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Pepperdine University  
Graduate School of Education and Psychology

LEADER DEVELOPMENT IN EAST AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF A MULTI-YEAR  
COLLEGE STUDENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Ph.D. in Global Leadership and Change

by

Gregory Armen Muger

June, 2020

Martine Jago, Ph.D. - Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

Gregory Armen Muger

under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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## DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to the 8,000+ LDP graduates globally and to those who foster ethical, talented, and passionate leaders within the Global South.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This research was inspired by my experience working with the Leadership Development Program (LDP) being researched in this study. I thank God for the countless opportunities I had to learn from LDP staff members who diligently and masterfully created and implemented leadership development solutions. LDP staff members, and those that partnered with them, are in my mind pioneers in the relief and development field. I also acknowledge LDP participants globally who overcame such difficult and complex barriers in order to even be eligible for this program and have gone on to add tremendous value in their spheres of influence post-program.

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## ABSTRACT

Effectual and ethical leadership is a top need throughout all sectors in Sub-Saharan Africa (Adadevoh, 2007; Ncube, 2010). Unfortunately, there is currently very scant literature on Sub-Saharan African leadership theory or programming (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). A large Christian nonprofit organization operated a multi-year servant leadership-based Christian leadership program for thousands of college students throughout sites in East Africa called the Leadership Development Program (LDP). The LDP endeavored to groom local, ethical, and capable leaders. Therefore, studying the LDP model and its impacts could add significant value to Sub-Saharan African leadership practitioners as well as add to the limited body of African leadership literature.

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions. The research question which guided this study was: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

A quantitative case study research method was used to investigate the experiences of former Kenyan and Ugandan LDP participants ( $N = 279$ ). Respondents completed an online survey regarding their perspectives on helpful leadership topics, effective leadership learning methods, and program impact. Spearman correlations were used to determine whether or not demographic characteristics influenced participant assessments.

Findings from this study include *servant leadership* and *integrity* as being the two most helpful leadership topics. The *Ethical leadership* topic category was deemed most relevant

compared to *self-leadership* and *leading others* categories. There was a degree of alignment within the *70:20:10 Model of Leadership Learning* model by Lombardo and Eichinger (1996).

The LDP garnered high impact and enablement ratings which indicated programmatic effectiveness. Research findings could be shared within Sub-Saharan human development organizations and leaders from developing economies. Recommendations for future research include a comparative analysis of existing leadership programs in the Sub-Saharan African region and expanding this study to LDP graduates in 18 countries and across four world regions.

## **Chapter 1: Introduction**

### **Chapter Overview**

In Chapter 1, the background of the study will be discussed, including the problem statement and the purpose of the study. The significance of the study will be articulated, key terms defined, and both theoretical and conceptual frameworks of the study discussed. The research question and sub-questions are listed together with research hypotheses. The limitations, delimitations, and assumptions of the study will be discussed as well as researcher positionality. The chapter will conclude with the organization of the study and a chapter summary.

### **Background of the Study**

Adeyemo (2009) proclaims that Africa is a paradox due to it having perhaps the most significant natural resources while being the least developed region in the world. Sub-Saharan Africa faces a number of challenges as their population strives to move out of a pervasive poverty context. Challenges include: food security, production, and educational access (Teferra & Altbach, 2004), the impacts of global warming (Dinar, Hassan, Benhin, & Mendelsohn, 2012), slow implementation of technology (Civics Association, 2012), inadequate transparency and trust of its leaders (Civics Association, 2012; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015), low labor productivity (Owusu-Ampomah, 2015), squandering material resources and finances (Civics Association, 2012; Mwaniki, 2006; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015), and both weak and inadequate commitment from local leaders that have led to deep pockets of poverty (Adjibolosoo, 1995; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015; UNESCO, 2017).

Knowing the challenges the Sub-Saharan region and other world regions were facing, international relief and development organizations, as well as sovereign nations, have contributed substantial foreign assistance. The problem is that in the last 30 years, foreign aid has not



positively impacted several Sub-Saharan African region poverty indicators compared to other world regions. In 2015 only 10% of the worldwide population were living in an extreme poverty context compared to over 33% twenty-five years earlier (The World Bank, n.d.-a). In Europe, Central Asia, The Pacific, and East Asia, the extreme poverty rate in total was just 3% in 2015 (The World Bank, n.d.-b). Sub-Saharan Africa comprised 50% of the total number of people living in extreme poverty in 1990, and the total number of people living in poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa doubled from 1990 to 2015 (The World Bank, n.d.-c).

The Sub-Saharan region of Africa includes 46 of Africa's 54 countries. Two countries in Eastern Africa (Kenya and Uganda) were selected for this study based on: the need for participants to be predominantly English speakers, Kenya and Uganda had the highest number of program participants, available resources, and the length of time available for the research. Poverty and development statistics for Kenya and Uganda compared to the Sub-Saharan African region provide valuable background information. From 1960 to 2016, the Sub-Saharan region experienced a 351% population growth, while Uganda had the sharpest population increase (512%) and Kenya's population increased 498% (The World Bank, n.d.-d). Comparing the gross national income (GNI) of Sub-Saharan Africa as a whole to Kenya and Uganda illustrates that in the 1970s, per capita gross income was somewhat equal across all three regions (The World Bank, n.d.-a). In the 1980s, the Sub-Saharan Africa region outpaced both Kenya and Uganda through 2016. Uganda's GNI did not catch up in the 2000s and has stagnated since 2011 compared to Kenya and Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2018, Kenya's GNI was \$1,620, Uganda's GNI was \$620, and Sub-Saharan Africa's GNI was \$1,506 (The World Bank, n.d.-a). As of 2018, the GDP of Uganda was USD \$28 billion. With the exception of 2016, Uganda has experienced an annual gross domestic product (GDP) growth rate between 3%-6% since 2000. Kenya

experienced similar GDP growth with Uganda until the mid-1990s. Since that time, Kenya's economic growth has been aggressive. As of 2017, Kenya's GDP was USD \$75 billion (The World Bank, n.d.-a). Extreme poverty rates in Uganda and Kenya have experienced downward percentage trends. Uganda poverty rates have trended downward over the last 18 years. In 2000, 67% of Ugandans were living in extreme poverty compared to just 42% in 2018. Kenyan extreme poverty rates have also reduced from 44% in 2005 to 27% in 2015 (The World Bank, n.d.-d).

While extreme poverty percentage rates have reduced in places like Uganda and Kenya, the total number of people living in extreme poverty in Kenya and Uganda has not reduced and has actually increased across the African continent by 2.4 million in 2017 alone (The World Bank, n.d.-a). The stagnated poverty reduction numbers in Sub-Saharan Africa compared to other world regions is concerning considering Sub-Saharan Africa saw an unprecedented increase in net aid dollars received. Foreign aid to the Sub-Saharan African region steadily increased from \$17 billion in 1990 to nearly \$50 billion in 2016 (The World Bank, n.d.-b). The lack of positive poverty eradication statistics compared to other regions contributes suggests that foreign aid alone is not enabling the Sub-Saharan African region to sufficiently reduce poverty rates. Some research indicates foreign aid development assistance actually deteriorates institutional and economic governance (Asongu & Nwachukwu, 2016). Therefore, the Sub-Saharan region must consider other investments and solutions in order for the region to prosper.

Human capital development has been heavily researched in the last two decades (Čadil, Petkovová, & Blatná, 2014) and is an alternative and viable form of investment for the Sub-Saharan region. Though human capital development efforts can be costly to implement and impacts may not be seen immediately (Gaeta & Vasilara, 1998), research shows human capital

development is an important basis for economic progress in developing economies (Čadil et al., 2014; Daron & Robinson, 2008).

Researchers see leader development as an effective form of human capital development and the highest priority among other concerns in Africa (Adadevoh, 2007; Ncube, 2010). Leadership development efforts have become a greater focus in Africa in recent years (Schneidman, 2018). In 1997, Ghanaian Patrick Awuah left his lucrative U.S. software career to start a university that focuses on developing ethical leaders for the African continent. After five years of research and fundraising, Patrick started Ashesi University in Ghana in 2002 (Ashesi University Foundation, n.d.). In 2015, Patrick Awuah was ranked by Fortune magazine as one of the world's 50 greatest leaders. Ashesi University was awarded the World Innovation Summit in Education Prize in 2017. The African Leadership Academy is a pan-African high school in Ghana that was founded in 2004 by a Ghanaian, American, and a South African (African Leadership Academy, n.d.). Their mission is to develop the next generation of African leaders. Former U.S. President Barack Obama started an initiative in 2010 called the Young African Leaders Initiative (YALI) through the United States Agency for International Development (Young African Leaders Initiative, n.d.). YALI has 6 regional leadership centers in Africa that offer leadership training opportunities to young leaders between the ages of 18 to 35. They offer in-person and online training, networking, and other development opportunities. African Leadership University (ALU) started in 2013 and has campuses in Mauritius and Rwanda (African Leadership University, n.d.). ALU's goal is to develop three million entrepreneurial and ethical African leaders by the year 2060. Their learning methodology provides emerging adults with an individualized leadership curriculum alongside an emphasis on experiential learning.

Sub-Saharan Africans have witnessed effective leaders in the past that have positively impacted the region. Nelson Mandela was a peace-filled leader who advocated against apartheid in South Africa and eventually became the new South Africa's first black president (Glad & Blanton, 1997). Mandela helped move South Africa from an authoritarian regime that discriminated on the basis of color towards a functioning democratic state (Glad & Blanton, 1997). Jomo Kenyatta, Kenya's first president, spread the idea of pan-Africanism through political and economic cooperation and the concept of *Harambee*, which is the pooling of resources towards the collective good (Nyangena, 2010). Kenyatta's actions increased unity within the African continent (Nyangena, 2010). Jomo Kenyatta and Nelson Mandela are just two examples of public leaders that displayed overall ethical and capable leadership that benefitted the Sub-Saharan African Region. There are several other cases of effective leaders in various sectors throughout the region. Unfortunately, there is still a tremendous lack of exemplary leaders in Sub-Saharan Africa (Adadevoh, 2007; Kiggundu, 1991; Ncube, 2010). Therefore, it is necessary to consider how to best develop effective future leaders for the Sub-Saharan region.

The researcher worked for a large Christian non-profit organization that implements a holistic child development program for more than 2 million children living in poverty. By 2019, this organization operated in 25 developing countries across 4 world regions including Sub-Saharan Africa. In 2019, this organization employed over 3,600 people and received donations from over 1.6 million supporters globally. In 2019, this Christian non-profit organization garnered revenues, gains, and other support totaling over \$950 million. The main thrust of this organization is to implement a holistic child development program in order to help children to be released from poverty and to thrive. The researcher conducted document analysis in order to provide a robust explanation of the leadership program the large Christian non-profit

organization implemented. Document analysis can be defined as various procedures to analyze and interpret data through the examination of documents which are relevant to a study (Schwandt, 2007). The researcher received permission from the Christian non-profit organization to analyze an internal document which contained historical and detailed implementation information about the leadership program (see Appendix A). The Leadership Development Program (LDP) was developed as a result of a vision the former president of the large Christian non-profit organization had in the 1990's. The former president grew dismayed as numbers of children graduated from the child development program without further training (Anonymous, 2012). The president envisioned the potential of a program that further trained the most gifted young adults that displayed leadership potential, academic aptitude, and Christian commitment with the hope that these leaders would become a generation to positively influence their communities and nations (Anonymous, 2012). This dream became a reality with the introduction of the Leadership Development Program (LDP) in the Philippines in 1996. The purpose of the LDP was to launch outstanding graduates of the child development program towards their full God-given potential (Anonymous, 2012). The Bible verse in the New International Version by Barker & Burdick (1995) that was most greatly associated with the LDP is Isaiah 61:3-4:

They will be called oaks of righteousness, a planting of the LORD for the display of his splendor. They will rebuild the ancient ruins and restore the places long devastated; they will renew the ruined cities that have been devastated for generations. (p. 582)

LDP participants were all graduates, or near graduates, of the child development program. Individuals were required to apply for the LDP and were chosen by a selection committee in their local countries. The selection committee was comprised of LDP staff in each

country, the large Christian non-profit field office country director, and local Christian leaders.

Leadership program participants were required to meet the following eligibility criteria

(Anonymous, 2012):

- Successful completion (or near completion) of the holistic child development program;
- Gained entrance into a local college or university;
- Demonstrated financial need;
- Communicated a sense of God's leading in their personal life and future professional life;
- Displayed drive and passion to excel in scholastics;
- Displayed a desire for leadership training;
- Communicated a desire to impact positively their profession, church, community, or nation.

There were three main components of the LDP. First, participants were provided funds to attend a local college or university because the president of the large Christian non-profit organization believed a college degree was necessary to gain the skills needed to create value in their respective fields. Education budgets varied by student and contributed towards tuition, school fees, access to a computer and internet, books, room and board, transportation, internships and certifications (Anonymous, 2012). LDP participants were not directed towards a specific major.

Second, LDP participants were provided occasions to develop their spiritual lives. This included participants regularly attending a local church, participating in an ongoing Bible study

and peer-level accountability group, and receiving Christian life coaching by LDP staff (Anonymous, 2012).

Third, participants engaged in coursework prepared by the large Christian non-profit organization to support objective attainment. The organization's coursework was completed alongside a participant's college coursework. The leadership curriculum consisted of 15 topics developed by the non-profit organization (Anonymous, 2012). LDP leadership topics can be organized into three categories: self-leadership, leading others, and ethical leadership. Leadership resource curriculum was developed for each of the 15 topics by the global program office. The recommended maximum participant workload per week for all leadership programming activities was six to seven hours per week (Anonymous, 2012). Program delivery staff in each field country were empowered to either utilize global resource curriculum, develop new curriculum that met certain parameters, or a mixture of the two. The large Christian non-profit organization's main desire was for each field office to evaluate and update the curriculum to meet the unique needs within each cultural context.

