental to the researcher's ability to recognize oppositional logic as implicit in the study (Cunliffe, 2003; Ibrahim & Edgley, 2015). Cunliffe (2003) took this on directly, noting, "Reflexivity unsettles representation by suggesting that we are constantly constructing meaning and social realities as we interact with others and talk about our experience," and went on to suggest "that we need to go further than questioning the truth claims of others, to question how we as researchers and practitioners also make truth claims and construct meaning" (p. 985).

Roberts and Hyatt (2019) not only emphasized the expectation of researchers to disclose conflicts of interest and biases, they also stressed the transparency of doing so builds trust with future readers of the study. To guide the researcher through a set of self-reflective points,

Creswell and Poth (2018) suggested positioning themselves within the writing and examining the following questions in pursuit of self-understanding:

- Should I discuss what individuals say or acknowledge that they occasionally forget?

- What reflexivities do I have that should be included in my report?

- Have I made a connection in my writing between peoples' stories and their historical, structural, and economic context?

- To what extent should I take my theorizing of the participants stories?

- Have I thought about my own remarks and if they support liberal, traditional, or oppressive social views?

- Am I distancing myself from my own interpretations?

- How much does my analysis (and writing) challenge conventional wisdom or the prevailing discourse?

Cunliffe (2003) offered additional considerations for the reflexive process, those being: (a) the researcher should question their own intellectual suppositions, (b) recognize that the researcher/participant narratives are interconnected in some way, (c) acknowledge the constitutive nature of research conversations, (d) construct emerging practical theories in lieu of objective truths, (e) expose the situational nature of personal accounts, and (f) focus on knowledge as a process of becoming and not an already established truth. To incorporate reflexive thinking into this study, the researcher kept copious notes throughout data collection and analysis using the above guidelines. This enabled ongoing self-evaluation for the duration of the study and afforded the researcher an opportunity to evaluate consistently how personal experiences and biases potentially shaped interpretations of the data.

Limitations

Roberts and Hyatt (2019) described limitations in qualitative research as "particular features of your study that you know may affect the results or your ability to generalize the findings" (p. 154). There were several limitations specific to this study. The sample population was limited to the narratives of English-speaking leaders, which excludes many organizations from the study. This limitation restricted the researcher's ability to apply globally findings and conclusions, as well as introduced a Western orientation with inherent cultural bias. Furthermore, the combination of Snyder's (2002) hope theory, Lewin's (1947b) three-step change model, and Bass's (1985) transformational leadership theory underpinned the entire study. As such, universal application of findings specific to a hopeful mindset across other leadership theories and change frameworks should not be assumed.

Chapter Summary

Chapter 3 restated the background, purpose, and research questions for this study, and located the work within narrative inquiry, a study of stories or narratives related to a series of events (Clandinin, 2007; Clandinin & Connelly, 2000; Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Pinnegar & Daynes, 2007). Definitions and a detailed overview of the researcher's approach, methodology, methods, and tools were then provided. Sampling techniques, instrumentation, and data collection strategies were outlined, paying specific attention to the reliability and validity of the study. Human subject protections were addressed, noting that this study gathered data exclusively from various publicly available and accessible sources, and the study went on to discuss research limitations and mitigation of potential researcher bias. The next chapter describes findings of the study, followed by the researcher's conclusions and future implications.

Chapter 4: Research, Data, and Findings

This qualitative study was designed to examine leadership and change using Snyder's (2002) hope theory. Applying Snyder's (2002) hope theory, the study explored how the narratives of hopeful leaders advance positive outcomes in organizational change. The term organization is defined as "stable associations of persons engaged in concerted activities directed to the attainment of specific objectives" (Bittner, 1965, p. 239). For the purposes of this study, the term organization represents all types of organizations and institutions (e.g., for-profit, nonprofit, government, etc.).

Leaders in this study had to be involved in driving transformational change, which Lippitt et al. (1958) defined as "a deliberate effort to improve the system" (p. 10). Additionally, the leaders had to have demonstrated one or more of the four behavioral characteristics of Bass's (1985) transformational leadership when pursuing transformational change, those being "individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 26). Last, the leaders' ability to advance transformational change was measured across Lewin's (1947a) three-step change model comprising: (a) unfreezing, (b) changing behavior, and (c) refreezing.

An integrated review of the literature revealed three primary themes for hopeful change leaders, which are often referred to as the building blocks of hope, those being:

- *Goals*: Pulling individuals through the entire process of hoping, goals anchor Snyder's (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002) hope theory. Described by Gwinn and Hellman (2022) as the essence of being human, goal setting theory builds upon the assumption that all human actions are both purposeful and intentional, and that goals are the mental targets necessary to guide human behavior (Latham & Locke,

1991; Lee et al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Pervin, 1989). There are two specific goal types addressed within hope theory, those being positive (i.e., wanting to buy a house) and negative (i.e., minimizing the chance of skin cancer) goal outcomes (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002).

- *Pathways thinking (waypower)*: Built on the idea of connecting one's current state with a desired future state over time, pathways thinking, also known as waypower within hope theory, is defined as "the mental plans or roadmaps that guide hopeful thought" (Snyder, 1994b, p. 8). Snyder (2000) emphasized the importance of pathways thinking both at the outset of a change journey and within it, acknowledging that life often presents unforeseen obstacles that do not allow for the simple pursuit of goals. In fact, when faced with barriers, it is often necessary to produce multiple routes toward goal attainment; a key attribute of high-hope minded individuals (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b).

- *Agency thinking (willpower)*: Simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways to reach goals has little value without action. Snyder (2002) defined agency thinking, "the motivational component of hope theory often referred to as willpower," as "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (p. 251). Serving as "the driving force in hopeful thinking," willpower is what initiates movement, maintains progress, and is often perceived as perseverance in an individual's goal journey (Snyder, 2000, p. 4).

While there are existing theoretical frameworks for hope, leadership, and change, there is scant literature available on the combination of all three aimed at understanding whether there may be an amplified effect when attempting to lead through change. Leaders may be better able

to navigate successfully increasingly changing circumstances by developing a deeper knowledge of hopeful thinking and its capacity to promote constructive organizational transformation. The objective of this study was to examine leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory, and to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to impact positive outcomes in organizational change efforts. This study sought to achieve this objective by establishing the following research questions:

The central guiding research question for this study was:

- What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance positive organizational change relative to Lewin's Change Theory?

Subquestions include:

- RQ1: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing?

- RQ2: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change?

- RQ3: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing?

To understand better how leaders generate hope, and more important, use hopeful leadership to advance positive organizational change, the narratives of leaders were examined. Narrative research is defined as a type of qualitative inquiry in which the lives of individuals are studied by a researcher using stories they offer about their lived experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Riessman, 2008). The researcher then restories this material into a narrative timeline and "combines the participant's life with those of the researcher's life in a collaborative narrative" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 2). Using both stories from participants and stories created by the researcher while gathering information, stories were utilized as the method to understand social patterns while examining leadership and change using Snyder's (2002) hope theory.

Chapter Structure

Chapter 4, dedicated to data analysis and research results, opened with a brief restatement of purpose and review of the methodological approach. Sampling criteria are then highlighted prior to a summary of the sample set demographics. Data sources and data collection procedures are discussed, followed by research limitations and delimitations. Methods for verification and trustworthiness are then reviewed, as well as ethical considerations for the overall study. Research results and data analysis are then presented in a way that informs the key findings of the study, paying specific attention to addressing the research questions. The chapter concludes with an overall summary of the research, data, and findings, before introducing the research conclusions presented in Chapter 5.

Sample Selection and Demographics

To establish the criteria used for sample inclusion, a purposeful sampling strategy was used, meaning, "The inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 158). Of the many sampling types that fall under the umbrella of a purposeful sampling strategy, a criterion-based approach that seeks leaders who meet a specific criterion was used for quality assurance (Creswell & Poth, 2018). To ensure the narratives selected led to valid and reliable results through the lens of effective change, Bass and Avolio's (1994) five general lessons for connecting leadership and change were used in the selection process via the following five questions:

1. Was successful change initiated by a transformational top-level leader who anchored their efforts with a clear vision of the future?

2. Was the change effort underpinned with effective training, organizational structure,

and effective rewards and recognition?

3. Were common assumptions consistently brought into question?

4. Was the quality and sustainability of change prioritized over the speed of change?

5. Were human capital systems viewed as mission critical for the change effort?

Most important to sample inclusion, were any or all of transformational leadership's building blocks present in the leader's story?—those being: (a) idealized influence, serving as a moral and ethical role model; (b) inspirational motivation, setting high expectations and inspiring team pursuit; (c) intellectual stimulation, making space for creativity and innovation; and (d) individualized consideration, considering follower needs and wants (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994). Presented in Figure 6, a distribution of Bass's (1985) building blocks of transformational leadership are presented across the eight transcripts selected for this narrative inquiry. Of the eight transcripts, only T6 was missing idealized influence.

Figure 6

Transcript (Tx) Distribution of Transformation Leadership's Four-I's
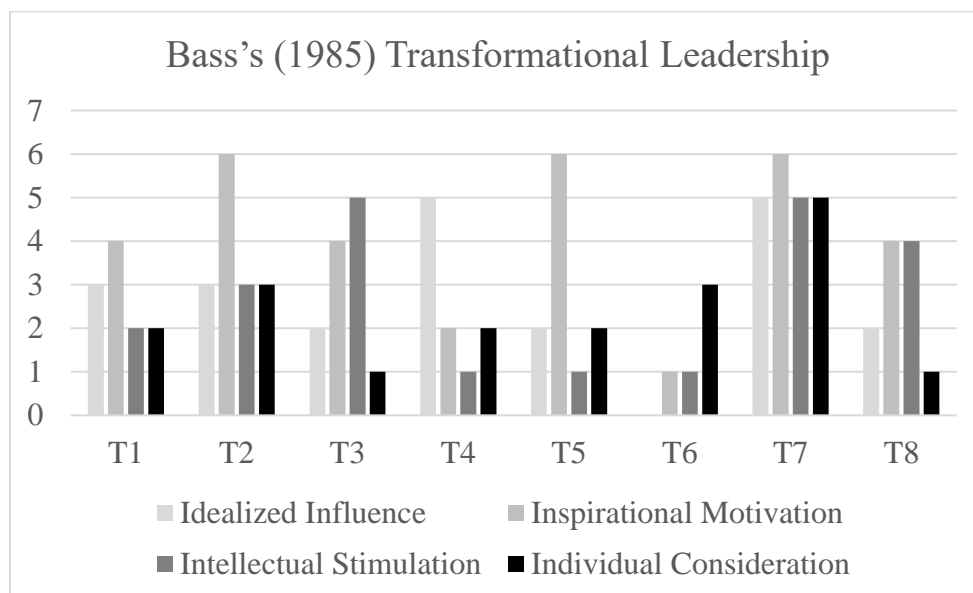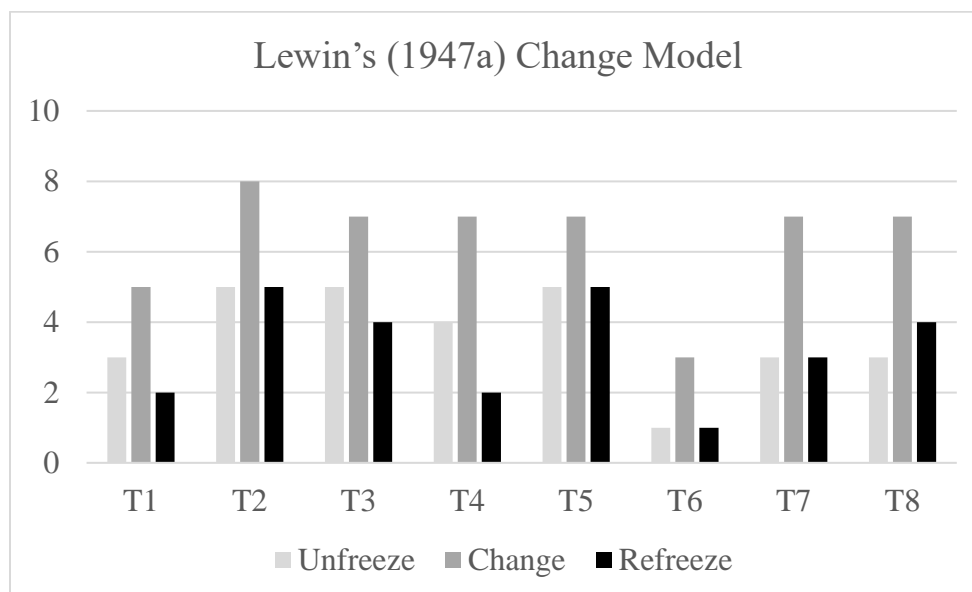
To increase the likelihood of relevant and accurate data that inform an understanding of

the central guiding research question for this study, and complimentary to Bass's (1985) building

blocks of transformational leadership, three additional sampling criteria were applied, those

being: (a) Must be or have been an organizational or institutional leader with executive status,

meaning they had the power to put plans, actions, or laws into effect at the time the narrative was

created; (b), Using the English language, has told a story of leading through transformational

change that can be measured across Lewin's (1947a) three-steps, those being unfreezing,

changing behavior, and refreezing an organization; and finally (c) their narratives can be

examined using document review, audiovisual, and other digital materials that can be gathered

from publicly available and accessible venues. Presented in Figure 7, a distribution of Lewin's

(1947a) three-steps of change are presented across the eight transcripts selected for this narrative

inquiry.

