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Hope and Low Level Literacy of Haitians in Petit-Goave: Implications for Hope Theory and Adult Literacy Education

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HOPE AND LOW LEVEL LITERACY OF HAITIANS IN PETIT GOÂVE: IMPLICATIONS FOR HOPE THEORY AND ADULT LITERACY

by

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ABSTRACT

This cross-sectional study extended Snyder's Hope Theory (1991) by analyzing the difference in trait hope levels, pathway thinking, and agency thinking of pre-literate (no prior access to literacy) and non-literate (access to literacy, but little or no prior literacy education) Haitian adults. The data were derived from archival records of 135 students enrolled in Haitian-Kreyòl adult literacy classes in Petit-Goâve, Haiti. Mann-Whitney U results indicated that there were no significant differences in trait hope, pathway thinking, or agency thinking between the pre-literate and non-literate Haitian adults. Both groups reported average trait hope, average pathway thinking, and low agency thinking. Potential implications for adult literacy program and curriculum developers, evaluators, and teachers are discussed.

Dedicated to Roger Grissom,

My late husband who lost his life helping the people of Haiti.

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CHAPTER 1
THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

Literacy programs for adults in developing nations have been successful in decreasing the world's illiteracy rate. Participants in studies investigating the outcome of adult literacy programs in nations with high illiteracy have reported positive advantages from engaging in adult literacy classes. Some of the benefits reported included: health improvements (Burchfield, Hua, Baral, & Rocha, 2002); increased motivation from learners obtaining mother tongue literacy (Fagerberg-Diallo, 2001); increased self-esteem (Mace, 1999; Oxenham, Diallo, Katahoire, Petkova-Mwangi, & Sail, 2002; Prins, 2010); possible economic empowerment (Millican, 1990); improved and increased every day uses of literacy (Kagitcibasi, Goksen, & Gulgoz, 2005; Kalman, 2001; Maddox, 2007; Wedin, 2004; Wedin, 2008); and higher income potential in some cases (King, 1980; Kolawole, 2011; OECD, 1996; Trudell, 2009). However, despite efforts of adult literacy initiatives, there are still over 800 million illiterates in the world today (The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization, 2011). Due to self-reporting measures of literacy rates in many countries, this figure could possibly be an understatement of the actual illiteracy count.

Problem Statement

The fact that literacy is valuable and empowering is unquestionable by most people. However, some adult literacy programs in developing countries have been considered failures due to lack or loss of funding, high attrition rates, shortage of skilled

adult literacy instructors, and insufficient knowledge of the elements of successful, sustainable adult literacy programs (Comings & Smith, 1996). Part of this perception is due to the lack of research conducted in developing nations. This is an important distinction because the perceived need and use for adult literacy in a rural, developing country is different than that for an illiterate adult in an urban, western culture (Kagitcibasi, Goksen, & Gulgoz, 2005). Also, the level of literacy considered adequate for use in the community is considerably lower for rural, developing countries than in the United States (Comings & Smith, 1996). Moreover, poor program design and implementation has caused adult literacy programs to be classified as ineffective resulting in high attrition and low program sustainability (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005).

Programs have dwindled because there was not enough evidence provided that the adult literacy education provided ample improvement in the attitudes, behaviors, and actions of the participants during and after the literacy education program. The effect of literacy education in the daily lives of the participants that produce attitude and behavior changes cannot be effectuated in just a few months of instruction. The type of behavior changes that constitute a successful program have not been adequately identified.

A construct that has not been measured in conjunction with changes in attitudes, behaviors, and actions before, during, and after literacy involvement in an adult literacy program, is hope. Hope is a positive motivational state that is based on a *perceived* sense of successful (a) agency thinking (goal-directed energy/motivation) and (b) pathways thinking (planning/strategies to meet goals; Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). More particularly, trait hope is a person's overall hope as a characteristic; it is initiated at birth,

and continues to develop throughout childhood relative to attachment and bonding with primary caretakers (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). In the field of education, higher hope has positively correlated with greater academic achievements, such as higher grade point averages, persistence in the face of academic challenges, higher graduation rates, and higher test scores (Lopez, Bouwkamp, Edwards & Teramoto, 2000; Marques, Pais-Ribeiro & Lopez, 2009; Snyder, Hoza, et al., 1997). In a 5-week hope based intervention program, hope strategies helped middle school students enhance hope, life satisfaction and self-worth (Marque et al., 2011). Research studies have found that all students taking part in school hope programs have raised their hope levels, as well as their academic levels (Lopez et al., 2000). However, until now, the examination of hope and literacy education for adult illiterate populations in a developing nation was an unchartered course.

Hope is a construct that involves both thinking about goals, thinking about how to achieve goals, and thinking about staying motivated during a goal attainment process. Further, perceptions about goal attainment affect attitudes. For instance, a person with low hope does not think a lot about goals and typically chooses easy-to-attain goals (Snyder et al., 1991). A person with high hope has a positive attitude that welcomes the challenge of goal pursuits (Snyder et al., 1991).

Hope can be measured. The Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (ADHS) (Snyder et al., 1991) measures trait hope. Hope has been measured with elementary students (Snyder et al., 1997; Snyder, Cheavens et al., 1997), junior high and high school students (Gallup, 2009; Lesson, Ciarrochi & Heaven, 2008; Lopez et al., 2000; Marques et al.,

2011; Snyder et al., 1991), and college students (Chang, 1998, 2008; Curry et al., 1997; Snyder et al., 1991; Snyder, Shorey, et al., 2002). However, to date, no hope studies other than the research performed in the current study, have been completed analyzing hope levels of adults with little or no literacy education, or adults enrolled in literacy education classes.

Previous hope studies have focused on diverse groups, including

- African American, Latino, and Asian participants (Chang & Banks, 2007),
- Mexican participants (Arndt, 2004),
- Portuguese children (Lopez, 2000),
- Slovak university students (Halama, 1999),
- African American, Asian American, Hispanic, Native American, and White American college students (Munoz-Dunbar, 1993), and
- South African adults (Boyce & Harris, 2013).

The majority of hope studies have been conducted with population samples from European American participants. Furthermore, the literature review of adult literacy education did not produce any studies that investigated hope as a positive attitude or behavioral change resulting from adult literacy education. Moreover, no studies existed that considered the trait of high hope as a predictor of enrollment in an adult literacy program, a predictor of program success, sustainability, or source of motivation for education subsequent to basic adult literacy coursework. Finally, research does not exist regarding successful acquisition of basic literacy education as a predictor of increased hope.

Thus, in an effort to contribute to the field of literacy education for adult illiterates in a developing country and the field of hope, this study applied Snyder's Hope Theory to two groups of Haitians with little or no literacy. The *purpose* of conducting this cross-sectional study was to analyze the trait hope levels, pathway thinking, and agency thinking scores of two groups of illiterate Haitians.

The present investigation involved adult students from Haiti; in particular, a rural area known as Petit-Goâve. Petit-Goâve is an Atlantic Ocean coast town located in a rural area in the southwestern part of the country. It is located 42 miles southwest of Port-au-Prince and is seated on the main highway of that portion of the island. The town has a population of approximately 12,000 inhabitants and an estimated more than 170,000 people live its 12 surrounding villages located west of Port-au-Prince.

These rural Haitians have withstood historical situations, such as slavery, oppressive political leadership, war, and poverty, which have affected their educational system, literacy rate, economics, health, and living conditions (Hornbeck, 2010). Also, they have survived frequent natural disasters, such as earthquakes, floods, and hurricanes. Petit-Goâve was near the location of the epicenter of the January, 2010 earthquake. The adult students in this area suffered loss of family, friends, homes, and businesses. In the wake of the disaster, many fled to Port-au-Prince because they were told they would find humanitarian aid there. These people lived in tents throughout the city of Port-au-Prince, along with thousands of other misplaced Haitians. The conditions in these tent cities were difficult. Some of the adults in Petit-Goâve made their way back home, while others still have not. All of the schools were destroyed, therefore all education, or

literacy pursuits were abruptly halted.

The non-literate people referred to in this study live in the town of Petit-Goâve, Haiti. They have had exposure to literacy, but still cannot read or write (Burt, Peyton, & Adams, 2003). The pre-literate group lives in the mountainous area of Petit-Goâve. They have had no exposure to literacy or literacy education. There are several reasons that account for this fact, among which are lack of educational funds and little or no access to educational programs and schools. The cost of supplies, uniforms, and some supplemental fees has restricted many from participating in childhood education. Access to literacy for the non-literates can be from their children, if they attend any of the public or private schools in the town of Petit-Goâve. Also, they may gain access to literacy from a literate family or community member in Petit-Goâve. Haitian-Kreyòl language can be found on road signs, market posters, and advertisement billboards in Petit-Goâve, but not in the countryside. Travel in the mountain areas can be dangerous because of the rugged mountain terrain and frequent flooding; therefore, it is common for pre-literates to refrain from leaving their mountain homes. For these reasons, one of the six literacy centers related to this study was built in the mountain area of Petit-Goâve.

The pre-literate and non-literate groups highlighted in this study enrolled in one of the Sant Alfa literacy centers for Haitian-Kreyòl adult literacy classes. Some of the students have untreated eye illnesses. Hunger is reported as a problem with many of these individuals. Walking, rain or shine, is the typical mode of transportation. They do not have umbrellas or rain parkas to keep them dry. However, they have expressed an interest in acquiring literacy by their enrollment in the adult literacy classes.

One of the many goals of Sant Alfa literacy centers is to begin to restore literacy and education for the adults in the Petit-Goâve, Haiti and its surrounding areas. The literacy centers adopted the Freire instructional approach developed by the acclaimed literacy educator, Paulo Freire. This approach teaches literacy by adopting cultural themes and materials that focus on resolving societal issues. The literacy center's philosophy is to attempt to make literacy education functional and applicable to the daily lives of the rural Haitians. The aim of the literacy centers, in addition to basic literacy for the students, is to increase their interaction with society and the world. This goal will be accomplished by providing newspapers and other reading materials that will enrich their literacy experiences. Basic mathematical functions are also a part of the curriculum. In addition, computer technology is a topic covered at the centers. The topic of agriculture is popular because many of the students work the land. Also, the subject of business is desired because a large number of students are self-employed.

Research Questions

1. Is there a difference in trait hope between non-literate and pre-literate Haitian adults enrolled in a literacy program in Petit-Goâve?
2. Is there a difference in pathway thinking between non-literate and pre-literate Haitian adults enrolled in a literacy program in Petit-Goâve?
3. Is there a difference in agency thinking between non-literate and pre-literate Haitian adults enrolled in a literacy program in Petit-Goâve?

Theoretical Framework

This study was framed by hope literature as theorized by Snyder et al. (1991), first language literacy, and first language literacy education for adult illiterate populations. The following is an introduction of the literature which guided this study.

First Language Literacy and Literacy Education

Literacy is the instrument used to gain a formal education. Formal education uses written words to record information and wisdom. Both are important for a society; however, literacy empowers people for social and human development (UNESCO, 2008). A quality educational program prepares people with literacy skills for daily life and additional learning. However, these literacy skills must align with the goals and desires of the adult literacy student in order for the program to be successful. Literacy is more meaningful and functional when it can transfer to other domains of social life (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005).

In contrast, non-formal education is passed down through oral traditions, which include storytelling and narratives, and which rely on memory. This non-formal education is critical for the passing down of cultural traditions and beliefs.

There are several elements that have been found to contribute to successful adult first language literacy programs. First, adults often have responsibilities at home and/or work which prevent them from attending an adult literacy program. Therefore, successful programs tend to schedule their classes when it is convenient for the students. Additionally, adults should not be expected to learn to read, write, and engage in math

functions at a high level with only a few months of instruction (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005). Next, appropriate instructional materials are essential for profitable literacy education for adults. Adult literacy programs have been more effective when they utilize material that associates with the surrounding community and needs of the students. Also, by linking literacy education to their problems and solutions, the students gain more motivation needed to persevere to the end of the course (Comings & Smith, 1996). Further, these programs are more effective with teachers that have been highly trained in techniques of teaching adults and that have been oriented to the materials used in the program (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005).

There are costs associated with illiteracy in developing countries. For example, the cycle of poor or no education and lack of jobs all play into the absence of advancement for developing nations. More specifically, without literacy education, the benefits of education (e.g. improvements in health and nutrition, improved productivity and earning potential, reduction of poverty, and possible promotion of peace) realized in other developing countries that promoted adult literacy education, are less likely to be achieved (World Bank, n.d.). In addition to a lack of literacy, there are some adults in developing countries that have been unable to obtain gainful employment because they did not know the English language or were not familiar with computers or technology. Becoming literate in a second language as an adult is more difficult for an illiterate adult than for an adult who is literate in their first language. The research substantiating this notion is found in Chapter 2.

Hope and Hope Theory

Hope is a psychological construct grounded in positive psychology (Duckworth, Steen & Seligmann, 2005), which also focuses on personal traits such as courage, perseverance, spirituality, and well-being (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Hope has been examined via the lens of psychiatry (Frankl, 1959; Kűbler-Ross, 1969; Menninger, 1959); philosophy (Freire, 1972a, 1972b, 1985, 1998, 2007a, 2007b; Marcel, 1962); nursing (Dufault & Martocchio, 1985; Farran, Herth, & Popovich, 1995; Hinds, 1984); psychology (Jevne, 1991; Staats & Stassen, 1985; Stotland, 1969); and spirituality (Godfrey, 1987; Lynch, 1965; Snyder, Sigmon, & Feldman, 2002); however, only nominally through the field of education (Creamer et al., 2009; Freire, 1972a, 1985, 1998, 2007a).

Hope has been positively correlated with satisfaction of life. Through statistical examinations of more than 100 hope studies, researchers have concluded that hope leads to a 10% happiness boost for people with high hope (Lopez, 2013), thereby increasing their overall life satisfaction. Hope has positively correlated with greater problem solving abilities and academic achievement (Chang, 1998; Lopez et al., 2000; McDermott & Snyder, 1999, 2000; Snyder, Hoza, et al., 1997). In fact, hope has been found to lead to 12% gain in academic performance (Lopez, 2013). The theory of hope employed in this study is one developed by the late C.R. Snyder. Snyder's Hope Theory has been used in the majority of research related to hope and education (Lopez, 2013).

The definition of hope used in this study is per Snyder (1991). Hope is categorized as a set of cognitions about the future (Snyder & Lopez, 2002). Hope is a

cognitive, motivational construct that assumes people are goal oriented (Snyder et al., 1996). Snyder et al. (1991) contended that hope comprises pathway thinking (one's *perceived* ability to develop and focus on multiple pathways to a desired goal) and agency thinking (a person's thoughts and perceptions about his or her ability to develop and pursue desired goals despite obstacles).

Snyder's Hope Theory (Harris, et al., 1991) has similarities with constructs of self-efficacy, optimism, problem solving, goal theory and motivation; however, they are not the same. Goal theory (Covington, 2000), optimism (Scheier & Carver, 1985), self-efficacy (Bandura, 1982), and problem solving (Heppner & Petersen, 1982) differ with respect to goals and agency or pathways-related processes. Hope Theory equally emphasizes goals, pathway thinking and agency thinking, and distinguishes hope from these other constructs (Snyder, 1994). Further, Snyder claimed that hope is not an emotion (Snyder et al., 1991). However, emotions follow reactions to the success or failure of goal attainment (Snyder, 2000). He maintained that "hope is the glue that holds together the rest of the human condition as well as the energy that moves us ahead," (Snyder, 2000, p. xxi).

Cognitive Functions of Literacy and Hope

Literacy and formal education create cognitive tools. Kozulin (1998) stated that through formal schooling, people in developed and developing societies "become exposed to a wide array of symbolic tools that not only become indispensable as cognitive tools, but create the very 'reality' of the modern individual" (p. 17). The

reading process is a complicated cognitive activity that combines a text with a reader's knowledge and beliefs (Burt et al., 2003). Formal education requires some memory abilities; however, is more reliant on higher cognitive abilities such as analyzing, synthesizing, justifying, etc. The cognitive process involved in literacy learning promotes the development of logical operations, imagination, self-reflection, emotions, and awareness of one's own thinking (Kozulin, 1998). The discourse of reading lacks the interactive, back and forth qualities of conversation. Therefore, writing and text can alleviate pressure on cognitive resources for pre-literates who have relied on memory for remembering information (Rubin, 1995). Also, as mentioned above, hope is a cognitive construct made up of goals or problems to solve, pathway (strategy) thinking, and agency (motivational) thinking (see Figure 1). It is the cognitive mechanism fundamental to positive self-esteem, which is a natural result of success (Snyder, 1994).

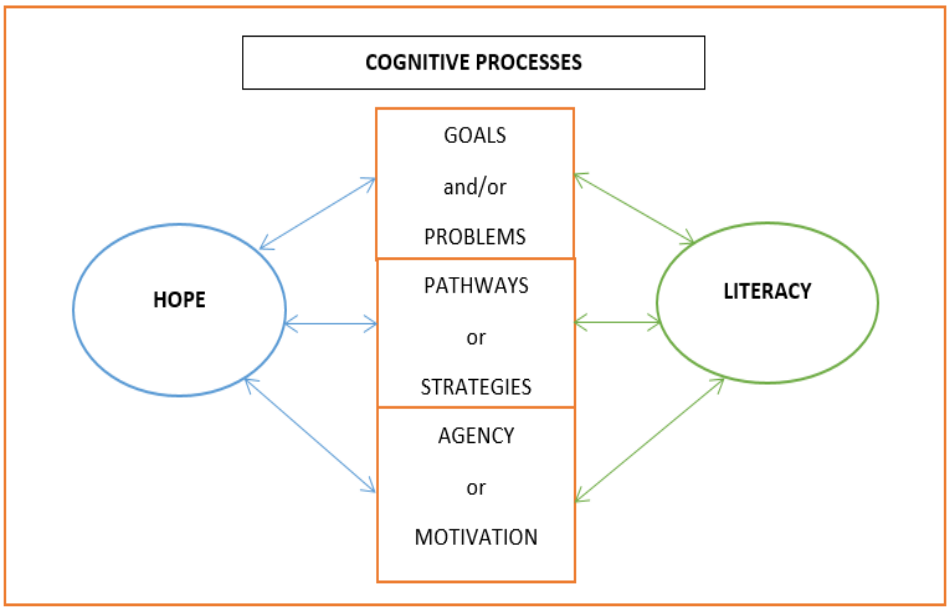

Figure 1. Associations of Hope and Literacy Education

Goal Setting Components of Literacy and Hope

Research in both educational and cognitive psychology links the importance of setting meaningful goals associated with student learning outcomes. Successful learners generate thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that are planned, routinely examined, and modified in order to achieve their personal learning goals (Turner, Husman, & Schallert, 2002; Zimmerman, 1990). Fundamental to students' academic success is establishing goals that are important and incorporate explicit steps or plans as performance standards that lead to anticipated results (Schunk, 1985). When a goal is important and *perceived* as attainable, individuals will continue to work toward those goals, even when their progress is slow or difficult (Scheier & Carver, 1993). Providing students with opportunities to develop both effective learning goal strategies and skills to integrate their thinking, planning, and motivational behaviors toward goal attainment will contribute toward helping them develop the self-regulation processes that will ultimately lead to their goals. Therefore, literacy and hope both contain goal setting (see Figure 1 above). Goals are the "cognitive component that anchors Hope Theory" (Snyder, 2002, p. 250). Goals, per Hope Theory, provide the targets of human behavior and must be of sufficient value to warrant sustained conscious thought about them (Snyder, 2002).

Problem Solving Components of Literacy and Hope

Problem solving can be enhanced by literacy. People without literacy education develop knowledge and skills through interaction with the real world in a tangible manner. Nonetheless, it should be stressed that this learning style is centered on human memory that is confined by space and time (Fanta-Vagenshtein, 2008). On the other hand, reading and writing permits people to record events with symbols so they might be able to analyze, classify, and organize their experiences for recall in the future (Fanta-Vagenshtein, 2008). This capability facilitates envisioning problem-solving alternatives without the necessity of experimenting with or testing possible solutions (Bandura & Walters, 1963). Through literacy, a person can read about the many ways (pathways) people have solved problems. Literacy allows communities to read about how others have solved problems or reached goals they are experiencing. Therefore, literacy and hope are both associated with problem solving. According to Hope Theory, a desired goal might be a solution to a problem (Snyder, 2002).