The curriculum was delivered through three methods. The first method was experiential learning. Experiential learning included LDP delivery staff-coordinating service opportunities and leadership workshops. Service opportunities were completed individually and corporately. Annually in Uganda and Kenya, LDP participants joined in weeklong LDP service camps. Service camps provided chances for LDP students to learn and utilize skills (e.g., carpentry, musical, ministry skills, etc.) to support a community. The second leadership learning method was formal learning. Formal learning included self-study and LDP delivery staff-coordinated leadership lectures. Internal staff members as well as external guests lectured on various leadership topics. The third leadership learning method was conducted through developmental

relationships. Developmental relationships included participants meeting regularly with a peer group for spiritual and emotional support, counseling and general program support from an assigned LDP delivery staff member, and LDP participant meetings with their upward mentors. Generally, peer groups consisted of a group of LDP participants who studied at the same higher education institution. During meetings with LDP delivery staff, participants would discuss their progress in each outcome area. LDP delivery staff recorded student progress, created reports, and submitted them to the global program office. Additionally, LDP delivery staff provided emotional, spiritual, and other types of support to students. Upward mentors (Clinton & Clinton, 1991) were professionals within LDP participant home countries that provided vocational support and at times other types of support depending on the agreement between the student and the upward mentor (Anonymous, 2012). LDP students were responsible for seeking out and establishing a relationship with an upward mentor. Meetings with upward mentors took place at least monthly. Upward mentors received training from LDP staff on how to support LDP participants throughout their program. Ideally, upward mentors were professionals in the fields in which their LDP mentees aspired to work within. Upward mentors provided participants with encouragement and direction and delivered written feedback to LDP delivery staff on LDP student progress. Given the geographical disbursement of participants and budget limitations, independent study was the predominant leadership learning methodology, followed by learning leadership through developmental relationships, and lastly through experiential leadership learning (i.e., organized service opportunities and leadership workshops).

Funds to support all program elements described above were raised by marketing staff across eight countries. A vast majority of funds were procured through a sponsorship model. The value proposition for donors was for a \$300-\$450 per month investment (dependent on the



timeframe and fundraising country) for the duration of the LDP participant's time in the program, the large Christian non-profit organization would select and train a high potential college-aged leader who might generate positive change throughout their community, professional sector, or nation. The donor received regular updates on student progress in all 5 outcome areas, received personal letters from the LDP participant throughout the year, was offered opportunities to encourage the LDP participant through letter writing, and could visit their LDP participant in the LDP participant's country for an extra charge. Four years was the average length of time a Kenyan or Ugandan participant was in the LDP.

Participants were required to display proficiency in five outcome areas in order to complete the LDP (Anonymous, 2012). Each LDP student outcome area below contained metrics and means of verification:

1. Exhibits servant leadership;
2. Demonstrates Christian faith;
3. Displays personal and professional abilities to be self-supporting;
4. Exhibits positive self-worth and beneficial relationships;
5. Chooses suitable health practices.

The leadership program was administered to match the length of time a participant attended a local college or university to acquire a bachelor's degree. The LDP was implemented by local program delivery staff hired by the large Christian non-profit organization. Local program delivery staff ensured student outcome data were recorded, analyzed, and reported, contextualized leadership curriculum, designed and implemented leadership learning experiences, and provided coaching and counseling to participants.

By 2013, the LDP operated in 18 countries across four regions, including countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. Sub-Saharan African leadership development programs operated in Ethiopia, Kenya, Tanzania, Uganda, and Rwanda. In 2013, the LDP provided 3,000 participants university funding, spiritual development programming, and leadership training utilizing a \$12 million annual budget. In 2014, the large Christian non-profit organization decided to alter their implementation strategy and discontinue the LDP. By 2019, over 8,000 participants completed the LDP and are now serving in various roles in the private, public, and non-profit sectors throughout the world.

### **Problem Statement**

Presently, the failures of local Sub-Saharan governments, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), and other organizations in Sub-Saharan Africa, point to the need for different solutions to eradicate poverty and bring greater prosperity to the region. Leaders are a critical element in the work of community and nation-building (Ncube, 2010). Poor leadership, which can be self-seeking instead of focusing on those they lead in the organization (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005), leads to corruption, poor infrastructure management, and a population's lack of trust in their leaders (Gaeta & Vasilara, 1998).

Competent and trustworthy leaders cultivated within developing countries are a vital element within a larger human capital development strategy (United Nations, 2010). There is scant literature discussing leader development in the Sub-Saharan Africa region.

Therefore, an opportunity exists to explore the topic of effective leader development methods within a Sub-Saharan African context by evaluating LDP participant experiences. Specifically, an evaluation of the experiences of Kenyans and Ugandans that formerly participated in the same multi-year servant leadership-based program operated by a large

Christian non-profit organization and the impact it has made in their lives. This research will add to the very limited literature on leadership development in a Sub-Saharan African context and to issues related broadly to college student leadership development.

### **Purpose Statement**

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions.

All leadership program participants involved in this research were college-aged Kenyans and Ugandans with a deep poverty context who were former participants in a holistic child development program implemented by a large international Christian non-profit organization. Local leaders selected all LDP participants based on specific eligibility criteria. The average length of time the leadership participant was in the program was four years. Students were required to demonstrate proficiency in 24 leadership areas in order to complete the program. Multiple content delivery methodologies were utilized, including experiential learning, learning through developmental relationships, and formal learning. This study will evaluate how Kenyan and Ugandan LDP participants best learned leadership, what leadership topics were most effective in developing their leadership abilities, and the impact the leadership training has made in their lives.

### **Significance of the Study**

Developing and supporting ethical and effective leaders in various sectors is seen as Africa's most pressing need (Adadevoh, 2007; Ncube, 2010). There is a dearth of research on Sub-Saharan African leadership theories and practices (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). This research adds to the extremely limited literature on Sub-Saharan African student leadership development.

Findings from this research may be relevant to private, public, and international non-governmental sectors that operate in, or partner with, organizations in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Leadership development is a key element to private sector organizational success (Warrick, 2011) and there has not been sufficient focus to grow leaders in the private sector in developing countries (Ncube, 2010). Annually, businesses globally spend \$130 billion on corporate learning and development (Deloitte, 2014). A disproportionately smaller amount of these funds are allocated by corporations to nationals in developing nations (Deloitte, 2014). While North Americans, Europeans, and Asia Pacific business leaders cite leadership development in their organizations as a present top need, a majority of African business leaders cite more basic organizational needs like human resource management and technology as a top need (Deloitte, 2014). As evidenced by developed economies, Sub-Saharan African organizational business leaders may see leader development as a top need in the near future (April & April, 2007). Therefore, research on leadership development solutions implemented in the Sub-Saharan African region will be needed. This research will provide African and global business leaders with an understanding of how leadership training for college-aged participants makes a future impact in the workplace and how Kenyan and Ugandan participants best learned leadership in a Sub-Saharan context.

There is a public sector leadership crisis throughout much of Sub-Saharan Africa. This leadership crisis must be addressed in order for INGO and local governance efforts to be fully effectual (Lawal & Tobi, 2006). Sub-Saharan African citizens and their organizations, as well as INGO personnel, state local Sub-Saharan African political leaders fail to demonstrate transparency, misuse public funds, and mismanage public services (Mwaniki, 2006; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015). These factors have led to a general mistrust of public leaders (Owusu-

Ampomah, 2015). From a public and international non-profit organizational perspective, leadership development is not currently a chief focus though these sectors rely on local leader capabilities to implement relief and development programs and services (Lawal & Tobi, 2006). International human capital investments from developed countries to developing countries usually come in the form of aid, trade, or foreign investment (The World Bank, n.d.-b). Aid received by developing nations totaled \$163 billion in 2017 (The World Bank, n.d.-b). Aid dollars are used in a myriad of ways. In 2016, The United States committed \$49 billion in aid to developing countries. Approximately 42% of U.S. aid was used for long-term human development needs primarily towards healthcare, though no allocation of funding to local leader development (McBride, 2018). The United Nations' 2030 Sustainable Development Goals include human capital development investments in education, healthcare, nutrition, and economic development (United Nations, n.d.). Human capital investments rely heavily on local leader capabilities and ethics in developing economies (Onolememe, 2015), which creates significant concerns for the potential loss of impact of human capital development investments. This study will tread new relief and development research ground by evaluating the impact of a multi-year leadership program for formerly impoverished Kenyan and Ugandans who were chosen partially due to their demonstrated desire to make positive impacts in their local communities and nations. This research will provide INGOs and public sector leaders with an understanding of the impact of leadership development programming as a form of human capital development investment within a Sub-Saharan African international development context.

### **Definition of Terms**

The following definitions apply to key terminology utilized in this study:

- *Developed countries*: Countries with relatively high economic growth and higher human

capital development index scores (O'Sullivan & Sheffrin, 2003).

- *Developing countries*: Countries with less developed manufacturing and services as well as lower human capital development index scores (O'Sullivan & Sheffrin, 2003). In addition, the International Monetary Fund (2019) states developing countries in relation to other countries, have lower per capita income level, and weaker integration into the global financial system.
- *Human capital development*: The investment of resources into people for real income development (Becker, 1962). Whereas education is an indicator of progress, human capital development is a more rational way that education supports income generation and productivity (McGrath, 2010).
- *Leadership*: A process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal (Northouse, 2010).
- *Leadership development*: Action(s) which strive to improve the quality of leadership in individuals or groups (Northouse, 2010; Robbins & Judge, 2013).
- *Leadership Development Program (LDP)*: The name of the leadership program in which Kenyan and Ugandan college students participated (researcher definition).
- *Poverty*: Undermined human rights in the forms of economic, political, social, and cultural realities (UNESCO, 2017).
- *Servant Leaders*: Servant leaders act selflessly through serving others first (Greenleaf, 1977). Servant leaders emphasize a leader's personal integrity and focuses on developing meaningful longer-term relationships with employees (Liden, Wayne, Zhao, & Henderson, 2008) and stakeholders outside of their organization (Graham, 1991).

- *Upward Mentor*: Someone who encourages a mentee towards to their full potential through providing guidance, advice, and challenges the mentee (Clinton & Clinton, 1991).

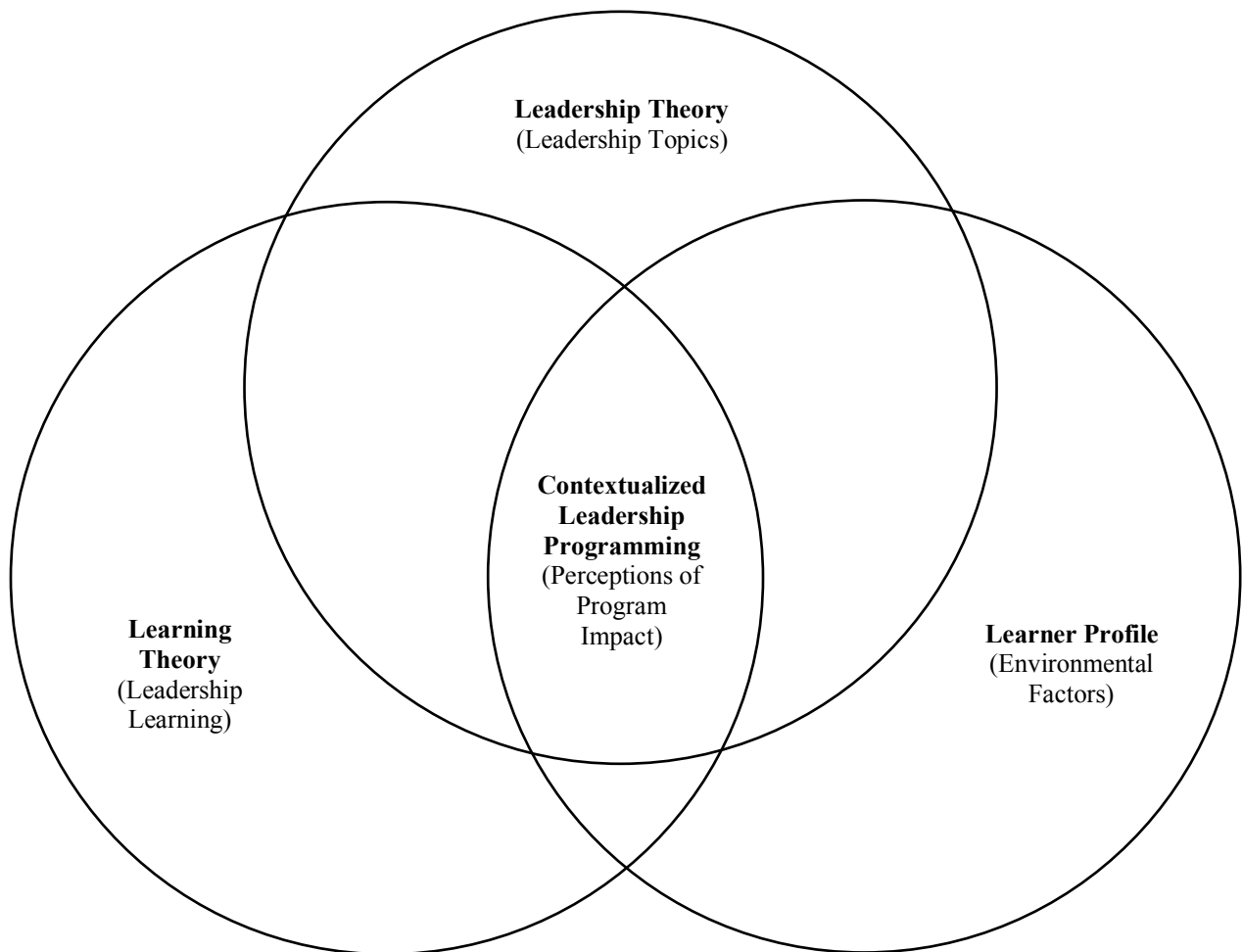
### **Theoretical Framework**

A theoretical framework was developed as part of the research design for this study. The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions. Initially, the researcher approached the topic with a pragmatist world view. After a review of the extremely limited literature on Sub-Saharan African leadership theory and practice, the researcher decided to create a baseline quantitative study of Kenyan and Ugandan college students that took part in a multi-year servant leadership-based program. The researcher worldview for this study is also post-positivist. The investigator approached the research topic through quantitative research methods. The methodology is a quantitative case study utilizing descriptive statistics. The research method is survey research. An online survey was utilized as the survey instrument. The research methodology will be further discussed in Chapter 3.

### **Conceptual Framework**

The review of literature helped establish the conceptual framework for this leadership research. The literature revealed three critical elements to support Sub-Saharan African leader development. Each element contains both theoretical and applied content. The first element is leadership theory and leadership topics. The second element is learning theory and leadership learning. The third element is learner profile and environmental factors. The intersection of the three elements support *contextualized leadership programming* and perceptions of program

impact. Leadership researchers or implementers should first analyze the learner profile(s) and their environment(s). Then, one can employ the appropriate leadership theory or topics. Finally, one can design and implement the leadership learning methodologies. The Venn diagram represents the importance of all three elements to support contextualized leadership programming (see Figure 1).



*Figure 1.* Conceptual framework.