Figure 7

Transcript (Tx) Distribution of Lewin's Three-Step Change Model

Ultimately, this research studied the transcripts of eight global leaders based in three

separate countries on three different continents, all of which were engaged in leading one or

more transformational change initiatives for their respective organizations. Of the eight global

leaders, six (75%) permanently reside in the United States of America, with Asia (12.5%) and

Australia Oceania (12.5%) nationalities represented as well. Five of the six global leaders

representing the USA were born there, and one immigrated to the USA. The gender mix included

37.5% female and 62.5% male. The racial mix of leaders studied included 75% White, 12.5%

Black, and 12.5% Asian. Corporations represented 62.5% of organizational types being

researched, with nonprofits (25%) and government (12.5%) making up the rest. Pertinent

demographics, including age ranges, are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6

Demographics of Study Sample (Eight Transcripts Total)

Factor	Corporate	Nonprofit	Government
Gender			
Male	4	1	-
Female	1	1	1
Race			
White	5	-	1
Black	-	1	-
Asian	-	1	-
Age Range (Years)			
34 and younger	-	1	1
35–44	-	-	1
45 to 64	4	-	-
65 and older	1	-	-

Data Sources and Data Collection

Many types of data were available for this study, including (a) field observations, (b) face-to-face interviews, (c) document review, (d) audiovisual, (e) social media, (f) email and text messages, (g) websites, and (f) digital archives of other materials (Clandinin, 2007; Creswell & Creswell, 2018). As Kim (2016) noted, limited access to archival data with primary source material was once cost-prohibitive and time-consuming, but thanks to the Internet, it has never been easier than it is today. Public access to a wide range of digital files now makes this possible. Therefore, data collection for this study was focused exclusively on document review, audiovisual, and other digital materials that could be gathered from publicly available and accessible venues. There were no interactions with human subjects, meaning this study met the federal guideline criteria classified as nonhuman subjects research as noted by Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (Pepperdine University, n.d.).

Because data collection featured publicly available and accessible narratives, the researcher's role was one of "complete observer," meaning "the researcher is neither seen nor noticed by the people under study" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 168). Following Angrosino's (2007) best practices for establishing an observational protocol, both descriptive and reflective notes were used to describe the dates, places, and times of observations, hunches, and learnings. Creswell and Poth (2018) emphasized the importance of recording aspects, noting the researcher should "describe what happened and also reflect on these aspects, including personal reflections, insights, ideas, confusions, hunches, initial interpretations, and breakthroughs" (p. 168).

Although one or two individuals are typically recommended for narrative inquiry (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Huber & Whelan, 1999), the final sample

size was determined using Charmaz's (2006) concept of saturation, where data collection stops when new data no longer offer additional insights, themes, or properties. Using saturation to govern the number within the sample size is supported by Roberts and Hyatt's (2019) note on qualitative research, that being, "There is less concern for large sample size and more emphasis is placed on details of the setting and or situation, the participants, and rich descriptions of the participant's experiences" (p. 148). To guide this process, presented as a nested target in Figure 8, a code diagram specific to Snyder's (2002) hope theory was established to assist the researcher with which codes were identified throughout the transcript review.

Figure 8

Code Diagram for Snyder's (2002) Hope Theory
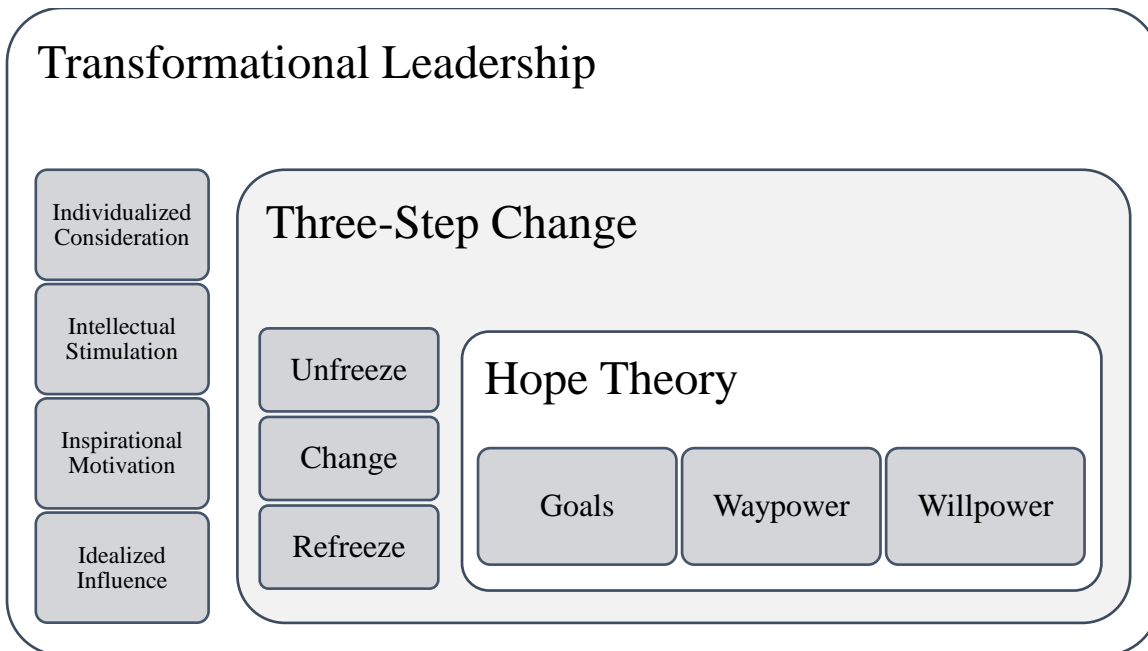
Creswell and Creswell's (2018) deductive coding approach was applied for this study, which is a method of "testing or verifying a theory rather than developing it" (p. 56). The following instruments were used to inform the coding process: (a) Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Appendix B), (b) State Hope Scale (Snyder et al., 1996;

Appendix C), and (c) Adult Domain Specific Hope Scale (Sympson, 1999; Appendix D).

Observational measures of hope that include interviewing and narrative approaches aimed at

assessing the building blocks of hope theory were also employed (Appendix E). A detailed code

book was established to inform the coding process, a summary with reference counts can be

viewed in Table 7, and detailed definitions for each code are presented in Appendix F. The

inductive approach was also utilized to engage in "building from the data to broad themes to

generalized model or theory" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 63). These categories developed

into broader themes and recurring patterns, which were then grouped into central ideas. Theme

definitions were then created, informed by interpretations of the data, the literature review, or a

combination of both. As seen in Table 7, while almost all data obtained touched on hope theory's

three central themes (e.g., surprise events), not all leaders offered specific narratives for each

subtheme. However, for the purposes of this research, the criteria for saturation were met.

Table 7

Deductive Coding and Saturation

Name	Transcripts	References
Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory	8	96
Idealized Influence	7	22
Individual Consideration	8	19
Inspirational Motivation	8	33
Intellectual Stimulation	8	22
Lewin's Three-Step Change Model	8	108
Change	8	51
Refreeze	8	26

Name	Transcripts	References
Unfreeze	8	29
Snyder's Hope Theory	8	321
Primary Codes (Event Sequence)	8	151
Agency Thoughts (Willpower)	8	41
Goals	8	52
Pathways Thoughts (Waypower)	8	58
Secondary Codes	8	170
Additional Event Sequence Codes	8	51
Emotions	8	19
Stressors	8	20
Surprise Events	7	12
Learning History	8	68
Emotion Set	8	29
Hope Thoughts	8	39
Pre-Event	8	51
Outcome Value	8	51

Limitations

Roberts and Hyatt (2019) described limitations in qualitative research as "particular features of your study that you know may affect the results or your ability to generalize the findings" (p. 154). There were several limitations specific to this study. The sample population was limited to the narratives of English-speaking leaders, which excludes many organizations from the study. This limitation restricted the researcher's ability to apply globally findings and

conclusions, as well as introduced a Western orientation with inherent cultural bias. Furthermore, the combination of Snyder's (2002) hope theory, Lewin's (1947b) three-step change model, and Bass's (1985) transformational leadership theory underpinned the entire study. As such, universal application of findings specific to a hopeful mindset across other leadership theories and change frameworks should not be assumed.

Methods for Verification and Trustworthiness

There are eight strategies that can be used in qualitative research design to ensure validity, of which Creswell and Creswell (2018) recommended using multiple approaches. For this study, the following approaches were incorporated: (a) triangulation, (b) rich descriptions, (c) bias clarification, (d) presentation of discrepant information, and (e) peer debriefing. Using multiple publicly available and accessible sources, each was examined in detail using triangulation to identify converging perspectives and justify emergent themes. Rich descriptions were used to describe the settings and narratives focused on conveying realism to future readers. Self-reflection and reflexivity were used to create a transparent approach to clarifying and proactively managing bias. Discrepant yet relevant data were presented to ensure different perspectives are given voice in the findings. Finally, a peer debriefing process was used to incorporate perspectives beyond the researcher. All combined, these steps added to the validity of the study's findings.

To ensure reliability, this research emphasized the importance of transcript accuracy and coding discipline (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gibbs, 2007). First, a rigorous review of the transcripts helped to identify any obvious mistakes. Second, a consistent cross-check–recheck cycle was used to avoid drift in the definition of codes while comparing them to those developed by others. Last, during the peer debriefing, the researcher sought intercoder agreement. Table 8

shows an example of the intercoder collaboration and coding process. The cumulative effect of these steps was used to ensure the reliability of the researcher's approach. The peer review process was then used to calculate the transcripts intercoder reliability (ICR), which O'Connor and Joffe (2020) defined as, "a numerical measure of the agreement between different coders regarding how the same data should be coded" (p. 2). Upon completion of peer review, subthemes were agreed upon and finalized. Dividing the total number of codes by the number of codes the peer reviewers agreed upon revealed an ICR of 0.86, which Landis and Koch (1977) considered perfect agreement and highly trustworthy.

Table 8

ICR Sheet Example

Transcript	Primary Coder	Secondary Coder	Agreement	Disagreement	Final Subtheme
T1	Action Orientation	Action Orientation	1		Action Orientation
T2	Gratitude	Recognition		1	Gratitude
T3	Persistence	Persistence	1		Persistence
T4	Creativity	Creativity	1		Creativity
T5	Amplified Effect	Greater Good		1	Greater Good
T6	Community	Togetherness		1	Community
T7	Inspiration	Dream Big		1	Dream Big
T8	Shared Purpose	Shared Purpose	1		Shared Purpose

Research Results

The objective of this study was to examine leadership and change using Snyder's (2002) hope theory, and to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to impact positive outcomes in organizational change efforts. The central guiding research question for this study was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance positive organizational change relative to Lewin's Change Theory? The study sought to investigate this overarching question with three subquestions, those being: (a) What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing?; (b) What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change?; and (c) What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing? There were 65 emergent themes indicative of hopeful change leadership stemming from data analysis, which were all analyzed against the central themes of Snyder's (2002) hope theory and presented in Figure 9.