Pathway Components of Literacy and Hope

Reading requires students of any age to employ an array of strategies/pathways to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate texts. Reading strategies are "deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader's efforts to decode text, understand words, and construct meanings of a text" (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008, p. 368). Reading skills are "automatic actions that result in decoding and comprehension with speed, efficiency, and fluency, and usually occur without awareness of the

components or control involved" (Afflerbach et al., 2008, p. 368). Strategic readers decide on a specific path in order to realize a reading goal. Awareness helps the reader pick the path to reach and achieve the goal (Corno, 1989). A strategic reader can inspect a strategy, examine its effectiveness, and re-goal if necessary (Afflerbach et al., 2008). Strategic readers are motivated by control, good decision making, and flexibility. Therefore, literacy incorporates and utilizes strategies, and a constituent of hope is pathway thinking, or thinking that develops strategies to reach goals or solve problems. Goals, per Hope Theory, can have several plausible pathways. Some pathways may be more effective than others. If a perceived pathway is not successful, or blocked, then alternate pathways should be devised (Snyder, 2002).

Agency Factors of Literacy and Hope

Strategic readers possess confidence in their ability to monitor and improve their reading, so they have both knowledge and agency/motivation to succeed (Afflerbach et al., 2008). It is critical for adult literacy students to maintain motivation in order to develop literacy skills. When adults successfully accomplish their first set of literacy goals, motivation from their success sustains them to continue their literacy education. Agency thinking is the third component of hope. Agency is the motivational thought process of hope that says "I can do this." Agency thoughts involve the cognitive energy to begin and continue using pathways through all stages of pursuing a goal (Snyder, 2002). Therefore, literacy and hope both employ motivation as part of their makeup.

Context of the Study

The country of Haiti is considered a developing nation that experiences a high illiteracy rate. Although a portion of the population has experienced success in schools, a large portion of Haitians are considered illiterate. Haiti's literacy rate is still only 52.9% (53.4% men, 44.6% women), with an estimate of 3 million being illiterate (*Central Intelligence Agency*, 2014). The literacy rate is even lower in the rural population (45.36%) (CIA, 2014).

The high illiteracy rate in Haiti did not arise overnight. It was not an oversight on the part of Haitians. In fact, a literate education is highly valued by Haitians. Therefore, to frame a better understanding of the issue of illiteracy in Haiti, it is essential to shed light on the events and circumstances that shaped Haiti's current status.

Haiti

Haiti is situated on an island in the Caribbean Sea known as Hispaniola. Haiti's neighboring country on the island is Dominican Republic. It has a tropical climate on the coast and is semi-arid in the mountains. Haiti has more mountains than any other nation in the Caribbean. The coastline in Haiti is the second largest in the Caribbean. The country experiences frequent hurricanes and torrential flooding, which has resulted in land erosion. Haiti covers 10,714 square miles and is considered the Caribbean's third largest nation. The agriculture in Haiti includes coffee, mangoes, sugarcane, and rice. Its exports include coffee, oils, and cocoa (CIA, 2014).

Haiti was first settled by Spain when discovered by Christopher Columbus in 1492. Prior to Spain's occupation, the entire island of Hispaniola was inhabited by Taínos, an Arawakan Indian tribe. Spain gave the western area of Haiti to France in 1697 in what is called the Treaty of Reswick. French plantation owners sent ships to West Africa to bring back slaves to work on their plantations. The crops produced on these plantations made this island one of the richest in the Caribbean known as the "Pearl of Antilles." In fact, for approximately105 years from 1697-1802, Haiti produced 40% of the world's sugar.

Haitians endured slavery until they revolted and formed their own republic in 1804 (Farmer, 2012). However, the war from 1802-03 left the plantations and agriculture totally destroyed. All foreign trade had been lost. Dessalines, a hard fisted ruler, declared that all lands were owned by the government of Haiti. During his leadership, everyone in Haiti was either in the military or a laborer, much akin to the model created by the French colonizers (Leyburn, 2004). France had imposed an enormous debt of independence to Haiti. The mulattoes (mixed race-light skinned Haitians) established the new elite class; however, they never stopped following the French cultural and educational influence.

After the revolution, the ex-slaves who possessed a small amount of land did not stop working for the mulattoes and few remaining plantation owners. The economic organization created by Dessalines provided the roots for the peasantry that was soon to develop as a characteristic form of Haitian life (Leyburn, 2004). Nothing was done

during his reign to cultivate the minds of the working class. Assassination by his political foes ended the career of Dessalines only two years after he assumed power.

For the next 13 years, from 1807 to 1820, Haiti became divided, governed in the North by Christophe and Pétion in the West and South. Christophe demanded hard and steady work by the agricultural workers. The social divisions continued with a small portion of the population being aristocrats, although not landowners, and the majority being the workers of the lands. Pétion, raised in France, was a gentle ruler over the Southern part of Haiti during 1807-1818. He initiated the foundations of the educational system. He ruled constitutionally, and he gave land to all people. However, in time, the new land owners tended their gardens instead of producing sugar cane crops. They had no experience managing plantations. There were no labor laws. The economy for all diminished. The criterion of wealth became the pursuit of a career, with education influenced by the French.

After Christophe's death, Haiti was reunited. Led by Boyle for 25 years, Haiti's economic decline continued. Boyle continued to aggravate the two class division by adopting laws that required all Haitians, except aristocrats, officials, artisans, and soldiers, to work the land again. The children of land-owners were not allowed to attend school without the consent of a judge. They could not sell their produce or be moved from one class to another without official authorization. Harsh punishments and fines were posed for any infractions to these laws. However, most of these regulations were not observed and as a result, the people grew poorer.

Between 1820 and 1840, the ordinary illiterate worker was inclined to accept, without question, the superiority of the lighter-skinned Haitians. Public education, consequently, hardly advanced during Boyle's 25 years (Leyburn, 2004). Sugar and cocoa trade completely disappeared, and coffee trade decreased. In 1843, the elite formed an uprising, causing Boyle to hide in exile. The next 72 years marked a period of confusion with 22 different heads of state between 1843 and 1915.

From 1915-1934, the U.S. Marines occupied Haiti. They helped build roads, hospitals, clinics, an electric plant, telephone systems, and administration buildings. However, Haitians were not trained for jobs. Many Haitians felt they had fought for their freedom; however, they were not governing themselves. They wanted the Americans to leave, which they did under the Hoover administration.

Francois Duvalier, "Papa Doc," affirmed himself "President for life" in 1957. His corrupt, police-enforced government induced fear. He refused to help the Haitian people in any way, including income and education. His son, Jean Claude, ("Baby Doc") came into power after he died. Baby Doc condoned extensive corruption, including trafficking of drugs, stealing of donated food, and mishandling government contracts, which damaged the Haitian economy further. Haitians endured 30 years of the Duvalier dictatorship until he was ousted in 1986 (Farmer, 2012). Since 1986, Haiti has had more than 13 governments that were mostly installed through coups.

Today, Haiti experiences the democratic leadership of President Michel Martelly, who was elected in May 2011 (CIA, 2014). The Haitian government with international assistance initiated a 10-year recovery plan targeting institutional rebuilding (Taft-

Morales, 2012). President Martelly has instituted a housing loan program, a free educational initiative, and programs to assist with the health of Haitians.

Haiti's present government has assured free land and tax exemptions to companies considering investing in the country. Digicel, a telecommunication company, entered Haiti's market in 2006. Toms, a footwear company, recently announced its opening of a shoes manufacturing plant in Haiti. As of 2013, Heineken employed 1,200 Haitians. By 2018, more than 18,000 farmers are projected to produce 20% of the sorghum from their products and 40% of the packaging materials for their sugar business.

Culture and Values of the Haitian People

The Haitian people know all too well the threats of dying from hunger, infectious disease, natural disaster, or crime. However, they are survivors. They are resilient. They laugh and have boundless creativity, which are endearing qualities that Haitians have acquired for survival (Danticat, 2011). The country consists of a majority of peasants, a small middle class and even smaller elite class. The present study highlighted the peasants in a rural area of Haiti; therefore, their characteristics are described herein.

Haitians value hard work and resent a lazy person. They consider being energetic and busy as being motivated and ambitious. Haitian women are great entrepreneurs. A large number of Haitian women typically sell small packages of water or vegetables at the market, to be able to afford for their children the education they did not receive.

Communities work hand-in-hand and share work and resources (referred to as konbit). One day the whole community might help a farmer harvest his crops and the next day they may help a different farmer build a new farmhouse.

Haitians view life as a mixture of sadness and happiness. They believe life is dependent upon the will of God or the gods, and their relationship to Him and humans is powerless to change that path of life. Misery and hunger do not prevent Haitians from enjoying themselves. This virtue is noticed during carnival time when everyone, regardless of class, dances in the streets (Danticat, 2011).

Haitians highly respect their elders. They function as counselors and advisors. For example, a couple cannot be married without the consent of the oldest members of the family, even if the immediate parents have agreed to the wedding. The family is the strongest institution. All aspects of life involve the entire family, including sharing financial, emotional and social burdens. In upper-class families, males typically are the decision-makers and formal, legal marriage is customary. However, among the lower socioeconomic people, consensual union (share a household without being formally married) and visiting union (one partner visits the other partner and children, but does not live in the house) is typical. Women take the lead in many homes, making family decisions and often taking part in economic undertakings.

Haitians desire to be in tune with nature. The wisdom rural Haitians have regarding nature is specific because they are sustained by nature. Haitians respect the mountain people because they have an understanding about life beyond the information

found in written material. Many poor Haitians focus on their daily struggle for survival, which renders planning for the future unrealistic.

Haitians have had many issues and problems to resolve. Through informal education, they have developed strategies to deal with their current life situations. These strategies are essential to household functioning and well-being. For instance, their understanding of agriculture, economics, childbirth, traditional medicine, and child rearing are passed down orally through generations. Culture is passed down from one generation to the other, predominantly through the teachings of the elders. Haitians usually have highly developed listening skills because of their oral traditions.

Historical Roots of the Haitian Education System

Schools were scarce after Haiti's independence in 1804. They were located in the major towns where the children in attendance were from the elite families. Circa 1843, efforts to initiate a school system in the rural areas of Haiti began. However, throughout the years, the poor were made to work the land and were excluded from most formal school opportunities. The elite Haitians were educated and offered classes delivered in the French language. The upper-class population, most of them educated in France, spoke French while the uneducated of the lower-class spoke Haitian-Kreyòl. French was associated as the language of the upper-class. Haitian-Kreyòl was identified as the language of inferiority and lower-class.

Haiti's Education System Today

Haitian schools begin formal education at preschool and thereafter continue for nine years of Fundamental Education. Secondary education includes four years of schooling. Vocational training is also offered during the second cycle of Fundamental Education. Whether higher education is offered, and the amount of years of study depends on the degree program or certificate. The typical school year runs from September to June.

The official Haitian school curriculum is structured to prepare students for national examinations. These exams are demanding and cover the range of subjects taught during the year. At the end of grades 6, 9, and 12 students are required to pass an examination to progress to the next grade level. At the end of grade 13, students are obligated to pass a test qualifying them to graduate from secondary school (Carlson et al., 2011). Most of the national examinations are administered in French. However, according to the Bernard Reform Act, some of the sixth grade exams are administered in Haitian-Kreyòl (Prou, 2010). The ninth grade exam has a language arts test in Haitian-Kreyòl. The secondary school graduation exam is entirely in French.

Middle class and upper class children have access to good education in Haiti. Most can read at or above grade level. They are required to learn French and Spanish, and some learn English. Their parents are typically educated and can interact with their children with their schoolwork. Many of these students go on to universities either in Haiti or abroad. Whether wealthy or poor, Haitian children are taught that education is the key to prosperity and dignity.

The majority of schools are located in the cities, although most families live in the rural areas. However, rural schools continue to be erected under the new Haitian government. School facilities are often open-air buildings due to the tropical climate. Classroom sizes are large. Students are expected to sit quietly and pay attention while class is in session. However, they are encouraged to work with peer groups after school or during lunch. These peer groups may not be from the same grade or same ability level. Teachers believe it is beneficial for a more competent student to assist a low-performing student.

The Haitian school system continues to instruct in French. Until recently, Haitian-Kreyòl has been solely the language of oral tradition. However, the government of Haiti has now recognized Haitian-Kreyòl as one of the official languages in the 1987 constitution. Curriculum and educational materials are starting to be published in Haitian-Kreyòl for use in Haitian schools. Now, some schools teach reading and writing in Haitian-Kreyòl and begin French instruction in the later elementary grades (Prou, 2010). High-quality digital technologies that use Haitian-Kreyòl as a tool for active learning are being developed for science and math (DeGraff, 2013).

The predominant learning process has been the rote method based on Haiti's history of oral tradition, a valuable tool for passing down their culture. However, exclusive reliance on rote learning or memory inhibits the students from exploring other learning techniques, such as active learning, which can enhance critical thinking and problem solving abilities (DeGraff, 2013).

In 1987, the Haitian government revised its constitution to state that all Haitian citizens had the right to possess decent housing, education, food and social security (Carlson et al., 2011). Although the Haitian Constitution has mandated free public school, there are still not enough public schools available in the country to reach all of the student population. Because of this shortage, students have attended private schools. However, the fees are steep. The elite and middle class families often can afford the private schools. Many poor families do not have the finances to send their children to a private school, although many families often sacrifice a large amount of their income for their children to obtain a formal education (McNulty, 2011).

The primary goals of the existing government in Haiti include 100% enrollment of all school-age children, free education to all including textbooks and materials, and a daily hot meal for each child. A national curriculum plan, standardized teaching materials and methods, and teacher training are also a part of this plan (McNulty, 2011). The intention of the educational plan is to accomplish education at no cost for children up to sixth grade by 2015, and ninth grade by 2020. Further, the plan includes provision for the government to pay teacher and administrator salaries; a certification process to verify the number of students and staff at their school in order to receive funding for improved facilities and educational materials; and, construction of new schools (Bruemmer, 2011).

Issues Affecting Haiti's Well-Being

The positive returns of gaining literacy pose a plethora of reasons why Haitians who are illiterate might be motivated to engage in literacy education. To understand

more fully how Haitians who are illiterate might enjoy some of the benefits of literacy education, and hope, it is essential to explore some of the issues affecting Haiti's well-being.

Income

The past period of political instability, natural disasters and extreme dependence on humanitarian aid from abroad, have contributed to Haiti's current economic situation. With an estimated 2012 population of 9,801,664, Haiti is also known as the least developed country in the Western Hemisphere (CIA, 2014). Over 70% of its population lives on less than $2 per day (Hornbeck, 2010). Seven out of 10 adults are unemployed or do not have a regular occupation (Arthur, 2002).

Research has developed a direct relationship between basic literacy and higher income (Comings & Smith, 1996). This has been especially true when adult literacy programs have focused on income generating topics. However, this is not always the case. Contradicting studies have reported no change in income after participants have completed literacy programs (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005). Factors such as poor health, children at home, or no opportunities have been attributed to this finding.

On the other hand, no relationship between hope and income has been found (Lopez, 2013). Lopez (2013) stated, "The hopeful don't necessarily have money and the rich aren't necessarily hopeful," (p. 96). Even though a majority of Haitians struggle with a source of income, having high hope might not depend on having a large income. In other words, Haitians have the potential of possessing high levels of hope in spite of their levels of poverty.

Quality of life

Haiti's Human Development Index (HDI) value for 2011 was 0.454, which classified Haiti as a developing county. Included in the HDI was Haiti's infant mortality rate which in 2011 measured 50.92 deaths per 1,000 live births (CIA, 2014). Further considered in the HDI index was Haiti's standard of living, that includes items such as no electricity, lack of clean water, and unsanitary conditions in portions of the country.

Adults who engage in literacy education have reported becoming successful in other areas of their lives (Comings & Smith, 1996). In fact, when the literacy programs have linked the class material to situations concerning the students' lives, some have been able to improve their quality of life. For example, topics such as reading bus schedules, filling out job application forms, child discipline, first aid, health, family planning, and handling transactions in public institutions like hospitals (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005), provide knowledge that builds on real life skills. The effect on enhancing their lives can be immediate and useful for improving their daily lives. Moreover, participation in adult literacy programs has connected the students to other agencies that are capable of assisting with issues that affect their overall quality of life (Comings & Smith, 1996).

Snyder (2002) states, "I see hope as being crucial for enhancing the quality of our lives," (p. 268). In fact, hopeful thought is correlated with *perceived* quality of life (Wrobleski & Snyder, 2005). Therefore, whether Haitians perceive their quality of life as satisfactory or not, their hopeful thought does not have to depend on having a high quality of life.

Difficult life circumstances: Earthquake

Worsening the environment problems that currently exist in Haiti, in January 2010, a 7.3 magnitude earthquake hit Haiti leaving estimated damages of between 8 and 14 billion dollars (Margesson & Taft-Morales, 2010). More than 80% of the school buildings in Port-au-Prince were destroyed (Ministère de l'Education Nationale et de la Formation Professionnelle, 2010). The government of Haiti estimated that 316,000 people died, 300,000 were injured, and 1,000,000 were left homeless (Margesson & Taft-Morales, 2010). Deaths caused by the January, 2010 earthquake likely increased distress for Haitian survivors. These deaths were sudden and unexpected, with no time to say goodbye. Many survivors had multiple losses of loved ones, homes and pets. Mass burial of bodies left families with no way to know where their loved ones' remains were located. This uncertainty prevented many Haitians from engaging in culturally prescribed death rituals.

Literacy education has mediated difficult life circumstances by providing self-enhancement for people in poverty (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005). Participants have reported greater levels of self-esteem, self-efficacy, a sense of control over their lives, and greater participation in their neighborhoods and communities after attaining literacy. While attaining literacy cannot heal a broken heart from the loss of a loved one, it might help the grieving person to move on from that sad position in life to a more positive future status from which to regain happiness.

When difficult situations arise and goals seem impossible to achieve, hope does not have to diminish (Snyder, 1995). Although it often does decrease during a crisis, it

does not have to remain low. People disadvantaged by class, gender, race, poverty, discrimination, or occupation might require support from a hopeful person in order to increase or maintain hope (Edey & Jevne, 2003). Therefore, if Haitians experience low hope due to their difficult life circumstances, hope can be a cushion (Valle, Huebner, & Suldo, 2006).

Disease

Haiti has been overwhelmed with several diseases. It has been debated whether or not these diseases originate in Haiti, or were brought in by international aid workers. Nevertheless, Haitians deal with the effects of life-threatening diseases. These diseases could be eradicated; however, due to poverty, they still exist (Farmer, 2012). Second only to sub-Saharan Africa, the rate of HIV/AIDs in Haiti is excessive. Tuberculosis (TB) and malnutrition are more prevalent in Haiti than in its Latin America and Caribbean region counterparts, with 32% of children being malnourished (Crane et al., 2010). Since the earthquake in 2010, cholera has been a menace. In 2011, almost two hundred thousand cases and four thousand deaths have been reported due to cholera (Farmer, 2012). Malaria, diarrhea, dengue and typhoid fever are also common.

Research has pointed out that literate women tend to have healthier children. In fact, literacy research supports a direct relationship between formal literate education and better health outcomes (Comings & Smith, 1996). The inclusion of health and hygiene related literature in adult literacy classes brings awareness often not attained otherwise (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005).

The benefits of high hope have been evident with people coping with health issues (Cheavens, Michael, & Snyder, 2005). High-hope people have been more tolerant to physical pain (Snyder, Berg, Woodward, et al., 2005), and do more to prevent and fight illness and disease (Snyder et al., 2006). All in all, high hope could potentially benefit Haitians who suffer illnesses.

Education

Education is vital to the development of a country. It empowers people, strengthens nations, and opens doors for people to overcome poverty. In addition, education enhances health and nutrition; expands productivity and earning potential; increases competition within the global market; diminishes gender and socioeconomic inequality; and stimulates peace and stability (Carlson et al., 2011). While education is compulsory by law, due to economic conditions, many Haitian students are unable to attend school. The average Haitian adult has 2.8 years of schooling, and approximately one-half of the school-aged children are not in any form of school. Roughly 33% of the children attending school only finish the fifth grade and four percent complete the ninth grade (World Bank, 2013).