Learning theories and leadership learning models included:

- Lombardo and Eichinger's 70:20:10 Model of Leadership Learning (1996). This learning and development model espouses the idea that effectual leadership learning is proportionally broken down in the following percentages: (a) 70% Experiential: Includes on-the-job learning and engaging in challenging tasks, (b) 20% Developmental relationships: Including peers and mentors, and (c) 10% Formal learning: Including coursework and training.
- Kirkpatrick's Four-level Evaluation Model: (a) the first level measures the reaction which refers to the level of participant enjoyment, (b) the second level measures learning which is the degree to which participants acquire knowledge, skills, and attitude from the training, (c) the third level measures the level that participants apply learned behaviors to the workplace, (d) the fourth level is results which are the actual impacts of training or learning (Kirkpatrick, 1996). The researcher coded Kirkpatrick's evaluation levels to survey items in Appendix B.
- The Cognitive Process Dimension from Bloom's Revised Taxonomy of Learning Model: (a) remembering, (b) understanding, (c) applying, (d) analyzing, (e) evaluating, and (f) creating (Anderson, Krathwohl, & Bloom, 2001). The researcher coded Bloom's cognitive process dimension levels to survey items in Appendix B.

Leadership theory and content included:

- Servant Leadership Theory: (a) leaders have the natural desire to serve first before they take positions of leadership, (b) leaders should diminishing their egos, (c) servant leaders develop their followers into leaders, (d) the needs of the organization and those they lead are of primary importance (Greenleaf, 1977).

- Growth Stage Method: Leadership learning for Sub-Saharan African university students in three successive stages (a) personal leadership, (b) intra-personal leadership, and (c) inter-personal leadership (April & April, 2007).

Learner profile and environmental factors included:

- Bolden and Kirk's Sub-Saharan African Leadership Foundations: Leadership (a) is accessible to anyone, (b) begins with self-awareness, (c) is relational, (d) and serves the community (Bolden & Kirk, 2009).

The conceptual framework structure can be related to Haber's (2011) Formal Leadership Program Model to design and institute relevant and integrated leadership programs. The Formal Leadership Program Model is comprised of three dimensions: structures, strategies, and students. The *students* dimension focuses on who the program serves. The *structures* dimension focuses on the components and resources of the program. The *strategies* dimension targets how participants engage and develop leadership capacity in the program.

### **Research Questions**

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions.

The following research question guided this quantitative study:

- RQ: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

Several questions arose during the planning phase of this study. Others arose during the review of the literature. Sub-questions for this research are as follows:

- Leadership Topics (Leadership Theory)
  - SQ1: What are the most helpful leadership topics and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?
- Leadership Learning (Learning Theory)
  - SQ2: Are there significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships)?
- Perceptions of Program Impact (Contextualized Leadership Programming)
  - SQ3: What are the leadership programmatic impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales, and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?
  - SQ4: What are the leadership contributions and relevant scale and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?

### **Research Hypotheses**

A hypothesis is, "...a conjectural statement that indicates the relationship between at least two variables" (Hoy, 2010, p.67). Hypotheses are declarative, tentative, testable, and state the relationship between variables (Hoy, 2010). The hypotheses for this quantitative study are:

- H1: One or more leadership topics will be related to one or more students' demographic characteristics.
- H2: Experiential learning will be rated significantly higher than either formal or developmental relationship learning and developmental relationship learning will be rated as more effective than formal learning (Owusu, Kalipeni, Awortwi, & Kiiru, 2017).
- H3: One or more programmatic impact scales will be related to one or more students' demographic characteristics.

- H4: One or more programmatic impact effects will be related to one or more students' demographic characteristics.

### **Limitations**

There are limitations associated with this research study. These include:

- Research participants will not be chosen randomly. This convenience sampled is based upon the connection LDP cohort leaders had with their cohorts to collect names and e-mail addresses and LDP graduates that belong to private Kenya and Uganda LDP Facebook® groups.
- Research findings are limited to the instrument employed in this research.
- The survey instrument was designed for this study by the researcher and has not been validated in any other similar studies.
- Respondents may know this survey research will be conducted by a former staff person that formerly led the LDP. The fact the researcher was the global leader of the LDP may influence research subjects' decision to participate in the research and how they respond to survey questions.
- Participants will provide self-report responses.
- Internet-based surveys may be biased towards those that can afford and have access to a computer or smartphone to take the survey (Howell, Rodzon, Kurai, & Sanchez, 2010).
- Though leadership topics, outcomes, and metrics were consistent throughout the LDP, there were variances in how topics were delivered to participants.
- Only a limited number of demographic questions will be investigated.

## **Delimitations**

Delimitations are choices made by the researcher, which need to be mentioned as part of the research study (Simon & Goes, 2013a). Delimitations for this research are:

- Respondents were contacted by their LDP cohort leader prior to collect their current e-mail addresses for the professional purposes of the researcher prior to this study. The e-mail address list will be used as the convenience sample for this study.
- Time, funding, and research assistant time was limited in collecting contact information of all Kenyan and Ugandan LDP participants.
- The same leadership program was implemented in other locations (i.e., Tanzania, Ethiopia, and Rwanda) and were excluded from the study due to limited time and funding. The author acknowledges that a more diverse Sub-Saharan sample would create richer data (Yin, 1994) and findings would be more applicable to the whole East African region.

## **Assumptions**

Assumptions are elements accepted as true or quite plausible within the research study (Simon & Goes, 2013b). Assumptions for this study included:

- Participants will answer knowledgeably and truthfully about their prior personal experiences. To support the knowledge and truth assumption, results from the survey will be confidential without any identifiable information displayed in research findings. Participants of the LDP completed the program between one and seventeen years ago. There are multiple studies on education and leadership program impacts researched one to over 10 years after program completion (Barlett & Rappaport, 2009; Bradshaw,

Zmuda, Kellam, & Ialongo, 2009; Daugherty & Williams, 1997; Diem & Powers, 2005; Lazar et al., 1982).

- Participants are sufficiently fluent in English. English was the language used for all Ugandan and Kenyan LDP curriculum and events.
- Participants in the study share a reasonable amount of commonality, as they all come from a poverty background, profess themselves as Christians, graduated from the same child development program, and attended colleges or universities within their nations.
- Participants all partook in a leadership development program which shared the same program requirements, leadership topics, student assessment metrics (outcomes, metrics, and means of verification), staffing model, and leadership learning methods.
- An analysis of participant experiences will ultimately add to the very limited scholarly body of knowledge regarding leadership development for populations coming out of a poverty context in developing economies and leadership development practices in a Sub-Saharan African context.

### **Positionality**

Acknowledging personal biases is a critical process for any research endeavor (Creswell, 2013). The quantitative method is impacted, in some part, by inherent biases that should be identified and scrutinized when conducting balanced and ethical research (Sultana, 2007).

First, the researcher has conceptualized, developed, and implemented leadership programs in a variety of settings. These experiences include delivering leadership content through formal classroom instruction settings, through developmental relationships (i.e., mentoring, executive coaching, etc.), and facilitating experiential learning environments. The researcher has designed leadership programs for college students and non-profit leaders in both developed and

developing countries. Prior research and experience in leadership development has shaped the researcher's perspective that experiential leadership learning experiences are most effective in building leadership skills followed by developmental relationships, and lastly formal learning.

Second, the researcher holds a pragmatist worldview which posits there is no one specific worldview for research (Garrison, 1994). Instead, the researcher must match the research questions with the most salient worldview to best lead the research study (Garrison, 1994).

Third, the researcher has extensive experience researching and working in human capital development efforts for developing world contexts. These research and implementation experiences have led the researcher to believe human capital development programs are an essential aspect of poverty reduction and community development strategies.

Lastly, the researcher acted as the global director of the leadership development program (LDP) being researched. It is possible that research participants might recognize the researcher as a former employee of the organization that implemented the leadership program. As a result, it is understood that while the researcher did not directly implement the leadership development program in Kenya or Uganda, the researcher's involvement could impact human subject responses, because respondents may not want to criticize the LDP directly to a senior leader of the program.

### **Organization of the Study**

This dissertation is organized into five chapters:

- Chapter 1 provides a background of the study, the problem statement, purpose of the study, significance of the study, a definition of terms, theoretical framework, conceptual framework, identified research questions, research hypotheses, limitations, delimitations, assumptions, and researcher positionality.

- Chapter 2 reviews and discusses relevant literature on learning theories, leadership theories, and the learner profile which includes African leadership, andragogical theory, leadership learning methodologies, and leadership development in higher education. Themes, gaps, and inconsistencies in the literature will be discussed.
- Chapter 3 reviews the research design including philosophical foundations, setting and sample, human subject considerations, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data management, and data analysis.
- Chapter 4 will discuss the resulting data collection and management processes followed by a section reviewing data cleaning methods and the analysis approach. Following are descriptive statistics and the chapter ends with a list of key findings for discussion in chapter 5.
- Chapter 5 will discuss findings, draw conclusions, highlight implications and recommendations for future research, and will end with an evaluation and a chapter summary.

### **Chapter Summary**

Chapter 1 provided an introduction to the research study. The researcher discussed the state of Sub-Saharan Africa from a poverty and development perspective. While economic development and poverty alleviation strides have been made in the Sub-Saharan African region, especially since the 1990s, there are still serious poverty-related concerns. Human capital development efforts are an essential aspect for any developing economy. Leader development is a key aspect of human capital development work. Despite research stating leadership development as a top need in Sub-Saharan Africa, there have been insufficient resources and a



lack of focus on leader development for the region. As a result of this lack of attention, among other factors, there is a vacuum of ethical and capable leaders for the region. To respond to the need, a limited number of leadership initiatives have recently been created to develop ethical and capable African leaders. These efforts, while an important part of an overall human capital development strategy, are quite limited in number. Much greater efforts are needed to develop more Sub-Saharan African leaders to add value in their sectors and spheres of influence. Further, there is a severe lack of African leadership theory and leadership development practices in the literature. The researcher discussed the theoretical framework to research the efficacy of Sub-Saharan African leadership program for participants with a poverty context in East Africa. Next, the researcher introduced a conceptual framework towards contextualized leadership programming. The research question that is guiding this study is: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

The intention of this research is to add to the extremely limited body of knowledge of Sub-Saharan African leadership development theory and practice. Research hypotheses were presented as well as limitations, delimitations, and assumptions associated with the study. Finally, the researcher discussed the impact of his positionality on the study.

The following chapter constitutes an investigation into the literature regarding learning theory, leadership theory, and learner profile elements that relate to this research.

## Chapter 2: Literature Review

### Chapter Overview

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions. All leadership program participants involved in this research were college-aged Kenyans and Ugandans that completed a holistic child development program implemented by a large international Christian non-profit organization. This research seeks to elucidate effective leadership development programming practices in East Africa in hopes of increasing interest in leadership development as a means of human capital development and to determine the programmatic elements that led to greater leadership skills, and how demographic factors may have been influential.

The following research question guided this quantitative study:

- RQ: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

Several questions arose during the planning phase of this study. Others arose during the review of the literature. Sub-questions for this research are as follows:

- Leadership Topics (Leadership Theory)
  - SQ1: What are the most helpful leadership topics and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?
- Leadership Learning (Learning Theory)
  - SQ2: Are there significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships)?

- Perceptions of Program Impact (Contextualized Leadership Programming)
  - SQ3: What are the leadership programmatic impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales, and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?
  - SQ4: What are the leadership contributions and relevant scale and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?

The organization of this literature review is reflected in the structure of the conceptual framework (Figure 1) and provides a broad theoretical basis for this research. The first section will review learning theories, including: behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Then, there will be a review of program evaluation models, including educational program evaluation and Kirkpatrick's Four-levels of Evaluation Model. The second section will provide an overview of leadership theories, including: great man theory, trait theory, contingency leadership theory, situational leadership theory, path-goal theory, leader-member exchange theory, transformational leadership, global leadership, and servant leadership. An analysis of similarities between servant leadership and other leadership theories and servant leadership across cultures follows. The third section will discuss the learner profile within this study to best understand learner context. This section includes an analysis of African leadership, andragogy, leadership learning methodologies, and leadership development in higher education settings. The chapter will conclude with a section discussing themes, gaps, and inconsistencies in the literature, as well as a chapter summary.

### **Learning Theories**

Contemplating the concept of learning through a philosophical lens, learning could be considered a sub-category of epistemology, which is the study of the genesis, nature, limits, and

methods of knowledge (Schunk, 2012). Learning can be defined as lasting behavior change, or the ability to behave in specific ways, as a result of experience or practice (Schunk, 2012). There are a wide array of educational learning theories, models, and assessment practices. The following section will discuss select major learning theories and educational program evaluation practices.

**Behaviorism.** Behaviorism became a leading psychological discipline in the early twentieth century that focuses on research, which can be objectively measured by a third party (Frey, 2018). John Watson can be considered the father of modern behaviorism (Hunt, 2007). Watson believed in a purely objective brand of science with the goal of forecasting and controlling behavior without any form of introspection (Phillips & Soltis, 1998). The behavioral epistemological framework ignored any personal insight on motives, actions, or mental processes (Frey, 2018).

Three types of behaviorism exist (Schunk, 2012). Psychological behaviorism is a discipline within the field of psychology that interprets animal and human behavior through responses, reinforcements, and external stimuli. Examples of well-known psychological behavioral theorists are Skinner and Pavlov. Methodological behaviorism is a theory John Watson referred to regularly in his writings. Methodological behaviorism is related to the scientific method of psychology that strictly focuses on human or animal behavior and rejects mental states. Mental states are privately held mental events which cannot be empirically studied (Graham, 2000). Logical behaviorism is a philosophical theory that focuses on the meaning of concepts (Graham, 2000). Logical behaviorism opines the mind, affect, voluntary human, or animal actions do not exist (Hempel, 2000). Logical behaviorism posits mental states reveal

themselves in behavioral tendencies that apply to one situation but not to another (Hempel, 2000).

**Cognitivism.** Cognitivism, as a learning theory, grew from Gestalt psychology from Germany in the early twentieth century by Wolfgang Kohler (Yount, 2010). Gestalt is a German word generally meaning a configuration that focuses on the whole human experience (Yount, 2010). Cognitivism grew in direct opposition to behaviorism because it focused on a theoretical understanding of mental processes within human behavior (Ormerod & Ball, 2017). Cognitivists are opposed to behaviorism as cognitivism focuses on more complex mental processes like problem solving, language, conceptualization, and the processing of information (Roszkowski & Snelbecker, 1983). Learning is akin to discrete changes among mental concepts and focuses on the conceptualization of the learning process (Ertmer & Newby, 2008) as the mind internally codes and organizes information (Ertmer & Newby, 2008).

Cognitivists emphasize the cognitive activities of the individual that precede a learner's response and focuses on goal-setting, mental planning, and organization (Shuell, 1986). Like behaviorism, cognitivism stresses the role of the environment in the process of learning, and that effective learning includes practice with constructive feedback (Ertmer & Newby, 2008). What learners do is not as important as what learners know and how they acquired knowledge (Jonassen, 1991). Due to the focus on mental structures, cognitive learning theories are more suited to elucidate complicated forms of learning similar to problem solving and reasoning (Schunk, 2012).