Figure 9

Initial Theme Count for Hope Theory Throughout Each Transcript

Pre-Event

Events Sequence

Additional Event Sequence Codes
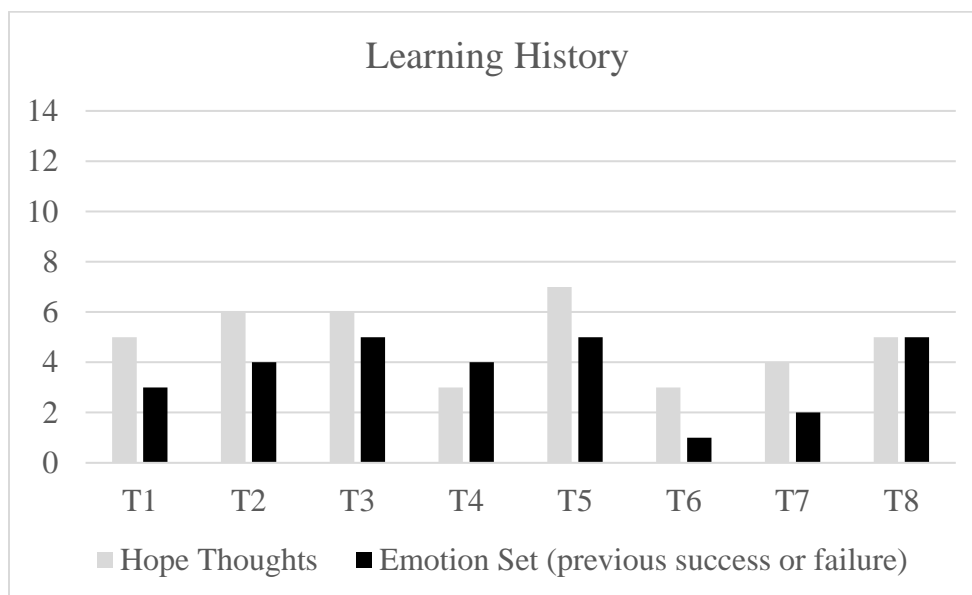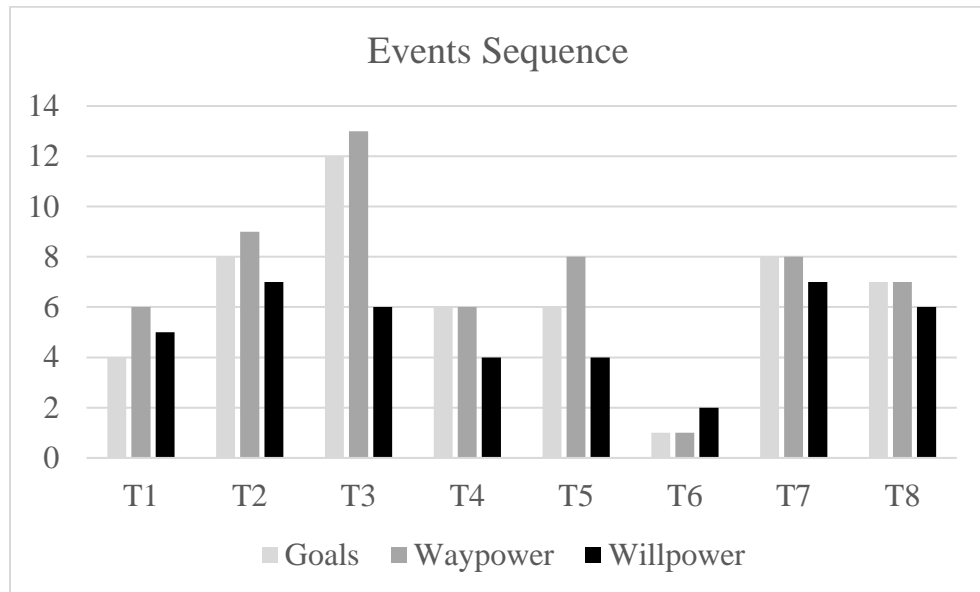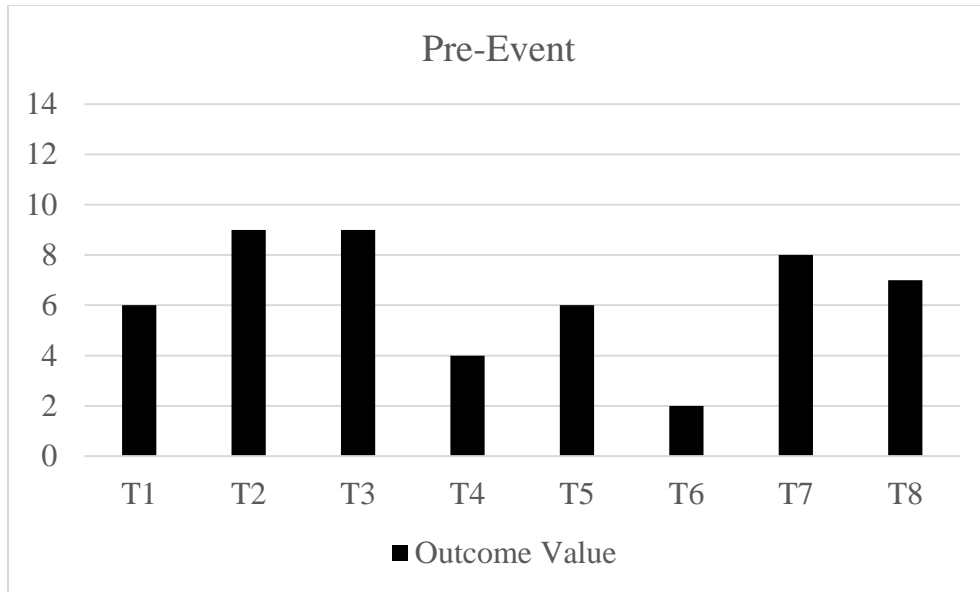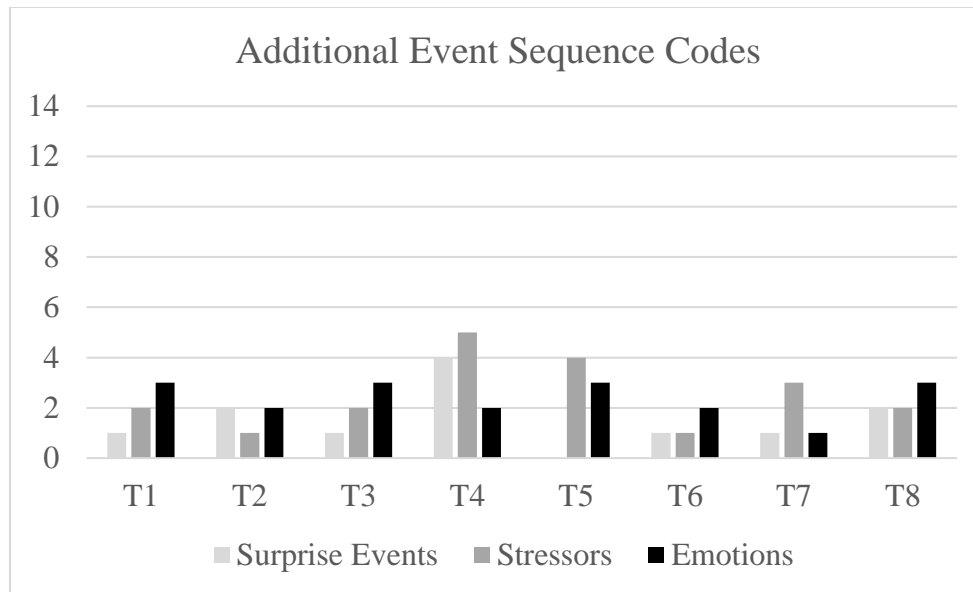
Research Question 1 and Corresponding Data

Research Question 1 was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing? Unfreezing is where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity. Lewin (1947a, 1947b) introduced the idea of competing forces constantly driving change and maintaining the status quo (i.e., resistance) in his groundbreaking work on the quasistationary equilibrium of human systems. As Burnes (2004b) described Lewin's belief about change and human systems, Lewin "argued that the equilibrium needs to be destabilized (unfrozen) before old behaviors can be discarded (unlearnt) and new behavior successfully adopted" (p. 985). Inherent in this idea is the notion of overcoming resistance.

This research question correlates to two themes within Snyder's (2002) hope theory, those being goals and agency thinking. Goals are pulling individuals through the entire process of hoping, goals anchor Snyder's (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002) hope theory. Described by Gwinn and Hellman (2022) as the essence of being human, goal setting theory builds upon the assumption that all human actions are both purposeful and intentional, and that goals are the mental targets necessary to guide human behavior (Latham & Locke, 1991; Lee et

al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Pervin, 1989).

Agency thinking is important because simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways to reach goals has little value without action. Snyder (2002) defined agency thinking, "the motivational component of hope theory often referred to as willpower," as "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (p. 251). Serving as "the driving force in hopeful thinking," willpower is what initiates movement, maintains progress, and is often perceived as perseverance in an individual's goal journey (Snyder, 2000, p. 4). Specific to Research Question 1, willpower entails initiating movement. Of the eight transcripts included in this study, 100% of them addressed both goals and agency thinking themes. Here are some obfuscated examples of the data that were captured in this category:

- Some could argue that this is impractical, expensive, difficult, or even impossible, but it's time for the world to dream bigger (T1).

- Why is it so simple to give away firearms yet so difficult to give away books? Why is it so simple to make tanks but so difficult to establish schools? We think that anything is possible because we live in the modern era. 45 years ago, we landed on the moon, and perhaps soon on Mars. We must be able to provide each child with a top-notch education. …It is time to take action (T1).

- The first thing I want everyone to know is that this company takes working conditions extremely seriously. We are concerned about every worker, whether they are located in Europe, Asia, or the U.S. Our commitment is straightforward: every employee has the right to a safe, fair workplace that is free of discrimination, where they may earn market-competitive salaries and where they can freely express their concerns. If our

suppliers want to work with us, they must meet these standards (T2).
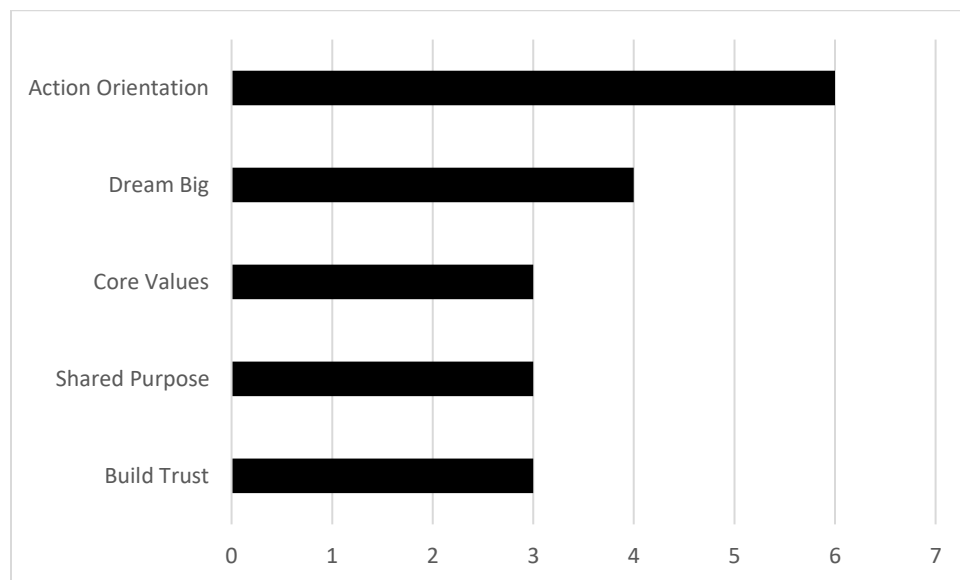
- Those are the things that make our company this magical place that really smart people want to work in, and not just their life's work, but their life's best work (T2).

- We can better comprehend what questions to ask if we broaden the range and scale of consciousness. We'll gain greater knowledge and enlightenment. We, therefore, make an effort to take actions that broaden the breadth and scale of consciousness. And, if we succeed in that goal, the climate on Earth will be stable. That's the philosophy I subscribe to (T3).

- It is a complex global problem that requires a global solution…our shared challenges are interconnected, so too must be our responses (T4).

- As leaders, we have the ability to reshape and repurpose our common institutions. I can think of no greater way to reinforce our goodwill toward one another, our shared humanity, and our unity than to not back down from this mission. I hope you'll come along (T4).

- This is not the time to indulge in the luxury of relaxation or gradualism (T5).

- There is power in hope, and a leader who understands how to inspire others with hope also understands how to motivate them (T6).

- Being on the side of truth is insufficient. You also need to be able to communicate it. Then, and only then, will you maintain the public's optimism, and only then will they give you everything they have to offer (T6).

- It truly comes down to being willing to engage in this future-focused vision; having total clarity about the future while also being open to linking the beliefs and behaviors that will get you there (T7).

- We are dedicated to being as open and honest about the risks we confront and to doing everything in our power to demystify them (T8).

Of the emergent patterns derived from all eight transcripts, 26 original subthemes were identified for the first research question. A majority of the data was mappable into five notable subtheme categories, those being narratives that reflect: (a) an orientation towards action (six subthemes), (b) the need to dream big (four subthemes), (c) possessing core values (three subthemes), (d) identifying shared purpose (three subthemes), and (e) building trust among teams (three subthemes). A summary of these subthemes can be found in Figure 10.

Figure 10

Summary of the Subthemes Generated From RQ1

Research Question 2 and Corresponding Data

Research Question 2 was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change? Changing behavior, the second of three steps, is where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process and brings to bear the full force of Lewin's field theory, understanding of group dynamics, and action research methodology (Burnes, 2004b). This research question correlates

with agency thinking and pathways thinking within Snyder's (2002) hope theory.

Agency thinking is important because simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways to reach goals has little value without action. Snyder (2002) defined agency thinking, "the motivational component of hope theory often referred to as willpower," as "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (p. 251). Serving as "the driving force in hopeful thinking," willpower is what initiates movement, maintains progress, and is often perceived as perseverance in an individual's goal journey (Snyder, 2000, p. 4). Specific to Research Question 2, agency thinking entails maintaining progress once the change process is activated.

Built on the idea of connecting one's current state with a desired future state over time, pathways thinking, also known as waypower within hope theory, is defined as "the mental plans or roadmaps that guide hopeful thought" (Snyder, 1994b, p. 8). Snyder (2000) emphasized the importance of pathways thinking both at the outset of a change journey and within it, acknowledging that life often presents unforeseen obstacles that do not allow for the simple pursuit of goals. In fact, when faced with barriers, it is often necessary to produce multiple routes toward goal attainment; a key attribute of high-hope minded individuals (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b). Of the eight transcripts included in this study, 100% of them addressed the pathways thinking theme. Here are some obfuscated examples of the data that were captured in this category:

- I've discovered that individuals have many various ways to define me. …I believe I'm merely a dedicated and even obstinate person that wants to accomplish our goal (T1).

- The work that our teams are doing in this area makes me tremendously proud. They concentrate on the most challenging issues, work to resolve them, and don't stop until

the job is done (T2).

- So, I continued expecting us to surpass our targets every year, but we never did. I became depressed about the future as a result. And I reasoned, well, you want to have a sense that the future is going to be better than the past, at least for me, and I think maybe for a lot of people. And if you lack that sense, you become cynical, pessimistic, and just plain unenthusiastic about life and the future. What energizes you first thing in the morning? What, for instance, makes you happy to be alive?…That kind of future is the thing that really excites me (T3).

- We must rise to the challenge of meeting our goal…we also have to intensify our efforts (T4).

- The time has come to fulfill the pledge (T5).

- Humans require some sense of hope to survive. In the corporate sector, the same holds true. Employees may not physically pass away in a depressing, gloomy workplace, but they will undoubtedly pass away emotionally (T6).

- They're either going to applaud or throw tomatoes. You can handle it either way (T7).

- The way our team has embraced discussions about encouraging more openness, transparency, and humility is what most inspires me. It's not always simple to put both the good and the terrible on the table in equal proportion, but it's vital. For instance, operations reviews now begin with a far more balanced approach to what is working and what is not (T8).

Of the emergent patterns derived from all eight transcripts, 19 original subthemes were identified for the first research question. A majority of the data was mappable into five notable subtheme categories, those being narratives that reflect: (a) persistence (four subthemes), (b)

passion (four subthemes), (c) ownership (three subthemes), (d) creativity (three subthemes), and (e) anticipation (two subthemes). A summary of these subthemes can be found in Figure 11.