Hope has been found to predict academic achievement has (Lopez, 2013). Also, students with high hope have reported more academic satisfaction (Chang, 1998). Therefore, if students' hope could be increased through adult literacy classes, their overall quality and satisfaction of life might increase as well. With increased hope, Haitians may well have an incentive and motivation to attain their educational goals and thus promote any changes they desire in their country.

Operational Definitions

Operationalizing variables provides a researcher with a measurement procedure and definition of the variables being investigated. The following operational definitions were utilized to facilitate investigating differences in levels of hope among illiterate adult Haitians living in Haiti.

- *Agency Thinking*: describes a person's perceptions or beliefs regarding his or her ability to initiate and sustain the motivation for pursuing and achieving desired goals (Snyder et al., 2003). These perceptions or beliefs are represented by the agency subscale of the ADHS (Snyder et al., 1991):
- *Hope***:** a positive motivational state that is based on a *perceived* sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy/motivation) and (b) pathways (planning/strategies to meet goals) (Snyder et al., 1991);
- *Illiterate***:** individuals who are "unable to read or write" (*Illiterate*, n.d.);
- *Literacy***:** the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute using printed and written materials associated with contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning to enable individuals to achieve goals, increase knowledge, expand potential, and participate in community and society (UNESCO 2005);
- *Non-literate*: describes those who have been exposed to literacy, but still cannot read or write in their native language (Burt et al., 2003);

- *Pathway Thinking*: describes a person's perceptions regarding his or her ability to develop specific strategies to reach desired goals (Snyder et al., 1991);
- *Pre-literate*: describes adults who lack basic literacy skills in their native language, and, more *specifically*, originate from the way of life that did not revolve around literacy. Their language is "not written, has only recently been written, or is being developed" (Burt et al., 2003); and
- *Trait hope*: relates to a person's dispositional, goal-anchored *perceptions* about his or her ability to produce both agency and pathway thinking (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991).

Assumptions

As in all research, the investigator brought a few assumptions to the research process. In this study, it was assumed that people experience hope subjectively, the experience was different from person to person, and it was measurable (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). It was assumed that literacy is the doorway to learning about any topic via written text; however, it is each person's decision to use the tool of literacy to retrieve the written information. Also, reading text is not an indication that a person will use the information to solve a problem or meet a goal. It was believed that the information from text is available and could help a reader. Further, the notion that hope can increase satisfaction of life was assumed. Finally, the particular factors that increase hope

believed to be specific to an individual and can vary according to ethnic groups (Chang & Banks, 2007).

The benefits of literacy are widespread; however, they are unique to each ethnic group. It was assumed that higher levels of literacy could increase employability; however, this possibility varies according to the economic condition and worldview of each country. It was presumed that adults who engage in literacy education classes use their literacy in their daily lives. To the contrary, some individuals do not use the literacy nor continue their education for myriad reasons.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

The goal of Chapter 2 is to report the pertinent literature regarding first language literacy, first language literacy education, and hope. The discussions in this chapter build the theoretical foundation for the research questions investigated in this study. More information is explained with regard to the pre- and non-literate adult Haitian students and the circumstances regarding the issue of illiteracy in Haiti.

Keywords of hope, Hope Theory, Snyder's Hope Theory, adult literacy and benefits, adult illiteracy and first language literacy education were used to conduct the literature in Proquest, Onesearch, Sage and Ebsco Host databases. The search produced no studies which investigated hope, Snyder's Hope Theory, first language literacy, and first language literacy education. Therefore, the literature describing these two constructs is described in this chapter.

First Language Literacy and Literacy Education

It is important to understand what literacy is and how it is used in order to develop an argument for the positive impact of literacy and first language literacy education for pre-literate and non-literate individuals. It is also critical to realize why literacy is important and how it has helped other developing countries. Finally, the connections between the cognitive construct of hope and the similar cognitive aspects of literacy are explained.

The United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) has always promoted basic education and literacy and has played a chief role in framing definitions of literacy, which have progressed through the years. Three statements of UNESCO detail the evolution of the concept and definition of literacy:

> (a) A person is literate who can, with understanding, both read and write a short simple statement on his or her daily life (UNESCO, 1958. p. 3);
>
> (b) A person is literate who can with understanding both read and write a short, simple statement on his or her everyday life. A person is illiterate who cannot with understanding both read and write a short, simple statement on his everyday life. A person who can engage in activities requiring literacy for effective functioning of group and community is deemed functionally literate. A person who cannot engage in activities requiring literacy for effective functioning of group and community is considered functionally illiterate UNESCO, 1978, p. 18); and,
>
> (c) Literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate, and compute using printed and written materials associated with contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve his or her goals, improve his or her knowledge and potentials, and participate fully in the community and wider society (UNESCO, 2005, p. 21).

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) explain literacy as the acquisition and use of reading, writing, and, numeracy skills necessary for advancing active citizenship, improving health, livelihoods, and gender equality (Global Campaign for

Education, 2005). The goals for adult literacy learners include teaching the mechanics of literacy skills and equipping learners with literacy as an instrument. Learners may desire to continue their formal education once they have acquired literacy.

Why is Literacy Important?

The heart of basic formal education is literacy education (UNESCO, 2008). Educational opportunities depend on literacy. Literacy education empowers people to realize their goals, develop knowledge, and participate in their community and wider society (UNESCO 2005). Literate societies are better equipped to handle pressing (UNESCO, 2011). An initial key step in overcoming the obstacles that keep people in a cycle of poverty is improving literacy skills (Cree, Kay, & Steward, 2012).

Literacy can become essential for some day-to-day activities. Several relevant literacy events might include trying to read a medicine label, a nutritional label, balance a checkbook, read a bank statement, fill out a job application, handle written personal or business correspondence, read directions on consumer products, and read road signs on a map. In addition, poor literacy might limit a person's ability to engage in activities that require critical thinking, such as understanding government policies, attempting to vote in an election, comparing the cost of two items, desiring to use a computer, assisting children with homework, or reading advertisements. All in all, literacy education is the best way to secure a formal education and it is the foundation of hope, development, economic growth, and the expression for an illiterate society (UNESCO, 2002).

Cognitive Aspects of Literacy

Reading is a “complex cognitive process” (Burt et al., 2003, p. 39). The cognitive aspect of learning to read includes reading comprehension, or the ability to construct linguistic meaning from written representations of language. This ability relies on the ability to understand the language of the text and to decode, or to recognize written representations of the words in the text. Making inferences from a text is also a cognitive process. The combination of the formal structures of a language and the background knowledge, or knowledge of the world, helps learners make inferences that go beyond the literal meaning of the text (Wren, 2000). The bottom-up model of reading describes the reading process as one of synthesizing information from a text through brain processes that identify the letters, map them onto words, and analyze words in sentences. Literacy learners using the top-down model of reading predict meaning using both clues from the text and their background knowledge (Burt et al., 2003). The interactive model of reading combines the bottom-up function of word recognition and the top-down skills of applying background knowledge, inferences, and predictions (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

According to Afflerbach et al., (2008), reading skills are "automatic actions that result in decoding and comprehension with speed, efficiency, and fluency and usually occur without knowledge of the components or control involved” (p. 368). There are several components of reading skills necessary for learning to read. Alphabetics is the skill of knowing the sounds of a language and their connection with the written letters (Kruidenier, 2002). Phonemic awareness pertains to the awareness that words consist of a combination of individual sounds (National Reading Panel, 2000). Phonological

awareness is the capability to blend sounds to make a word, also understanding the different parts that make up the sounds and the words, such as rhyming, alliteration, and intonation (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001). Phonics understands the relationship between the sounds of a language and the letters that represents those sounds (National Reading Panel, 2000). Fluency is the ability to read with ease and accuracy with proper rhythm, intonation, and expression. Vocabulary knowledge requires knowing the meaning of words in a text and is critical for comprehending text (Burt et al., 2003). Reading comprehension entails deriving meaning from a text employing a wide variety of skills and knowledge (National Reading Panel, 2000). These skills, along with many more sub-skills not mentioned in this review of literature, combine to assist students to read to learn.

Adults learning to read and write navigate through the reading process in a similar manner as children; however, the strategies, activities, and learning materials vary. Adult literacy instruction for adults with limited or no literacy in their first language is more successful when they perceive that the literacy education is relevant to their lives (Hardman, 1999; Klassen & Burnaby, 1993). If their goals for reading are not initially considered (Brekke, 2009), the students may tend to lose interest or become discouraged with the difficulty of the literacy education process.

Adult literacy instruction is more effective when text is supported by visual aids. Instead of starting with learning the alphabet, which is abstract and devoid of literal meaning, and is typical of literacy instruction with children, adult learners are more productive when they negotiate meaning from images, concepts, words, and expressions

that are familiar to them (Brekke, 2009). It is valuable for adult literacy students to learn sight words and phonics simultaneously and engage in extensive vocabulary instruction. The bottom line is fluency and comprehension increases with practice, time and determination (Torgeson, 2004).

Pre-literate and non-literate students stand to profit from literacy education more when the literacy themes are derived from commonalities from their surroundings. The Freirean approach to adult literacy education, established by Brazilian education and philosopher, Paulo Freire, is founded upon language lessons that encapsulate themes from adult learners' cultural and personal experiences (Spener, 1992). Cultural themes presented as open-ended problems, are integrated into pictures, comics, short stories, songs, and video dramas that are used to foster discussion. This discussion process is designed for the adult students to characterize their real-life problems, discuss the origin, and devise proposed solutions. Educators then design literacy lessons that will assist the adult learners in taking action toward problem resolutions (Freire, 1972b). Thus, the ultimate goal is learning to read, which facilitates reading to learn.

The process of reading connects people to information from written texts. Reading to learn can help people acquire information about personal or societal topics of interest, such as agriculture, water purification, chicken farming, etc. (Burt et al., 2003). Becoming a skilled reader requires learners to reason about written material using knowledge from daily life and disciplined fields of study (Anderson, 1985). Reading to learn for adults is connected to their individual goals for reading, their motivation for

reading, and can result in strategies that increase their reading comprehension (Burt et al., 2003).

Learners set educational goals and sub-goals (Zimmerman, 1989). Reading goals are established according to the motivation of reading to learn and a desire to learn to read. Initial desires of a person are turned into goals, and then converted into strategies for appropriate actions to attain the goal, and the accomplished goal results in motivating the learner (Dörnyei & Otto, 1998). The broader goals of learning to read require a reader to be both skilled and strategic (Afflerbach et al., 2008). Large reading goals that are broken into smaller, more attainable reading goals can increase motivation when achieved (Schunk, 1985). These specific goals increase the possibility of success and self-satisfaction from reaching the intended goal. Goals that can be attained in a smaller time span result in greater motivation than more long-term goals (Bandura, 1977b). If students can observe progress with a short-term reading goal, then they have the opportunity to enhance their sense of learning self-efficacy, or belief that they can reach their goal (Schunk, 1984).

Skilled reading is strategic (Afflerbach et al., 2008). It is essential for literacy learners to learn how to use a variety of strategies for understanding written texts (Pritchard & O'Hara, 2008). A strategic reader employs strategies to work toward a goal (Alexander, Graham, & Harris, 1998). The National Reading Panel Report (2000) stated that "the rationale for the explicit teaching of comprehension skills is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific cognitive strategies or to reason strategically when they encounter barriers to understanding what they are reading" (p.

14). Reading strategies are chosen deliberately with the intention of reaching the reading goal (Corno, 1989). Being strategic is a conscious metacognitive action that allows the reader to inspect the strategy, monitor its effectiveness, and revise if necessary. It is noteworthy to point out that reading strategies do not always succeed, especially if the learner chooses an inappropriate goal or ineffective strategy (Afflerbach et al., 2008).

Strategic readers are problem solvers. When they encounter reading problems and are aware their goals are not being realized, they are able to create alternative strategies to accomplish their goals. This cognitive process is an essential ingredient of strategic reading (Afflerbach et al., 2008).

Skilled reading is motivating to a strategic reader (Afflerbach et al., 2008). The process of becoming a skilled reader requires instruction that sustains their attention in order to assess that written material can be interesting and informative (Anderson, 1985). When skill and strategy harmonize, they can provide students learning to read with motivation and self-efficacy or personal judgments of performance capabilities, giving them an appreciation for the value of reading (Afflerbach et al., 2008). Instruction for adult literacy education should build on what they have expressed they want and need to know in order for motivation to be generated (Dörnyei, 2002).

Motivated learning is depicted as an interactive relationship between self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977a) and learning experiences (Schunk, 1985). When motivation is initiated, it fosters goal selection (Dörnyei, 2002). Next, the motivation needs to be sustained by the selection of appropriate strategies (Afflerbach et al., 2008). Finally, the

student evaluation of the experience determines what activities the student will be motivated to continue with in the future (Dörnyei, 2002).

Benefits of Worldwide Adult Literacy Campaigns

In order for illiterate people to choose the learning goal of becoming literate, it might be motivating for them to become aware of how other illiterate populations have benefited from literacy training. Illiteracy affects nearly 800 million of the citizens of the world and is a hindrance to both personal growth and national development (Bokova, 2010). Research studies reveal that countries with over 50 per cent illiteracy have

- high infant mortality rates;
- undernourished children;
- widespread communicable diseases; and,
- a majority of the population living below the poverty level (Jones & Coleman, 2005).

Various adult literacy campaigns have been launched throughout the world. In an effort to report on the benefits of worldwide adult literacy campaigns, an examination of several programs and studies is outlined below to ascertain the potential benefits attained by adults who enroll in an adult literacy class. Most of the studies reported are ethnographic in nature. The following section is categorically organized according to the benefits reported by the researched literature.

While this dissertation does not intend to measure literacy for women only, gender demographics for this study are reported. Additionally, in the studies below

showcasing the benefits of literacy, a predominant number of the reported cases address women in their research. In fact, in a few of the studies, women were the only subjects addressed.

Young women from less fortunate nations are less likely than young men to attend school and complete secondary education. Women are often abused and left out of politics or leadership roles. The Millennium Development Goals address the following:

1. girls' completion of a quality education;
2. women's economic empowerment;
3. universal access to sex and reproductive health and rights;
4. ending violence against women and girls;
5. women's voice, leadership and influence;
6. women's participation in peace and security; and
7. women's contributions to environmental sustainability (Global Campaign for Education, 2005).

Adult literacy learning contributes to influencing change with regard to gender equality. Adult literacy, integrated with citizenship, community campaigning, and participation assists in making a political position for the enhancement of the status of women and their roles in a community. Two longitudinal studies lasting for three years conducted with 1,000 Nepali women and 2,200 Bolivian women (Burchfield et al., 2002), concluded that when compared to non-participants, adult literacy education (ALE) participants made substantial improvements in income producing undertakings, civic participation, and children's education. Also, women reported attainment of personal

confidence after attending literacy classes, though often they were met with resistance because of their increased assertiveness (Puchner, 2003).

First language, or mother tongue, based literacy programs encourage and motivate learners. They contribute to fostering literacy and education for all people (UNESCO, 2011). In Nepal, mother-tongue literacy programs were initiated. The campaign was supported by a majority of Education for All (EFA) partners, many UN agencies, international and national government organizations (NGOs), and civil society organizations. The instruction for the basic and post-literacy programs was conducted in local languages. More than 1,500 women participated in the mother-tongue based literacy programs. The women reported feeling they gained a new identity through becoming literate (Robinson-Pant, 2000).

Mother-tongue adult literacy programs have also been instituted in Senegal. Interest in these programs was motivated by (a) drive for social cohesion, solidarity and cultural distinction, and (b) acceptance, and equality in the larger national society. These participants indicated that literacy in the local language had become a powerful tool for both reinforcing their cultural identity and becoming accepted locally and nationally (Fagerberg-Diallo, 2001).

Literacy learning increases the involvement of illiterate adults in their daily tasks where literacy is used to negotiate meaning. An ethnographic study concerning adult literacy programs was performed in Rwanda. Observations and interviews with learners and leaders of the project were conducted as part of the project evaluation. Many learners, particularly women, explained increased participation in meetings, acceptance

of leadership roles, and voting privileges in elections. Some of the learners became group leaders, teaching others to read and write. One of the participants related that she is now respected and not counted among the fools anymore. Many of the learners emphasized the worth of being able to read the Bible. The learners all declared that learning to read and write had helped them attain more status and power (Wedin, 2008).

A qualitative study was conducted to investigate the daily uses of literacy with an adult literacy study group in Aguazul, Mexico. The women were between the ages of 30 and 55. They were responsible for daily paperwork such as paying bills, caring for their family's health, keeping records, filing important papers, and following official procedures (such as paying property taxes, using social services, securing important documents). All of the women reported reading the Bible and collecting stories about saints and miracles printed on pocket sized calendars. They needed to read handwritten notices posted on the school gate, report cards, and homework. One of the most difficult areas of paperwork is related to the selling, buying, and owning of property and property rights. The women reported their ability to more fully participate in daily activity involving literacy in their society because of their literacy classes (Kalman, 2001).

Maddox (2007) conducted an ethnographic study regarding the value of literacy related to the status of women in the community of Shouj Para. They felt more valued by their husbands after attaining literacy. Also, they were consulted more by their spouses in decision-making processes (Maddox, 2007).

A study was completed in Istanbul, Turkey with students from an adult literacy program. Women who were a part of this program were young to middle-age adults from

rural areas. Approximately 91% of the women had no formal schooling and lived with their extended families. After participating in the literacy program, the women reported substantial changes in social activities, family unity, value of children, and self-concept. A follow-up questionnaire was completed by the students one year after the completion of the literacy course and gains in literacy were maintained or increased. Additionally, 5 out of 49 (10.2%) of the women were employed a year later. The survey revealed that 27.9% of the women were not permitted by their husbands to work, 20.9% needed to stay home to care for their children, and 18.6% were in poor health (Kagitcibasi et al., 2005).

Illiterate people who attend literacy classes have reported an increase in their self-esteem. According to a report regarding a functional adult literacy program in Rukungiri, Uganda, "focus group discussions discovered that the groups wanted to strengthen their literacy skills to feel more confident and in control in understanding loan agreements and managing their savings and credit accounts" (Oxenham et al., 2002, p. 24). The participants reported an increase in self-esteem as a welcomed by-product of attaining literacy. The women participants involved in an adult literacy program in Sudan relayed a transformed perception from uneducated and stupid to confident and outspoken (Mace, 1999).

In an eight-month ethnographic study, Prins (2010) examined how involvement in a literacy program in two rural Salvadoran villages promoted or limited empowerment of the participants. In brief, learners testified that ALE participation had helped with overcoming shame, timidity, and embarrassment from being illiterate. They reported more confident expression, self-confidence, self-perception, and friendships. Further, the

women expressed how they have escaped the confinement of their homes. Also, men explained they have avoided excessive drinking. Men and women described getting along better with others and learning valuable culture communicative practices (Prins, 2010).

International research has recognized a close a link between formal education and income (King, 1980; OECD, 1996; World Bank, 2006). International studies conclude that higher levels of formal education impact higher average annual earnings (World Bank, 1995). Farmers who possess a formal education were more likely to implement new technologies and gain higher returns on their land. There is some evidence that suggests that attaining a basic formal education helps less fortunate, self-employed people have a higher earning potential. For example, in Africa, graduates of first language programs have reported re-entering school (Aggor & Siabi-Mensah, 2003), and eventually becoming literacy teachers, supervisors, pastors, or entering polytechnics and universities (Trudell, 2009).

Literature has suggested a benefit of literacy is the development of "human capital," the vehicle for economic development (Psacharopoulos & Woodhall, 1985). Literacy and formal education are the number one indicators for growth in a developing country. While increasing literacy cannot guarantee a job, it does enhance knowledge and can prepare individuals to think critically about resolving some of their own particular problems in a more successful manner. Further, literacy can help people to improve their employability skills in the event employment becomes available. At best, a person who becomes literate has more chances of creating self-employment. A program

based in Dakar, Senegal, working with cotton farmers, combined functional aspects of literacy training with aspects of Freire's approach. The cotton farmers acknowledged that agriculture production and management of the village improved through with the acquisition of literacy (Millican, 1990, as cited in Oxenham et al., 2002).