Popular cognitive learning theorists include Albert Bandura and Jerome Bruner. Albert Bandura developed a framework to explain human behavior through triadic reciprocity, which is the interaction between environmental elements, personal factors, and behaviors (Bandura,

1982). Bandura illustrated the interplay between self-efficacy and behavior in that self-efficacy impacts achievement behaviors such as choice of duties, determination, effort outflow, and ability attainment (Schunk, 2012). Jerome Bruner stated that development of peoples' mental abilities since birth are formed by a number of technological innovations in the use of cognizance (Bruner, 1964). Bruner stated people represent knowledge, through cognitive processing, in a three-step representation sequence: enactive, iconic, and symbolic (Bruner, 1964). Enactive representation includes psycho-motor responses to influence or control environmental objects and features. Iconic representations entail the development of non-active cognitive images in which the person can envision changes apart from the physical state of the object or situation. Symbolic representation is a system of symbols to decipher knowledge. Symbolic representation is viewed as the most powerful and preferred method because people can characterize and convert information with more elasticity and power compared to other models.

From an educational learning perspective, Benjamin Bloom was perhaps the most influential cognitive theorist. He wrote his most seminal learning theory in his book *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (Bloom, 1956). Bloom's theories attempted to assist educators in understanding that not all learning objectives are equal and there is a hierarchy in learning. The taxonomy labeled three learning domains: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor (Bloom, 1956). Each domain divides into five or six scaled subcategories. A revision of the Taxonomy utilized action words to describe the structure of the cognitive process dimension (a) remembering; (b) understanding; (c) applying; (d) analyzing; (e) evaluating; (f) creating (Anderson et al., 2001). Each subcategory is important to the overall learning process (Krathwohl, 2002).

Bloom's learning theory was possibly the most influential theory that contributed to the education field (Paul, 1985). Bloom's taxonomy is used globally as a basis for determining the congruence of educational objectives, activities, and assessments (Anderson et al., 2001). Critics of Bloom's learning theory contend that his theory of knowledge is naive (Pring, 1971) and does not cover the full scope of education (Sockett, 1971). Other researchers are critical because Bloom did not attempt to fully explain education or knowledge but rather classified student behavior (Seaman, 2011). Another critique is that Bloom's taxonomy assumes that learning is linear and that some learning activities are viewed as being less important processes compared to others (Lemov, 2015).

**Constructivism.** Constructivism is considered a contemporary branch of cognitivism that emerged from twentieth century cognitivists who began to question the idea of objectivity (Ertmer & Newby, 2008). Dissimilar to the clear and consistent definitions of behaviorism and cognitivism, there is a lack of consistency in the meaning of constructivism (Harlow, Cummings, & Aberasturi, 2006). Constructivism is seen as a scientific, psychological, and a philosophical viewpoint arguing people construct most what they learn and understand (Geary, 1995). Constructivists state knowledge is a function of how the learner creates meaning as a result of their experiences (Jonassen, 1991). Constructivists posit no statement can be presumed as true but instead should be looked at with reasonable doubt (Schunk, 2012). Constructivists questioned and did not accept the following cognitivist assumptions (Greeno, 1989) (a) the act of thinking takes place in the mind instead of in interaction with individuals and environments; (b) the processes of learning and thinking are somewhat equal across people and select situations while creating higher-order thinking better than other situations; and (c) thinking originates from skills

and information developed in highly structured learning environments more than on general theoretical capabilities which result from an individual's experiences and personal abilities.

Constructivism is a collection of different perspectives, which includes three dominant perspectives (Bruning, Schraw, & Norby, 2011). Endogenous constructivism is the belief that knowledge comes from formerly attained knowledge and not from external worldly interactions. Exogenous constructivism posits that knowledge is a mental reconstruction of the external environment. The environment influences individual beliefs through the introduction of models, experiences, and instruction. Therefore, knowledge is precise to the level it mirrors external reality. In between endogenous and exogenous constructivism lies *dialectical constructivism*, which posits knowledge is achieved through both people and the external world. Mental constructions are not forced by the external environment and neither are they the outcome of the interior mechanisms of a person's mind. They reflect the outcomes of mental inconsistencies which come from dealings with the external world.

Constructivism has greatly influenced curriculum and instruction in the field of education (Schunk, 2012). Constructionists believe learners need to personally discover the basic principles to grasp content, although there is no agreement regarding the importance social interactions play in the acquisition of knowledge (Bredo, 1997). Constructionists also introduced the idea that didactic teaching methods are limited and instead purport active learning environments where learners actively engage with the content through social and material manipulation (Schunk, 2012).

There are a number of influential constructivists. The biologist and psychologist, Jean Piaget, studied children and posited that as early as infancy, children discover the world and build, or construct, knowledge as they experience it (Coghlan, Brydon-Miller, & Hershberg,



2014). Along with his colleagues, Albert Bandura developed observational learning studies. A main finding of Bandura's research was that individuals were able to develop new actions solely by observing other individuals and their actions instead of performing the actions themselves (Schunk, 2012). This finding clearly disputed theories of conditioning. Lev Vygotsky was another developmental psychologist from the twentieth century that studied children. Vygotsky is credited for transitioning constructivism as a developmental theory to social constructionism (Coghlan et al., 2014). Social constructivism is a process where learning and development take place through collaborative activities and socializing processes (Vygotskiĭ, Hanfmann, Kozulin, & Vakar, 2012).

**Educational program evaluation.** Evaluations provide the organization and its leaders with important data to determine the level of program effectiveness. From an educational context, a program can be defined as any educational enterprise aiming at a solution to a particular educational problem or the improvement of some aspect of education (Walden, 1999). Evaluation can be described as determining worth, and thus program evaluation is determining the worth of an educational program (Walden, 1999).

Anderson and Ball (1978) determined six purposes of program evaluation (a) to help determine program implementation; (b) to support decisions about programs continuing or expanding; (c) to support decisions on program modifications; (d) to identify program support; (e) to identify program opposition; (f) to supply to the understanding of social, psychological, and other processes.

Evaluation can be formative or summative. Formative evaluation enables program leaders to improve the program through ongoing reflection (Fitzpatrick, Sanders, & Worthen, 2012). Leaders use formative evaluation in a change initiative to determine if the implementation

plan is being enacted effectively and enabling outcome or goal attainment. Once the leader or guiding coalition makes adjustments based on formative data, the change team(s) receive data on specifically what to change to meet objectives better. Summative evaluations help leaders to determine whether the program should continue through assessing completed interventions or outcomes (Fitzpatrick et al., 2012). While summative data is important to establishing program success at a high level, it does not pinpoint issues to improve a program. Summative evaluations provide leaders with a snapshot analysis of total program success.

**Kirkpatrick's four-levels of evaluation model.** Kirkpatrick's Four Levels of Evaluation Model is widely seen in the literature and used in the field (MacRae & Skinner, 2011).

Kirkpatrick (1996) developed four program evaluation levels. The first level measures the reaction, which refers to the level of participant enjoyment. Higher levels of enjoyment translate to higher application of learned content (Duke & Reese, 1995). The second level is measuring learning, which assesses the degree to which participants acquire knowledge, skills, and attitude from the training (Nickols, 2005). The third level measures the extent that participants apply learned behaviors to the workplace (Kirkpatrick, 1996). Behaviors are usually measured after learning events and at one of more times subsequent to the training event. Learners' ability to demonstrate integration of curriculum content is through the measurement of behavior changes (Nickols, 2005). The fourth level of evaluation is results. Results are the actual impact of training or learning. This includes organizational benefits and results achieved through the learner's new behaviors, skills, and knowledge (Kirkpatrick, 1996). According to Kirkpatrick (1996) measuring results is the most important level of evaluation because it provides defining evidence that the learning event was successful or not.

## Leadership Theories

There has been interest in leadership across cultures for centuries. For example, Egyptian hieroglyphics included terms for leadership and leader (Bass & Stogdill, 1990, p.4). Though leadership was not seen in the social science literature until 200 years ago (Bass & Stogdill, 1990), leadership is now studied in various fields including psychology, business management, engineering, education, cultural anthropology, political science, and organizational development.

The literature review reveals that leadership is an amorphous concept (Conger, 1998) on which consensus is highly unlikely (Grint, 2005). According to Bolden & Kirk (2009), leadership theories can be categorized into four themes:

- *Essentialist* theories: Essentialist theories focus on the qualities of the leader and what the leader does or does not do to their followers;
- *Relational* theories: Relational theories focus on not just the leader but the relationship between the leader and others. These theories focus on contextual and group dynamics within theoretical frameworks;
- *Critical* theories: Critical leadership theories focus on the fundamental power undercurrents within organizations and how followers can release themselves from control mechanisms to create new leadership paradigms;
- *Constructionist* theories: Constructionist theories center on the idea that people within an organization construct shared meaning by reconstructing their understanding which helps them to move into new spaces.

A review of select leadership theories will shed light on how leadership theory has changed over time.

**Great man theory.** It is argued the genesis of leadership theory started with the idea of what was originally called the “great man” theory. This theory, influenced by Darwinism, opined leaders were powerful and effective based upon hereditary qualities (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). Another great man theory assumption is that great leaders can ascend if the need is great. Therefore, leaders respond to the need for action, and their greatness is revealed in their actions. The 19<sup>th</sup>-century historian Thomas Carlyle was a key proponent of the great man theory. Carlyle opined that the history of the world is merely a collected assortment of biographies of great men which often go ignored (Carlyle, 1840). Carlyle developed six hero types including (a) divinity; (b) prophet; (c) poet; (d) prophet; (e) man of letters; (f) king (Carlyle, 1840). Carlyle believed it is important to study great men of history as it may reveal the reader’s true nature (Carlyle, 1840). Other notable espousers of the great man theory are the American 19<sup>th</sup>-century psychologist and philosopher William James and author Frederick Adams Woods.

Critics of the great man theory state the theory is unscientific as it is based on historical models and does not take into account the possibility of other factors that influence leadership. Herbert Spencer was a vocal critic of the great man theory stating that leaders are nothing more than the outcome of their social environment (Spencer, 1873).

**Trait theory.** Trait theory is a modification of the great man theory. Trait theory is defined as a range of leadership characteristics that promote a leader’s effectiveness in various organizational settings (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). Dissimilar to the great man theory, there is no agreement on whether or not traits can be learned. In Francis Galton’s book, *Hereditary Genius* (1869), Galton stated leadership was held within a finite group of astonishing individuals who held certain traits that were immutable and could not be learned. More contemporary trait theorists believe traits can be developed (Zaccaro et al., 2004). While full

consensus has not been reached on traits being strictly hereditary or not (Rost, 1991), there is general agreement that leadership skills can be learned (Crosby & Bryson, 2005).

Leadership traits can be categorized using one of two systems. The first system organizes traits into three distinct categories: task competence, interpersonal qualities, and demographic (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). The second system organizes traits into either distal (trait-like) or proximal (state-like) categories (Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011).

Kohs and Irle (1920) discussed the idea of leaders having qualities that explain their leadership behaviors. Numerous studies have been reported attempting to determine and isolate the specific set of traits critical to leadership success. Hellriegel, Slocum, and Woodman (1992) identified select traits shared by most successful leaders: (a) intelligence, (b) maturity and breadth, (c) inner motivation and achievement drive, and (d) employee-centered. Zaccaro and others (2004) identified a number of traits and organized them into distal and proximal categories. Their model offers an explanation of how leaders' characteristics impact leader performance indicators (Zaccaro et al., 2004) .

Even with the resurgence of trait theory in the last few decades (Zaccaro, 2007), it is not without its critics. Conger & Kanungo (1998) cite trait theory is too simple of an explanation for the phenomena of leadership. Northouse (2010) points out that the list of identified traits from hundreds of studies is endless, and many are ambiguous. He further argues that trait theory is an ineffective method for teaching leadership because traits are not easily changed.

**Contingency leadership theory.** Contingency leadership was first coined by Fred Fiedler, who studied leadership styles across multiple organizations and countries and focused on leaders' styles, situations, and whether or not they were effective (Northouse, 2010). Fiedler

developed a grounded theory to explain the phenomenon of improved leader performance if leadership style matches the situation (Fiedler, 1964). Different than situational leadership theory, contingency leadership theorizes leadership styles are fixed and not easily adaptable.

In the contingency theoretical model, leadership styles are either task or relationship motivated. Fiedler created the *Least Preferred Coworker Scale* (LPC) in which leaders that have lower scores are motivated by tasks and leaders with higher scores are relationship motivated (Fiedler, 1967). The contingency theoretical model categorizes situations into three elements: task structure, position power, and leader-member relations (Fiedler, 1967). Task structure measures the degree of task clarity. More task clarity puts more power into the hands of the leader. Position power is the level to which a leader can reward or penalize their subordinates. Leader-member relations points to the group environment and the degree to which subordinates respect and feel attraction to its leader.

Together, the three elements regulate the favorableness of organizational situations. Favorable situations are defined as consisting of positive leader-follower relationships, defined tasks, and high leader positional power. Less favorable situations are defined as weak leader-follower interactions, tasks that are unstructured, and frail leader positional power. Leaders who score low on the LPC Scale (task-oriented leaders) are well-suited for both very favorable and very unfavorable conditions. Leaders that score high on the LPC Scale (relationally motivated) are seen to operate well in reasonably favorable organizational situations. Fiedler (1995) later explained why leaders ill-matched with situations are ineffective. First, leaders that are not matched well to the situation experience stress and other physiological symptoms. Stress then encourages the leader to manage using less mature coping mechanisms, and then the leader makes unwise decisions, which negatively impact them and the organization.

The contingency theoretical model has been well-researched (Northouse, 2010) and it has been supported through meta-analyses studies (Peters, Hartke, & Pohlmann, 1985; Strube & Garcia, 1981). Contingency leadership theory is predictive of a leader's success and highlights the importance of matching the situation to a leader for organizational success.

Contingency theory is not without its critics. Some researchers cite a lack of empirical evidence to support the contingency theory (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2019). Fiedler (1993), himself, reports that the LPC Scale does not correlate with any other standard leadership scale (lacking concurrent validity). The theory does not completely explain why certain leaders are effective in specific settings. The lack of total understanding of why high LPC Scale scoring leaders are better in reasonably favored situations and why low LPC Scale scoring leaders are more effective in extreme situations, has been called the *black box problem* (Fiedler, 1993).