Figure 11

Summary of the Subthemes Generated From RQ2
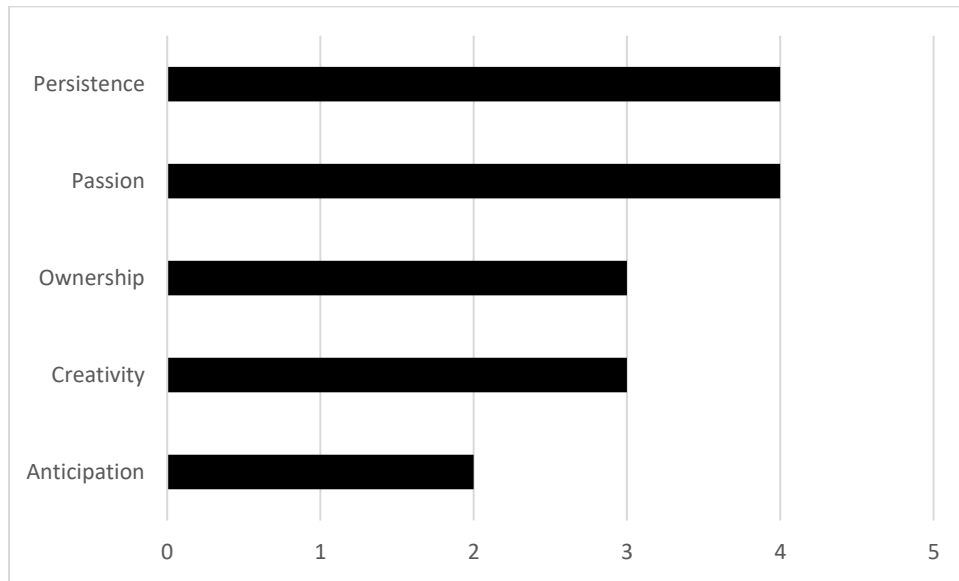
Research Question 3 and Corresponding Data

Research Question 3 was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing? Refreezing, the final step in Lewin's (1947a) change model, is when change is embraced with new values and traditions, which Lewin (1947a) stressed the importance of when introducing change as three steps. Lewin (1947a) stated:

A change toward a higher level of group performance is frequently short lived; after a shot in the arm, group life soon returns to the previous level. This indicates that it does not suffice to define the objective of a planned change in group performance as the reaching of a different level. Permanency of the new level, or permanency for a desired period, should be included in the objective. (p. 34)

Burnes (2004a) went so far as to state his belief that this is the very reason Lewin created the

three-step change model in the first place.

This research question correlates with goals within Snyder's (2002) hope theory. Goals are pulling individuals through the entire process of hoping, goals anchor Snyder's (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002) hope theory. Described by Gwinn and Hellman (2022) as the essence of being human, goal setting theory builds upon the assumption that all human actions are both purposeful and intentional, and that goals are the mental targets necessary to guide human behavior (Latham & Locke, 1991; Lee et al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Pervin, 1989). There are two specific goal types addressed within hope theory, those being positive (i.e., wanting to buy a house) and negative (i.e., minimizing the chance of skin cancer) goal outcomes (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). Of the eight transcripts included in this study, 100% of them addressed the goal theme. Here are some obfuscated examples of the data that were captured in this category:

- We were hungry for knowledge. We were hungry for knowledge since that classroom held the key to our destiny (T1).

- My story is not unique to me, which is why I tell it (T1).

- We also believe that education is the great equalizer and that if people are provided the skills and knowledge, they can improve their lives. We've put a lot of effort to supplying educational resources to our workers (T2).

- Whether this or that is good can be disputed. However, I believe that merely the degree of inspiration that this gave the populace was amazing. And it definitely motivated me (T3).

- It strikes me that despite threats from external factors to isolate and divide us, a shared drive to connect with one another persists (T4).

- It is important to focus on one item at a time if you want individuals to develop new abilities. Then you watch for every opportunity to praise their progress (T6).

- 25% of the employees claimed they could complete 50% more work. So why do they not? They had no faith. They didn't believe their work was appreciated or recognized (T6).

- Because of how competitive and oftentimes ruthless the world can be, I think it's important for leaders to recognize that their words might be interpreted in various ways. So it's amazing to really comprehend the personalization of your communication, what you're saying, and more importantly, how people are hearing it, while still having compassion for the fact that you don't know what's happening behind the scenes (T7).

- Everyone will operate in much greater harmony if we accept our differences, identify our common strengths, and play to those; this will free up more time for us to address larger issues (T7).

- Because of this foundation, I have greater optimism than I had a year ago about our ability to deliver on the intrinsic value that is within our power to unlock (T8).

Of the emergent patterns derived from all eight transcripts, 20 original subthemes were identified for the first research question. A majority of the data was mappable into five notable subtheme categories, those being narratives that reflect: (a) impact (five subthemes), (b) education (five subthemes), (c) greater good (three subthemes), (d) community (two subthemes), and (e) gratitude (two subthemes). A summary of these subthemes can be found in Figure 12.

Figure 12

Summary of the Subthemes Generated From RQ3
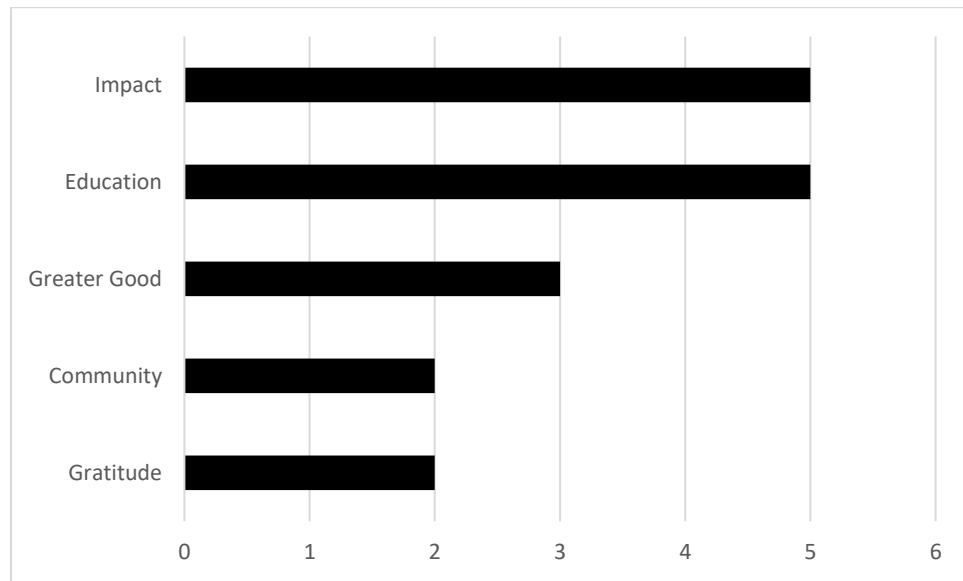
Table 9 provides a summary of significant subthemes that emerged during the narrative inquiry and aligns each with a research question and primary themes from the literature review.

Table 9

Summary of Research Questions and Significant Subthemes

Primary Themes	Research Question	Subthemes
Goals	RQ1: What narratives do	1. Action orientation
Agency (Willpower)	hopeful leaders apply to	2. Dream Big
	advance unfreezing?	3. Core Values
		4. Shared Purpose
		5. Build Trust

Primary Themes	Research Question	Subthemes
Agency (Willpower)	RQ2: What narratives do	1. Persistence
Pathways (Waypower)	hopeful leaders apply to	2. Passion
	initiate change?	3. Ownership
		4. Creativity
		5. Anticipation
Goals	RQ3: What narratives do	1. Impact
	hopeful leaders apply to enact	2. Education
	refreezing?	3. Greater Good
		4. Community
		5. Gratitude

Chapter Summary

Chapter 4 presented the data analysis and key findings from an examination of leadership and change using Snyder's (2002) hope theory. To understand better how leaders generate hope, and more important, use hopeful leadership to advance positive organizational change, the narratives of leaders were examined. A purposeful sampling strategy was introduced, meaning, "The inquirer selects individuals and sites for study because they can purposefully inform an understanding of the research problem and central phenomenon in the study" (Creswell & Poth, 2018, p. 158). Creswell and Poth's (2018) data analysis spiral was employed, which comprises: (a) data collection, management and organization; (b) documenting emergent ideas, (c) describing and classifying codes into themes, (d) interpreting and maturing themes, (e) data visualization, and finally (f) presenting the findings. To ensure trustworthiness, a rigorous review of the transcripts helped to identify any obvious mistakes. From there, a consistent cross-check–

recheck cycle was used to avoid drift in the definition of codes while comparing them to those developed by others. Last, during the peer debriefing, the researcher sought intercoder agreement.

This chapter concluded with research findings based on the research questions. Eight transcripts were identified to inform the research questions using publicly available and accessible sources. The data analysis summarized narratives of hopeful change leaders as goals, willpower, and waypower. Subthemes were then developed under the three main themes. First, to unfreeze an organization using goals and willpower, the stories of hopeful change leaders consistently reflect: (a) an orientation toward action, (b) the need to dream big, (c) possessing core values, (d) identifying shared purpose, and (e) building trust among teams. Second, to effect change using willpower and waypower, the stories of hopeful change leaders consistently reflect: (a) persistence, (b) passion, (c) ownership, (d) creativity, and (e) anticipation. Finally, to refreeze an organization using goals, the stories of hopeful change leaders reflect: (a) impact, (b) education, (c) greater good, (d) community, and (e) gratitude. A summary of key findings, conclusions, and implications are presented in the final chapter.

Chapter 5: Findings and Conclusions

Luthans and Avolio (2003) concluded, "The force multiplier throughout history has often been attributed to the leader's ability to generate hope" (p. 253). Time and again, this hopeful philosophy proves true, and research has shown that hopeful thinking is measurable as both a leader trait and an individual's state of being, predicting better athletic performance, educational outcomes, physical health, and mental wellbeing (Curry et al., 1997; Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). High-hope leadership has also been demonstrated to affect positively financial performance, employee engagement, and organizational resilience in professional workplaces (Norman et al., 2005; Peterson & Luthans, 2003).

With such strong evidence of hopeful thinking's ability to improve outcomes, a research gap on how change leaders operationalize hope in their organizations was revealed. The gap in current research was addressed by studying the relationships among hope, leadership, and change, how leaders' narratives affect hope, and how to use a high-hope leadership paradigm to advance organizational change. Hope theory (Snyder, 2002), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), and Lewin's (1947a) three-step model for change were used for this examination.

Chapter Structure

This chapter serves to summarize the key findings and recommendations of the overall study. Chapter 5 begins by revisiting the nature of the study, problem statement, purpose of the research, theoretical framework, and research questions. Research design, methods, and ethical issues of the study are once again reviewed. Finally, before highlighting the study's findings, conclusions, and consequences, data analysis processes are described, paying particular attention to validity and reliability. The chapter ends with conclusions and suggestions for additional areas

of potential study.

Nature of the Study

Born of a need to balance the scientific study of disease and weakness with strength and virtue, positive psychology celebrates the reality that human strengths play a meaningful role in the attainment of health and happiness (Seligman, 2002; Sheldon & King, 2001). Featuring uplifting aspects of the human experience, positive psychology includes, but is not limited to, flow, self-efficacy, hope, optimism, self-esteem, and problem solving (Snyder, 2002). Each of these theories exhibit similarities but possess individual difference scales that support their discriminant validity and, therefore, should be considered individually (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). This research focuses specifically on hope theory.

Hope theory establishes hope as a construct composed of goal-oriented agency (i.e., willpower) and pathway thinking (i.e., waypower; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). This trilogy of goals, agency, and pathways anchor change management in a world where desired outcomes are consistently achievable. Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) expanded on this, noting:

> Beyond the fact that higher hope people appear to set more difficult goals (by objective but not phenomenological standards) and that they evidence a more positive, challenge like set as they pursue these goals, the present results indicate that higher hope people are more certain they will attain their goals. (p. 582)

A high-hope mindset that is constantly setting goals, seeking out paths to attainment, and possessing the drive to pursue them relentlessly, appears to complement almost any change management toolset.

While focused on group dynamics, Lewin (1947a, 1947b) introduced the idea of constantly competing forces simultaneously driving change and maintaining the status quo in his

groundbreaking work on the quasistationary equilibrium of human systems. Born of Lewin's

(1947a) research was the original change management model comprising three steps: (a)

unfreezing, where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity;

(b) changing behavior, where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c)

refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions. This change management

toolset has proved powerful throughout the years; and albeit explored outside the context of hope

theory (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002), Lewin (1936) understood the significance of

hope more than a decade before authoring his innovative work on change, attempting to measure

willpower and its relationship to individual needs, purpose, and goals. Almost a century ago, the

harmonious relationship between hope and change began to reveal itself. As a leader seeks to

push organizational change forward using the toolset of unfreeze, change, and refreeze (Lewin,

1947a), a mindset possessing goals, willpower, and waypower seems to pull consistently those

effected ever closer to desired outcome (Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). When, where,

and how the dual threat of mindset and toolset can be combined to create optimal outcomes

should also be considered.

At the center of effective change management, and positioned well to leverage a hope

paradigm, is the leader. Leadership, through both direct and indirect interactions, is described by

Bass and Avolio (1994) as "a philosophy and approach for a leader to employ for developing

followers, transforming these followers into leaders, and fostering the performance of followers

that transcends expected or established standards" (p. 27). Stogdill (1950) connected leadership

more closely to change management within an organization, referring to it "as the act of

influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal

achievement" (p. 4). Of significance for this study, Stogdill's definition of leadership aligns

seamlessly with Snyder, Harris, et al.'s (1991) description of goal-directed agency.

Within the lexicon of leadership theory resides transformational leadership, which seeks to balance emotions and values with long-term goals; connecting the leader and follower roles in a way that taps into the motives and goals of both (Bass, 1985). Motivating followers to exceed even their own expectations, transformational leadership inspires commitment to a goal, the team, and higher-level needs (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Four distinct components make up transformational leadership, which aims to assist followers in reaching their full potential: (a) idealized influence, serving as a moral and ethical role model; (b) inspirational motivation, setting high expectations and inspiring team pursuit; (c) intellectual stimulation, making space for creative and innovative thinkers; and (d) individualized consideration, considering follower needs and wants (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994). A salient argument can be made that proven leadership practices, those forged in the crucibles of life and having stood the test of time, should be promoted to the status of leadership responsibility. Through this lens, a leader's responsibility, the untapped potential of a hopeful mindset and a time-tested change management toolset were examined further.