Why Haitians Have a High Illiteracy Rate

The reasons for Haiti's high illiteracy (inability to read and write) rate are many. The primary reason is a lack of access to literacy education. Factors, such as extreme poverty, historical political instability, lack of educational funds, shortage of schools, and language policies are just a few of the barriers that have contributed to the lack of access resulting in a large number of Haitians becoming literate (Youssef, 2002). The literature below will explain some of the causes of Haiti's high illiteracy rate.

Historically, Haiti promoted education; however, education was not made accessible to everyone. Harsh political leaders and policies prohibited the majority of Haitians from attending school. Under the political leadership of Duvalier, adult literacy was repressed limiting many Haitians, especially the poor, from acquiring reading and writing skills. A cabinet level literacy office was launched by President Aristide. A national literacy campaign was funded in 2001 by donations from government officials and employees. The program was short-lived (Desroches, 2011). Throughout the years, Haitians were mandated to work the land and punishments were assessed for non-compliance, leaving no time or access for literacy education. The rich in Haiti were predominantly the people who could afford education and had access to schools.

Inadequate funding and inaccessibility to schools made it difficult for many young Haitian men and women to get the proper education they needed, contributing to the illiteracy found in Haiti.

Haitians value education. However, a deeper look at the educational system of Haiti will reveal many reasons why many Haitians were prevented from obtaining a literate education. Many families have been unable to pay the costs of education in Haiti. Although public education is free, fees for uniform and other educational materials were not available for the poor. A large number of schools in Haiti are private, with tuition that could be afforded mainly by the elite. In some cases, families had to choose which of their multiple children could engage in education. Therefore, many students have been unable to attend school (Luzincourt & Gulbrandson, 2010). Statistics show only 55% of Haitian children between the ages of six and 12 are enrolled in school, and less than one-third reach fifth grade (Carlson et al., 2011). Therefore, lack of funds for education has prevented many Haitians from participating in school and the result has been illiteracy.

Schools have been scarce in the rural areas. While the number of rural schools is on the rise, many people have previously not had adequate access to schools. In addition, many families have needed their children to work in the fields; therefore, these children were unable to attend school. Consequently, these children became a statistic of the high illiteracy rate in Haiti.

Why Few Adult Haitians Engage in Literacy Learning

Illiteracy has taken its toll on Haiti. Although literacy is one element that might benefit Haiti, the question that remains is why so few adult Haitians have engaged in literacy learning. The shortage of adult Haitian-Kreyòl literacy classes has stood in the way of some Haitians from engaging in literacy education (Desroches, 2011). The increase of written Haitian-Kreyòl educational materials is making access to Haitian-Kreyòl curriculum available for the formation of more Haitian-Kreyòl adult literacy classes. The literacy program which is highlighted in this study is one that has initiated Haitian-Kreyòl adult literacy education for Haitians who have not previously been given access to Haitian-Kreyòl literacy education. However, lack of funds to purchase materials, such as pencils, paper and notebooks, and an inadequate number of qualified instructors to teach adult literacy classes has prevented many Haitians from engaging in Haitian-Kreyòl adult literacy education.

While Haitians esteem education, the scope of benefits that literacy affords people may not be understood by some illiterate Haitians. For example, because of past political oppression, many poor Haitians were prevented from partaking in literate education. Therefore, they learned to survive on the land. These Haitians were resilient and survivors (Farmer, 2012). More Haitians might engage in Haitian-Kreyòl literacy classes if they were made aware of the potential benefits of literacy for a developing country. They may not realize that there are alternatives to many of the traditional practices in education, business, agriculture, hygiene, etc. Further, until recently, literacy in Haitian-Kreyòl was not valued, was not made available and there were few educational resources

or books in Haitian-Kreyòl. This fact is being changed and hopefully will make a positive impact on the future literacy rate in Haiti.

Pre-literate and Non-literate

The illiterate Haitian adult students in the present study represent two illiterate categories, as defined by literature. The field of literacy for low literate learners uses the terms pre-literate and non-literate to differentiate characteristics of people within the domain of illiteracy.

> Burt & Peyton (2003) describe pre-literate and non-literate as follows:
>
> Pre-literate learners come from cultures where literacy is not common in everyday life. They might include those whose native language is not written or is being developed. They often have had little or no exposure to written text and may not be aware of the purposes of literacy in everyday life. They need to be taught how written language works.
>
> Non-literate learners come from cultures where literacy is more available, but they have not had sufficient access to literacy education, often because of their socio-economic or political status. Although they have not learned to read, they have probably been exposed to written language and may have greater awareness of the value and uses of literacy than pre-literate learners. These students may be reluctant to disclose their limited literacy background in class, and instruction with them may proceed slowly. However, they are often highly motivated to learn (p. 8).

Literacy instruction for pre-literate students includes teaching pencil holding, shape/letter recognition, and left to right text organization. The initial contact with the written text might be intimidating; therefore it is recommended that the first stages of instruction occur without written text (Brekke, 2009). They may experience difficulty using reading and writing to support their informal, oral education (Burt et al., 2003). In addition, it is customary for these students to be unfamiliar with sitting in desks for long periods of time, listening to a teacher, and engaging with other students (Brekke, 2009). Also, it is highly likely they have not acquired study skills required for formal education (Burt et al., 2003). Therefore, the initial phase of literacy education for the pre-literates involves socialization involved with schooling and literacy.

Pre-literates have had no formal education in their first language while non-literates have had either limited or no literacy education in their first language. The pre-literate and non-literate groups both originate from a culture with oral only roots. Therefore, their instruction would begin by utilizing their oral skills with oral activities (Carroll, 1999). Both groups have learned through folktales, fables, and other oral stories that contain morals. Frequent re-teaching of skills and concepts is required for both groups (Robson, 1982; Strucker, 2002). The majority of their education may have been watching, listening, and learning from others.

How L1 Literacy Affects L2 Literacy Learning

A hindering factor for the goal of some Haitians to learn English is their illiteracy in the first language (L1), Haitian-Kreyòl. Literature suggests that factors influencing

literacy development in a second language (L2), such as English for the Haitians, are L1 literacy levels, educational background, and the goals of the learners (Burt et al., 2003). The body of qualitative research reveals that students illiterate in their L1 attain L2 literacy more efficiently with a combination of instruction in L1 literacy and L2 rather than in the L2 only (Gillespie 1994; Nurss, 1998).

A student's level of literacy in the L1 influences the literacy skills they can transfer from L1 to L2 reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). In a study conducted at a refugee camp in Thailand, Hmong adult learners of English with minimal literacy in Hmong developed English reading skills quicker than those who had no Hmong literacy (Robson, 1982). Likewise, in a study performed in New York of adult Haitians studying English, students who received L1 instruction while learning English developed greater literacy skills than did the English only group (Burtoff, 1985). Students with L1 literacy benefit from deciphering and conveying meaning to a text and using a text to boost their learning through writing (Burt et al., 2003). Additionally, students can use their prior knowledge of sound symbol relationships in their L1 to decode the new language with assistance from the teacher (Birch, 2006). In a study of Spanish speakers learning English, it was concluded that students used their L1 knowledge as a negotiation of meaning strategy when they had difficulty reading English (Langer, 1990). In a study investigating the reading strategy usage of 50 Spanish-speaking students, it was found that strategic reading techniques in L1 led to L2 reading strategy behaviors (Hardin, 2001).

Costs of Illiteracy in Developing Nations such as Haiti

The costs of illiteracy are felt in various areas of life, such as business, technological advances, and health. Haitians who lack literacy are not privy to the benefits of literacy mentioned previously in this chapter. One area not mentioned is the possibility that illiteracy in Haiti hinders Haitians from engaging in possible streams of income where proficiency in the English language is required to either perform the job duties, or to communicate with the English-speaking people creating the potential income sources.

The influence of illiteracy regarding personal income varies, but Haitians' earning potential is limited evidenced by the extreme poverty level. Reports reveal that illiterate people earn 30% to 42% less than literate Haitians (Cree et al., 2012). In Haiti, jobs are scarce. However, non-profit governmental agencies are prevalent in Haiti and have created jobs. Literacy and English speaking ability is usually required, leaving the majority of Haitians out of the running for these types of employment opportunities.

Whether or not there are real possibilities of English increasing the earning potential for Haitians, there is that assumption of a possible relationship between increased knowledge of the English language as an addition to personal identity because of the possibilities these skills might bring to life in the future. Identity is an association with how a person understands his or her connection to the world and how it can develop over time with possibilities for the future (Norton, 2000). This assumption reveals a relationship between increased knowledge of the English language as an addition to personal identity because of the possibilities these skills might bring to life in the future.

In an unpublished study, the researcher interviewed a Haitian person seeking to learn more English (Grissom, 2011). When asked how he thought other Haitians were "seeing all of this learning in English going on," the interviewee replied, "They think English can open a better place in life." This observation from the participant pointed to the idea that Haitians might be connecting the learning of English as a connection to an imagined community of language learners. Imagined communities of language learners can be referenced to seeing the learning of English as a way to go beyond their current circumstances, environment, and experience (Kanno & Norton, 2003).

The idea that learning the English language can be instrumental in providing a better life for Haitians equates the notion of power to the learning of English. Power is associated with the acquisition of material resources. In a broader sense, there seems to be an assumption that learning English will create access to a wide range of resources which provide more access to power and privilege. The access to more power and privilege in turn is influential in shaping how individuals understand themselves in their world and how they view their possibilities for the future. Thus, a person's identity can be altered with a change in their social and economic conditions (Norton, 2000).

Associating with a source of power can facilitate or restrict the assortment of identities that language learners can attempt to negotiate in their communities (Norton, 2000). In this instance, learning English is helping Haitians get better jobs. On the flip side, not learning English might be preventing some Haitians from securing higher paying jobs. The participant further stated:

> I have a lot of friends who find this position, for example now we have a lot of organizations in Haiti, and they want to give a job, and even if you have to do it, there are some contacts they are going to do with the good of these organization. So, you must do it in English, so it is a push for them to study English, so they want to study English.

Another category that developed during interviews with the informant was that learning English will help Haitians communicate with English speakers who are working in Haiti or NGO's assisting with the rebuilding of Haiti. The interviewee said:

> I want to learn more English because I think uh, uh, about my work like my position. I am working with a lot of Americans so that the university and that Fondwa there are a lot of American people who come every month to visit Fondwa to come to work with us at the university. And sometimes I meet them to receive them and talk to them explain to them to give them all the information they want about the university and is sometimes I want to answer some news about the university, so I think uh, uh, this is one reason it is for me to learn more more English. There are a lot of American people who work in Haiti and sometimes we must talk to them. And there are some jobs in Haiti they ask you to speak English. If you do not speak English, you cannot take this position. So I think, uh, is this the reason why there are a lot of Haitians who want to know English.

Members of a community of practice (COP) gain access through competence and membership in a language discourse community, which in this instance refers to English

speaking community in Haiti. English speakers in Haiti and the Haitian people are working diligently to rebuild the nation of Haiti after the devastating earthquake that hit in January, 2010. A COP can be valuable to the learning process achieved through participation with the members of the COP (Lave & Wenger, 1991). The learning of English to participate with English speakers in Haiti provides a training ground for Haitians and as such they continue to learn through participating with members of the English speakers in Haiti. Moreover, identity is positioned in and developed within a COP (Morita, 2004).

Haitians in business often feel the costs of illiteracy. Illiterate people have been known to lose customers due to poor communication and have been the cause of internal conflicts due to misunderstandings and miscommunications within the workplace. Poor literacy and numeracy skills can contribute to difficulty understanding and applying business finance concepts. In addition, literate individuals are reported to participate more fully and successfully in teams and meetings and have an overall higher morale (Cree et al., 2012).

A cost of illiteracy can be the prevention of illiterates from engaging in technological advances. For example, humanitarian aid for Haiti comes from a large number of English speaking non-profit, religious and educational organizations. These entities have incorporated technology throughout Haiti by placing computer center, internet services, and mobile phone capabilities throughout the nation. In order for illiterate Haitian citizens to benefit more fully from these technological advances, they require basic literacy, numeracy or technical literacy. It is hard to imagine how a person

can interact with a global marketplace that depends on technology without technological literacy (Cree et al., 2012).

A substantial cost of illiteracy is evident concerning issues of health. Illiteracy restricts a person's access, understanding, and application of health-related information which hinders health, hygiene, and nutrition. A child born to a literate mother in a developing country has a 50% higher probability of survival past age five. Because of the information a literate person can acquire about health, literate people have demonstrated better hygiene practices and exercised preventive health measures. Lack of knowledge or awareness of birth control methods can increase the likelihood of unplanned pregnancies. Also, without knowledge regarding safe sex, illiterate people have a greater chance of acquiring sexually transmitted diseases (Cree et al., 2012).

Hope

In an effort to build an argument for the potential of hope influencing illiteracy in Haiti, the construct of hope will be further described in this section. Hope research originated in 1959 by Karl Menninger and Victor Frankl in the field of psychiatry. Karl Menninger (1959) presented an academic lecture entitled “Hope” to the American Psychiatric Association (APA). He challenged his professional colleagues to consider hope as an essential component of clinical psychiatry. Victor Frankl (1959), who experienced imprisonment in concentration camps, portrayed hope by discussing the absence of hope that he termed as hopelessness and loss of meaning in life. In the 1960's, the medical arena dominated the direction of hope studies in the health sciences. Hope

was linked to the placebo effect, positive change in health *not attributable to medication or treatment* (Frank, 1968). Elizabeth Kűbler-Ross (1969), a psychiatrist, associated a patient's hope as a significant factor in health outcomes, including survival. Gabriel Marcel (1962), a philosopher, placed hope as the opposite of despair. William Lynch (1965), author and theologian, coined hope as the feeling that there is a way out of difficulty and that things can work out. Further, he proposed that hope rises above hopelessness (Lynch, 1965). P. S. Hinds (1984), a nurse researcher, described hope as a basic element necessary for human life. Ezra Stotland (1969), a psychologist, related hope as a goal-focused endeavor with motivating action within the individual to achieve desired result.

Definitions of Hope

Over the past 50 years, there have been many different definitions of hope in the literature. Erikson (1964) defined hope as an aspect of healthy cognitive development and faith in the realization of a desire. Gottschalk (1974) saw hope as an expectancy that propelled an individual to take action. Staats and Stassen (1985) expressed hope as the interaction between wishes and positive future expectancies. Dufault and Martocchio (1985) termed hope as "a multidimensional dynamic life force characterized by a confident yet uncertain expectation of achieving future good which, to the hoping person, is realistically possible and personally significant" (p. 380).

Godfrey (1987), subdivided hope into two categories: absolute and ultimate hope. Absolute hope related to a positive outlook to life and the future and as a vital coping

mechanism (Godfrey 1987). A person with absolute hope sets no conditions or limits and is not disillusioned if faced with disappointment (Halpin, 2001). A person with ultimate hope envisions the possibility of a better way of life for oneself and others; however, he or she recognizes the possibility of obstacles and has a particular objective in mind (Halpin, 2001).

Ronna Fay Jevne (1991), a Canadian psychologist, studied hope in conjunction with years of working with terminally ill patients in cancer clinics. Jevne described the goal of the hoping process as one dealing with uncertainties of life and warding off fear and despair (Jevne, 1991). She explained hope as

(a) found in the context of captivity and uncertainty;

(b) always set in the context of time;

(c) experienced symbolically and unconsciously and well as cognitively and rationally;

(d) experienced through relationships with people or things;

(e) comprising at least two levels

(f) touching all dimensions of life; and,

(g) a shared experience.

She explained that hope is illusive because, "You can't touch it, but you can feel it; you can't physically see it by itself, but you can hold it and carry it; it doesn't weigh anything, but it can ground you and anchor you" (Jevne, 1991, p. 6).

Farran et al. (1995) described hope as "an essential experience of the human condition that functions as a way of feeling, thinking, behaving, and relating to oneself

and one's world. Hope can be fluid in expectations, and in the event that the desired object or outcome does not occur, hope can still be present," (p. 172). They equated hope as goals that motivate that are dependent on resources, a sense of control, and time (Farran et al., 1995).

Attainable hope is a condition between wishing thought and planning (Shade, 2006). Between wishing thinking and planning is the understanding of the current conditions, regardless if conditions are difficult (Singh & Han, 2007). In other words, not giving up because of poverty, discrimination, or disadvantage, but rather hoping utilizing intelligent choices despite the conditions (Halpin, 2001).

The Brazilian educator and philosopher, Paulo Freire, saw hope as rooted deeply in his Christian faith (Freire, 2007b). According to Freire (2001), hope drives people forward in life as pilgrims, travelers, wayfarers, and seekers, all in pursuit of completeness. Freire equated hope with ‘active waiting' which he described as persistently seeking and struggling not folding arms in resignation (Freire, 1972a, 1972b). Further, he viewed hope as a "force that pushes people constantly" (Freire, 1985, pp. 197–198). Hope experienced by a hopeful person is as "the taking of history into their hands" (Freire, 1994, p. 176); and, a hope that takes as its rallying cry "Blaze trails as we go!" (Freire, 1994, p. 124). Hope is an essential ingredient of humans such that ‘it is impossible to exist without it' (Freire, 1998, p. 69).

Dr. Shane Lopez (2013) asserted that “hope can be learned and shared with others” (pp. 222-220). Further, he shared that “hope is a miracle of the human mind we all share” (Lopez, 2013, p. 34). He characterized hope as “being like oxygen and that we

cannot live without it" (Lopez, 2013, pp. 181-185). Additionally, he distinguished hope as something that can lift our spirits and make life seem worth living (Lopez, 2013).

At this point in the discussion of hope, in order to ascertain a complete picture of hope, it is important to look at the lack of hope. Therefore, a glimpse of hopelessness will shed more light on what hope is.

Hopelessness

Hopelessness is the belief of impossibility (Miceli & Castlefranchi, 2010). Hope as seen by Snyder contains pathways to meeting goals and encourages people to try to work through a goal or problem. Hopelessness is a person's inability to see a positive future (Hollis, Massey, & Jevne, 2007). Hope, on the other hand, looks for a positive future and a way to obtain a positive future. Hopelessness leads to increased risk of depression and suicidal thoughts (Magelleta & Oliver, 1999**).** Hopeless persons are "deficient in basic spiritual power which results in the risk of lapsing into lethargy and indifference" (Halpin, 2001, p. 404). They stop moving. They become paralyzed.

Trait Hope and State Hope

Hope Theory differentiates between trait hope and state hope. According to Snyder et al. (1996), "People probably have dispositional hope that applies across situations and times, but they also have state hope that reflects particular times and more proximal events" (p. 321). State hope may be more evident in high stress times and events. State hope relates to a person's level of hope at a specific moment in time relative

to his or her goal-anchored perceptions about his or her ability to produce both agency and pathway thinking (Snyder, 2002; Snyder et al., 1996).

Trait hope relates to a person's dispositional, goal-anchored *perceptions* about his or her ability to produce both agency and pathway thinking (Snyder, Harris, et al., 1991). Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) developed the Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (ADHS) to measure hope as a steady human trait, or characteristic. Snyder, Sympson, et al. (1996) created the Adult State Hope Scale (ASHS) to evaluate hope about a particular circumstance or event. The ASHS (Snyder et al., 1996) was developed to measure current, situational goal-directed thinking, whereas the ADHS (Snyder, Harris, Anderson, et al., 1991) was intended to measure an individual's overall, constant goal-directed thinking.

Measuring Hope

The hope scores in the archival data analyzed in this study were obtained by measurements of hope as a trait using the ADHS. The ADHS is a 12-item measure, with four items designed to assess each of the sub-factors of hope: pathways thinking and agency thinking. A pathway thinking question example is "there are lots of ways around my problem," and an agency thinking question example is "I energetically pursue my goals." "I feel tired most of the time" is an example of a distracter item (Snyder et al., 1991). Items 2, 9, 10, and 12 identify the goal-related agency qualities of hope. Items 1, 4, 6, and 8 identify the pathway thinking aspects of hope. The four distractor items are 3, 5, 7, and 11. The participants are asked to answer each question by rating how well each

item describes them, based on a scale, ranging from 1 (definitely false) to 8 (definitely true). The ADHS score is calculated from the sum of the pathways and agency items, which positively correlate with each other to form a total hope score. Snyder's Hope Theory specifically states that agency and pathways are separate, but extremely associated constructs; and, it is only when these two components work together that hope is in effect (Snyder et al., 1991). The ADHS has consistently demonstrated acceptable internal consistency estimates (overall alphas from .74 to .88, agency alphas of .70 to .84, and pathway alphas of .63 to .86); test–retest reliabilities (ranging from .85 for 3 weeks to .82, for 10 weeks, $p < 0.001$,); and concurrent and discriminant validities (Snyder et al., 1991).