**Situational leadership theory.** Hersey and Blanchard (1969) introduced the *Situational Approach Leadership Model*, which originated from Reddin's (1967) 3-D management style theory. Situational leadership theory focuses on the importance for leaders to moderate their leadership approach considering the situation. This theory opines one particular leadership style or approach may be applicable and effective in one setting but not for another (Blanchard, Zigarmi, & Nelson, 1993). As a result, the situational approach can be categorized as both a behavioral (Bass, Bass, & Bass, 2009) or contingency (Yukl, 2010) form of leadership. Different from the trait approach, the situational approach theorizes human qualities alone do not explain why some leaders are successful in their roles while others are not. The situational approach is seen as a prescriptive leadership model in that the model proposes leaders' leadership style should match followers' needs in the present and further moderate their style as their followers' needs change over time.

The situational approach requires individuals to consider both directive and supportive dimensions to be effective leaders. Followers that are less competent and committed require the leader to be directive. As followers' needs and behaviors change to become more independent and committed, leaders should change their approach to be more supportive. Blanchard (1985) created the Situational Leadership II (SLII) Model, which was an extension of the model initially created by Hersey and Blanchard in 1969 (Northouse, 2010). The SLII Model categorizes four leadership styles depending on follower needs (a) delegating; (b) supporting; (c) coaching; (d) directing. The situational approach model is used extensively by leadership and organizational development practitioners (Northouse, 2010), as Blanchard et al. (1993) claim it has been used in over 400 of the Fortune 500 companies. The situational leadership approach is viewed as practical because it is easy to understand, providing leaders with actions to take compared to other leadership models which are descriptive in nature (Northouse, 2010).

There are several criticisms of the situational leadership theory. While used extensively in the field of learning and development, one criticism is there are very few empirical studies proving its consistency, conformity, and continuity (Bass et al., 2009; Vecchio, Bullis, & Brazil, 2006). Research has not found any particular situational leadership style to be effective and the theory relies on leadership types that can be problematic in the identification process (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010). Another criticism is that the SLII Model fails to take into account various demographic factors (i.e., gender, experience, education) that may confound the leader-follower relationship (Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002).

**Path-goal theory.** The path-goal theory centers on how leaders best motivate their employees to accomplish goals. The path-goal theory first emerged in the early 1970s in [first name] Evans' doctoral dissertation(1970). Research by House and others (1971; House &



Mitchell, 1974) asserts path-goal leaders improve subordinate performance and satisfaction by concentrating on subordinate motivation.

House (1971) used Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory to suggest that followers are motivated if they believe (a) they can complete their work; (b) there will be a positive outcome if they do their work; (c) the positive outcome at the end is worthwhile to them. He described the leader's function within a path-goal theory to increase benefits to subordinates if they attain goals and to help make the path easier for subordinates to follow by clarifying it, eliminating as many hindrances as possible, and increasing followers' satisfaction in the process. The leader's focus should be on using a leadership style that best meets followers' needs and to focus on areas that are missing in a situation that enhance follower motivation, and ultimately their performance (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). There are four types of leader behaviors (a) directive; (b) supportive; (c) participative; (d) achievement-oriented (House & Mitchell, 1974). Leaders should choose from these leadership behaviors that best match both the subordinate and the task.

The path-goal theory has been widely studied (Wofford & Liska, 1993), and praised for being practical in that it provides leaders a road map for best supporting different types of subordinates depending on the task (Northouse, 2010). Criticisms of the path-goal theory include that it is too complex, theoretical research findings are inconsistent, and shown to have methodological shortcomings (Schriesheim & Neider, 1996).

**Leader-member exchange theory.** Unlike other leadership theories that focus on the follower's context or the leader's positionality, the leader-member exchange theory (LMX) hones in on the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2010) and was first introduced by Graen and his colleagues (Graen, Dansereau, Minami, & Cashman, 1973). LMX theory posits the leader-member relationship quality predicts outputs at both individual and

organizational levels (Gerstner & Day, 1997). The LMX theory has evolved through further analysis and additional researchers. For example, Graen & Uhl-Bien (1995) describe the changes to the focus of LMX theory over time (a) vertical dyad studies focused on in-groups and out-groups; (b) relational quality and outputs; (c) prescribing dyadic partnerships and their development; (d) moving outside dyads and into systems.

LMX has been heavily researched (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Initially, research focused on how followers relate with their supervisors and become in-group members (Graen et al., 1973). In-group members hold special influence with the leader while out-group members do not. If a follower holds only a hierarchical-based position with the leader they are part of the out-group. As LMX theory evolved to focus on relational quality and outputs, research reported strong leader-member relationships eliciting multiple positive outcomes including higher performance ratings (Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993) and more potent commitment to the organization (Nystrom, 1990). More modern LMX research focuses on *leadership making* which means leaders should strive to create positive relationships with all followers rather than a few (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

LMX theory has made positive contributions to the leadership field. It is relatively easy to understand, it is distinctive in that it is the only theory that centers on the dyadic leader-follower relationship, provides leaders important feedback on the importance of communication and relationship building across their enterprise, and has empirically demonstrated positive organizational outcomes (Northouse, 2010).

Scholars criticize LMX theory, however, on multiple fronts. It can be seen as unfair, not providing solutions for out-group followers and there is a lack of research on how fairness impacts leader and member exchanges (Scandura, 1999). Others contend that proclaimed LMX

organizational outcomes (i.e., lower turnover and higher performance) have been inconsistent across studies (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). After reviewing over 100 LMX studies, Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, and Yammarino (2001) conclude that LMX theory is not clearly articulated and contend that its root concepts need to be more fully developed.

**Transformational leadership theory.** The term *transformation leadership* was first cited by Downton (1973) in his book *Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in the Revolutionary Process*. Several years later, political sociologist, James McGregor Burns (1978) popularized transformational leadership and is generally regarded as the father of the theory. Burns (1978) described a transformational leader as “one who raises the followers’ level of consciousness about the importance and value of desired outcomes and the methods of reaching those outcomes” (p.141). Burns contrasts transformational with transactional leadership. Transactional leadership focuses on leader-follower exchanges, while transformational leadership happens when two or more individuals engage with others to increase everyone’s morality and motivation. In other words, transformational leadership connects leaders with followers to create value (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is compared to charismatic leadership, which is a theory based on a set of leader behaviors as perceived by their followers (Northouse, 2010). Charismatic leader behaviors elicit a set of follower beliefs and behaviors, including: leaders are more revered and trusted, leaders promote a collective identity, and leaders empower their followers (Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000). Alternatively, charismatic leadership has been considered an element of transformational leadership (Bass et al., 2009; Bryman, 2011).

Bass (1985) altered the transformational leadership construct by articulating four transformational leader qualities: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual

stimulation, and individualized consideration. Bass (2000) argued that all four elements must be present to realize organizational outcomes through follower behaviors. Transformational leadership prompts followers to supersede expectations by: (a) increasing the criticalness of specific goals, (b) seeking followers to rise above their personal interests for the teams' needs, and (c) encouraging followers to speak to higher-level needs (Bass, 1985).

Transformational leadership has been the most studied leadership topic in the last 30 years (Bryman, 2011). One reason for its popularity is its focus on leader affect and developing the potential of followers instead of focusing on leader-follower exchanges (Northouse, 2010). Another reason is the appealing nature of leaders that communicate a compelling vision, recognition of the importance of leader and follower relationships, the attention leaders pay attention to follower needs, and the empirical evidence that transformational leadership is effective (Burns, 1978).

Some scholars criticize transformational leadership as lacking clarity. Yukl (2010) finds this applied to Bass' leader construct and how it is not differentiated from other transformational leadership concepts. Northouse (2010) shares transformational leadership has a large number of characteristics that are not clearly delineated from each other and the sheer number of characteristics puts into question the parameters of the theory. Yukl (2010) also posits that some of Bass' constructs lack empirical evidence in being effective in groups. Transformational leadership is viewed by some as elitist because the theory may protrude an image of the leaders' independent behaviors and priorities and diminishes the important role of followers in organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

**Global leadership theory.** The global leadership (GL) field was conceived in the late 1980s and early 1990s (Osland, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2006) and it became a more

popular leadership theory towards the end of the 20th century with the advent of globalization as a business reality (Osland et al., 2006).

GL theory was developed, in part, because domestic leadership theories are built on societal norms and cannot be readily used across all cultures; what works in China does not always work in India, Canada, or another society (Morrison, 2000). GL theory is built on the idea that today's business environment is complex and leaders need to be able to manage geographical, cultural, and intellectual differences (Mendenhall, Osland, Bird, Oddou, & Maznevski, 2013). Also, GL theory has its roots in the intersection of business management and cross-cultural research (Mendenhall et al., 2013). Today, GL's intellectual roots are in multiple disciplines, including global management, intercultural communication, expatriation, and comparative leadership theory (Osland, 2008).

GL is not concerned with the efficacy of a particular leadership style or single cultural context (Adler, 1997). This theory holds that global leaders are most equipped to manage and lead in an environment that is more complex, interdependent, ambiguous, and in flux (De Cieri, 2005) where leaders can utilize a wider and deeper range of skills including perception, reasoning, and adjustment skills (Shin, Morgeson, & Campion, 2007). With these skills, global leaders are prepared to manage and lead in these complex and volatile environments (Lane, Maznevski, Mendenhall, & McNett, 2009).

One glaring problem with this concept is that there are no agreed-upon GL definitions (Adler, 1997). Adler (1997) describes GL as "the ability to inspire and influence the thinking, attitudes, and behavior of people from around the world" (p.174). Osland (2008), builds on Adler's GL definition by stating global leaders successfully manage in contexts that have significant task and relationship complexity.

There is also little agreement on how people develop global leadership competencies, yet models exist to help explain the process. The *Chattanooga Model* posits a global leader enters into GL opportunities with his or her traits, including a sense of calling and existing levels of GL competencies and self-efficacy (Mendenhall, Kühlmann, & Stahl, 2001). The GL opportunities in the Chattanooga Model include experiences, decisions, encounters, and challenges that vary in complexity, intensity, emotional affect, and relevance to the leader. The leader then reflects upon global leadership opportunities and makes new mental models that either increase or decrease functional levels of GL competencies. The Global Leadership Expertise Development Model (Osland et al., 2006) builds on the Chattanooga Model by further delineating and adding to the antecedents global leaders bring with them into a global leadership development opportunity. Antecedents include individual characteristics, cultural exposure, global education, and project novelty (Osland et al., 2006).

The other enhancement in the Global Leadership Expertise Development Model compared to the Chattanooga Model is the introduction of GL expertise areas, or categories, illustrating how GL development opportunities can increase over time. GL expertise areas are cognitive processes, global knowledge, intercultural competence, and global organizing expertise. A third GL process model is the *Global Leadership Development Competencies and Deficiencies Model* (Chin, Gu, & Tubbs, 2001). This model follows Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs development methodology in that global leadership skills grow over time and develop into new GL competency areas. The cognitive level is at the base of the pyramid, followed by the attitudinal and values level, and the behavioral level is at the top of the pyramid. The range of competencies starts with ignorance and move up the pyramid toward transformation (Chin et al., 2001).

The three GL competency development models described above all have a similar process. Global leaders enter into GL development opportunities with their experiences and traits. Then, mental models are created or are changed, which either increases or decreases their GL skill level(s). All three models espouse the importance of practicing active reflection to increase GL skills.

Limited research has been conducted on GL competency areas. Bird, Osland, and Lane (2004) and Osland (2008) grouped GL competencies into five categories: global knowledge, threshold traits, global mindset, interpersonal skills, and system skills. Mendenhall and Osland (2002) posit GL contains six competency categories: cross-cultural relationship skills, traits and values, cognitive orientation, global business expertise, global organizing expertise, and visioning.

There are three major criticisms of the GL framework. First, there is not enough clarity on what the global leadership theoretical construct is and how it is truly different among domestic leadership theories (Reiche, Bird, Mendenhall, & Osland, 2017). Second, underlying GL conceptualizations are amorphous and idiosyncratic (Reiche et al., 2017). Third, a lack of a shared conceptualization of GL amongst scholars hinders being able to draw meaningful conclusions from research (De Cieri, 2005).

**Servant leadership theory.** Robert Greenleaf (1977) formulated the concept of servant leadership based on his executive experience in the corporate sector. He believed that servant leaders start naturally with the desire to serve first followed by a conscious choice and desire to lead (Greenleaf, 1977). Greenleaf believed some people are naturally predisposed to being servant leaders and others can learn to become servant leaders (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010), and espoused the idea of leaders diminishing their egos, developing their followers into

leaders, and that leaders were not greater than those they lead (Greenleaf, 1977). The needs of the organization and those leaders lead are paramount. Greenleaf believed that when the leader is servant first, it promotes the empowerment of employees. Different than stewards, servant leaders are focused on the needs of those with less power, instead of balancing the needs across all stakeholder groups (Bass et al., 2009). Servant leaders focus on building community partially through developing trust, which helps bind the organization together to weather difficulties when they arise (McGee-Cooper & Looer, 2001).

Servant leadership has spiritual associations in both Eastern and Western religions and belief systems (Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002). It is most closely linked with Judeo-Christian values (Blanchard & Hodges, 2002). In accounts within the synoptic gospels, Jesus invited his followers to lead by serving others and seeking the betterment of others (Sandelands, 2008).

Former president and CEO of the Robert K. Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership, Larry Spears, scanned Greenleaf's works and theorized a set of servant leadership traits (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). The list of traits was not exhaustive, but represented an initial attempt at categorizing servant leadership traits from the array of Greenleaf publications. Servant leadership traits were viewed as (a) listening; (b) empathy; (c) awareness; (d) persuasion; (e) conceptualization; (f) foresight; (g) stewardship; (h) commitment to the growth of people; (i) building community, (j) healing (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010).

A number of other leadership researchers have carried Greenleaf's servant leadership theory forward by developing instruments to measure servant leadership. Sendjaya, Sarros, and Santora (2008) developed a 35-item survey instrument with six servant leadership dimensions (a) authentic self; (b) responsible morality; (c) transforming influence; (d) transcendental spirituality; (e) voluntary subordination; (f) covenantal relationship. Patterson (2003) articulated



seven servant leadership constructs, creating a servant leadership instrument consisting of 42 items called the *Servant Leadership Assessment Instrument* (SLAI). Research support was found for five of these (a) love; (b) empowerment; (c) vision; (d) trust; (e) humility. Barbuto and Wheeler (2006) developed a survey instrument that measured five servant leadership factors (a) emotional healing; (b) persuasive mapping; (c) wisdom; (d) organizational stewardship; and (e) altruistic calling.

Trompenaars and Voerman (2010) posit servant leadership as the leading management philosophy for global organizations. Servant leaders within organizations do not need to make choices between various or apparent conflicting values but rather can work to synthesize different values, ideas, and opinions. Trompenaars and Voerman (2010) believed that servant leaders are especially poised to bridge gaps in organizations as they represent a harmonious and integrated paradox as servant and leader. Servant leaders are needed in today's increasingly complex and global society as they can better cross-cultures compared to other types of leaders (Trompenaars & Voerman, 2010).