Restatement of Purpose

Never has the world experienced so much and such rapid change. Globally, corporations are transitioning from connecting billions of people to a time of connecting trillions of things. Big data are proving disruptive across almost all sectors of the economy. More important, recent events throughout the United States and around the world have resulted in much-needed social reform movements that require organizations simply to be better. Whether it be diversity and inclusion, fairness and equity, climate change, material transparency, or just being a good corporate citizen, social responsibility amplifies the need for organizational agility and change

ability. In addition, the COVID-19 global pandemic has fundamentally changed the nature of how businesses operate around the world, opening an entirely new paradigm for when and where work should take place and transforming global supply chains almost overnight.

The current environment necessitates the need for increased change capability and organizational agility. Moreover, this need has been accelerating at an ever-increasing pace, and organizations would do well to respond. As far back as 2002, Goltz and Hietapelto stated, "With an ever more rapidly changing environment, the ability of organizations to adapt to change is critical in today's world and change efforts are now fairly common in organizations" (p. 4). For this reason, and at the most basic of levels, improving agility and change ability across organizations surfaces as mission critical for the sustainment of long-term success.

However, what is concerning is how often change efforts fail. As Kotter (2006) pointed out, "Most major change initiatives, whether they are intended to drive quality, boost productivity, improve culture, or alter a company's overall direction, generate only lukewarm results" (p. 3). Most change leaders fail miserably because they do not fully understand the process orientation of change, instead confusing it for an event (Kotter, 2012). Strebel (1996) found success rates for change initiatives in *Fortune* 1000 companies ranged from a meager 20% to a high of 50%, suggesting awareness of a need to be better is not enough. Later studies would substantiate Strebel's (1996) findings, claiming that, on average, failure rates of transformational change initiatives approach 70% (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). Schein (2017) posited, "Though the change process can be analyzed in terms of stages, it is increasingly becoming in many organizations a perpetual way of life" (p. 339).

If this is so, and companies wish to thrive in such a dynamic environment, a fundamental understanding of why change efforts fail and how to drive more positive outcomes across

organizations must be examined. With transformational leadership best practices well documented, and with time-tested change management models available to all, what then is missing? Following this progression, an argument can be made that the mindset of a hopeful leader may serve as a key ingredient for improving the success rates of attempted change initiatives. The problem, therefore, is a lack of understanding for how hopeful leaders advance positive outcomes in organizational change.

Review of the Theoretical Framework

This study examined how hopeful change leaders do, in fact, advance organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. To understand better the hopeful leader's ability to advance positive organizational change, this study sought to examine the intersection of a transformational leader as defined by Bass (the person), Snyder's hope theory (the mindset), and Lewin's three-step change model (the toolset). It is this combination, seen in Figure 1, that sets the theoretical framework for the research.

Bass's Transformational Leadership (The Person)

Building on Burns's (1978) leadership research, Bass (1985) summarized the task of a transformational leader as motivational, leading to greater than expected outcomes in one of three interrelated ways: (a) leveling up awareness, importance, and value assigned to both intended results and methods of achieving them; (b) putting the organization's needs ahead of one's own self-interests; and (c) arousing higher-level needs as defined by Maslow (1943) within followers. As previously stated, transformational leadership seeks to balance emotions and values with long-term goals; connecting leader and follower roles in a way that taps into the motives and goals of both (Bass, 1985). Bass and Avolio (1994) elaborated on this idea, noting specifically the need for transformational leaders to serve as role models for those they lead, give

meaning and purpose to work, foster environments that promote innovation, and play an active

role as both coach and mentor to their followers. These ideas are best summarized by "The Four

I's—individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized

influence" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 26).

Snyder's Hope Theory (The Mindset)

Hope is more than just wishful thinking or a utopian fantasy (Tillich, 1965). Hope

connects human beings to their faith and eternal life and carries them through seemingly helpless

situations. What underpins hope is the fundamental belief in a brighter tomorrow and an

awareness that change is both possible and right. Perhaps no one captures this idea better than

Scollon and King (2011), who described social progress as "the human capacity to notice a

discrepancy between how things are and how they might be" (p. 1). Critical to the human

condition and our ability to flourish, the science of hope is a well-established and universal

construct valued across almost all cultures (Hellman, 2016). Empirically it is known hope

matters. As the literature bears out, high-hope individuals more frequently experience wellbeing,

be it social, psychological, or physical (Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2000).

At least 26 definitions of hope exist, and the majority of them fall into an emotion- or

cognition-based category (Lopez et al., 2003). However, hope theory was developed to include

both cognitive and emotional elements (see Figure 2; Snyder, 2002). An area of focus within

positive psychology, hope theory establishes hope as a two-dimensional construct comprising

goal-oriented agency (i.e., willpower) and pathway thinking (i.e., waypower; Snyder, 2000,

2002; Snyder et al., 2002). This potent combination anchors change management in a world

where desired outcomes are consistently achievable.

Lewin's Change Model (The Toolset)

A full 75 years after its inception, organizational thought leaders such as Schein (2017) continued to recommend Lewin's (1947a) change management model, referencing it as best practice and comprising three steps: (a) unfreezing, where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity; (b) changing behavior, where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c) refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions. Foundational to ongoing research in change management, Lewin's model was chosen for its elegant combination of simplicity and effectiveness.

Often attacked for being too simple, the nine principles of planned change that underpin Lewin's work have set the standard for change management for decades and are the driving force for using this model (Crosby, 2021). Of those, five principles align almost perfectly with this study: (a) Lewin's theory development incorporated rigorously applied scientific methods, which can be clearly described; (b) Lewin's "training-action-research triangle" sets the stage for research and future interventions; (c) global integration builds on Lewin's focus around group versus individual dynamics; (d) Lewin's "change as three steps" offers a practical approach for operationalizing change; and (e) Lewin's worldview included the social construction of reality, which is essential because "leveraging group dynamics opens a doorway for influencing individuals at the level of values and beliefs" (Crosby, 2021, p. 9).

Research Questions Corresponding to Gap in the Literature

The objective of this study is to examine leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory, in order to understand better a hopeful change leader's ability to advance positive outcomes in organizational change efforts. Through this study, the researcher seeks to achieve the primary objective using the following research questions:

The central guiding research question for this study is:

- What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance positive organizational change relative to Lewin's Change Theory?

Subquestions include:

- RQ1: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing?

- RQ2: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change?

- RQ3: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing?

Research Design and Methods

This study employed Snyder's (2000, 2002) and Snyder et al.'s (2002) hope theory as the foundation for the theoretical framework to examine if a hopeful mindset plays a meaningful role in a leader's ability to advance positively organizational change. Bass's (1985) transformational leadership theory was used in sampling, specifically to identify the leader through optimal behavior, and Lewin's (1947a) three-step model for change was used to measure success across all three steps. The researcher's approach was qualitative, looking for the meaning ascribed to social or human problems by individuals and groups alike (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Richards & Morse, 2013). The researcher's world view was a blend of both social constructivism and social constructionism.

Social constructivism is defined by Creswell and Creswell (2018) as believing "that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work" by "developing subjective meanings of their experiences," which leads "the researcher to look for the complexity of views rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas" (p. 8). The social constructivist lens recognizes there are many ways of knowing the world and studying the interactions of people. However, emphasizing the group over the individual, social

constructionism offers a slightly alternative world view, "because of its emphasis on the communal basis of knowledge, processes of interpretation, and concern with the valuational underpinnings of scientific account" (Gergen, 1985, p. 272). Social constructionism honors the dialectic between social reality and individual existence throughout the course of history, and is principally concerned with describing, explaining, or otherwise accounting for the world we live in through one or more of the following assumptions: (a) a single person's experience of the world is not in itself indicative of how the world is understood, (b) the concepts that describe the word are social constructs that have evolved as a result of ongoing interactions between individuals in relationships over time, and (c) social processes will ultimately govern the magnitude with which a given form of understanding is maintained and not empirical validity of a perspective (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Gergen, 1985).

Through the dual lenses of constructivism and constructionism, it is "an understanding of the relationship of the researcher to the researched" that surfaced as the methodology of choice for this study (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2012, p. 9). Narrative Inquiry uses stories as data and analysis to understand better what we know and how it fits within a specific context (Pinnegar & Daynes, 2012). As Rosenberg (2022) so beautifully stated, "For millennia, humans have embraced the power of stories to capture the richness, nuances, and complexities of human life, and to give meaning to lived experiences. Narrative inquiry is a qualitative methodology that is based on this tradition" (0:02). Czarniawska (1997), an organizational researcher, pioneered narrative as an effective method of study related to organizational theory in her reflections on the nature and intensity of organizational transformation. Building on her work, this research was concerned with how narratives are used to "express, embody, catalyze, and effect change" within large-scale organizations (Andrews et al., 2011, p. 30).

Narrative research is defined as a type of qualitative inquiry in which the lives of individuals are studied by a researcher using stories they offer about their lived experiences (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Riessman, 2008). The researcher then restories this material into a narrative timeline and "combines the participant's life with those of the researcher's life in a collaborative narrative" (Clandinin & Connelly, 2000, p. 2). Using both stories from participants and stories created by the researcher while gathering information, stories were utilized as the method to understand social patterns while examining leadership and change using Snyder's hope theory.

Ethical Considerations Overview

Data organization, storage, and security were managed with the utmost urgency. Data storage best practices were used to ensure backup copies were created, the highest quality digital files were retained, and a master list of information was gathered and stored separately from the data (Creswell & Poth, 2018). The anonymity of all subjects within the study were protected with common obfuscation techniques such as masking their names so as to avoid disclosure of potentially harmful information. Additionally, because certain data were identifiable to a specific source, composite participant profiles were employed. Finally, a data collection matrix was created and used as a visual method for locating and identifying information.

Data Analysis Overview

Following Angrosino's (2007) best practices for establishing an observational protocol, both descriptive and reflective notes were used to describe the dates, places, and times of observations, hunches, and learnings. Creswell and Poth (2018) emphasized the importance of recording aspects, noting the researcher should "describe what happened and also reflect on these aspects, including personal reflections, insights, ideas, confusions, hunches, initial

interpretations, and breakthroughs" (p. 168). Although one or two individuals are typically

recommended for narrative inquiry (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Creswell & Poth, 2018; Huber

& Whelan, 1999), the final sample size was determined using Charmaz's (2006) concept of

saturation, where data collection stops when new data no longer offer additional insights, themes,

or properties. Creswell and Creswell's (2018) deductive coding approach was applied for this

study, which is a method of "testing or verifying a theory rather than developing it" (p. 56). A

detailed code book was then established to inform the coding process, a summary with reference

counts can be viewed in Table 6, and detailed definitions for each code are presented in

Appendix F. The inductive approach was also utilized to engage in "building from the data to

broad themes to generalized model or theory" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 63). These

categories developed into broader themes and recurring patterns, which were then grouped into

central ideas. Theme definitions were then created, informed by interpretations of the data, the

literature review, or a combination of both.

  There are eight strategies that can be used in qualitative research design to ensure

validity, of which Creswell and Creswell (2018) recommended using multiple approaches. For

this study, the following approaches were incorporated: (a) triangulation, (b) rich descriptions,

(c) bias clarification, (d) presentation of discrepant information, and (e) peer debriefing. Using

multiple publicly available and accessible sources, each was examined in detail using

triangulation to identify converging perspectives and justify emergent themes. Rich descriptions

were used to describe the settings and narratives focused on conveying realism to future readers.

Self-reflection and reflexivity were used to create a transparent approach to clarifying and

proactively managing bias. Discrepant yet relevant data were presented to ensure different

perspectives are given voice in the findings. Finally, a peer debriefing process was used to

incorporate perspectives beyond the researcher. All combined, these steps added to the validity of the study's findings.

To ensure reliability, this research emphasized the importance of transcript accuracy and coding discipline (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Gibbs, 2007). First, a rigorous review of the transcripts helped to identify any obvious mistakes. Second, a consistent cross-check–recheck cycle was used to avoid drift in the definition of codes while comparing them to those developed by others. Last, during the peer debriefing, the researcher sought intercoder agreement. Table 7 shows an example of the intercoder collaboration and coding process. The cumulative effect of these steps was used to ensure the reliability of the researcher's approach. The peer review process was then used to calculate the transcripts ICR, which O'Connor and Joffe (2020) defined as, "a numerical measure of the agreement between different coders regarding how the same data should be coded" (p. 2). Upon completion of peer review, subthemes were agreed upon and finalized. Dividing the total number of codes by the number of codes the peer reviewers agreed upon revealed an ICR of 0.86, which Landis and Koch (1977) considered perfect agreement and highly trustworthy.

Results and Key Findings

This research examined the relationships among hope, leadership, and change, the narratives with which leaders affect hope, and the most effective ways to use a high-hope leadership paradigm when advancing change throughout organizations. Herth (2007) described "leadership from a hope paradigm" as a mindset that "involves three components: strengthening the hoping self, minimizing hope inhibitors, and creating a vision of hope in others" (p. 12). It was posited that a high-hope mindset serves to counterbalance the 70% average failure rate for a transformational change initiative (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). In support of this

idea, Sergiovanni (2005) once stated, "Perhaps the most important and perhaps the most neglected leadership virtue is hope" (p. 77).

The temporal sequence of hopeful thinking is broken into three phases: (a) an individual's learning history, (b) the pre-event phase, and (c) the event sequence phase (Rand & Touza, 2021; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). Stemming from early childhood, learning history represents the foundation of an individual's ability to identify paths toward desired goals and motivate oneself to action (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b). With respect to learning history, success and failure of previous goal pursuits weigh heavy on the iterative process of hopeful thinking. In the pre-event phase, where anticipated value of future goals is evaluated, the individual must determine if a desired outcome is worthy of pursuit. Outcomes that activate the event sequence phase "must have reasonably high importance to necessitate continued mental attention" (Snyder, 2000, p. 12). If an outcome is determined to have enough worth, and the event sequence is activated, an iterative process between the pre-event and event sequence begins.