Hope Theory was developed through studies utilizing principle component, exploratory factor analysis, using a total sample of 3,615 participants (Snyder et al., 1991). The ADHS was administered to eight different samples over a two year period. The samples were taken from an outpatient mental health clinic, an inpatient clinic, and, an undergraduate college student population. The sub-factors of agency and pathways explained between 52% and 63% of the variance in total scores on the ADHS across samples. The original research presented by Snyder, Harris et al. (1991) in support of the hope construct, demonstrated that higher levels of hope were positively and significantly correlated with a higher number of desired life goals ($r = .24$, $p < .03$).

The two factor model Snyder presents in the ADHS was validated by Roesch and Vaughn (2006). They administered the instrument to 1,031 undergraduates. They purposely obtained a sample that included 49.3% ethnic minorities in an attempt to apply

the ADHS in a cross-cultural manner. In the confirmatory factor analysis of the total for all groups, they found the two-factor model a significantly better fit to the data than a one-factor model. Additionally, they found the two-factor model fit significantly better for both Caucasians and ethnic minorities, indicating an initial stable cross-cultural construct.

Brouwer et al. (2008) conducted research that investigated the two sub-factors of the ADHS. The sample was comprised of 676 persons from a Dutch population. A bi-factor model was employed to study the role of agency and pathways, independent of the global hope score. Confirmatory factor analysis assessed how much variance each construct contributed to the general factor of hope. The results indicated that the factor loadings were higher for the total hope score than for either of the domain factors of pathways or agency. Minimal unique variance was explained by either the pathway subscale or the agency subscale above the general factor of hope. This result supports hope as a uni-dimensional construct with pathway and agency being sub-factors of the total hope score (Brower et al., 2008).

Snyder's Hope Theory

Snyder's Hope Theory has been the most researched and validated theory pertaining to the measurement of hope (Creamer et al., 2009). In the mid '80s, Snyder was interested in researching excuses people make for their mistakes or poor performance (Snyder et al., 1983). During interviews with the adult students participating in the study, a theme of positive goals surfaced. After conferring with a colleague and reviewing

motivational and cognitive literature, Snyder (2002) pursued investigating the relevance of pathways to pursuing goals. He concluded that hope was more than thinking about a specific goal (Snyder, 2002). Snyder (1994) established that at the core of hope was a cognitive component that is the perception that goals can be accomplished. Therefore, Snyder's Hope Theory rests on the definition of hope as a positive, motivational state based on an interactively derived sense of successful (a) agency (goal-directed energy), and (b) pathways (planning to meet goals; Snyder, 1991).

The fostering of hopeful thinking begins with a secure parent-child attachment being taught and modeled during effective goal-related activities (Snyder, 1994). If parents reinforce cognitive processes necessary for goal achievement, children become increasingly hopeful. Likewise, if children are discouraged from goal setting or distrust major attachment figures, due to abuse or neglect, they will display limited ability to formulate and pursue goals (Snyder, 2000). Cognitive constructs are founded in an individual's ability to develop and achieve goals they wish to accomplish utilizing multiple strategies (Snyder, 1994).

Goals

Goals are the essential ingredient of Snyder's Hope Theory. Snyder's major assumption when developing Hope Theory was that goals guide a person's activities (Snyder, 2002). Goals are the anchoring point for the development and measurement of hope (Snyder et al., 1991). In interviews conducted in Snyder's (2000) study, the participants discussed hope in terms of achievement of goals. Snyder reported that in

order for goals to be motivating, they should have high personal value. Goals do not require hope if they are easily achieved or seemingly impossible to achieve, or are not motivating or valued (Snyder, 2000).

Empirical research substantiating that goals are the anchor for Hope Theory was conducted by Peterson et al. (2006). They administered the ADHS to a sample of 212 college undergraduates. Men and women participants were randomly assigned to a high state hope, low state hope, or a control group. A goal orientation assessment was conducted over the Internet. Two to three weeks later, the participants were exposed to set of instructions for a task that either induced or reduced hope. In the laboratory, they completed the ASHS. Results of the Peterson et al. (2006) research showed that scores on the ADHS and the ASHS were moderately correlated ($r = .43$, $p < .05$), and goal orientation was moderately correlated with task performance ($r = .18$, $p < .05$). Using path analysis, Peterson et al. found significant regression coefficients between goal orientation and trait hope ($\beta = .71$, $p < .01$), trait hope and state hope (β .51, $p < .01$), and between state hope and performance ($\beta = .26$, $p < .01$). The hope reducing manipulation resulted in lower state hope relative to the control group while the high hope condition did not have a significant effect on state hope. From the work of Peterson et al. one might infer support for the proposition by Snyder, Harris, et al. (1991) that pathway thinking and agency thinking are theoretically separate components of hope, and that hope is anchored in goal setting and goal motivation.

Pathway Thinking

Pathway thinking is a person's *perceived* ability to develop satisfactory paths to accomplish preferred goals (Snyder et al., 1991). Pathways are associated with an individual's problem solving and strategy centered activities (Chang, 1998). Every goal can have several plausible pathways although some may be more effective than others. If a pathway is not accomplishing a goal, then the person will try another pathway. A high-hope person has a perception of being successful at generating strategies to reach goals, or regenerating routes if a strategy is blocked (Snyder, 2000). This personal confidence in producing strategies to meet goals is at the heart of pathways thinking.

Agency Thinking

The motivational part of hope is agency thinking. Agency thinking is the *perceived* knack of using pathways to reach desired goals (Rand, 2009). Agency is essential for movement toward a goal (Lopez et al., 2003). If the goal is blocked, agency thinking and motivational self-talk assists with the required inspiration to discover the best alternate pathway to reach the goal (Snyder, 1994). The capacity to maintain mindfulness of agency thinking escalates the likelihood that chosen pathways will result in success. When success is achieved, the goal pursuit process is validated by positive emotions and the cycle of setting and attaining goals continues (Snyder, 2002).

A recent study corroborated the importance of goals and the intersection of pathway and agency thinking. In a three-month longitudinal investigation of 162 college students' (63 males and 99 females), hope and goals were measured during the first week and final week of the semester (Feldman et al., 2009). A major finding of this study was

that the value of a goal influenced both pathways and agency thinking. Another major finding of this study supports Snyder's (2002) hypothesis that individuals adjust their hope levels based on the relative level of success or failure with goals. The results of this study provide evidence substantiating the Hope Theory notion that individuals adapt their pathway and agency thinking as they experience success or failure in pursuing goals.

False Hope

A criticism of Hope Theory is the possibility of setting unrealistic goals that result in failure or are unreachable (Snyder, 2002). People portray false hope when they have a desired goal and motivation (i.e., agency) to reach that goal, but they do not have the strategies to attain the goal (Kwon, 2000). Critics of hope might claim that hope is more like wishful thinking or daydreaming. Snyder (2002) offers a rebuttal to the issue of false hope stating that individuals with high hope often approach obstacles *perceived* as unrealistic with strong pathway and agency thinking. Likewise, when a particular goal is *perceived* as blocked, high-hope individuals are flexible in changing their goals to ones that are more obtainable (Irving et al., 1998).

Hope and Related Constructs

Snyder's Hope Theory (1991) resembles constructs of self-efficacy, optimism, problem solving, goal theory and motivation; however, they are not identical. Pointing out the similarities and differences with these other constructs further clarifies the construct of hope.

Problem Solving

Hope and problem solving both identify goals or and solutions to a problem (Heppner & Hillerbrand, 1991). Similar to Hope Theory, discovering the most effective pathway is the foundation for problem solving (D'Zurilla, 1986). Agency thinking, not found in problem solving, is what imparts the motivation to trigger pathway thinking (problem solving) in Hope Theory (Snyder, 1991). Hope and problem solving have correlated positively (*rs* of .40–.50; Snyder et al., 1991).

The following research reveals cases where problem-solving related activities were correlated with hope. Researching grade school, high school and college students, hope correlated consistently with outstanding academic accomplishments (Snyder, Cheavens, & Michael, 1999). In one study, ADHS scores forecasted college students' final grades in their introductory psychology courses (Snyder et al., 1991). In a longitudinal study of 100 female and 100 male college students, ADHS scores were measured at the onset of their first semester in college. They were tracked for 6 years to record their progress. Hope scale scores predicted higher cumulative GPAs, higher graduation rate, and lower dropout rates (Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2002). Also, hope accounted for higher scores on elementary school children's achievement tests (Snyder, Hoza, et al., 1997) and higher overall grade point averages (GPAs) for high school students (Snyder et al., 1991). Hope allows students to address a task with an emphasis on success, which raises the likelihood of goal achievement (Conti, 2000). Simply stated, hope is associated with greater problem-solving abilities (Snyder et al., 1991).

Chang (1998) explored the connection between hope, problem-solving, and coping strategies. Two hundred eleven college undergraduates completed the ADHS, a measure of social problem solving, a measure of life satisfaction, and a measure of coping activities. The measure of coping strategies includes 14 scales. The scores from the ADHS were divided into high hope scores and low hope scores. Participants in the high hope group typically scored higher on positive problem orientation and logical problem solving while scoring lower on negative problem orientation and problem solving avoidance. In terms of coping strategies, people in the high hope group showed significantly less use of coping strategies such as wishful thinking, being self-critical, and withdrawing from social interaction. High-hope adults, when compared with low-hope adults, relayed greater positive problem tendencies and rational problem solving abilities (Chang, 1998).

Optimism

Optimism is often interchanged with hope. It is important to understand that hope is not just the idea of being optimistic. It is similar to hope because it is a goal-based cognitive practice in operation when a result is considered (Snyder, 2002). Optimism differs from hope in that it encompasses a single cognitive state expecting positive outcomes across life domains (Carver & Scheier, 2002). Optimism is when a person has an overall belief that good things will happen (Scheier & Carver, 1985). The optimist believes circumstances will have a positive outcome, but often lack the pathways necessary to achieve what they are longing for (Snyder, 1995). Frankly speaking, the optimist has the agency thinking, or motivation, but lacks the pathway thinking, or

established plan, that is present in Hope Theory. Optimism is most related to the agency component of hope, which is the motivational aspect of Snyder's Hope Theory.

Self-efficacy

Hope (Snyder et al., 1991) has also been associated with the construct of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994). Both constructs share two components; the willpower (agency) element of Hope Theory is similar to the efficacy expectancies of self-efficacy theory. Also, the waypower component (pathways) of Hope Theory is similar to the outcome expectancies of self-efficacy theory. One significant difference between the two theories is that Bandura contends that the efficacy expectancies are most important, whereas Snyder argues that willpower (agency) and waypower (pathways) is equally important (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Self-efficacy is the belief that a goal *can* be accomplished whereas the belief that a goal *will* be achieved is hope (Peterson & Luthans, 2003). Self-efficacy does not include pathways thinking (Peterson & Byron, 2008).

Magaletta and Oliver (1999) conducted a study with university students (N = 204) looking at the constructs of hope, self-efficacy, and optimism. Factor and regression analysis were utilized to determine that agency and pathways are related but are not identical constructs. Using the Self-Efficacy Scale (SES) as a measure of self-efficacy, the Life Orientation Test (LOT) as a measure of optimism, and the ADHS as a measure of agency and pathways, four factors identified SES, LOT, agency, and pathways as independent constructs. SES was attributed as the strongest factor, accounting for 30% of the variance and comprising 12 of the 17 SES items. Total score on the ADHS was

positively and significantly correlated with scores on the SES ($r = .59$, $p < .001$), the LOT ($r = .55$, $p < .001$), and the GWBQ ($r = .60$, $p < .001$). This research provided no absolute results regarding the convergence of agency and pathways to similar constructs; however, it substantiated Snyder's (1991) contention that hope is comprised of agency and pathways thought used in goal acquisition (Magaletta & Oliver, 1999).

Motivation

It is important to point out that hope and motivation are not the same. Wlodkowski (1990) explains motivation as a "hypothetical construct that cannot be directly measured or validated through the physical or natural sciences" (p. 97). The agency sub-factor of hope contains the motivational factor because it is the part of hope that provides the encouragement to move from Point A to Point B (Snyder, 1991). However, motivation does not contain the pathways factor of hope.

Hope is not motivation, but it can motivate. Adults are motivated to learn when they are successful learners, have choices in learning and are confident in what they are learning, find what they are learning meaningful and of significant value, and when they enjoy their learning experiences (Wlodkowski, 1990). The value level of motivation functions as hope and is evident when the learner moves from resistance to acceptance (Sillito, 2002). When the learner enjoys learning, the adult student's motivation has been influenced by hope (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990).

Emotions

Hope is mistaken for positive or negative emotions by some people. Some often dismiss hope as non-viable construct thinking, a whimsical emotional reaction. Perceptions regarding goal attainment can produce positive or negative emotions. For instance, positive emotions might result with a positive attainment of a goal and negative emotions from an unsuccessful attempt at reaching a goal (Snyder, 2002). High-hope people typically possess positive emotions while low hope people often experience negative emotions, showing little energy or ambition toward setting or attaining goals (Snyder, 2002). Therefore, goal-directed thinking, rather than emotions, determines activities initiated or sustained in setting and achieving goals performances (Snyder et al., 1999). It is important to note that hope is not reduced or completely lost in the face of difficult life situation (Snyder, 2002).

Levels of Hope

People can experience high hope or low hope, contingent on their level of hopeful thinking. A high-hope person experiences pathway and agency thought effortlessly during the goal cycle; on the other hand, low-hope people are slow and cautious during recurring pathway and agency during the goal sequence (Snyder, 1991). People with high hope seem to have no fear when they experience difficulties (Snyder, 1991). Snyder (1995) wrote," high hope people see roadblocks to their goals as being a normal part of life" (p. 357). People with high hope are more decisive than people with low hope (Snyder, 1995). High hope individuals set clear goals and establish various strategies for

achieving their goals while low hope people tend to be unclear about their goals or hesitant to set goals at all (Snyder, 1994). Low hope people lack effective plans and strategies for achieving their desired results (Snyder, p. 197). High hope individuals are also more likely to stay focused on their goals, developing processes to evaluate their progress, and continuing in spite of anticipated and unanticipated obstacles (Snyder et al., 2002).

In a study conducted employing listening preferences, memory, and self-report tests regarding typical self-talk, high-hope people used self-talk agency phrases like, "I can do this," and "I am not going to be stopped" (Snyder, Lapointe, Crowson, & Early, 1998). High-hope people modify their routes when needed in order to reach their goals. The low-hope person might find it difficult to generate different paths (Snyder, 1994).

Hopeful people spread hope (Lopez, 2013). People with low hope, on the other hand, often sabotage hopeful thinking with self-critical thought. The eventual result might be a reduction of goal pursuits (Snyder, Feldman, Taylor, Schroeder, & Adams, 2000).

The characteristics of high-hope and low-hope people are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Characteristics of High-Hope and Low-Hope Individuals

High Hope	Low Hope
Many goals	Few goals
Specific goals	Vague goals
Realistic goals	Unrealistic goals
Goals that require effort	Goals that are easy to attain
Focus on relevant information	Ponder on negative information
Approach goals	Avoid goals
Prefer positive self-referential input	Prefer negative self-referential input
Create multiple pathways to goals	Create few pathways to goals
High motivation	Low motivation
Skilled at creating alternative pathways	Unskilled at or lack energy in creating alternate pathways
Belief in successful goal pursuit	Lack of belief in successful goal pursuit
View obstacles as a challenge	Are discouraged by obstacles
Use strategies to strengthen agency thinking	Use interfering and ineffective strategies
Learn from previous successful and unsuccessful goal pursuits	Ponder on past failures
Steadily focus on goal pursuit	Are easily distracted
Confidence in own skill	Lack of confidence

Source: From "Hope for Rehabilitation and Vice Versa," by C. R. Snyder, K. A. Kluck, and Y. Monsson, 2006, *Rehabilitation Psychology, 51*(2), p. 89.

How Hope Might Impact Haiti

While no studies have measured what Haitians hope in or for, literature said that individuals formulate goals appropriate to their social conditions and surroundings (Hinton-Nelson, Roberts, & Snyder, 1996). Therefore, since goals are the essential ingredient of Hope Theory, it seems important to understand a population insofar as their hopes are concerned. The sources of hope may vary according to the racial/ethnic group

studied (Chang, et al., 2007). Hence, without conducting further studies, rock solid conclusions about the hopes of Haitians cannot be expressed. However, there is ample literature revealing how hope has been a source of healing, increased life satisfaction and overall integral part of betterment of life in other populations.

A large number of Haitians are known for being religious/spiritual; they regularly must

- endure extreme poverty/unemployment;
- withstand natural disasters (earthquakes, hurricanes, floods);
- suffer from loss of life and injuries from natural disasters and poor living conditions;
- face grief and possible depression from personal losses;
- endure illness and disease;
- bear trauma, abuse and potential post-traumatic syndrome;
- tolerate political instability and frequent violent disruptions and high crime rates;
- abide in low standards of living, such as little electricity, unsanitary conditions, little food, and, poor water;
- encounter homelessness; and, last, but not least,
- deal with low literacy rates, low levels of education, and low school attendance (Arthur, 2002; CIA, 2014; Crane et al., 2010; Hornbeck, 2010; Luzincourt & Gulbrandson, 2010; Margesson & Taft-Morales, 2010; New

Paltz Institute for Disaster Mental Health, n.d.; United Nations, 2011; World Bank, n.d.).

Hope has been applied to various domains that are related to the characteristics mentioned above. An analysis of some of those findings ensues.

Hope and Racial or Ethnic Groups

Until 2007, hope studies were primarily conducted with European American participants. Therefore, from a cross-cultural perspective, little was known of how agency and pathway thinking varied across different racial/ethnic groups (Chang & Banks, 2007). A correlational hope study was conducted in 2007 with four racial/ethnic groups. They found that across all ethnic groups, agency thinking was significantly correlated with pathway thinking, with the largest correlation among African Americans ($r = .53$, $p < .01$). The results of this study revealed hope being associated with similar agency and pathway thinking as did the previous studies involving European American populations (Chang & Banks, 2007). The data by Chang and Banks (2007) provides strong support for the validity of the ADHS and Snyder, Harris, et al.'s (1991) hope construct among diverse people groups.

Spirituality-Based Hope

Christianity embraces hope as a virtue, along with faith and love, which remain eternally as stated in I Corinthians 13:1 (King James Version). Hope "encourages action in situations where action is possible, and reliance on God's benevolence in situations that

otherwise might appear hopeless" (Averill & Sundararajan, 2005, p. 142). For the religious person who is a high-hoper, many pathways are *perceived* as being available for reaching one's goals (Snyder, Sigmon, et al., 2002). A spiritual person might deem prayer, rituals and rites as possible pathways to assist them in obtaining help from God in reaching one's goals. Religion often instills agency thoughts that encourage confidence in believers that they can accomplish their goals (Snyder, Sigmon, et al., 2002).

Hope and Income

Income has not been shown to have a positive relationship with hope. In 2009, Dr. Shane Lopez, Gallup Poll Senior Scientist and Research Director of the Clifton Strengths Institute, found in his review of rich and poor families that there was no relationship between hope and income. Additionally, the 2009 Gallup Poll measured hope in elementary and secondary students enrolled in free and reduced lunch programs. Results of that poll revealed that the hope of students whose families didn't qualify for assistance was no different than the students in the free and reduced lunch programs (Lopez, 2013).

Hope and Depression

Hopelessness leads to increased risk of depression (Magalleta & Oliver, 1999). Hope research indicates that improving hope can also improve conditions of people experiencing depressive symptoms. Additionally, hope research has pointed out that hopeful individuals describe fewer signs of depression and anxiety (Snyder et al., 1991).

Studies have also highlighted that people with lower hope have been linked to more likelihood of acquiring depressive tendencies (Kwon, 2000). Studies examining the relationship between hope and depression reflect a negative correlation with various populations, such as students (Arnau, Rosen, Finch, Rhudy, & Fortunato, 2007) and stroke patients (Gum, Snyder & Duncan, 2006).