Goffee and Jones (2001) criticize servant leadership by asserting organizations with values similar to servant leadership do not align with goal-oriented work cultures because organizations should focus on external goals and not serving followers. Farling, Stone and Winston (1999) concur with this perspective, although they speculate the apparent mismatch between servant leadership and goal-oriented work cultures is based on a misunderstanding and lack of understanding of how servant leadership theory practically applies in the workplace. As an example, Frick (2004) declares a criticism of servant leadership in corporations partially due to the need for leaders to take immediate action instead of the servant leadership approach of building consensus. Servant leadership is also criticized for being based on pop literature and not

empirical research (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Sendjaya (2010) asserted that servant leadership theory and practice need to be further refined for today's global economy if it is to be useful for organizations. Alternatively, Ardichvili and Manderscheid (2008) argue that the servant leadership model has been well-represented within various organizational contexts. Eicher-att (2005) scraps servant leadership as being patriarchal and existing behind a wall of ambiguous religiosity which enables politically-motivated leaders to promote their agendas. She questions whether there is any genuine applicability of servant leadership theory to organizational or management settings.

**Similarities between servant leadership and other leadership theories.** Servant leadership theory shares similarities with other leadership theories. For example, Spain (2014) compared trait and servant leadership characteristics and found 10 servant leadership characteristics in common with trait leadership characteristics. Both trait leadership and servant leadership focus on personal, intellectual, sociological, and end-result characteristics although demographic and geographical characteristics found in trait leadership are not found in servant leadership (Spain, 2014).

From the 1980s through the 1990s, servant leadership was considered a form of transformational leadership theory (Farling et al., 1999; Warren, 1999). Farling et al., (1999) view servant leadership as sharing similar traits with transformational leadership, including: trust, vision, influence, and credibility. Graham (1991) posits servant leadership shares similarities with charismatic leadership though servant leadership differs from transformational and charismatic leadership in that servant leadership focuses on the importance of the leader's building of moral values. Situational leadership's approach is similar to servant leadership theory in that it introduces the importance of considering the needs of followers in order for the leader

and organization to be most effective (Frick, 2004; Northouse, 2010). Fiedler's contingency leadership model instills the importance of followers' trust in their leader as servant leadership does. Greenleaf (1977) pointed out that trust in a leader is built when leaders are attentive to follower needs as well as the needs of the organization.

Patterson, Dannhauser, and Stone (2007) and Trompenaars and Voerman (2010) attribute servant leadership to effective global leadership. Globalization has increased the pace and complexity of change. As a result, global organizations require leaders who respect and seek to join competing priorities as well as respect employees throughout the organization regardless of their positional authority (Patterson, Dannhauser, & Stone, 2007).

Magner (2012) studied 400 leaders and found a close relationship between global and servant leadership models and their constructs. Sendjaya (2010) cautions servant leadership enthusiasts who work in global organizations by pointing out there has been no empirical research that links global leadership traits.

**Servant leadership across cultures.** Servant leadership has been described as an American theoretical concept and practice (House & Aditya, 1997). However, there have been a handful of books and journal articles on non-Western servant leadership. Ngunjiri (2010) provides evidence that servant leadership is not antithetical to the African worldview, asserts that capitalism, individualism, and competition are to blame for the culture clash between the West and Africa, and opines that the servant leadership model most closely aligns with traditional African sensibilities.

The connection between servant leadership and gender across cultures has been studied. Magner (2012) researched the attributional relationship between global and servant leadership and found that female leaders across the world reported higher servant leadership scores compared to

males. Molnar's (2007) cross-cultural servant leadership research across 23 countries indicates that societal norms by region dictate the applicability of servant leadership. As an example, Ngunjiri (2010) states Greenleaf's (1977) promotion of the *growth of people* is a concept that African female leaders naturally see as their role which make them potentially natural servant leaders, "...women's leadership derives from their socialization as nurturers, sustainers, and life givers, and the cultural mandate to serve the community, resulting in experiences that might cause women to become servant leaders" (p.173).

### **Learner Profile**

In Chapter 1, the poverty and development factors that LDP participants operate were discussed. This section provides contextual data on African leadership, leadership learning methodologies, and collegiate leadership development research.

**African leadership.** Most African leadership literature focuses on how Westerners can operate within an African work environment (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). The literature on African leaders and leadership models is quite limited.

Hofstede (1980) studied interpersonal differences by culture through the *Cultural Dimensions Theory*. The original study contained four dimensions with continuums in order for cultural values to be understood, compared, and contrasted. These dimensions included individualism-collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance, and task-person orientation. Hofstede later added two additional dimensions: long-term orientation (Hofstede, 2011) and indulgence-self-restraint (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Sub-Saharan Africans reported higher *power distance* and *indulgence* scores and lower *long-term orientation* scores compared to other countries and regions. One conclusion from Hofstede's work is that leadership traits are culturally-bound (Chhokar, Brodbeck, House, & Program., 2007; Hofstede, 1980).

The GLOBE research study (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004) studied cross-cultural leadership by analyzing responses from 17,000 middle managers in 62 national cultures. This ground-breaking research that spanned ten years attempted to theorize, test, and validate an integrated theory between culture and social, organizational, and leadership effectiveness (House et al., 2004). The GLOBE study only dedicated one page to cover Sub-Saharan Africa and provided limited findings. Sub-Saharan African countries reflected high scores compared to other societies in *in-group collectivism*, power distance, and *organizational/familial loyalty*. Higher organizational/familial and in-group collectivism values are consistent with other research that shows high levels of *traditionalism*, which is the observance to recognized customs, principles, and practices which establish accepted behavior (Nzelibe, 1986). Sub-Saharan Africans scored lower on *gender equity* which is somewhat at odds with Lindquist and Adolph's (1996) research, which indicated African societies are egalitarian within age groups. Sub-Saharan African countries reported higher *humane orientation* scores compared to other countries. Leadership indicators from the GLOBE study illustrated Sub-Saharan Africans have a preference for charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, and participative leadership approaches.

Blunt and Jones (1997) postulate that the void that colonial powers left in Africa has been refilled mostly with Western culture and ideologies. This is, in part, due to Western organizations importing Western personnel and concepts into African workplaces, which created a leadership quandary for African personnel (Nzelibe, 1986). A number of African management issues within global or multinational organizations are a result of a lack of properly integrating Western and African management thinking (Nzelibe, 1986).

While no single leadership style was seen to be able to accommodate the vast amount of national or tribal cultures, there are some conclusions about African leadership and how it is similar and dissimilar to Western models and practices. Blunt and Jones (1997) admit the prescriptiveness of Western management and leadership theories cannot be applied directly and uncritically in the region because it must take into account national and organizational culture (Blunt, 1995; Mazrui, 1994). They further point out that modern Western leadership theories and rhetoric place a higher value on teamwork, performance, and listening, and learning. Africans value interpersonal relationships over individual achievements and are more concerned with authority figures (Blunt & Jones, 1997). While the West is seen as self-reliant and self-interested, Africans prefer to connect with values of ethnicity and group loyalty (Dia, 1994; Nzelibe, 1986) and consensus-building (Cosway & Anankum, 1996). Furthermore, they contend that Western leadership management theories operate on a more Darwinian theme of survival of the fittest, while African leadership tends to be more tolerant of human feebleness (Blunt & Jones, 1997). African leadership settings place more importance on honoring tribal and ethnic groups while not openly denying out-group ethnic or tribal groups (Nzelibe, 1986).

Several studies provide clues about African leadership preferences. African organizations reported they preferred leaders that provided clear organizational objectives while providing a supportive environment (Jones, Blunt, & Sharma, 1996). Africans prefer leaders that are authoritative rather than authoritarian, meaning they hold legitimate power though only use it in rare occasions, exercising leadership in a humane manner (Nzelibe, 1986). This use of power signals that African leaders prefer stability and administrative order, although Nzelibe (1986) believes that African leaders do not prioritize future-oriented goals; such as developing a long-term vision and strategy, attaining organizational buy-in, communicating a brand-directed

mission, inspiring individuals to work towards the common good, and developing and keeping to an organizational mission. There is a strong power-distance between leaders and followers in African workplaces which suggests that African supervisees focus their efforts more towards high-quality relationships with their bosses rather than organizational performance (Blunt & Jones, 1997). One potential reason for the follower's focus on a stable relationship with their boss in an African context could be due to political instability and other insecurities within a developing country context (Blunt & Jones, 1997) which drives organizational leaders towards order and stability (Brown, 1989).

Jackson (2004) researched African leadership attributes in multiple studies through local African partnerships and organizations and concluded African leaders are highly talented and skilled managers especially in the areas of managing cultural diversity, multiple interests and stakeholders, and other humanistic leadership tasks. In addition, Jackson (2004) posited Africans valuing such leadership attributes as sharing, acquiescing to leadership, commitment, the importance of consensus-building, and to keep positive relations throughout the enterprise.

Bolden and Kirk (2009) conducted mixed-method research on the impact of a transformational leadership program for 300 participants in nearly 20 Sub-Saharan countries. Leadership content was delivered over 10-days within a six-to-nine month time span. They found that Sub-Saharan African participants believe leadership is available to anyone, starts with self-awareness, is relational, and serves the community (Bolden & Kirk, 2009). They also reported that Sub-Saharan Africans aspire towards humanistic leadership models that reflect African values, instead of Western values. However, there is no single leadership theory or model that best describes an African cultural paradigm, and having one would further establish African leadership theories and models (Bolden & Kirk, 2009).

Owusu, Kalipeni, Awortwi, and Kiiru (2017) investigated the meaning of leadership research in an African cultural context, the current capabilities of African institutions to conduct leadership research, and how to further develop African leadership research. Survey participants preferred leaders who display relationship-oriented, democratic, and people-oriented leadership styles. These leadership styles are in-line with the African concept of *Ubuntu* which means showing compassion and humaneness to others as opposed to more command and control leadership styles (Owusu et al., 2017). Research participants attributed the lack of female African leadership researchers to the cultural factors in African societies including a lack of educational opportunities for women. Respondents reported they mostly learned leadership skills through experiential learning and informal mentoring as opposed to formal learning opportunities (Owusu et al., 2017).

April and April (2007) analyzed a graduate leadership program in South Africa. The growth stage method was partially birthed from Cashman's (2017) belief that the failure of leadership development programming is partly due to the lack of focus on developing the person in order to grow the leader. This graduate student leadership program enhanced leadership abilities in three successive stages (a) personal leadership; (b) intra-personal leadership; (c) interpersonal leadership. Through a global lens, the growth stage method starts to move leaders through stages of immature independence where learners develop self-leadership, to independence, to finally intra-dependence where learners develop team, organizational, and finally societal leadership. April and April (2007) conclude that given the continually changing global business environment, traditional Sub-Saharan business school offerings are lacking attention to developing the leader through the development of the whole person. Another



conclusion was that immersive and social leadership learning for peer-to-peer learning is more effective than distance learning or asynchronous learning (April & April, 2007).

**Andragogical theory.** Andragogical theory is essentially adult learning theory.

Andragogy was first coined by Alexander Kapp but later was detailed into a formal learning theory by Malcom Knowles (Knowles, 1984). Knowles conceptualized adult learning differently than pedagogy. Pedagogy is a content model that focuses on presenting information to learners (Wilson, 2012). Andragogy is a process model where the teacher is seen as a facilitator of learning who provides the learner with skills and means to obtain information (Knowles, 1984).

Knowles developed six assumptions about adult learner characteristics (Knowles, 1984). First is that adult learners' self-concept moves from being dependent to self-directed. Second, adult learners use their experience as a resource for learning. Third, readiness is determined by the developmental tasks of social roles. Fourth, adult learners want to immediately apply learning. Fifth, adult learners need to know the reason for learning. Finally, adult learners are self-motivated (Knowles, 1995).

Knowles also developed andragogical design elements (Mento, Jones, & Dirndorfer, 2002). The first is climate setting. Second is the involvement of learners in mutual planning and third is getting learners involved in diagnosing their own learning needs. Fourth involves learners in creating their learning objectives, followed by involving learners in designing learning plans, and assisting them in carrying out their learning plans. The final aspect involves learners involved in their own evaluation process (Mento et al., 2002).

Knowles' andragogical theories are not without their challenges. He eventually changed his position on andragogy being relevant only to adults and instead stated pedagogy and andragogy are on a continuum from teacher-focused to student-focused and both are relevant for

children and adults (Merriam, 2001). Furthermore, adults are not always self-directed and know what they want to learn (Merriam, 2001).

**Leadership learning methodologies.** Leadership research illustrates two types of learning methodologies (Bass & Stogdill, 1990). The first methodology is training that is implemented in a short timeframe and often facilitated by a professional learning and development professional. The second methodology is systematic in that training is strategically coupled with a leadership model similar to Kouzes and Posner's (1987) five-part leadership development framework. Both implementation methodologies are valuable to increase leadership skills (Bass & Stogdill, 1990).

According to Bennis and Goldsmith (1997), leaders learn leadership in multiple ways including modeling respected leaders, implementing an idea and trying to do it, seeing a problem as an experiential opportunity, and seeking a best way forward through observing, experimenting, or via another type of systematic thinking. According to Bass, Bass, and Bass (2009) the following impact training outcomes: trainer qualities, participant group dynamics, reinforcement, and the level of congeniality in the environment the participant returns to.

Participants are more motivated to learn knowledge, abilities, and skills from a training opportunity if they know that their work performance will improve (Bass et al., 2009). In one research study, participants were significantly more motivated to learn about leadership if they could see the interrelatedness of leadership concepts to their work, are confident in their ability to apply learned abilities, and believe the new abilities would help manage job demands (Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

Lombardo and Eichinger (1996) introduced a theoretical leadership learning model called the 70:20:10 Model for Learning and Development. They surveyed nearly 200 executives to self-

report how they best learned leadership. Results from the survey indicated (a) 70% of leadership learning was in the form of challenging assignments or on-the-job experiences where they are working on tasks or problems; (b) 20% of leadership learning was derived from developmental relationships; (c) 10% learned leadership through formal coursework or training including personal reading. Some argue that informal learning, constituting both developmental relationships and challenging assignments or on-the-job experiences, would indicate 90% of learning is informal and that only 10% is formal (Rabin, 2014). Other researchers see informal learning as just on-the-job experiences and challenging assignments (Bruce, Aring, & Brand, 1997). The idea of informal learning, or experiential learning, being the predominant form of leadership learning has been confirmed by other researchers (Bruce et al., 1997; Burgoyne & Hodgson, 1983; Downing, 2020; and Zemke, 1985). The 70:20:10 Model of Learning has been used as a theoretical model extensively by the Center for Creative Leadership (Rabin, 2014) and Fortune 500 companies (Bruce et al., 1997).