The three primary themes for hopeful change leaders, often referred to as the building blocks of hope, reside within the event sequence, those being: (a) Goals, which pull individuals through the entire process of hoping and anchor Snyder's (2002) hope theory; (b) Pathways thinking (waypower), which is built on the idea of connecting one's current state with a desired future state over time. Pathways thinking is defined as "the mental plans or roadmaps that guide hopeful thought" (Snyder, 1994b, p. 8); and (c) Agency thinking (willpower), which is, "the perceived capacity to use one's pathways to reach desired goals" (p. 251). Willpower is what initiates movement, maintains progress, and is often perceived as perseverance in an individual's goal journey (Snyder, 1994b, 2000).

The hopeful change leader must also understand the role of emotion within the event

sequence. Snyder (2000, 2002), having connected emotions to progress toward personal goal pursuits, emphasized the thinking process within hope theory's event sequence. Accordingly, "The unimpeded pursuit of goals should produce positive emotions, whereas goal barriers may yield negative feelings" (Snyder, 2000, p. 11). It is expected, then, that differing emotional sets manifest in high-hope (i.e., positive emotions) versus low-hope (i.e., negative emotions) individuals when pursuing goals (Snyder, 2002). Last, as hope theory matured from 2000 to 2002, two outside influences were introduced to hope theory's event sequence, those being surprise events and stressors (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). This development is significant, with the creator of hope theory demonstrating an openness to meaningful impact from outside forces on a specific individual's goal pursuit journey. It is the combination of perceived success or failure, emotions, surprise events, and stressors that ultimately form a feedback and feed-forward mechanism throughout the temporal sequence of hopeful thinking.

Most importantly, hope has been established as a reliable predictor of higher-level athletic performance, favorable educational outcomes, better physical health, and mental wellbeing (Curry et al., 1997; Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). The concept of high-hope leadership has also been attributed to better financial performance, employee engagement, and organizational resilience of professional working environments (Norman et al., 2005; Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Such powerful evidence of a leader's ability to leverage hopeful thinking to advance positive outcomes in life reveals the importance of understanding transformational leadership through a hope paradigm. Applying Snyder's hope theory, this study sought to understand better what narratives hopeful leaders apply to advance positive organizational change relative to Lewin's Change Theory?

Conclusion 1

Research Question 1 was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to advance unfreezing? This research question correlates to two themes within Snyder's (2002) hope theory, those being goals and agency thinking. Of the eight transcripts included in this study, 100% of them addressed both goals and agency thinking themes. Of the emergent patterns derived from all eight transcripts, 26 original subthemes were identified for the first research question. A majority of the data was mappable into five notable subthemes, those being narratives that reflect: (a) an orientation toward action, (b) the need to dream big, (c) possessing core values, (d) identifying shared purpose, and (e) building trust among teams. A summary of each is outlined below:

- Action orientation: Simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways to reach goals has little value without action. As hopeful change leaders look to unfreeze an organization, their narratives possess an unmistakable bias toward action, putting focus on the importance of taking that first step. There seems to be an understanding that prioritizing, overcoming procrastination, being action-oriented, and addressing the most crucial tasks are skills paramount to a change effort's success. As change leaders, their narratives align with the goal of helping followers believe they have the capacity to motivate themselves in pursuit of a goal.

- Dream big: This subtheme seamlessly bridges hope and leadership by addressing both the goal and its perceived outcome value in the pre-event sequence. Through the lens of transformational leadership, the narratives intended to inspire a shared vision for the future and motivate followers. Through the lens of hope theory, the narratives are

emphasizing the value of desired outcomes in a way designed to activate the hope sequence. However, it is important to note that while the leaders in this study were successful in avoiding false hope, Snyder (2002) warned that poorly chosen goals (e.g., too big) may result in just that. Luthans and Jensen (2002) offered guidance for how to dream big while avoiding false hope by: (a) forming difficult but not impossible goals, (b) breaking goals down into manageable steps, (c) identifying contingency plans, (d) focusing on the change journey, (e) being persistent in the face of obstacles, and (f) skillfully choosing alternative paths or re-goaling altogether.

- Core values: Burnes (2004b) discussed the need to unlearn old behaviors before new behaviors can be adopted. Understanding that an organization's core values drive behavior and help describe its desired culture (Schein, 2017), the narratives in this study paid special attention to shared values that serve to highlight problems within the system's current state and unfreeze the organization. In a sense, if the system's current state violates one or more of an organization's core values, then there is no other choice than to act.

- Shared purpose: Helland and Winston (2005) spoke to the importance of shared purpose and its ability to influence positively and motivate followers. The narratives of hopeful change leaders establish a common vision and inspire pursuit in a way that satisfies individual, organizational, and in many cases community needs. The aim of the narratives in this study was clearly to use shared purpose in a manner that provided focus, and to emphasize how the organization should view and conduct itself.

- Build trust: Unfreezing an organization entails overcoming individual resistance and

group conformity (Lewin, 1947a). Grama and Todericiu (2016) identified lack of trust as a primary driver for the resistance of change; with lack of trust stemming from previously failed attempts at change or the organization not fully understanding the motivation for why change is happening. Leaders consistently leaned on past experiences to establish credibility, and were intentional about the congruency of words and actions so that trust can flourish.

Conclusion 2

Research Question 2 was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to initiate change? This research question correlates with agency thinking and pathways thinking within Snyder's (2002) hope theory. Of the eight transcripts included in this study, 100% of them addressed the pathways thinking theme. Of the emergent patterns derived from all eight transcripts, 19 original subthemes were identified for the first research question. A majority of the data was mappable into five notable subtheme categories, those being narratives that reflect: (a) persistence, (b) passion, (c) ownership, (d) creativity, and (e) anticipation.

- Persistence: Not every leader's narrative anticipated the types of barriers their organization may encounter. However, they all assumed or directly addressed challenges up to and including previous failure. The same willpower that was required to take a first step is now leaned on heavily to maintain progress or overcome apathy, doubt, and fear. Just as important, the persistence that results from an indominable will served to activate identification of possible alternatives when a current path was no longer viable. This type of narrative aligns well with one of Schein's (2017) two mechanisms for driving new behavior, specifically to nurture a mindset of trial and error that encourages solutioning to persist until something works

and fits within the context and environment of the problem.

- Passion: This theme honors the iterative process between hope theory's pre-event and event sequence phases, where the appraised outcome value is consistently being questioned by participants in a change journey. Leaning on powerful words such as love, devotion, and courage, words that lever emotion's role in progress toward a goal pursuit, passion was used time and again in effort to elicit positive emotions and reinforce a desired outcome's overall value to the organization.

- Ownership: Narratives related to ownership demonstrated an appreciation for Lewin's (1947a) strong belief that the best way to drive lasting change is to allow those who face a problem to solve it. Ownership narratives also introduced a sense of control to the organization, and today's neuroscience suggests that hope can in fact be created by introducing the perception of control (Maier & Seligman, 2016; Seligman, 2018). Perceived control causes the brain to "react to bad events as if they are escapable, thereby prolonging trying" (Seligman, 2018, p. 375). Maier and Seligman (2016) even suggested that perceived control was enduring, transituational, and immunized subjects from passive and anxious feelings in the face of stressors.

- Creativity: Snyder (2000) emphasized the importance of pathways thinking by acknowledging that life often presents unforeseen obstacles that do not allow for the simple pursuit of goals. In fact, it is often necessary to produce multiple routes toward goal attainment—a key attribute of high-hope minded individuals. In this study, narratives consistently reinforced creativity in the face of barriers or stressors and took aim at the feedback and feed-forward mechanism through the temporal sequence of hope. Luthans and Jensen (2002) celebrated creativity as a primary tool for

developing hope, emphasizing that the effort required to set a goal should always be matched by the effort of thinking creatively and communicating contingency pathways when a barrier is encountered.

- Anticipation: This subtheme took on both anticipatory anxiety and the amount of energy that should be given to things that haven't happened yet, as well as managing the emotion set of their organization (e.g., joy and confidence vs. passivity and negativity). First, acknowledging nothing is certain and that success is not guaranteed shifts pressure from the organization to the change leader. Second, anticipatory narratives allowed space for potential problems to be identified early and often, but then used these ideas to reinforce pathways thinking rather than become paralyzed as an organization.

Conclusion 3

Research Question 3 was: What narratives do hopeful leaders apply to enact refreezing? This research question correlates with goals within Snyder's (2002) hope theory. Of the eight transcripts included in this study, 100% of them addressed the goal theme. Of the emergent patterns derived from all eight transcripts, 20 original subthemes were identified for the first research question. A majority of the data was mappable into five notable subtheme categories, those being narratives that reflect: (a) impact, (b) education, (c) greater good, (d) community, and (e) gratitude.

- Impact: As Schein (2017) pointed out, when trying to refreeze an organization, the behaviors necessary to sustain an outcome must be congruent with espoused values, observable structures, and the change effort's ultimate goal. The narratives in this study were thoughtful in expressing how their organization impacted both the

organization and lives of whomever they were trying to serve, and more importantly, were attempting to make their audience feel it. The leaders were honoring Lewin's (1947a) belief that achieving a goal does not guarantee permanency, and that permanency of the new level is what ultimately delivers desired impact. This subtheme also serves to develop hope in others, as specificity in goal creation and clarifying the ultimate impact was identified by Luthans and Jensen (2002) as a hope developer.

- Education: Successful change is underpinned by effective training and education (Bass & Avolio, 1994) Narratives in this study never took for granted that new behaviors, new policies, or new processes could be embraced without educating the organization. As Schein (2017) noted, survival anxiety must be greater than learning anxiety for a change effort to stabilize, both of which require a dedication to education. Throughout the transcripts researched, commitment to education was repeatedly referenced as the primary tool for cementing a desired future state.

- Greater good: Change must be embraced with new values and traditions for it to sustain (Schein, 2017). Building off the importance of impact from a change effort for the organization, the narratives from this study repeatedly attempted to amplify success by connecting impact with a greater good. Seemingly, the organization can do good (i.e., optimized supply chain) by being good (i.e., human rights). It was evident leader narratives were seeking adoption of new values and traditions, to refreeze the organization, by connecting work that has already been done with a greater good.

- Community: As Crosby (2021) noted, "Leveraging group dynamics opens a doorway for influencing individuals at the level of values and beliefs" (p. 9). Narratives that

speak to community, togetherness, or in general, establish that those involved have

something in common, were frequently used to drive new values and traditions in

support of refreezing an organization. These narratives connect directly to Lewin's

(1947a, 1947b) focus on group versus individual dynamics.

- Gratitude: Helland and Winston (2005) identified four processes effective leaders can

  employ to influence positively and motivate followers, one of which was

  understanding the value followers place on a specific goal pursuit and their

  expectations related to both extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Bass and Avolio (1994)

  laid out five general lessons for connecting leadership and change, reinforcing that

  sustained change requires effective rewards and recognition. The narratives from this

  study made sure to express appreciation for all involved, simultaneously honoring

  personal sacrifices and celebrating organizational wins in the process. By expressing

  gratitude, the efforts of those involved were publicly recognized and rewarded.

Implications for the Study

Research shows that hope is a predictor of successful outcomes in the domains of

education, sports, and numerous aspects of physical and mental health (Curry et al., 1997;

Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, &

Anderson, 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). Research also indicates that hope is measurable as both a

leader trait and an individual's state of being (Curry et al., 1997; Shorey et al., 2002; Snyder,

1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder, Irving, & Anderson, 1991; Snyder et al.,

2002). This study examined how a hopeful mindset informs innovative approaches to change

management and reveals consistently more positive outcomes. Evidenced by the eight transcripts

included in this research, it was concluded that hopeful change leaders do, in fact, advance

organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. This research demonstrates that the narratives of a hopeful change leader offer ways and means for developing hopeful thinking in themselves, organizational leaders, and followers participating in an organizational change effort. The narratives were also skillful at addressing dynamics that inhibit hopeful thinking, both complimenting and enhancing Lewin's (1947a) three-step change management model when pursuing organizational change efforts. Finally, their narratives directly encouraged and brought to maturity others in their hopefulness, with and through a hopeful leadership paradigm.

The fundamental belief in a brighter tomorrow underpins hopeful leadership and an awareness that change is both possible and right. Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000) asserted, "From a clinician's perspective, hope is the stuff that facilitates change" (p. 58). To successfully operationalize leadership through a hope paradigm, specifically in the context of change management, organizations would do well to understand the hope event sequence and the instruments that measure hope. Not only does this data predict positive outcomes, but understanding the dispositional hope of peers and colleagues alike opens the door for hopeful interventions. This approach matters because it has been established that hopeful thought can be created and destroyed, and as Snyder (2002) pointed out, "hope is learned," and emphasized that "we learn hopeful, goal-directed thinking in the context of other people" (p. 263). By effectively combining hopeful narratives uncovered in this study with proven processes leaders employ to influence positively and motivate followers, it is possible to improve the success rates of attempted change initiatives.

The Hopeful Change Leader

These findings should inform strategic, long-term, talent management processes

throughout organizations, specifically in the fields of human capital and talent management. A better understanding of the hopeful change leader's value to an organization has the potential to bolster talent identification, talent selection, training, developing, retention, and promotion processes. In short, growing hopeful change leaders, or acquiring them into an organization, proves strategically important to overcoming failure rates of transformational change initiatives that approach 70% (Beer & Nohria, 2000; Sirkin et al., 2005). The narratives of a hopeful change leader have demonstrated the ability to strengthen the hoping self, minimize hope inhibitors, and create a vision of hope in others. As Snyder (2000, 2002) matured hope theory, he demonstrated an openness to meaningful impact on the goal pursuit journey from outside influences when he introduced surprise events and stressors. Inherent in this position is the possibility of other, more positive outside influences. It is, therefore, proposed, and presented in Figure 13, that the hopeful change leader be considered as a third and positively oriented outside influence for organizations within Snyder's (2002) hope theory.