In a randomized, empirical test of a hope-based therapy group, eight sessions were conducted emphasizing goal-pursuit skills. The participants (N = 32) underwent structured diagnostic interviews and completed assessment packets, including hope measurements. Post-participation assessment results indicated that the intervention was associated with statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) improvements in the agency component of hope, life meaning, and self-esteem as well as reductions in symptoms of depression and anxiety. These results suggest that a brief hope intervention can increase some psychological strengths and diminish some symptoms of psychopathology (Cheavens, Feldman, Gum, Michael, & Snyder, 2006).

In a sample of 209 trauma-exposed veterans receiving outpatient mental health care at a VA facility, hope was measured along with avoidant and approach coping strategies. The participants completed a life events questionnaire and inventories assessing coping, ADHS, and PTSD and depression symptom severity. Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Dispositional hope was positively correlated with only depression symptoms and perceptions of hope lessened the association between emotional avoidance coping and depression symptoms. The findings highlight the value

of emotional coping strategies and perceptions of hope in posttraumatic adjustment (Hassija, Naragon-Gainey, Moore & Simpson, 2012).

Illnesses

An important issue in understanding hope is how hope influences the manner in which individuals diagnosed with a potentially life-threatening illness cope with their situation. A correlational quantitative study was conducted to examine dispositional hope in 115 college women regarding self-reported cancer-related coping activities. Each participant was given a hypothetical scenario in which they were diagnosed with breast cancer. The results revealed that women with high hope levels were able to generate more pathways or coping strategies and were more confident in their ability to implement these pathways than their lower hope counterparts. Thus, high-hope individuals could be better equipped in many ways to cope with the potential for life threatening illness (Irving et al., 1998).

Trauma/Abuse/Post Traumatic Stress Disorder

Hope has been found to be a positive factor in easing the pain of trauma, abuse and post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) in different researched populations. One investigation of the ramifications of exposure to violence involved 89 early adolescents attending an inner-city school known for high crime rates. They completed surveys assessing perceptions of hope, exposure to violence, and perceived vulnerability to victimization. The results revealed that children and family members or friends who

have been victims of interpersonal violence have lower levels of hope than children who have not witnessed such violence (Hinton-Nelson et al., 1996).

Another study was conducted with a large sample of traumatic injury survivors (N = 1025) admitted in one of five hospitals in Australia. They completed a trauma history inventory and the ADHS. There was a high level of internal consistency for both subscales and total hope. The confirmatory factor analysis provided support for the two-factor structure of Snyder's model of hope. This study provides support for the use of the ADHS as a measure of hope in traumatized populations (Creamer et al., 2009).

In another study, 164 veterans diagnosed with PTSD, admitted in a Veteran's Administration residential treatment program received six weeks of cognitive processing therapy. Measures of PTSD symptoms, depression, and hope were collected during the treatment. Higher levels of hope midway through treatment affected reductions in PTSD and depression from mid- to post-treatment were reported (Gilman, Schumm, & Chard, 2012). The outcome was that hope contributed to life's changes once the client developed strategies to solve problems (Gilman et al., 2012).

Coping

High hope has been shown to enhance coping skills. Among Hurricane Katrina survivors, dispositional hope moderated the relationship between avoidant coping and general psychological distress. Individuals who reported lower levels of dispositional hope and utilized avoidant coping strategies evidenced increased psychological distress in comparison to those with either high levels of dispositional hope or those who used less

avoidant coping strategies (Glass, Flory, Kloos, Hankin, & Turecki, 2009). Results indicated that hope was negatively associated with PTSD symptoms; whereas, general psychological distress and problem-focused coping was related to many PTSD symptoms. Hope moderated the relationship between avoidant coping and customary psychological distress (Glass et al., 2009).

Life Satisfaction

Hope has been positively related to life satisfaction. Higher levels of hope were associated with academic and interpersonal life satisfaction among college students (Chang, 1998). Hope and optimism were found to predict life satisfaction in adolescents with and without cognitive disabilities (Shogren, Lopez, Wehmeyer, Little, & Pressgrove, 2006). Hope correlated with student life satisfaction for two large groups of high school students (r = .55) and middle school students (r = .49; Valle, Huebner, & Suldo, 2004).

Wrobleski and Snyder (2005) utilized a correlational design to examine hope as it relates to perceived physical health and life satisfaction among older adults. Participants were asked to complete the trait hope scale, symptom index, health status questionnaire, and a life satisfaction index; reveal the prescription medications they were currently taking; create a social contact list; and complete the Instrumental Activities of Daily Living Scale and the Shipley's Institute of Living Scale-Vocabulary. Correlation coefficients were calculated, and the results indicated significant positive correlation between perceived overall health, the Shipley's Institute of Living Scale-Vocabulary, Instrumental Activities of Daily Living Scale, and hope. Regardless of number of

medications, physical symptoms, support resources of friends, social contacts, family, and daily functioning abilities, individuals with high hope had higher perceived overall health, and perceived their functioning and life satisfaction as higher than their low-hope counterparts (Wrobleski & Snyder, 2005).

Hope and Intelligence

Hope has not been found to have a correlation with intelligence. Standardized tests of intellectual functioning have been given in connection with the hope scale. In every instance, there was no correlation between high hope and IQ (Snyder, 1994). Therefore, Snyder (1994) claimed that hope can be enhanced if one so chooses, despite their intelligence level.

How Hope Is Related to Education and Learning

A review of hope literature has revealed a relationship between hope and academic success. Higher hope has been correlated with higher grade point averages, persistence in the face of academic challenges, higher graduation rates and higher test scores. Specifically, hope relates to higher achievement test scores for grade school children and higher GPAs for college and law students.

Theoretically, because hope is a goal setting construct, it should be positively related to academic achievement because of its goal setting factor (Day, Hanson, Maltby, Proctor, & Wood, 2010). According to Snyder (1994, 2002), one way trait hope works is by shaping beliefs related to specific goal pursuits. For example, higher-hope students

will have a greater expectancy for their performance in a particular class, independent of information relevant to class performance (e.g., their previous academic performance, difficulty of the course material, quality of the instructor). This greater expectancy provides motivation for students to work harder toward their expected outcome (Rand, 2009). First, agency may predict future higher academic achievement because of determination. Second, pathways predict future higher academic achievement because of successful strategy generation.

Low-hope students tend to give up when faced with challenges, because they have difficulty finding alternative pathways. They feel like failures because of their inability to think of other ways to meet their goals. This failure can lead to frustration, loss of confidence, and lowered self-esteem (Snyder, 1994). Low-hope students often have lower academic expectations when they confront goals they cannot reach. Low-hope students do not increase academic efforts following failure (Snyder, Sympson, et al., 2002). The role of hope among marginalized youth in urban classrooms was found to be important for student success in a study by Daniels (2010). In this study the phenomenon of persistence of hope in spite of challenges was an important finding (Daniels, 2010).

Hope has been correlated to higher grade point averages (GPA's). A six-year longitudinal study of entering college freshman regarding the impact of hope on academic achievement found hope was correlated with mean grade point average (GPA) scores (r = .21). Additionally, higher GPAs were attained six years later after controlling for baseline hope scores (Snyder, Shorey, et al., 2002). Six hundred and thirty-nine high school students participated in a three-year longitudinal study that predicted grades using

cognitive ability and self-esteem, hope, and attributional style. Hope, positive attributional style, and cognitive ability predicted higher grades (Leeson, 2008). In contrast, a weakening sense of hope was related to negative outcomes such as poor academic achievement and psychological distress (Chang & DeSimone, 2001; Snyder et al., 1998).

Research in cognition and motivation has shown a high sense of hope is related positively with academic achievement (Adelabu, 2008; Onwuegbuzie & Snyder, 2000; Snyder, Feldman, et al.,, 2002; Snyder & Shorey, 2002) and other factors, such as problem solving, that relate to individuals' achievement and learning outcomes (Chang, 1998). Chang (1998) reported that a heightened sense of hope provided a basis for college students to develop and acquire problem-solving skills that, in turn, led to academic success.

Apart from the positive contribution of hope, other research studies have also shown that low hope is detrimental and relates negatively with a number of results, namely poor academic performance (Chang & DeSimone, 2001; Snyder, Feldman, et al., 2002), personal adjustment and global life satisfaction (Gilman, Dooley, & Florell, 2006), and psychological distress (Snyder et al., 1998).

Hope Can Be Taught and Increased

Hope literature advocates that hope can be taught and increased (Snyder, Lehman, Kluck, & Monsson, 2006). Anyone can benefit from hope instruction. The foundation for teaching hope and a few of the hope strategies are presented below.

Goals

The starting point in increasing hopeful thinking is to teach people how to rethink the approach of choosing and defining goals. A goal should be valuable to a person in order to maintain motivation, the force that will keep a person moving toward mastering a goal (Snyder et al., 2006; Marques, et al., 2011; Lopez, 2013). Goals should be neither too hard nor too easy to achieve. If a goal is too easy, the motivation for goal achievement is weakened. On the other hand, a goal that is too tough to achieve can challenge hope and result in frustration (Snyder et al., 2006).

Goals should be set that are clearly comprehended, and the measurement for each goal is understood. In other words, it is important to know where you are going and knowing along the way if you are successful in your goal pursuit. A person can get stuck if they focus excessively on what not to do and the result can be unaccomplished goals (Snyder et al., 2006).

A big goal should be broken into smaller, attainable sub-goals (Marques et al., 2011). Achieving sub-goals can maintain momentum and motivation to continue pursuing the big goal. Reaching sub-goals can increase the chance of an individual reaching their big goal.

Pathways

High-hope people tend to find a number of pathways to their goals. Developing multiple pathways or strategies to reach a goal enhances the chances of successfully reaching goals. If individuals devise multiple pathways for meeting their goals, their

chances for accomplishment are increased, and the possibility of complete goal blockage is reduced. It is beneficial to prepare various pathways before pursuing a goal in which hindrances are likely to occur (Snyder et al., 2006).

Visualizing the path to the goal is an essential skill for making hope happen (Lopez, 2013). The ability of a person to envision a desired future goal is so powerful that it can enhance the development of new behavioral patterns (Snyder et al., 2006). In other words, individuals who can picture the possibility of a better tomorrow because of the achievement of some monumental goal, will begin making better choices today in order to walk in their anticipated enhanced future, despite their present difficult circumstances (Lopez, 2013).

Agency

To ensure that individuals believe they can initiate and maintain progress toward goal achievement, how to maintain agency, or motivation, can be taught (Snyder et al., 2006). The key agency component is positive self-talk. Negative thoughts have a tendency to morph into negative speech, which is detrimental to an individual's level of hope. As a hope coach, one strategy for increasing positive self-talk is by giving praise for small sub-goal achievement and by mentoring positive self-talk in everyday speech patterns. Also, it is vital to point out when a person is exercising negative self-talk and modeling an alternative positive self-talk selection.

Agency thinking can be increased by teaching individuals to effectively evaluate their progress towards goals. Motivation is increased as sub-goals and goals are

successfully mastered. An obstacle to effective goal evaluation is the non-establishment of a suitable method for measuring the goal (Snyder et al., 2006).

If individuals lack hope, one of the most effective overall strategies is to encourage them to borrow the hope of others. Hopeful people can become the agents of hope, instilling their hopeful tactics and strategies by sharing their stories of hope. They can create hope filled atmospheres everywhere they are by modeling hopeful actions and speech. They can offer suggestions for individuals about how they can achieve their desired goals. When people possess both the will and the ways, they are more likely to reach their goals (Snyder et al., 1991; Lopez, 2013).

Hope strategies were applied to a group of middle school students. A 5-week hope-based program was offered to investigate whether or not hope strategies could increase hope, life satisfaction, self-worth, mental health, and academics. The program focused on conceptualizing clear goals; producing a numerous range of pathways to attainment; summoning the mental energy to maintain the goal pursuit; and reframing obstacles to goals. The results suggested that the 5-week hope intervention increased psychological strengths, whose benefits continued for up to 18 months. However, it was suggested that greater gains could be realized if the hope strategies were applied over a longer course of time (Marques et al, 2011).

There was no hope strategies located for use with adults in first language literacy programs. However, a list of hope strategies for K-12 students offer a guideline for use in developing hope strategies for adult literacy students (See Appendix D).

CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGY

Research Questions

The current study was designed to analyze trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking of adult, pre-literate and non-literate Haitians. The cross-sectional study design of this investigation analyzing archival data provided the basis from which to answer the following questions.

1. Is there a difference in the trait hope between non-literate and pre-literate Haitian adults enrolled in a literacy program in Petit-Goâve?
2. Is there a difference in pathways thinking between non-literate and pre-literate Haitian adults enrolled in a literacy program in Petit-Goâve?
3. Is there a difference in agency thinking between non-literate and pre-literate Haitian adults enrolled in a literacy program in Petit-Goâve?

Research Design

This study utilized a cross-sectional survey using archival data to analyze the trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking scores (dependent variables) of pre-literate and non-literate adult Haitian students (independent variables) in Petit-Goâve, Haiti. This study analyzed archival data that was collected at one particular point in time (Creswell, 2008) by the program director of the adult literacy centers in Petit-Goâve, Haiti from each of the Sant Alfa centers between August and September, 2013.

Data Source

The purposive sample from which the data were originally collected consisted of 135 rural, pre- and non-literate Haitian adults, over the age of 18 years of age, living in Petit-Goâve, Haiti and its surrounding area. A purposive sample was obtained because the researcher was particularly interested in studying pre- and non-literate Haitians.

The researcher was the graduate assistant of the founder and Co-Director of the Sant Alfa literacy centers in Petit-Goâve, Haiti at the time of their inception. During the initial analysis phase of the program development incorporating the Analysis, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate (ADDIE) program model (Kruse, 2002), the Co-Directors conducted an initial needs analysis, an unpublished step in the evaluation process. The intention of this analysis phase was to

- learn more about their individual students;
- further develop the goals of the program;
- decide what skills, behaviors, attitudes, and ideas they wanted their students to acquire;
- understand the learning needs of the individual students;
- find out what the students wanted to acquire in the program;
- discover information about their individual learning styles;
- decide what learning and instructional method would be most beneficial; and
- determine what topics would best serve the needs of the incoming students.

The graduate assistant became aware of the ADHS and the Co-Director added this measurement to the items they collected before the program started. However, the ADHS results were not analyzed and the initial needs analysis of the program evaluation was not published. Therefore, the researcher acquired the collected ADHS data for the purpose of conducting this cross-sectional study to analyze the trait hope levels, pathway thinking, and agency thinking scores of two groups of adult, illiterate Haitians.

Snyder Adult Dispositional Hope Scale (ADHS)

The ADHS was the instrument used to collect the hope measurements for the initial needs analysis. It was developed to assess expectations about goal acquisition, the ability to recognize choices, and the fortitude for goal-directed planning (Anderson, 1988) with individuals aged 16 or older; the ADHS has been used in studies of over 10,000 adults in a variety of fields, including nursing, psychology, academics, and social work research (Snyder, Cheavens, et al., 1997), and has been translated into Arabic, Dutch, French, Slovak, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish (Abdel-Khalek & Snyder, 2007; Kato & Snyder, 2005). The ADHS contains four pathway items, four agency items, and four distractor items (Snyder et al., 1991), and may be administered within 2 to 5 minutes (Lopez et al., 2003). The adult students rated how well the item describes them on an 8-point Likert-type scale. Questions 1, 4, 6 and 8 measure the pathway thinking components of the trait hope. These questions are (a)"I can think of many ways to get out of a jam;" (b) "there are lots of ways around any problems;" (c) I can think of many ways to get the things in life that are important to me;" and (d) "even

when others get discouraged, I know I can find a way to solve the problem." Questions 2, 9, 10 and 12 measure the agency thinking component of the trait hope and ask questions such as (a) "I energetically pursue my goals;" (b) "my past experiences have prepared me well for my future;" (c) "I meet the goals I set for myself;" and, (d) "I've been pretty successful in life." The total ADHS score was calculated by the sum of the pathways and agency items, which correlate positively with each other. The total score can range from 8 to 64. Scores between 8 and 47 denote low hope and scores between 48 and 64 indicate high hope. The average hope score is 48 (Snyder, 1994).

The ADHS demonstrates internal reliability as follows:

> For the total scale, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .74 to .84 (item-remainder coefficients of .23 to .63). For the agency subscale, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .71 to .76 (item remainder coefficients of .40 to .72); moreover, for the Pathways subscale, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .63 to .80 (item remainder coefficients of .36 to .63; Snyder et al., 1991, p. 572).

In this study, the internal consistency was calculated since it was not included in the initial administration of the ADHS as part of the program development evaluation process. Hope, which included all items on the ADHS, had an alpha coefficient of .601, which is minimally acceptable for internal consistency (Sekaran, 2003). Pathways (questions 1, 4, 6, and 8) had an alpha coefficient of .696, which is an acceptable reliability. Agency (questions 2, 9, 10, and 12) had an alpha coefficient of .386, indicating poor internal consistency. Questions 3, 5, 7, & 9 were distractors.

Literacy Placement Assessment

There are no standardized literacy assessments in Haitian-Kreyòl. Therefore, Co-Director of the literacy center, a noted expert on literacy and Haitian-Kreyòl literacy instruction, developed assessment criteria. Using the assessment criteria, before the literacy centers opened, the Co-Directors devised a Haitian-Kreyòl literacy placement assessment for Haitian-Kreyòl literacy students (Crevecoeur-Bryant & Pamzou, 2012). This assessment measured listening, speaking, reading, writing, and numeracy in order to determine the appropriate literacy level for class placement. The first portion of the placement assessment asked the students to write six different words, which were culturally familiar to Haitians (e.g. red pepper, field, weight, seed bearing) and some words which may have been familiar to the students (e.g. internet, overhead projector). The next session was a sentence completion task followed by simple mathematical problems. Finally, the writing section required the students to rewrite a sentence, write a list of three fruits they like to eat, and write a sentence about two things that wanted to learn in the literacy class. There were 33 possible points on the placement assessment. Scores below 16 indicate that students were pre-literate, and scores of 16 and above were non-literate (see Appendix A for the instrument).

Demographic Questionnaire

The Co-Director provided demographic data for each student including age, education level, gender, marital status, employment status, and income level. These characteristics were used to describe the sample. Although the participants were not

randomly assigned to conditions, the literacy groups share characteristics such as socioeconomic status, educational background, and ethnicity (Creswell, 2008). In fact, the two groups were remarkably similar in most areas, but differed regarding access to literacy in their environment.

Sample Size

Although the data were obtained as a secondary source, G*Power was used to estimate the necessary sample size for this study. Because there are no known studies that compare hope and first language literacy, a moderate effect size (d = .50 and f = .25) with 80% power and an alpha of .05 was used in the calculations (Cohen, 1988). A sample size of 128 participants would be necessary to detect a statistically significant effect using an independent samples *t*-test. A sample size of 42 participants would detect a statistically significant effect using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with two dependent variables and two conditions. Therefore, a sample size of 135 participants provided an adequate sample size to answer the research questions.

Sample Demographics

In order to provide a detailed description of the sample from which the archival data were derived, a thorough analysis of the demographics is included in Table 2.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Participants Based on Literacy Level

	Pre-Literate (N)	Non-Literate (N)	Total (N)	Total (%)
Male	15	10	25	18.5%
Female	51	59	110	81.5%
Age				
19 – 28	3	4	7	5.2%
29 – 38	8	8	16	11.9%
39 – 48	27	27	54	40.3%
Over 48	27	30	57	42.5%
Education				
4^{th} grade or below	59	63	122	91.0%
5^{th} to 8^{th} grade	3	5	8	6.0%
9^{th} to 11^{th} grade	3	1	4	3.0%
Employment status				
Employed	37	37	74	54.8%
Unemployed	29	32	61	45.2%
Marital status				
Married	26	28	54	40.3%
Not married	39	41	80	59.7%
Income level				
$0 - $5000	37	45	82	61.2%
$5001 – $10000	21	20	41	30.6%
$10,001 - $15,000	2	3	5	3.7%
Over $15,001	5	1	6	4.5%

Notes: Original demographics listed option '4^{th} grade or below' however Co-Director advised the pre- and non-literate students that marked this option had never attended school.