**Leadership development in higher education.** Leadership development programming for students in higher education is ubiquitous (Posner, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). The exact number of leadership programs on higher education campuses is not known, but researchers have noted there are between 800 (Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, & Burkhardt, 2001) and 1,000 (Riggio, Ciulla, & Sorenson, 2003) leadership programs in the United States. King (1997) states, “Helping students develop the integrity and strength of character that prepare them for leadership may be one of the most challenging and important goals of higher education” (p. 87). Besides King, several researchers agree on the importance of higher education institutions in developing leadership development capacity in the emerging workforce (Astin, 1993; Bass et al., 2009; Morse, 1989).

Research indicates students do raise their leadership skills during college years (Collier & Rosch, 2016; Pascarella & Terenzini, 2005). Leadership development programming during college has been shown to increase character development, academic performance, self-efficacy (Benson & Saito, 2001), positivity and resiliency (Hilliard, 2010), and is seen to make a lasting impact (Posner, 2009).

Leadership programs for college students utilize different approaches. These approaches include course credit-oriented programs within leadership majors or minors, co-curricular, or extracurricular activities (Posner, 2012). According to Astin and Astin (2000) leadership development programming has its roots in higher education academic as well as student affairs structures. They believe that the most important process element across any type of leadership development approach is fostering change, because leadership implies a process that is in motion. Further, utilizing the strengths of a blended academic affairs and student affairs approach to leadership development, several positive outcomes are realized including more fully leveraging expertise and improved student learning outcomes (Downing, 2020).

Models for college student leadership development are mostly derived from researchers studying managers in private and public sectors (Posner, 2012). Research indicates students that practice leadership behaviors most frequently are seen by others as more often exhibiting leadership behaviors (Posner, 2012). Traditionally, the process of leadership development has been for participants first to understand leadership development theories and concepts and then implement them into simulations or real situations (Morrison, Rha, & Helfman, 2003). In this view, college students could more effectively learn leadership by first engaging in an activity and subsequently learning the relevant concepts and theories (Morrison et al., 2003) or by reflecting on their beliefs about their leadership abilities and leadership experiences (Posner, 2012).

Research illustrates the most successful leadership programs have a well-articulated theoretical framework and strongly align with a set of values or to the mission of the institution (Rosch, Spencer, & Hoag, 2017; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999), provide learners with a specific set of leadership skills, a framework showing how students can gain skills across campus, and incorporate leadership learning in both formative and summative formats (Rosch et al., 2017).

Eich's (2007) research findings point to college student leadership programming being most potent when students learn in an environment involving three *Clusters*. Cluster I represents students developing and engaging with a learning community. Cluster II represents experiential learning opportunities, where students practice and reflect on leadership. Cluster III grounds research into participants by taking into account student interests and by implementing suggestions from participants regularly.

Over the last 25 years, collegiate leadership program development and analyses are more evident in the literature. Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt (1999) analyzed 22 college leadership programs in the United States through an action research strategy. Findings included that not only do leadership program developers and implementers see their programs as successful, but participants reported both short and long-term benefits from leadership programming that included better individual leadership abilities and organizational improvements (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999, p.64).

Posner (2004) discusses how a leadership development instrument applicable to college students was created by interviewing students about their personal-best leadership behaviors and reflecting the language and non-hierarchical nature of students' leadership experiences. Multiple empirical tests have been conducted illustrating that their instrument is both valid and reliable in

measuring specific student leadership behaviors.

A longitudinal study conducted by Cress, Astin, Zimmerman-Oster, and Burkhardt (2001) analyzed the impact of leadership programming on students' personal and educational development at 10 higher education institutions. Data were collected during freshmen and senior years and analysis determined that participants increased leadership skills and a desire to serve in leadership roles. Polleys (2001) described a deficiency of leadership offerings at Columbus State University. As a result, the institution implemented a servant leadership program and measured its effectiveness through quantitative and qualitative methods. A pre and post-test in students' freshmen year revealed positive increases in all leadership behaviors (Polleys, 2001).

Dugan and Komives (2007) engaged in college student leadership research by analyzing responses from over 50,000 U.S. college students regarding their leadership development experiences. Four significant trends that led to the formalization of collegiate student leadership programs were the further development of curricular and co-curricular leadership programs, more honed conceptual and theoretical college leadership models, deeper professionalization in college leadership education, and the proliferation of leadership research (Dugan & Komives, 2007). There were several additional findings from their study. For example, pre-collegiate experiences and pre-college leadership measures largely predicted variances in college leadership measures. African American students scored higher in social responsibility scores than any other group, and Asian Americans scored the lowest. Marginalized students (ethnic, sexual orientation, and first-generation) were more open to managing change compared to other student groups. Students' collegiate experiences accounted for approximately 10% of the variance in leadership outcomes. A number of factors greatly contributed to leadership behaviors; such as mentoring, campus involvement, and service learning. Institutional leadership

positions and formal leadership programs had positive impacts on students' leadership efficacy.

Haber (2011) created a Formal Leadership Program Model to design and institute relevant and integrated leadership programs. This model contains three dimensions: structures, strategies, and students. The students' dimension focused on who the program served. The structures' dimension focused on the components and resources of the program. The strategies' dimension targeted how participants engaged (developed leadership capacity) in the program. The model was created as a guide to conceptualize leadership programs and to promote more integrated and potent leadership programming. Haber (2011) felt it was important that college student leadership practitioners adapt to changing campus and student needs, advances in leadership theory and application, and be open to new opportunities.

### **Themes from the Literature**

Several themes from the literature emerged. One theme is theories give birth to new theories and some theories are built upon or are extensions of existing theories. Two examples are psychological and methodological behaviorism. Both psychological and methodological behaviorism were utilized within the field of psychology and are based on behavioristic theory, though each theory has distinct elements that make them unique. Another example is constructivism, as it is considered a contemporary division of cognitivism. Other theories are created in direct opposition to the current zeitgeist. An example is the birth of cognitivism which grew in direct opposition to the idea of behaviorism.

There are specific themes also emerging within the leadership and learning literature. Learning theory literature conveyed that over time theories have become less mechanical (i.e., behaviorism) and more complex and ambiguous (i.e., constructivism) which reflects researchers' acknowledgement of the greater complexity and depth of human learning research. The

leadership literature reveals that until the 1940s most leadership theories centered on a leader's traits and their abilities. Through the late 1960s styles of leadership became prominent.

Leadership theories in the 1970s and early 1980s were dominated by the interplay of followers, leaders, and situations. Transformational and similar inspirational leadership theories emerged in the 1980s, were popularized in the 1990s, and were predominant in the literature through the beginning of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. From a leadership learning lens, leadership learning is maximized when learners are involved throughout their learning process (Dugan & Komives, 2007; Eich, 2007; Knowles, 1995). Lastly, experiential learning is the most vital type of leadership training available (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Lombardo & Eichinger, 1996).

Although the literature is limited, there are several Sub-Saharan African leadership themes. Sub-Saharan African citizens are pushing against colonial and post-colonial mindsets and beliefs towards developing a distinctly African system of values (Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Ntibagirirwa, 2003). The push towards developing African systems is evident in the workplace and in other sectors of African society (Jackson, 2004; Ntibagirirwa, 2003). Some of the common African leadership values and preferences are:

- Greater power distance between leaders and followers (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Jackson, 2004)
- Short-term orientation (Hofstede, 1980; Nzelibe, 1986)
- Collectivism and group loyalty (Dia, 1994; House et al., 2004; Nzelibe, 1986)
- Interpersonally-focused rather than internally-focused (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Jackson, 2004; Owusu et al., 2017)
- Consensus building (Cosway & Anankum, 1996; Jackson, 2004)



- Humane orientation (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Linqvist & Adolph, 2016; Nzelibe, 1986; Owusu et al., 2017)

Servant leadership theory is most closely linked to African leadership values because both value consensus building and the importance of representing and supporting underrepresented people and groups. Servant leadership is different, however from African leadership in that it espouses low power distances between leaders and followers while the latter values high power distance between leaders and followers.

Within the last 30 years, college student leadership programs and research in the West have greatly increased. Comparatively, only a handful of leadership programs for young adults and college students exist in Sub-Saharan Africa.

### **Gaps and Inconsistencies in the Literature**

Both leadership and learning research fields are dominated by Western theorists. As an example, Sendjaya (2010) observes a lack of servant leadership research in non-Western settings. The scarcity of African leadership research is a considerable concern given the increasing importance of Africa in global business and politics. The existing literature on African leadership points to certain Sub-Saharan African leadership values. There are few peer-reviewed leadership journal articles written by Africans for Africans on leadership theory and practice.

Researchers are not aligned on how to organize and describe learning and leadership theories. Servant leadership was seen as a form of transformational leadership theory (Farling et al., 1999; Warren, 1999), though Graham (1991) and Northouse (2010) state servant leadership is an element within ethical leadership theory. Servant leadership theory has also been considered a part of trait and charismatic leadership theories in the literature. Some research points to charismatic leadership theory being synonymous with transformational leadership

theory while other scholars consider charismatic leadership as a sub-element of transformational leadership. The field of cognitivism is seen by some as the same as social cognitivism, and by others as distinct fields.

### **Chapter Summary**

The fields of learning and leadership research yielded valuable insights into the leadership learning process from ample collegiate and corporate leadership research. Leadership theory, learning theory, and learner profile sections all revealed a dearth of leadership research from non-Western contexts. There is a significant need to produce leadership research for and within developing world contexts. This lack of research includes a lack of literature on effective leadership development theories, strategies, and practices for Sub-Saharan Africans and studies examining the efficacy of leadership programming in this region.

Chapter 2 has provided the conceptual lens to explore the development of leaders in Sub-Saharan African countries by illuminating key learning, leadership, and educational program evaluative frameworks. The literature review also provided a context for the learner which included African leadership, andragogical theory, leadership learning methodologies, and leadership development within a higher education student context. This literature review provided a structure for the stated research purpose and scope of inquiry by elucidating prior research on the topic and connecting the study to the existing literature.

## **Chapter 3: Research Methodology**

### **Chapter Overview**

In this chapter, the researcher will explain the methodology for conducting this quantitative case study research. This chapter will first discuss the research design followed by discussing the setting and sample. Next, the researcher will discuss human subject considerations. Then, the instrumentation used in this study will be explained as well as how the data will be collected, managed, and analyzed. The chapter will conclude with a summary.

### **Introduction**

Presently, the failures of local Sub-Saharan governments, international non-governmental organizations (INGOs), and other organizations in Sub-Saharan Africa, point to the need for different solutions to eradicate poverty and bring greater prosperity to the region. Leaders are a critical element in the work of community and nation building (Ncube, 2010). Poor leadership leads to corruption, poor management of infrastructure, and a population's lack of trust in their leaders (Gaeta & Vasilara, 1998; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015). Therefore, developing competent and trustworthy leaders cultivated within developing countries is an important element within a larger human capital development strategy (Egharevba, Iruonagbe, Azuh, Chiazor, & Suleiman, 2016; United Nations, 2010). There is scant literature on leader development in the Sub-Saharan Africa region. Therefore, an opportunity exists to explore the topic of effective leader development methods within a Sub-Saharan African context by evaluating LDP participant experiences. Specifically, an evaluation of the experiences of Kenyans and Ugandans that formerly participated in the same multi-year servant leadership-based program operated by a large Christian non-profit organization and the impact it has made in their lives. This research

will add to the very limited literature on leadership development in a Sub-Saharan African context and to issues related broadly to student leadership development.

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions.

The central research question guiding this study is: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

### **Research Design**

The following research design was chosen for this research represented in Figure 2 using a framework Jago (2020) created to elucidate research conceptual and theoretical frameworks.

<b>Goal</b>	<i>To explore perceptions of a leadership program</i>
<b>Approach</b>	<i>Quantitative</i>
<b>Worldview</b>	<i>Pragmatist and Postpositivist</i>
<b>Methodology</b>	<i>Case Study</i>
<b>Methods</b>	<i>Survey research with descriptive statistics</i>
<b>Tools</b>	<i>Online survey instrument</i>

*Figure 2.* Conceptual framework for theoretical frameworks.

The most fundamental level of social science research is the philosophical standpoint which is also termed as a worldview (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Worldviews guide the researcher and shape the methodology of a study. The researcher embodies two worldviews: pragmatism and postpositivism.

**Positivism.** In order to understand postpositivism, it is important to first recognize and define positivism. The two foundational social research epistemologies are rationalism and empiricism. Empiricism is a philosophical doctrine that opines all knowledge is derived from sensory and intellectual reflective experiences (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Rationalism is a philosophical doctrine that posits truth cannot be explored through sensory experiences but through intellectual analysis (Markie, 2012). Positivism is a form of empiricism (Phillips & Burbules, 2000) that assumes the only form of valid knowledge is scientific in nature (Larrain, 1980; Lee, 1991).

Positivist researchers study the world objectively and assume predictability and stability (Sharp et al., 2011). Positivist research examines social and physical phenomena to describe and categorize behavior (Sharp et al., 2011). Notable positivists are August Comte, Henri de Saint-Simon, Pierre-Simon Laplace, and Emile Durkheim (Paquette, Beauregard, & Gunter, 2017). Positivists greatly contributed to the sciences though positivism is criticized for its reductionist tendencies that restrict the process of gaining knowledge through only observing physical, chemical, or physiological events (Bullock, Trombley, & Lawrie, 2000).

**Postpositivism.** Postpositivists, like positivists, study phenomenon using the scientific method which starts with a theory, then a collection and analyzation of data that either refutes or supports the theory, and finally revisions are made and subsequent tests conducted (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Unlike positivists, postpositivists validate the idea that theories, the background, and hypotheses of the researcher can impact the research endeavor (Robson & McCartan, 2016). This amendment to positivistic philosophy pronounces knowledge is not on a totally secure foundation (Phillips & Burbules, 2000). Postpositivists believe it is not possible to claim full knowledge when studying human behavior which challenges the postpositivist idea of

absolute truth of knowledge (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Postpositivists carefully analyze the objective reality around them often by using numeric values of observation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Well known postpositivists are Karl Popper, Roy Bhaskar, Stephen Toulmin, Thomas Kuhn, Imre Lakatos, and Paul Feyerabend (Howell, 2013).