Figure 13

Proposed Evolution of Snyder's Hope Theory
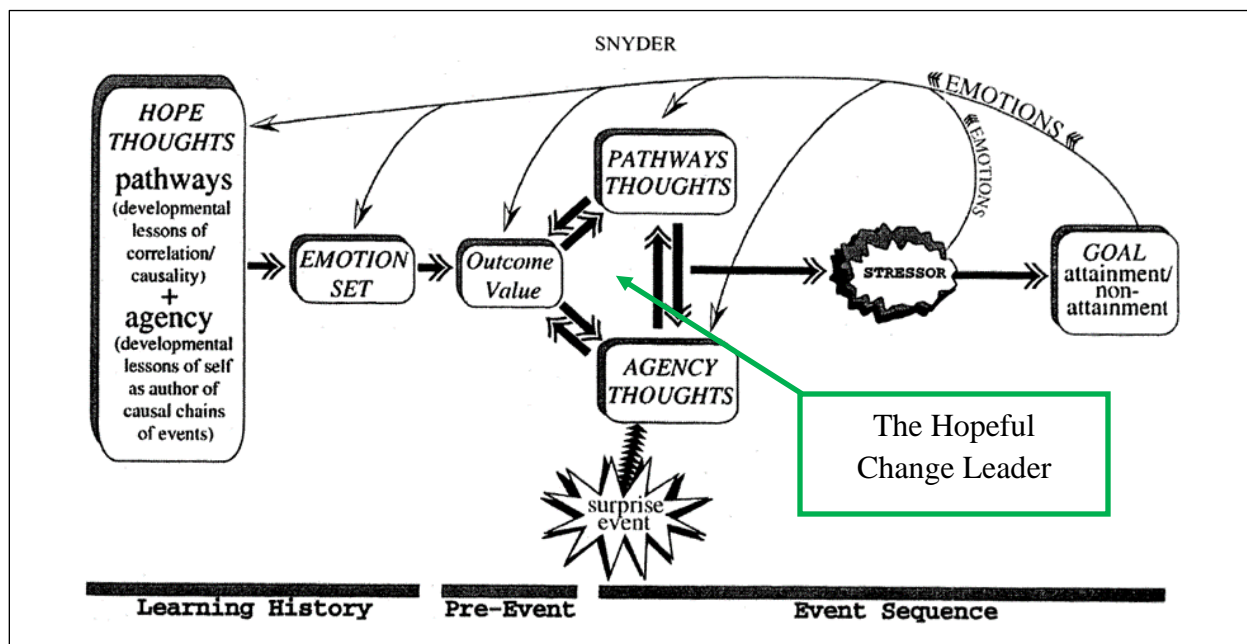
Note. From "Hope theory: Rainbows in the Mind," by C. R. Snyder, 2002, *Psychological Inquiry, 13*(4), p. 254 (https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1304_01). Copyright 2002 by Taylor & Francis Group. Reprinted with permission. (see Appendix A)

A hopeful change leader is first and foremost transformational, made up of four distinct components that aim to assist followers in reaching their full potential: (a) idealized influence, serving as a moral and ethical role model; (b) inspirational motivation, setting high expectations and inspiring team pursuit; (c) intellectual stimulation, making space for creative and innovative thinkers; and (d) individualized consideration, considering follower needs and wants (Bass, 1985, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993, 1994). Second, a hopeful change leader adopts a proven change management framework. This research recommends Lewin's (1947a) three-step model, referencing it as best practice and comprising three steps: (a) unfreezing, where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity; (b) changing behavior, where

a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process; and (c) refreezing, when change is embraced with new values and traditions. Finally, a hopeful change leader possesses a hopeful mindset, defined as, "strengthening the hoping self, minimizing hope inhibitors, and creating a vision of hope in others" (Herth, 2007, p. 12).

Leveraging the building blocks of hope (i.e., agency, willpower, and waypower), the research indicates that the narratives of hopeful change leaders ultimately do advance organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. Most importantly, it seems mission critical that organizations be intentional about acquiring and nurturing the mindset of a hopeful leader, and that combining this mindset with the manifestation of transformational leadership (the person), and Lewin's (1947b) three-step model for change (the toolset) will positively and more consistently advance needed change.

The task of implementing leadership through a hope paradigm can prove daunting, and as Youssef and Luthans (2007) pointed out, "both conceptual analysis and research on these capacities are scarce and fragmented" (p. 792). Maier and Seligman's (2016) recent neurobiological research on the brain's hope circuit offers a possible order of operation. What triggers the hope circuit is perceived control, which causes the brain to "react to bad events as if they are escapable, thereby prolonging trying. This is why expert athletes, soldiers, and pilots are calm under pressure. Their brains detect and expect control when others panic and freeze" (Seligman, 2018, p. 375). Maier and Seligman (2016) would even suggest that perceived control is enduring, transituational, and immunized subjects from passive and anxious feelings in the face of stressors. Therefore, a hopeful change leader should first and foremost connect their followers to a brighter future through narratives and interventions that offer a sense of control. Why is this important? Because a sense of control leads to hope, and hope leads to success. As

Koestenbaum (1991) said:

> A leadership mind is characterized by hope. …What is needed is hope, the realistic perception that there is a way out, that there is a future, that there is a solution. The leader has the capacity and the will to take charge of generating hope. (p. 65)

As it turns out, there may be nothing more potent at generating hope in others than offering them a sense of control.

Hopeful Story Telling

Not only did this study aid with understanding the relationships among hope, leadership, and change, it also uncovered narratives that positively affect hope and how leaders use a high-hope paradigm to advance organizational change. This brings to bear two important points. The first, which was not covered in this study and reinforces recommendations for future research, is whether the leader's storytelling ability inherently matters. Does a hopeful change leader's ability to introduce the primary elements of a traditional story arc (e.g., characters, a setting, and a plotline) drastically affect development and delivery of high-impact narratives in support of change? For those unfamiliar with the typical story arc, one is usually composed of: (a) an introduction of the characters and a set location, (b) rising tension, (c) a climactic moment, (d) tension resolution, and (e) an ending to the story (Clarke, 2009).

Second, within their stories, leaders are best served when they create story arcs with hopeful narratives that are tailored to the specific stage of an ongoing change effort. When seeking to unfreeze an organization, narratives that reflect: (a) an orientation toward action, (b) the need to dream big, (c) possessing core values, (d) identifying shared purpose, and (e) building trust among teams, prove beneficial. When seeking to change an organization, narratives that reflect: (a) persistence, (b) passion, (c) ownership, (d) creativity, and (e)

anticipation, have demonstrated effectiveness. Finally, when seeking to refreeze an organization, narratives that reflect: (a) impact, (b) education, (c) greater good, (d) community, and (e) gratitude, are effective. When used together, these types of narratives do positively advanced organization change. It is, therefore, proffered that developing an awareness of, and ability to, deploy situationally narratives in support of stage specific change is paramount to long-term success.

Recommendations for Future Research

The research findings from this study should benefit leaders, researchers, educators, and instructional designers focused on global leadership and change throughout academia and professional realms. They also inform strategic, long-term, talent management processes throughout organizations, specifically in the fields of human capital and talent management. However, further research is required to understand better a hopeful change leader's value to an organization, and their potential to bolster talent identification, talent selection, training, development, retention, and promotional processes. There appears to be, at minimum, three avenues of primary concern for future research. First, quantitative or mixed-method studies, research that concurrently quantifies the hopefulness of a change leader next to the outcome of a change effort, would prove highly valuable to the existing body of knowledge. Second, a deep-dive into the leader's storytelling ability, measured against the various narrative subthemes and the weight of their individual impact, seems important for broader application of these findings. Understanding content, delivery, and the skillful combination of both is important. This lane also invites the addition of new or more impactful narratives as society evolves and matures around current events. Finally, better understanding hopeful actions appears to be highly complementary to the current understanding hopeful narratives.

Chapter Summary

Applying Snyder's (2002) hope theory, the purpose of this study was to explore how hopeful leaders advance positive outcomes in organizational change. With such strong evidence of hopeful thinking's ability to improve outcomes, a research gap on how change leaders operationalize hope in their organizations was revealed. The gap in current research was addressed by studying the narratives of eight transformational leaders in an effort to understand better: (a) the relationships among hope, leadership, and change; (b) how leaders' narratives affect hope; and (c) and how to use a high-hope leadership paradigm to advance organizational change.

Using Hope theory (Snyder, 2002), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), and Lewin's (1947a) three-step model for change, it was concluded that hopeful change leaders do, in fact, advance organizational change faster and with greater reliability than their lower-hope counterparts. Two goals were accomplished by identifying 15 narrative approaches aligned with unfreezing, changing, and refreezing an organization. First, the results of this study contribute to the existing body of literature surrounding hope, leadership, and change. Second, greater clarity was gained for how hopeful change leaders operationalize the building blocks of hope throughout their organizations.

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APPENDIX A

Request for Permission to Reprint Snyder's Hope Theory

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APPENDIX B

Adult Dispositional Hope Scale

The following is an example of the Adult Dispositional Hope Scale items and directions for administering and scoring (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991, p. 585).

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 = Mostly True, 4 = Definitely True

_____ 1. I can think of many ways to get out of a jam. (Pathways)

_____ 2. I energetically pursue my goals. (Agency)

_____ 3. I feel tired most of the time. (Filler)

_____ 4. There are lots of ways around any problem. (Pathways)

_____ 5. I am easily downed in an argument. (Filler)

_____ 6. I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are most important to me. (Pathways)

_____ 7. I worry about my health. (Filler)

_____ 8. Even when others get discouraged, I Know I can find a way to solve the problem. (Pathways)

_____ 9. My past experiences have prepared me well for my future. (Agency)

_____ 10. I've been pretty successful in life. (Agency)

_____ 11. I usually find myself worrying about something. (Filler)

_____ 12. I meet the goals that I set for myself. (Agency)

Note: When administered, Lopez et al. (2000) "have called this the Goals Scale rather than the Hope Scale because on some occasions when giving the scale, people became sufficiently interested in the fact that hope could be measured that they wanted to discuss this rather than taking the scale. No such problems have been encountered with the rather mundane Goals Scale" (pp. 76–77).

In its original form, a 4-point continuum (from 1 = *definitely false* to 4 = *definitely true*) was used for early studies (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). However, in more recent studies, an 8-point scale has been adopted to encourage diversity of responses (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000; Lopez et al., 2003). It is important to note that either the 4- or 8-point scale can be used. Of the total inventory, "four items reflect agency (2, 9, 10, and 12), four items reflect pathways (1, 4, 6, and 8), and four items are distractors (3, 5, 7, and 11)" (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000, p. 59). Agency and pathway items are summed to yield a total hope score. When administering the test, distractor items should not be used for scoring, resulting in a range of 8 to 32 points for the 4-point continuum or 8 to 64 points for the 8-point continuum. These scores can then be utilized to identify high-hope individuals and examine natural behaviors that lead to hopefulness (Snyder, 1995). Snyder et al. (1999) also used the Adult Dispositional Hope scale to predict superior achievements, better health, and successful coping.

APPENDIX C

Adult State Hope Scale

The following is an example of the Adult State Hope Scale items and directions for administering and scoring (Snyder et al., 1996, p. 335).

Directions: Read each item carefully. Using the scale shown below, please select the number that best describes how you think about yourself right now and put that number in the blank provided. Please take a few moments to focus on yourself and what is going on in your life at this moment. Once you have this "here and now" set, go ahead and answer each item according to the following scale: 1 = Definitely False, 2 = Mostly False, 3 = Somewhat False, 4 = Slightly False, 5 = Slightly True, 6 = Somewhat True, 7 = Mostly True, and 8 = Definitely True.

_____ 1. If I should find myself in a jam, I could think of many ways to get out of it.

_____ 2. At the present time, I am energetically pursuing my goals.

_____ 3. There are lots of ways around any problem that I am facing now.

_____ 4. Right now I see myself as being pretty successful.

_____ 5. I can think of many ways to reach my current goals.

_____ 6. At this time, I am meeting the goals that I have set for myself.

Note. When administering the measure, it is labeled the Goals Scale. The even-numbered items are agency, and the odd-numbered items are pathways. Subscales scores for agency or pathways are derived by adding the three even- and odd-numbered items, and the total State Hope Scale score is the sum of all six items.

Written at a sixth-grade reading level, and requiring about 2 to 5 minutes for completion, this six-item inventory is also simple to administer and can be hand scored in less than 1 minute (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000). Responses fall on an 8-point continuum (ranging from 1 = *definitely true* to 8 = *definitely false*), measuring both agency (even numbered items) and pathways (odd-numbered items) subscales, as well as a total state hope score, which is obtained by summing all six items (Snyder et al., 1996). Each subscale, therefore, can range from scores of 3 to 24, with the total State Hope scale scores ranging from a low of 6 to a high of 48. Useful for a variety of purposes, the State Hope scale is,

> especially useful in pre-post research designs in which the focus is upon changes in goal-directed thinking. In addition, it can be used to study how state ("here and now") hope is related to ongoing goal-related activities such as sports, work, and relationships. (Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al., 2000, p. 68)
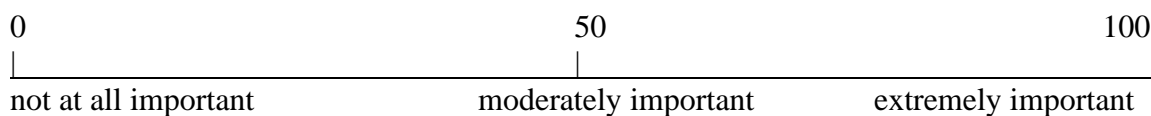
APPENDIX D

Adult Domain Specific Hope Scale

The following is an example of the Adult Domain Specific Hope Scale items and directions for administering and scoring (Sympson, 1999, pp. 69–72).

All of us have different areas in our lives; these can be thought of as life arenas. As a college student, for example, you have an academic life arena that encompasses your performance in your classes. Many of you also will have a work arena which includes your current or past jobs. Most students will recognize a social arena that involves your relationships. Our family arena involves our roles within our families, as well as how we interact with family members. Finally, many individuals are involved in other activities such as sports, music, art, or writing which are important to them. These activities can be thought of as our leisure arena.

Most of us assign different levels of importance to our individual life arenas. Using the following scale, assign a number from 0 to 100 to rate how important each of the following life arenas are to you personally.