Procedures

The researcher obtained approval from the University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) after they determined that the proposed research utilizing existing archival data did not constitute human research as defined by Department of Health and Human

Services regulations or Food and Drug Administration regulation standards (see Appendix B).

The Co-Director of Sant Alfa Literacy Centers advised the researcher that the students were placed into literacy classes by the course administrator based on students' self-report and the literacy placement assessment. The Co-Director translated the ADHS into Haitian-Kreyòl. The ADHS was administered to the students individually by the course administrator prior to the first date of classes. The data collected were coded by the program director denoting the literacy group placement, and provided to the researcher without any identifying link from the data to the adult students. The data contained the demographic information, literacy assessment designation, and the score of each question on the ADHS. The literacy centers did not provide excel spreadsheets, therefore, the researcher manually entered the scores of the students into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Other than student trait hope scores, literacy group designations, and demographic variables, no identifying information was entered in SPSS.

To ensure that internal reliability was not affected by maturation, the only data analyzed were data collected prior to the start of classroom instruction (Stanfield, 2011). The cross-sectional data allowed for the measurement of hope without the effect of instruction.

CHAPTER 4
ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The intent of this study was to investigate trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking levels of pre- and non-literate adult Haitians. The statistical package SPSS 22.0 for Windows was used for the statistical analyses. Statistical assumptions were checked for the inferential statistics originally proposed. After determining that statistical assumptions were violated, more appropriate non-parametric tests were used.

Data Analyses

The data analyses process began with a preliminary analysis of the data. Data were screened for missing data and to test statistical assumptions for an independent samples *t*-test for the first research question, and multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) for research questions two and three. There was one missing value for one item of the hope assessment, which was excluded from the analysis that required that particular item. There were no outliers in the data as indicated by descriptive statistics (boxplots).

A Shapiro-Wilk's test indicated departures from normality for all of the dependent variables for both pre-literate and non-literate groups. The composite hope scores were platykurtic and positively skewed, and both pathways and agency were platykurtic and negatively skewed. Table 3 displays measures of skewness and kurtosis, their standard errors, and statistics for the Shapiro-Wilk's tests. Histograms and Q-Q plots were visually inspected for all of the variables (Appendix C).

Table 3

Normality Tests

	Skewness	Std. Error	Kurtosis	Std. Error	Shapiro-Wilk
Hope	.070	.209	-1.175	.414	.000
Pathways	-.462	.209	-1.152	.414	.000
Agency	-.274	.209	-.090	.414	.011

Equal variances were tested using Levene's Test for Equality of Variance, F (1, 133) = .001, p = .979. There was no reason to believe that the assumption of independence was not met because there was no reason to believe that there was dependence between the students in each group. Since data did not meet all of the statistical assumptions for parametric tests, a Mann-Whitney U was utilized to compare the pre-literate and non-literate groups on trait hope, pathways thinking, and agency thinking scores.

Research Question 1

The first research question inquired whether or not there was a difference in trait hope between the pre- and non-literate adult Haitian students enrolled in the adult literacy classes in Petit-Goâve. The power estimate (d = .5) calculated for the t-test estimation was comparable for the Mann-Whitney U (r =.3) test; therefore, the sample size (N = 135) was presumed to be adequate for this statistical test. The shape of the distributions of the trait hope scores for pre-literates and non-literates was similar, therefore medians

were compared. There was no statistical significant difference, U = 4,509, z = -.808, p = .419 between median trait hope scores for pre-literates (*Mdn* = 47.5) and non-literates (*Mdn* = 46). Using the formula $r = (z/\sqrt{N})$ (Fritz, Morris, & Richler, 2012), there was no significant effect of difference between the two groups (r =.07) according to Cohen's guidelines regarding effect sizes (Cohen, 1988).

Research Question 2

The second research question explored the differences in pathway thinking between pre-literate and non-literate groups. The shape of the distributions of the pathway scores for pre-literates and non-literates were similar, therefore medians were compared to analyze the differences in the pathway scores. There was no significant statistical difference in median pathway scores for pre-literates (*Mdn* = 26) and non-literates (*Mdn* = 25), U = 4,596, z = -427, p = .670. Further, there was no significant effect of difference between the two groups (r =.04).

Research Question 3

Research question three investigated whether or not there were differences in agency thinking between the pre- and non-literate Haitian adult students. The shape of the distributions of the agency scores for pre-literates and non-literates were similar. There was no significant statistical difference in median agency scores for pre-literates (*Mdn* = 22) and non-literates (*Mdn* = 22), U = 4,562, z = -579, p =.562, and no significant effect of difference (r = .05).

Presented in Table 4 are a summary of the results of trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking levels for the pre-literates, non-literates, and their combined totals of all three hope measurements.

Table 4

Trait Hope, Pathway Thinking, and Agency Thinking Levels

	N	Mean	SD	Median
Trait Hope				
Pre-literate	66	46.55	8.425	47.50
Non-literate	69	45.25	8.425	46.00
Total		45.83	8.415	47.00
Pathway Thinking				
Pre-literate		24.33	6.242	26.00
Non-literate		23.83	6.602	25.00
Total		24.07	6.410	26.00
Agency Thinking				
Pre-literate		22.00	4.604	22.00
Non-literate		21.74	3.822	22.00
Total		21.87	4.209	22.00

Note: Medians were more appropriate to analyze due to non-normality of data; however means are included for comparisons with other hope measurements in future studies.

CHAPTER 5
DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Applying the construct of hope to the field of first language literacy, this study was designed to analyze the differences in trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking of pre- and non-literate Haitians enrolled in a Haitian-Kreyòl class. The key finding was that there were no significant differences in trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking between the pre- and non-literate adult Haitian students in Petit-Goâve.

Summary and Interpretation of Major Findings

Research Question 1

Research question one investigated the differences in trait hope scores (sum of pathways and agency scores) between the pre-literate and non-literate groups. A Mann-Whitney U found no differences in the trait hope levels of the pre-literate and non-literate Haitian adults. The results show that pre-literate and non-literate Haitian adults entered the Haitian-Kreyòl classes with an average range of low hope (Snyder, 1994). This outcome suggests that there is no relationship between trait hope of pre-literate and non-literate Haitian adults and access to literacy in their environment.

Research Question 2

Research question two explored the difference in pathway thinking scores between the two groups of adult Haitians enrolled in the Haitian-Kreyòl adult literacy

classes. The results of the non-parametric t-test (Mann-Whitney U) revealed no differences in pathway thinking between the two groups. Moreover, both groups enrolled in the adult literacy classes with similar average pathway thinking levels. Therefore, the results indicate that no relationship exists between pathway thinking and access to literacy in the students' environment.

Research Question 3

Research question three analyzed the difference in agency thinking (motivation) between pre-literate and non-literate adult Haitians. The results revealed no differences in agency thinking between the two groups. Both groups of students enrolled in the adult Haitian-Kreyòl classes with below average agency thinking levels (Snyder, 1994). Thus, from the obtained results, the implication is that the agency levels of these two groups were not influenced by access to literacy in their environment.

Haitians with Low Level Literacy and Hope

One might conclude that while the story of rural, illiterate Haitians contains a maze of deep problems to maneuver, they have managed to find some solutions; though lacking motivation, they are not entirely hopeless. This study has noted that Haitians have a strong constitution of resilience, which seems evident in their pathway thinking. Further, it can be speculated that if they had few goal pursuits, hope scores might have been much lower, and it would be doubtful that they would enroll in an adult literacy class.

While it is unknown why the trait hope scores of the Haitians in this study were average, it was noticed that the majority of participants were over the age of 38. Chang and Banks (2007) suggested that racial/ethnic minority groups who face challenges may be able to acquire opportunities to develop more hope, especially pathway thinking, in later childhood. To date, age has not been determined to be a predictor of hope; however, the majority of hope research has been conducted in Western cultures. However, what was learned from this study was that the peasants in rural Haiti have learned survival techniques from their elders. Being familiar with no other way of life, they have managed to deal with the issues of life with this ancestral wisdom. Therefore, because this group of Haitians have had years to develop strategies, it does not seem unreasonable that they would perceive they have pathways to handle their problems or meet their goals, as was reflected in their average pathway scores.

Without further investigations, we do not know about the goals of Haitians. However, what we did learn is that their important daily goals are associated with survival, trying to have food, clean water, and a roof over their head. Snyder (2000) suggested that socioeconomic and environmental factors can have an effect on hope. Further, he noted that people challenged with conditions of poverty may perceive achievable goals as being restricted and their perceptions of minimal resources can decrease their pathway thinking (Snyder, 2000). While the Haitians in this study did not lack pathways; they did report lower amounts of agency, or motivation to move forward with using their strategies to meet their goals. Snyder further claimed that if the perceptions are that there are fewer goals and routes to achieve them, people are less

likely to manifest the agency thoughts necessary to pursue their objectives (Snyder, 2000). The findings in this study would substantiate this claim because the agency scores were much lower than the pathway scores.

Snyder (1994) described people who score average to high on pathways and low on agency (as did the Haitians in this investigation) tend to find themselves 'partly stuck in the pursuit of goals for different reasons' (p. 37). Although many workable possibilities about how to reach goals are present, a low sense of willpower, or agency blocks the determination to try these routes.

Snyder (2000) stated that one possible interpretation for the lack of agency is that "governments that prohibit their people from participating in the policymaking and goals of their nation have the potential to hinder the achievement of personal goals" (p. 405). These people often feel frustrated from goal impediment and become victims to a culture of low hope characterized by low agency thought, hopelessness, and a tendency to give up (Snyder, 2000). Historically, Haitians have felt the oppression of callous, cruel dictators. Most of these officials thwarted educational goals of the masses, affording only the elite a formal education. It wasn't until 2011 that Haiti began experiencing the possibility of a stable, democratic government interested in fostering the development of Haiti and its people. Therefore, a conceivable explanation for the low agency scores in this study could be the effects of adversity endured by Haitians because of the historical pattern of leadership in their country.

Another possible explanation for the lower agency scores might be explained by looking at the gender demographics of this study. A majority of the adult students were

unmarried women who reported the lowest incomes and educational levels. As discussed in Chapter 1, consensual and visiting unions are common in lower socioeconomic groups in Haiti. These women typically raise their children alone and bear the load of the financial responsibilities of their family. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand their challenge of perceiving agency/motivation to achieve goals or solve problems. However, the average pathway results of these participants imply that these women have adjusted to their circumstances by finding perceived pathways for their goals/problems.

Hope can be garnered in spite of potential obstacles through the support gained from the relationships. Therefore, the average hope scores of the Haitians in this study might be attributed to deep cultural ties to family and community. For instance, the women in the community work together to watch out for their children. These bonds can provide a strong source of support which can help them from becoming entirely hopeless in the face of adversity. Also, communities work hand-in-hand and share work and resources (referred to as konbit). All aspects of life involve the entire family, including sharing financial, emotional and social burdens.

As pointed out in Chapter 2, many Haitians are spiritual. Snyder claimed that many spiritual people perceive prayer and rituals to be plausible pathways for reaching one's goals (Snyder et al., 2002). Many Haitians practice a mixture of Catholicism and Voodoo. The Voodoo religion spreads the message that life is unpredictable and planning is pointless (Corbett, 1988). They tend to believe that whatever happens is God’s will and nothing can change it; therefore, it must be accepted. This fatalist mindset is that regardless of what choices one makes, no matter how hard a battle is fought, it will

be lost if it is God's will (Corbett, 1988). It might be speculated that the agency and pathway scores portray this struggle of 'I know what I need to do,' but it doesn't matter what I do, it will not work.'

The pre-literates, who have no prior acquaintance or knowledge regarding the function of literacy, have no clue how literacy has the potential of adding strategies to their lives by virtue of the increased knowledge literacy affords through the written word. It might be expected to find a difference in pathway thinking because the non-literates have been more acquainted with the power of literacy by possibly witnessing its effect on the literate people in their communities. For example, they may see a literate neighbor procure a more lucrative job that required literacy, which gave them a strategy to overcome poverty. Further, they may observe another person in their community start a new business with the knowledge they received from their literacy education offering them strategies for attaining a higher quality of life. For these reasons, it was enlightening that the non-literate Haitians did not score higher in pathways because of potentially greater access to strategies acquired through information one could obtain through literacy available through their literate family or community members.

Significance of Findings

This study has applied Snyder's Hope Theory to a Haitian population, a culture which is under-researched. While the results of this study revealed there are no differences in trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking between pre-literate and non-literate Haitians, this study provided hope measurements previously unknown

relating to a developing country. This is a critical piece of information being added to the field of hope. These measurements of hope are quite different from the other populations that have been looked at previously with Hope Theory. Further, the Haitian population is unique in possessing literacy characteristics quite unusual to the rest of the world. This study has provided more valuable information regarding the characteristics of pre-literates and non-literates as it relates to hope. Moreover, the information about their hope levels enriches the cultural knowledge about these two groups of Haitian illiterates. The applicability of the hope measurements of these two groups is informative to first language program and curriculum developers insofar as gleaning a deeper understanding of the pre- and non-literate adult students' characteristics and possibly their needs for learning strategies as it relates to hope. The review and synthesis of research fulfills a gap in hope and literacy literature by discussing the similar components of hope and certain components of literacy, namely goals/problems, pathways (strategies), and agency (motivation). Therefore, the information obtained from this study has laid the foundation for extending Hope Theory to Haitians, illiteracy, first language literacy classes, and the field of language learning.

Implications of Findings

Before this study was conducted, it was unknown whether or not there was a need for an increase in hope with the pre-literate and non-literate Haitian students. The results of this study revealed that overall trait hope and pathway thinking were average, and agency thinking was below average. Therefore, based on these results, these Haitian

adults entered the adult literacy classes with a foundation of hope from which to garner the energy to pursue their literacy goals. If their hope scores had been very low, it might have indicated that the previous studies' approaches of enhancing hope with populations with average or slightly above average hope, would not have been advisable since the issues might be beyond the scope of an educational program. On the other hand, if their hope scores reached a ceiling of high hope, then perhaps attempting to increase hope would not be a profitable endeavor for improving literacy development. Because the Haitians in this study were not vastly different in hope levels from previous populations studied, it can be surmised that it is worth studying whether attempting to increase hope as part of literacy education can be effective. Hope studies have concluded that all students experience an increase in their hope levels after participating in hope strategies at school (Lopez et al., 2000).

Goals

Goals are the foundation of Hope Theory. Snyder (2000) discussed how hope could be increased by giving attention to goal setting. The implication is the adult literacy students could potentially benefit from hope strategies in an effort to help them increase the number of goals they continue to set, especially literacy education goals. For example, breaking large goals into many smaller, clear, and specific goals can reduce frustration (Snyder et al., 2006). Because literacy education for an adult can be an extensive, long process, it might be more efficient to break the literacy goals into more

manageable, achievable units, as Snyder has proposed, to increase the chances of adult students not giving up their literacy goals.

Pathways

People who devise multiple pathways for reaching their goals increase their chances for accomplishment, and the possibility of complete goal blockage is reduced. While the Haitian students in this study scored high in pathways, students are more successful when they utilize multiple pathways to reach their goals. Therefore, adult literacy program directors, curriculum developers, and teachers might consider assisting their adult students by teaching them multiple strategies for meeting their goals through literacy. Further, interaction with various texts offers information which might provide possible alternate strategies in which to reach their goals. High hope people are more likely to reach their goals because of their ability to access alternative routes for goal achievement.

Agency

Without agency thinking, successful goal pursuit is unlikely. The Haitians in this study scored in the low range of agency, suggesting there is room for improving their motivation to pursue goals. Although the pathway scores of the two groups were high, the literature suggests that if agency, the belief that a chosen pathway will work, is low, there is less motivation to pursue goals. Agency thinking depends on the belief that the person can carry out the pathways necessary to reach a goal or solve a problem (Snyder et

al, 2006). Thus, the implication for adult literacy programs, in particular ones with students who score low on agency (such as the one referred to in this study) is to employ hope strategies designed to increase agency.

To illustrate, the hope literature suggests that hopeful people often draw upon their own memories of positive experiences during difficult times (Lopez et al., 2009). They create their own positive personal narratives (Snyder, Lopez, et al., 2003). If students do not have positive memories to sustain them, they can benefit from assistance in creating their own personal narratives (Lopez et al, 2009). In the adult literacy classes, sharing stories of how others have succeeded or overcome adversity might encourage the literacy students to recreate their personal narratives, in an effort to increase their agency.

Additionally, Snyder advised that by offering students regular feedback, recording progress, and discussing outcomes, both agency and pathways tend to increase (Snyder, 2000). For this reason, adult literacy program developers should consider including these activities in their overall program development. Further, through student-teacher conferences, adult literacy teachers have the opportunity to detect any negative self-talk, encourage the student with their progress, and suggest alternative positive self-talk in an effort to improve agency thoughts. Finally, the adult literacy teacher can validate students' successful strategies and suggest even more strategies, in an effort to increase pathway thoughts.

Finally, people set goals relative to their social circumstances and surroundings (Hinton-Nelson et al., 1996). When a goal is important and perceived attainable, individuals will continue to work toward those goals, even when their progress is slow or

difficult (Scheier & Carver, 1993). Therefore, it might behoove literacy program directors, curriculum developers, and teachers to focus on the goals of their adult literacy students when designing the topics to be studied in the literacy curriculum, and also when choosing instructional activities. If the adult students learn to read and write while reading to learn about topics they perceive are relevant to their lives, the acquisition of the literacy skills and the information gleaned can be motivating for the students. In addition, meeting the goal and sub-goals of literacy education has the potential to increase motivation because of self-efficacy raised through goal attainment (Schunk, 1984). Therefore, literacy education has the potential to give Haitians more sense of ownership of solving their own problems.

Literacy and Hope Campaigns

Despite the multitude of adult education initiatives around the globe, it is challenging to solicit adults to begin a literacy program, and even more difficult to encourage adults to continue with educational pursuits (Kagitcibasi et al, 2005). There are indications that hope could enhance educators' knowledge, abilities, and strategies to engage more illiterate people to enroll in first language literacy programs and thus contribute to illiteracy reduction in Haiti. Consequently, it is suggested that literacy and hope campaigns be developed in an effort to provide pre-literate and non-literate Haitians with an awareness of what high hope is and what it can accomplish (Marques et al., 2011). The first step in helping others improve their hope is by telling them about hope (Lopez, 2013). Also, the campaigns could inform the Haitians of the various benefits of

literacy and hope with the objective of increasing enrollment in adult literacy classes. Moreover, agency stands the chance of being strengthened when the rationale for the hope process and the advantages of high hope (Snyder, 2000) and literacy are explained. Moving forward, if the benefits of increased hope and literacy are fully known by the adult students, they may be inclined to sustain the process of attaining literacy in their first language.

Literacy Program Measurement Instrument

The results of this study have led the researcher to infer that the ADHS is a measurement tool that would be effective in gathering valuable information for adult literacy programs because hope is the force that affects human behavior in all goal pursuits (Snyder et al., 1991). Further, it was learned that hope is a trait every person possesses, whether it is high or low. If hope is increased, through hope strategies employed in literacy classes, then the students can not only enjoy benefits of literacy; they can also enjoy benefits of hope. It was learned through this study that the field of adult literacy education lacks instruments that measure attitude, thinking, and behavioral changes from literacy program completion. Accurate evaluations of adult literacy programs are critical for the continued funding, enrollment, and development of quality programs, especially in developing nations. The ADHS is the most widely used hope measurement in the field of education. The measurements of hope in this study revealed a need for increased hope, especially agency thinking, in these illiterate Haitians. Hence, this study offered a measurement instrument for literacy program developers/evaluators

to consider using in an effort to more effectively measure the effectiveness of adult literacy programs. With more accurate measurements, adult literacy programs stand the chance of obtaining more funding. Also, if more accurate measurements are attained, program developers may secure additional funds to develop more effective adult literacy programs. The literature suggested that one reason for high attrition rates is the poor quality of literacy programs, which is usually the result of lack of funding. Moreover, if program and curriculum developers and teachers develop and incorporate hope strategies for adult literacy programs, enrollment rates might increase and high attrition rates could drop because of the benefits of hope the students stand to experience.

Limitations

The results of this study might be different if based on another theory of hope, other than Snyder's Hope Theory. Further, although the sample size was adequate for this research, because the sample was purposive, the generalizability could be strengthened by the repetition of the study with larger samples from a wider range of the Haitian population. It is worth noting that there is a lesser chance of statistical error because the participants were similar, with the exception of the illiteracy level. Because the data were archival, there is a possibility of measurement error.

The Cronbach alpha in this study was .601 for trait hope, .696 for pathways thinking, and .386 for agency thinking. The low internal consistency may be a limitation to how hope was measured, specifically how agency thinking was measured. If one agency question was deleted, "I have been pretty successful in my life," the Cronbach

alpha would increase to .684. One explanation for this might be that the interpretation of this question is culturally specific. Because the original ADHS was designed and validated with samples from western cultures, the Haitian sample may have interpreted the question to mean something different than what was originally intended. Snyder's (1991) hope measurements of college students in 1990 was much higher in total hope .75, .67 for pathways, and .71 for agency.

Finally, the reliability and validity of the literacy placement assessment may be a limitation of this study. However, the pre- and non-literate Haitian students clearly were unable to read or write during the enrollment period before these classes started.

A post hoc power analysis with an alpha of .07 and power of .80 indicated that a sample size of 1,599 would be required to find a statistically significant effect for an effect size of r =.05 for trait hope and pathway thinking; and 4,903 an effect size of r =.04 for agency thinking.

The lesson learned from this study was that when conducting future studies, researchers would not need to assume that hope is related to access to literacy. The insignificant effect of difference strengthened the notion that the two groups were in fact not different in relation to trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking scores. Therefore, in practical terms, when conducting further hope research with Haitian illiterate students, the researcher could treat the two groups as one illiterate group. One exception to this suggestion would be if an investigation of hope strategies used for pre- and non-literates is conducted. The rationale for this suggestion is that the first language

literacy literature suggested that instruction for pre-literates is different from non-literates because of their lack of schooling or understanding of literacy.

There are limitations when using archival data. Often there is difficulty interpreting information found in documents, difficulty establishing cause and effect. Moreover, the researcher cannot monitor the accuracy of data collection between the individuals recording the data. Despite these limitations, retrospective research on existing data offers numerous advantages, including inexpensive and easy access to rich datasets.

Recommendations for Future Research

This initial study investigating the intersection of hope, literacy, and first language literacy education for Haitians with low level literacy has found that there were no differences in trait hope, pathway thinking, and agency thinking between the pre-and non-literate adult Haitians in this study. However, there are a number of unanswered questions which have arisen from this investigation.

Chang & Banks (2007) found differences in predictors of hope across the different racial/ethnic groups. Age, faith, ethnicity, and culture shape the way individuals view the world and set goals. They determined there are racial/ethnic differences in how components of hope relate to important variables that have been linked to hope, such as problem-solving behaviors, life satisfaction, and positive and negative affect. However, these groups were different ethnic groups in the United States. It would be important to conduct this study with the Haitians to discover important predictors of hope in their

culture. Lopez et al. (2000) suggest that "the best approach to understanding a person's goals and their hopes is to examine their cultural context" (p. 231). Studies of culture and variations in hope have not been widely explored. Because culture and a person's goals are related, Lopez (2000) suggested that examination of hope in cultural groups be "the next plank that must be added to the hope research platform" (p. 232). Therefore, it would seem important to understand the prevalent goals of the Haitian population.

Next, research is needed to measure whether or not an increase in literacy through a literacy education course relates to an increase in hope; however, this study starts the conversation. Studies to explore any correlations between hope scores and student achievement and retention need to be conducted to reveal how increasing hope through literacy education motivates illiterate people to participate in adult literacy classes. Ethnographic studies are needed to report on the point of view of the adult students regarding hope and literacy education. Further, interviews with Haitians concerning lived experiences with literacy would add a description to the impact of adult literacy classes. Answers to questions such as whether or not and how literacy has affected their goals, and if and what the adult Haitian students do different since they obtain literacy, could influence the development of future adult literacy classes. Snyder (2000) included a list of interview questions to use when interviewing people regarding their hope. In fact, he included a list of questions pertaining to state hope and academics. In order to learn more about how literacy education impacts hope, it would be enlightening to develop the instrument pertaining to state hope and involvement in literacy education. The

comparison of state hope and trait hope might give a more detailed account of the effect of literacy on hope and hope on literacy.

Further, it would be useful for adult literacy program and curriculum developers, evaluators, and teachers to know which hope strategies are effective in adult literacy classes. Goal setting statements, pathway thinking, and agency thinking activities that have been proven successful in increasing hope should be tested in adult literacy classrooms and student performance should be analyzed. Hope themes should be incorporated into the curriculum of adult literacy programs and measured for their success in raising hope levels of adult literacy students. It was found that all middle school students in a hope intervention program progressed with increasing hope (Marques, 2011). Hope strategies have not been developed for adult literacy programs; however, the success with K-12 students suggests that schools are an effective place to help people increase hope.

Mentioned previously, a campaign to inform the illiterate population about hope and literacy might be beneficial. Snyder (2000) reported that the initial step for a hope enhancing program is teaching the students about hope, its components, and how hope helps people. The effect of this type of campaign on enrollment and sustainability of adult literacy programs would be informative for adult literacy program developers and evaluators.

In order for a person (teacher) to spread hope, he or she must have high hope (Lopez, 2009). For that reason, a study measuring teacher hope in the field of literacy and language learning would advise adult literacy program developers if there is a need

for professional development for teachers in an effort to increase their hope. Moreover, training sessions on how to incorporate hope strategies in the classroom would be necessary. Measures of the effectiveness of the professional development and training programs, and how increased teacher hope influenced greater student hope would be impactful for the study of hope and adult literacy education.

Future research questions that might be explored include the following:

- Can increased hope mediate the quality of life and overall human condition of Haitians?
- Can knowing about the advantages of hope and literacy inspire adult illiterate Haitians to enroll in adult literacy classes?
- Can increased hope through literacy classes motivate Haitians to continue with adult literacy classes?
- Can increased hope through literacy classes embracing hope strategies motivate Haitians to continue their formal education?
- Do hope strategies in adult literacy classes increase hope? Do they increase literacy achievement?
- Which hope strategies are more effective in adult literacy classes?
- Are effective hope strategies for pre-literates different than for non-literates?

Conclusion

A monumental takeaway from an intense study of hope is that all people have the capacity for hopeful thinking and that levels of hopeful thought can be increased (Snyder, 2000). When these two pieces of knowledge are known, these bits of wisdom, in and of them, have the potential to inspire hope in any person. The present study investigated hope and its components with illiterate Haitians. While access to literacy was not an indicator of hope levels, more research is needed to build upon the present findings so that we may more fully understand how hope might benefit literacy education and how literacy education might affect hope.

APPENDIX A
INSTRUMENT

REZO ALFANET/AYITI

EKZAMEN Sant:.....Dat:.....2013..

Ekri nonw ak siyatiw:…*Write your first name and your last name*……Laj ou:.…*your age*……..

1 - Rekopye mo sa yo: Recopy this words

Piman:…*Pepper*……;Pwawo:…*sweetpepper*…….Jaden:…*Garden*……;Pepinye:…*Nursery*……

Entenet…*Internet*……;Pwojekte……*Project*……

2- Chwazi youn nan mo sa yo pou konplete fraz yo:…….. *Choose one of these words to complete the sentences.*

1-konfiti= *Jam* 2-soulye = *Shoes*

Mwen renmen manje:..konfiti .....*I like eating Jam*.....

1-Patisipe= *Participate* 2-Louvri= *Open*

b)Nou renmen ..patisipe..... ansanm nan aktivite klas ak nan jaden

We like to participate together in class activity and gardening.

3- KALKILE : *calculation*

a- 8+4=…*Twelve*……. b- 7+ 7=…*Fourteen*……..ch- 5-3=…*two*……. d- 4-1=…*Three*……..

5- Rekopye chif sa yo : *Recopy these numbers*

1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9
One, Two, Three, Four, Five, Six, Seven, Eight,
Nine……

3- EKITI

wi nou kapab = *Yes we can*
---Ekri non 3 fwi ou renmen anpil:...*Write down three fruits that you like to eat the most*……...Zaboka...*Avocado* .....Mango..*Mango* .....Chadek……..*grape fruit*.....

Reflechi sou 2 bagay monite a konn itilize nan klas la pouw aprann:.=...*Think about two things that the teacher uses to help to you to learn.*
.....

APPENDIX B
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

University of Central Florida Institutional Review Board Office of Research & Commercialization

12201 Research Parkway, Suite 501

Orlando, Florida 32826-3246

Telephone: 407-823-2901, 407-882-2012 or 407-882-2276

www.research.ucf.edu/compliance/irb.html

NOT HUMAN RESEARCH DETERMINATION

From: UCF Institutional Review Board
#1 FWA00000351,
IRB00001138

To: Donita J. Grissom

Date: January 02, 2014

Dear Researcher:

On 01/02/2014 the IRB determined that the following proposed activity is not human research as defined by DHHS regulations at 45 CFR 46 or FDA regulations at 21 CFR 50/56:

Type of Review: Not Human Research Determination

Project Title: Hope Levels of Illiterate Haitians

Investigator: Donita J. Grissom

IRB ID: SBE-13-09799

Funding Agency:

Grant: Title:

Research ID: N/A

University of Central Florida IRB review and approval is not required. This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are to be made and there are questions about whether these activities are research involving human subjects, please contact the IRB office to discuss the proposed changes.

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by: Signature applied by Patria Davis on 01/02/2014 12:16:08 PM EST

IRB Coordinator

APPENDIX C
STATISTICAL CHARTS

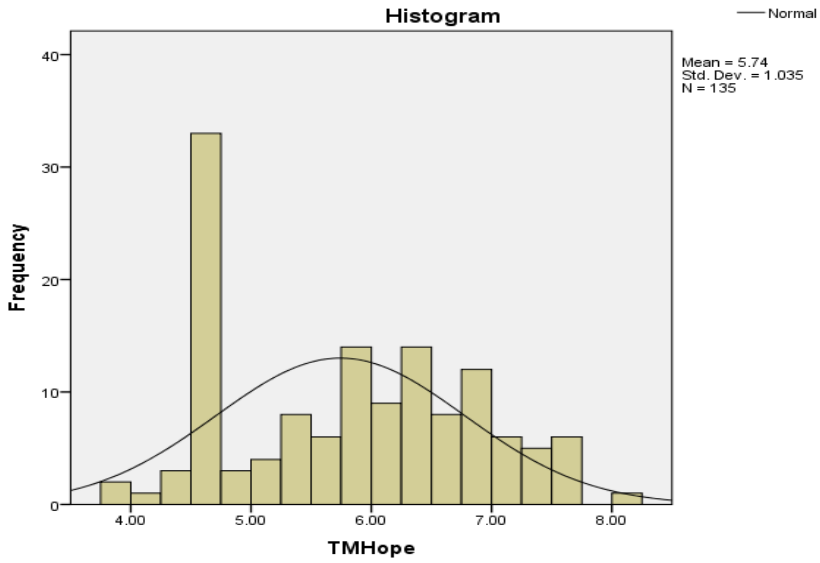

Figure C1. Histogram of Trait Hope Scores

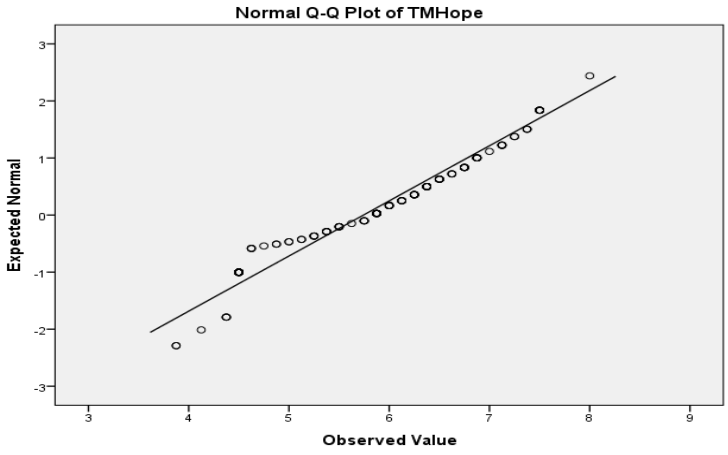

Figure C2. Plot of Trait Hope Scores

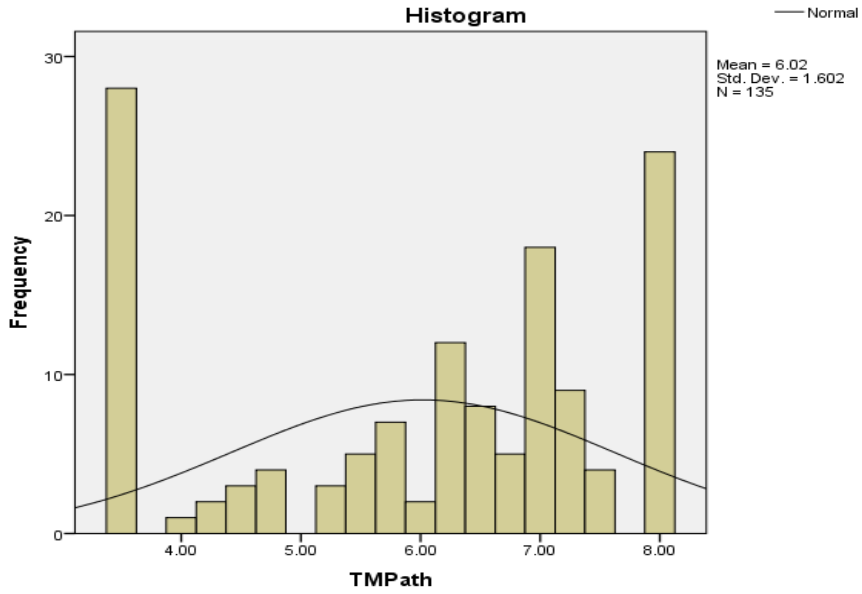

Figure C3. Histogram of Pathways Scores

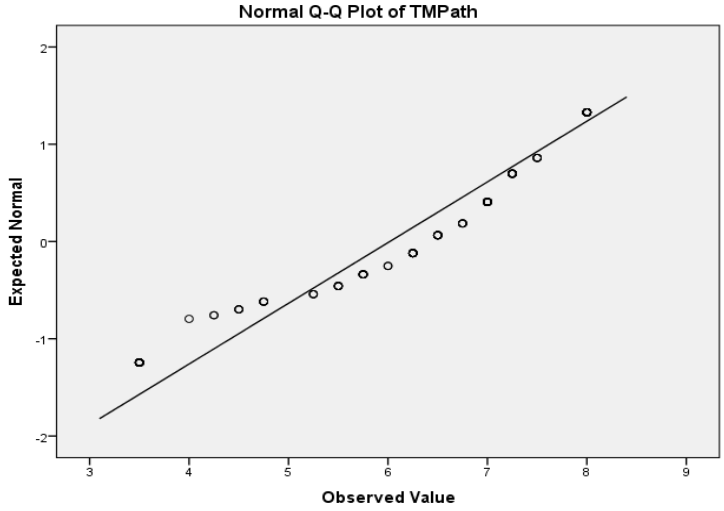

Figure C4. Q-Q Plot of Pathways Scores

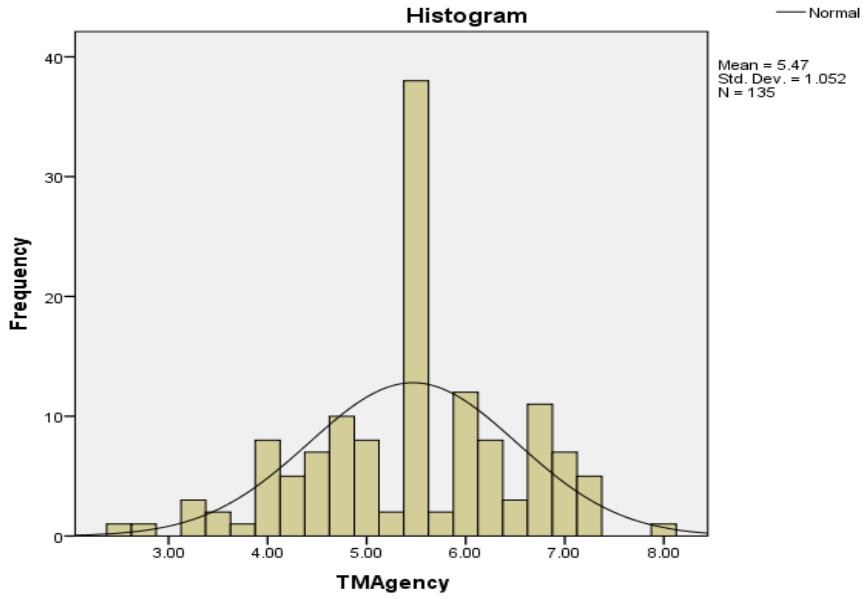

Figure C5. Histogram of Agency Scores

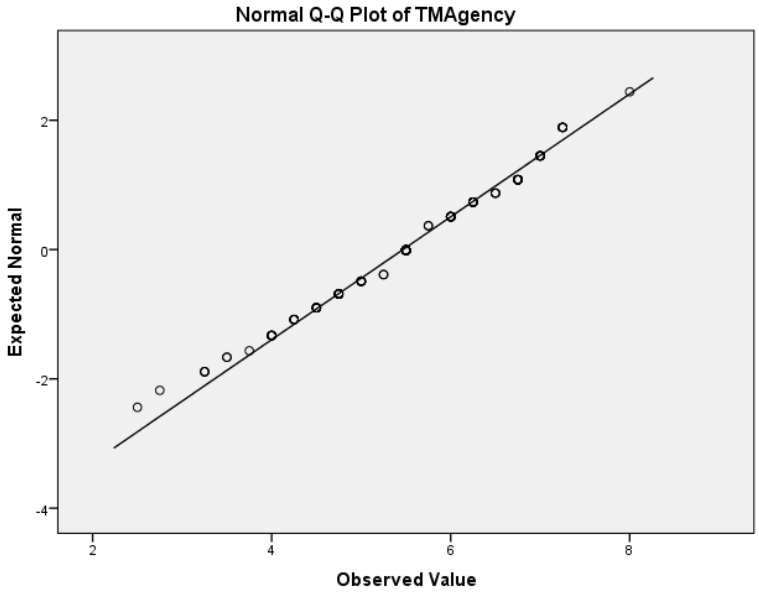

Figure C6. Q-Q Plot of Agency Scores

APPENDIX D
HOPE STRATEGIES

Checklist for Enhancing Pathways and Agency in Students

Pathways

DO
• Break a long-range goal into steps or sub-goals.
• Begin your pursuit of a distant goal by concentrating on the first sub-goal.
• Practice making different routes to your goals and select the best one.
• Mentally rehearse scripts for what you would do should you encounter a blockage.
• If you need a new skill to reach your goal, learn it.
• Cultivate two-way friendships where you can give and get advice.

DON'T
• Think you can reach your big goals all at once.
• Be too hurried in producing routes to your goals.
• Be rushed to select the best or first route to your goal.
• Over think with the idea of finding one perfect route to your goal.
• Conclude you are lacking in talent or no good when initial strategy fails.
• Get into friendships where you are praised for not coming up with solutions to your problems.

Agency

DO
• Tell yourself that you have chosen the goal, so it is your job to go after it.
• Learn to talk to yourself in positive voices (e.g., I can do this!).
• Recall previous successful goal pursuits, particularly when in a jam.
• Be able to laugh at yourself, especially if you encounter some impediment to your goal pursuits.
• Find a substitute goal when the original goal is blocked solidly.
• Enjoy the process of getting to your goals and do not focus only on the final attainment.

DON'T

• Allow yourself to be surprised repeatedly by roadblocks that appear in your life.
• Try to squelch totally any internal put-down thoughts because this may only make them stronger.
• Get impatient if your willful thinking doesn't increase quickly.
• Conclude that things never will change, especially if you are down.
• Engage in self-pity when faced with adversity.
• Stick to a blocked goal when it is truly blocked.
• Constantly ask yourself how are doing to evaluate your progress toward a goal.

Source: Lopez, Rose, Robinson, Marques, & Pais-Ribeiro (2009, p. 46)

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