0	50	100
not at all important	moderately important	extremely important

Social Arena _____   **Romantic Arena** _____   **Family Arena** _____

Academic Arena _____   **Work Arena** _____   **Leisure Arena** _____

In addition to the importance of each life arena, we also have different expectations or standards associated with each arena. For instance, some people might have very high

expectations for themselves in the academic area. They might be aiming for a GPA of

4.0. Their satisfaction with that arena of their life would be high if they met that goal and

low if they fell below that level of performance. Your satisfaction is a combination of

your expectations and your performance. Keeping this in mind, please rate your level of

satisfaction with each life arena by assigning a number from 0 to 100 using the following

scale.

```
0                                50                              100
|_____|_____|
not at all important       moderately important       extremely important
```

Social Arena _____   **Romantic Arena _____**   **Family Arena _____**

Academic Arena _____   **Work Arena _____**   **Leisure Arena _____**

Instructions: Please take a moment to contemplate each of the following life arenas

before you answer the questions in each section. If a particular question does not apply to

you at this time, try to answer it as you would if they did fit your situation (e.g. you don't

have a job right now so you think of your last job). Using the scale below, select the

number that best describes your response to each question.

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

Please take a moment to contemplate your social life. Think about your friendships and

acquaintances and how you interact with others. Once you have this in mind, answer the

following questions using the scale above.

SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS (Friendships, casual acquaintances)

_____ 1. I can think of many ways to make friends.

_____ 2. I actively pursue friendships.

_____ 3. There are lots of ways to meet new people.

_____ 4. I can think of many ways to be included in the groups that are important to me.

_____ 5. I've been pretty successful where friendships are concerned.

_____ 6. Even when someone seems unapproachable, I know I can find a way to break

the ice.

_____ 7. My past social experiences have prepared me to make friends in the future.

_____ 8. When I meet someone I want to be friends with, I usually succeed.

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

Please take a moment to contemplate your academic life. Think about your classes and

your coursework. Once you have this in mind, answer the following questions using the

scale above.

ACADEMICS (School, coursework)

_____ 1. I can think of lots of ways to make good grades.

_____ 2. I energetically pursue my school work.

_____ 3. There are lots of ways to meet the challenges of any class.

_____ 4. Even if the course is difficult, I know I can find a way to succeed.

_____ 5. I've been pretty successful in school.

_____ 6. I can think of lots of ways to do well in classes that are important to me.

_____ 7. My past academic experiences have prepared me well for future success.

_____ 8. I get the grades I want in my classes.

_____ 9. If you read this question, place an x on the line.

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

Please take a moment to contemplate your love life. Think about your romantic

relationships. Once you have this in mind, answer the following questions using the scale

above.

ROMANTIC RELATIONSHIPS

_____ 1. I can think of many ways to get to know someone I'm attracted to.

_____ 2. When I am interested in someone romantically, I actively pursue him or her.

_____ 3. There are lots of ways to convince someone to go out with me.

_____ 4. I've been pretty successful in my romantic relationships.

_____ 5. I can think of many ways to keep someone interested in me when they are

important.

_____ 6. My past romantic relationships have prepared me well for future involvements.

_____ 7. Even when someone doesn't seem interested, I know I can find a way to get

their attention.

_____ 8. I can usually get a date when I set my mind to it.

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

Please take a moment to contemplate your family life. Think about your family members. Once you have this in mind, answer the following questions using the scale above.

FAMILY LIFE

_____ 1. I can think of lots of things I enjoy doing with my family.

_____ 2. I energetically work on maintaining family relationships.

_____ 3. I can think of many ways to include my family in things that are important.

_____ 4. If you read this question, place an x on the line.

_____ 5. I have a pretty successful family life.

_____ 6. Even when we disagree, I know my family can find a way to solve our

   problems.

_____ 7. I have a kind of relationship that I want with family members.

_____ 8. There are lots of ways to communicate my feelings to family members.

_____ 9. My experiences with my family have prepared me for a family of my own.

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

Please take a moment to contemplate your work life. Think about your job and job history. Once you have this in mind, answer the following questions using the scale above.

WORK

_____ 1. I can think of many ways to find a job.

_____ 2. I am energetic at work.

_____ 3. There are lots of ways to succeed at work.

_____ 4. Even if it's a lousy job, I can usually find something good about it.

_____ 5. I have a good work record.

_____ 6. My previous work experiences have helped prepare me for future success.

_____ 7. I can always find a job if I set my mind to it.

_____ 8. I can think of lots of ways to impress my boss if the job is important to me.

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

Please take a moment to contemplate your leisure time. Think about the activities that you enjoy doing in your spare time. For some this may be sports or music or art. Once you have this in mind, answer the following questions using the scale above.

LEISURE ACTIVITIES (Sports, music, art, reading, biking, etc.)

_____ 1. I can think of may satisfying things to do in my spare time.

_____ 2. I energetically pursue my leisure time activities.

_____ 3. If my planned leisure time activities fall through, I can find something else to do that I enjoy.

_____ 4. I can think of lots of ways to make time for the activities that are important to me.

_____ 5. Even if others don't think my activities are important, I still enjoy doing them.

_____ 6. My experiences with hobbies and other leisure time activities are important to

my future.

_____ 7. I have satisfying activities that I do in my leisure time.

_____ 8. When I try to perform well in leisure time activities, I usually succeed.

Scoring: A DHS total score (which ranges from 48 to 384) is obtained by summing the

scores across the 48 items, whereas the domain specific scores are obtained by summing

the eight items within each domain.

An individual's Domain Specific Hope scale score, which can range from a low

of 48 to a high of 384, is obtained by summing the scores across the 48 items; the domain

specific scores are obtained by summing the eight items within each domain (Sympson,

1999). Lopez, Ciarlelli, et al. (2000) described the Domain Specific Hope scale as having,

"adequate internal consistency, with an overall alpha of 0.93, and alphas for the domain

subscales ranging from a low of 0.86 to a high of 0.93" (p. 62). For validity, Sympson

(1999) found that every subscale within the Domain Specific Hope scale correlated

significantly with other psychometric measures most closely related conceptually. Still in

its infancy, Sympson's domain specific research has spurred additional research across

interpersonal hope (Campbell & Kwon, 2001), math hope (Robinson & Rose, 2010),

writing hope (Sieben, 2013), work hope (Juntunen & Wettersten, 2006), and employment

hope (Hong et al., 2012).

APPENDIX E

Interviewing for Hope

Lopez et al. (2000) present "several lists of queries to address the components of hope," and leaders "can select queries from these lists to weave together a hope interview that elicits needed information" (pp. 69–71).

General Hope Queries

- When you experience difficulty in reaching a goal, do you think that it is because you have used the wrong strategy or because you lack talent and/or ability?

- Are you capable of making plans to move forward even when you encounter obstacles?

- Overall, do you think that you reach your goals?

- Do you have difficulty recalling past successes?

- In pursuing a goal, is it easier for you to plan how to reach your goal, or to motivate yourself to follow through with your plans?

- Generally, how will you know if you're on the right path to achieving your desired goals?

- How will you know when it's achieved? When you reach your goal, what will be different in your life?

- What do you say to yourself as you work toward something you want?

- How true is this statement for you: "I usually get the things I want in life."

- If I were to ask your parents (friends, spouse) to list three words that would describe you, what would they say? What would you say?

- Tell me about a fine accomplishment in your personal/professional life. What did you

learn from that experience?

- Tell me about a time when you accomplished something after many hardships and setbacks. What kept you going? Tell me about the paths you took to reach your aims.

Goal Queries

- How do you go about setting your goals?

- Can you explain in detail a goal that you currently are pursuing?

- Describe one goal you'd like to attain. What steps will you take to reach that goal?

- How many goals do you pursue at a given time?

- What goals have you set for yourself today / this week / this year?

- What is your general "success rate" at achieving your desired outcomes?

- Would you consider yourself a goal-oriented person? Why or why not?

Agency Queries

- Are you determined when trying to meet your goals?

- On a scale of 1 to 10, with 1 being "not much" and 10 being "very strong," how motivated are you to work toward a desired outcome?

- How successful have you been at setting and reaching your aims?

- Where do you see yourself now / in a month / in a year / in 5 years?

- How are you making sure that you will be successful?

Pathways Queries

- If the original pathway to your goal doesn't work, how easy is it for you to make other plans to reach that same goal?

- How do you usually go about getting what you want?

- What strategies have you used or, do you use, to solve your problem(s)?

- When encountering obstacles to your goals, how do you get around them?

- What plans do you have for today / this week / this year / 5 years / your life?

- When you have been successful at accomplishing your past goals, how did you do it?

- How would you describe your ability to reach your goals and to find ways around obstacles?

Barriers Queries

- When faced with a difficult problem, how do you react?

- How do you feel when you encounter a barrier to a goal?

- Are there prejudiced practices in your community / workplace that impede your progress?

- How do you rate your ability to handle setbacks?

- Tell me about a time you faced a major barrier to your goal attainment.

APPENDIX F

Research Code Book with Definitions

Name	Description	Transcripts	References
Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory	Bass (1985) defined transformational leadership as motivating others to achieve higher-than-expected outcomes by raising "our level of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes…By getting us to transcend our own self-interests for the sake of the team…By altering our need level on Maslow's (or Alderfer's) hierarchy" (p. 20).	8	96
Idealized Influence	Idealized influence is present when transformational leaders "behave in ways that result in their being role models for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted… demonstrate high standards of ethical and moral conduct…avoids using power for personal gain and only when needed" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).	7	22
Individual Consideration	Individualized consideration is present when transformational leaders "pay special attention to each individual's needs for achievement and growth by acting as coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively achieve higher levels of potential" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).	8	19
Inspirational Motivation	Inspirational motivation is present when transformational leaders "behave in ways that	8	33

	motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader gets followers involved in envisioning attractive future states" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).		
Intellectual Stimulation	Intellectual stimulation is present when transformational leaders "stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged. There is no public criticism of individual members' mistakes" (Bass & Avolio, 1994, p. 3).	8	22
Lewin's Three-Strep Change Model		8	106
Change	Where a new equilibrium is targeted for a system or process.	8	51
Refreeze	When change is embraced with new values and traditions.	8	26
Unfreeze	Where the change leader must overcome individual resistance and group conformity.	8	29
Snyder's Hope Theory		8	321
Primary Codes (Event Sequence)	The temporal sequence of hopeful thinking, pictured in Figure 2 and moving from left to right, is broken into three phases: (a) an individual's learning history, (b) the pre-event phase, and (c) the event	8	151

	sequence phase (Rand & Touza, 2021; Snyder, 2000, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002).		
Agency Thoughts (Willpower)	Simply having a goal or possessing the mental capacity necessary for devising pathways to reach goals has little value without action. As agents, people must also believe they have the capacity to make or stop things from happening if they are to activate the hope event sequence (Lopez, 2013). Agency, therefore, represents an individual's perception that they can and will motivate themselves in pursuit of a goal (Rand & Touza, 2021; Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 2002). Snyder (2002) defined agency thinking,	8	41
Goals	Described by Gwinn and Hellman (2022) as the essence of being human, a salient argument can be made that every waking moment in a human being's life is dedicated, in some form or fashion, to goal attainment. This idea is built upon in goal setting theory, which established an underlying assumption that all human actions are both purposeful and intentional, and that goals are the mental targets necessary to guide human behavior (Latham & Locke, 1991; Lee et al., 1989; Locke & Latham, 1984, 1990; Pervin, 1989	8	52
Pathways Thoughts (Waypower)	Built on the idea of connecting one's current state with a desired future state over time, pathways thinking, also known as waypower within hope theory, is defined as the mental capacity one calls	8	58

	upon to establish one or more effective pathways to reach a desired goal (Snyder, 1994b, 2000, 2002; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991; Snyder et al., 2002). Very few have captured the need for pathways thinking more elegantly than de Saint-Exupery (2018), describing a goal without a plan as nothing more than a wish.		
Secondary Codes		8	170
Additional Event Sequence Codes	It is the combination of perceived success or failure, emotions, surprise events, and stressors that ultimately form a feedback and feed-forward mechanism throughout the temporal sequence.	8	51
Emotions (current success or failure, react to moment)	Snyder (2000, 2002), having connected emotions to progress toward personal goal pursuits, emphasized the thinking process within hope theory's event sequence. Accordingly, "The unimpeded pursuit of goals should produce positive emotions, whereas goal barriers may yield negative feelings" (Snyder, 2000, p. 11). It is expected, then, that differing emotional sets manifest in high-hope (i.e., positive emotions) versus low-hope (i.e., negative emotions) individuals when pursuing goals (Snyder, 2002).	8	19
Stressor	Snyder (2002) defined stressors as, "any impediment of sufficient magnitude to jeopardize hopeful thought" as the individual progresses through the event sequence (p. 254).	8	20
Surprise Events	Rand and Touza (2021) defined a surprise event as "one that occurs outside the context of an ongoing goal pursuit, and it can be positive (e.g., receiving a call from a long-lost friend) or negative (e.g., finding out the friend lost his home in a hurricane)" (p. 428). Experienced outside of hope theory's	7	12

	normal goal pursuit thought process, surprise events elicit a secondary emotion set related to the context of a specific goal pursuits and can prove additive or dilutive to agency thinking (Snyder, 2002).		
Learning History	Stemming from early childhood, learning history represents the foundation of an individual's ability to identify paths toward desired goals and motivate oneself to action (Snyder, 1994a, 1994b).	8	68
Hope Thoughts		8	29
Pre-Event		8	39
Outcome Value	In the pre-event phase, where anticipated value of future goals is evaluated, the individual must determine if a desired outcome is even worthy of pursuit.	8	51
	Outcomes that activate the event sequence phase "must have reasonably high importance to necessitate continued mental attention" (Snyder, 2000, p. 12). If an outcome is determined to have enough worth, and the event sequence is activated, an iterative process between the pre-event and event sequence begins. Highlighted by the bidirectional arrows in Figure 2, pathway thoughts and agency within the event sequence constantly influence an individual's appraised outcome value.	8	51