Karl Popper was a 20<sup>th</sup> century British professor and philosopher who is regarded as one of the most influential philosophers of his time (Agassi, 2011). Popper believed immutable scientific laws led to stagnation in positivism and that positivism should be open to criticism (Howell, 2013). Howell (2013) discusses the idea of Popper's falsification in this way:

“The methodology for the post-positivist position is about falsifying standing scientific laws and the ontology concerned with criticizing existing reality. If a single case exists that refutes a given law then as long as the case is reported correctly a scientific law is refuted. However, the reported case may have been reported incorrectly so we can always doubt the evidence... In such a way all falsifiable evidence could be rejected” (p.13).

Karl Popper's falsification research method provided a solution to the issue of immutable laws and completely rational underpinnings by encouraging scientists to seek out to disprove theories through testing (Howell, 2013).

Thomas Kuhn was an American contemporary of Popper's and also regarded as one of the most important philosophers of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (Bird, 2004). Kuhn argued that scientists in a specific era are guided by, and adhere to, paradigms which are puzzles to solve for and tools to utilize (Agassi, 2011). Concerns arise when a puzzle is not solved for through the existing paradigm termed an *anomaly*, which may develop into a scientific breakthrough that supersedes the current paradigm (Bird, 2004). Kuhn also coined the term *incommensurable*, which means

science guided under two different paradigms could not be compared to one another due to a lack of a common measure (Bird, 2004).

Postpositivism offered a modernist approach to the development of knowledge by debunking the idea that there is no clear and definite separation between the researcher and the investigated (Howell, 2013). Postpositivism provided greater scope for scientific inquiry as it posited the future is not pre-determined and is open to future possibilities (Blackburn, 2008).

**Pragmatism.** Though there are different versions of the pragmatist worldview based on their emphasis and interpretation, pragmatism has its roots in a group of scientists that were in direct opposition to empiricism and positivism (Cherryholmes, 1992). Pragmatism: “Arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions (as in post-positivism)” (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p.10). Pragmatists are interested in the best application of inquiry and the best solutions to problems (Garrison, 1994).

Pragmatism is not only interested in solving a problem as it also highlights the importance of the experience and the significance of pursuing truth (Morgan, 2014). Pragmatists view research holistically and that research is undertaken within social and historical contexts (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Pragmatists do not rely on one philosophical worldview and as a result, the pragmatist worldview is often used in mixed-method research as it values both quantitative and qualitative methods of inquiry (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Morgan (2014) argues that, “pragmatism can serve as a philosophical program for social research, regardless of whether that research uses qualitative, quantitative or mixed-methods” (p.1045). Pragmatism is linked with scientific realism as they both share similar views on the world and science (Cherryholmes, 1992).

Ralston (2011) goes on to say there is extensive disagreement among philosophers and

other scholars on how to define or categorize pragmatism though one can see three distinct usages of the term. The first is *generic pragmatism* which is a more of naïve or vulgar usage of the term- meaning what is efficient and useful. A second way of classifying pragmatism is *Paleo-pragmatism* or *classic pragmatism*. This brand of pragmatism is a more sophisticated method in thinking about knowledge and existence. Some notable classic-pragmatists are Charles Sanders Peirce, John Dewey, and George Herbert Mead. Classical pragmatists believed in the importance of a person's experience throughout the research process rather than taking an initial posture or system of belief at the beginning of research inquiry (Ralston, 2011). Classical pragmatists believe the human experience is not a spectator phenomenon (Diggins, 1994), but is instead a set of engagements between the individual and their environment where the individual grows and adapts to the environment (Ralston, 2011). Dewey oriented philosophy away from abstract thinking and instead believed philosophy rested on two connected questions (Morgan, 2014). The first question is related to the sources of belief(s) and the second is related to the meaning that is derived from our actions. Thus, experiences create meaning for humans by conjoining beliefs and actions (Morgan, 2014).

A third type of pragmatism is *neo-pragmatism*. Examples of contemporary neo-pragmatists are Cornell West, Richard Rorty and Hilary Putnam. Where the classical pragmatists believed the scientific method was the best way to understand the world, neo-pragmatists believe philosophy aims to not establish truth but a way to critically understand culture (Rorty, 1982). Rorty (1982) believed that theological, philosophical, theoretical, and other research methods were valid for self-realization.

A classical pragmatist epistemology was chosen to best suit the research inquiry versus a positivist worldview. The researcher followed Dewey's concept of inquiry as the basis for



research. According to Dewey, the approach to inquiry does not include a clear distinction between research and everyday life (Morgan, 2014). Rather, the pragmatist form of inquiry is performed carefully and more self-conscious compared to other inquiry methods (Morgan, 2014). Dewey's approach to inquiry consisted of five steps, as summarized by Morgan (2014):

1. Recognizing situation as being problematic
2. Accounting for the difference it makes to define the problem one way rather than another
3. Creating a potential line of action as a response to the issue
4. Considering possible actions in terms of their likely consequences
5. Acting in a way that will most likely address the situation

Considering the researcher's worldview and the following factors, a non-experimental quantitative survey design with open-ended follow-up questions was chosen. First, there is no literature on the relevance of servant leadership training for East African college students that are presently in the workforce. Second, there is a dearth of research on the impact of a multi-year leadership training program for East Africans emerging from a poverty-context. Lastly, the sample is disbursed. This non-experimental research uses a questionnaire as a means for data collection to measure the attitudes and opinions with and intent to generalize findings to the population (Fowler, 2009).

The chosen methodology for this study is a case study. Reed and Harvey (1992) state case research can be seen as a conjoining of critical realism and complexity theory and state case research is fundamental to social science research and understanding. Cases can be defined as complicated systems that should be studied on aspects of the case, the whole of the case, and

how the aspects of the case interact with other parts and with the whole (Byrne & Ragin, 2009). Further, case research can be either quantitative or qualitative (Byrne & Ragin, 2009).

The LDP described in this research is a single leadership program that operated with the same outcomes, leadership topics, and program delivery methods in Uganda and Kenya from program inception to the time the program ended. The program, in its entirety, was a holistic human development program which incorporated leadership training. This research will explore participant perceptions of the leadership development program as well as the impact the training has made in their lives.

### **Setting and Sample**

This research centers around Kenyan and Ugandan college-aged students that took part in a multi-year Christian-based and servant leadership-based program. The LDP was implemented by a large Christian non-profit organization who managed operations across the world including in Kenya and Uganda.

The LDP launched in Uganda in 1999 and in Kenya in 2001. The LDP stopped enrolling new participants globally in 2014. The number of participants were selected annually based on the dollar amount fundraising departments determined they could raise. A single cohort in Kenya and Uganda ranged between 30 and 120 based on the number of eligible participants and the performance of former students in those countries.

The population for this study was stratified by including only Kenyan and Ugandan participants and the total number of these is unknown. Leadership program staff members estimate a total of 450 Kenyan and 900 Ugandan participants to date. Participants completed the leadership program in Uganda as early as 2002 and in Kenya as early as 2001. The last year LDP students completed the program in Kenya and Uganda was 2018. This dissertation utilized a

single-stage sampling design because the researcher had already received a list of email addresses from the population for professional purposes (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A convenience sample was selected due to there not being a central repository that contains contact information of all former participants.

Table 1 presents a list of the individual survey-based demographic variables that were utilized in this research. Respondents had the option to answer all demographic questions except for whether or not respondents completed the LDP.

Table 1

*Summary of Individual Survey-Based Demographic Variables.*

Variable	Type	Scale	Definition
Gender	Variable	Nominal	Male=1, Female=2
Highest Level of Education Achieved	Variable	Nominal	1= bachelor's degree, 2=graduate degree
Nationality	Variable	Nominal	Kenyan=1, Ugandan=2
Did you complete the LDP?	Variable	Nominal	Yes=1, No=2
What year did you complete the LDP?	Variable	Ratio	Actual year
Current marital status	Variable	Nominal	Single=1, Married=2
Number of children you have	Variable	Ratio	Actual number of children
What is your current employment status?	Variable	Nominal	Work in a non-profit or church setting=1, Work in a business setting=2, Work in a government setting=3, Not employed but able to work=4 , Stay at home parent=5, Full time student=6, Military=7, Retired=8, Unable to Work=9
How many people do you supervise at work?	Variable	Ratio	Actual number of supervisees

## **Human Subject Considerations**

It is crucial for all research participants to be treated in a highly ethical and caring manner. As a result, all human subjects will be protected throughout the study. All research was conducted consistent with the standards and recommendations of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) at Pepperdine University. The IRB application was completed and submitted to the IRB office at the Graduate School of Education and Psychology at Pepperdine University. The IRB approval letter is in Appendix C. The Informed Consent Form is in Appendix D.

The sample consisted of strictly adult volunteers. Risks for participants was minimal for this research though it was important to take measures to reduce risk. One element for assuring safety is giving participants from the shared leadership experience the choice to participate in this research. One form of risk is a psychological distraction from other duties while they take the survey. The researcher will help mitigate against the distraction from other duties by sending the survey to LDP cohort leaders to pass onto LDP participants outside of traditional work hours. The researcher first approached the large Christian non-profit organization that implemented the LDP. A spokesperson from the Christian non-profit organization stated that program participants were of age and no longer part of their program. Therefore, a research agreement between the researcher and the non-profit organization was not needed.

Participants have several rights. Participants have the opportunity to ask study related questions or remove themselves from the study for any reason at any stage during or after the research by emailing the principal investigator. A participant that chooses to remove themselves from the study will not have any effect on the relationship with the investigator, with the large Christian non-profit that implemented the leadership program, or with Pepperdine University. Participants also have the right to informed confidentiality. Participation in the study offered no

direct benefit to the participant. Indirectly, research findings may benefit research participants and provide guidance to people and organizations that desire to implement leadership programs in a Sub-Saharan African context by providing a statistical understanding of how former leadership program participants perceived a leadership program across demographic data. Participants were given the choice whether or not they would like to receive a study summary and a the full study if they typed their email address. No remuneration was offered to study participants and participation in the study did not require participants to make any financial obligation. No conflicts of interest existed though full disclosure required noting the investigator had been an employee of the organization that directed the leadership program at a global level.

### **Instrumentation**

The following was the central research question which formed the foundation for this research: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

Data for this study was collected using a single online instrument using tools available through Qualtrics. The instrument contained 16 survey items. A copy of the survey is in Appendix E. Findings, conclusions, and implications from this study will add to the present limited body of research on best practices of leadership programming in an Sub-Saharan African context.

The validity and reliability of research are critical qualities of a successful study. Validity refers to if one can make meaningful and useful conclusions from scores on a particular survey instrument (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Reliability refers to if survey item scores within an instrument are internally consistent, have stability over time, and if there was regularity in test

administration and scoring (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Several steps were taken to achieve research validity and reliability. The researcher provided prima facie validity by aligning survey questions to the research questions, study purpose, and problem statement. The researcher provided content validity by verifying with local leadership program staff that the leadership program topics (items 1, 2) and leadership learning methods (item 3) contained in the survey instrument were accurate through a pilot test. The investigator stated his researcher biases. Scales utilized in items 3, 4, and 6 have face validity as response options are on a continuum (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The investigator conducted a pilot study in order to receive feedback on the draft survey instrument. Pilot testing is important to establish content validity of scores, to support internal consistency of survey items, instructions, and format (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The investigator received feedback on the survey instrument from former Ugandan and Kenyan leadership program participants (N=3), staff that implemented the leadership program (N=2), and fellow students in the investigator's Ph.D. program cohort (N=3). Suggested changes included changing the wording of survey items and possible responses for greater accuracy and readability. It was suggested to utilize the same Likert scales for multiple questions for ease of readability. All suggestions were considered and a select number of changes were made to the survey instrument based on their merit.

### **Data Collection**

Once the IRB Office at Pepperdine University approved the research proposal, data collection initiated. For prior professional purposes, the investigator visited both Uganda and Kenya to meet with a select group of former LDP participants. Former LDP staff members who implemented the programs were also present at each meeting. Both lead LDP staff persons

requested the student leader representing each cohort to compile a list of e-mail addresses so that the researcher could provide leadership development resources. Participant e-mail addresses were collected and verified by leaders from each program cohort. Kenyan and Ugandan e-mail addresses were sent to the researcher in California for professional purposes. The study was conducted by the primary investigator who studies at the Pepperdine West Los Angeles Pepperdine Campus.

Inclusion criteria for this study are former participants from the LDP in Kenya and Uganda. Former program participants received an email and/or received a social media post detailing the purpose of the study and a link to the survey instrument. Participants received an Informed Consent Form which was required for research participation and protects participants. Participant engagement was completely voluntary and participants have the right to request to be removed from the study at any point in the process including after the study. Participants were offered an executive summary of the study and full copy of the study if participants provided their email address.

The online survey was open for 14 days. On the first day the online survey opened, the researcher sent emails to Kenyan and Ugandan LDP cohort leaders containing the purpose of the study, and a link to the survey instrument. The following timeline was used during the data collection process:

- On day 1, local leadership program staff persons from Kenya and Uganda were asked by the researcher to post an invitation for LDP graduates to take the survey in an existing and private leadership development program Facebook® group. The Facebook® post included the recruitment email (see Appendix F). The researcher sent LDP cohort leaders the recruitment email (see Appendix F) and LDP cohort leaders forward the e-mail to

their cohort members. The email list LDP cohort leaders used contained a total of 574 former participants from the LDP (278 Kenyan and 296 Ugandan participants).

- On day 8, leadership program delivery staff were asked by the researcher to post reminders to participants in the Facebook® groups and the researcher sent a final email invitation to former LDP participants.
- On day 14, the survey closed.

Based on the pilot test, it was estimated that subjects would take approximately 7-12 minutes to consider providing informed consent to this study and to respond to a single set of survey items. Subject responses were not randomized due to the researcher having a list of participant email addresses. The researcher anticipated a total of 200-300 participant responses.

Lehmann & D'Abrera (1976) suggested that for selecting the necessary sample size for a nonparametric test, a good rule of thumb would be to calculate the required sample size for the equivalent parametric test and add 15% more subjects. This would account for the likely loss of power because of no assumptions being made about the underlying distribution in the nonparametric test.

Nine calculations were done for three different sets of ratings (3 ratings, 5 ratings, and 7 ratings) crossed against three power levels (0.80, 0.90, and 0.99) (see Table 2). Under the most stringent condition (Friedman's test, three ratings, and 99% power level) using the G\*Power 3.1 program (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009), the needed sample would be 68 respondents.



Table 2

*Estimated Sample Sizes Needed for Repeated Measures ANOVA and Friedman's Test for Different Numbers of Ratings and Different Power Levels*

Number of Ratings	Power Level		
	.80	.90	.99
<b>Repeated Measures ANOVA</b>			
3 ratings	28	36	59
5 ratings	21	26	42
7 ratings	17	21	34
<b>Friedman's Test (15% larger sample)</b>			
3 ratings	32	41	68
5 ratings	24	30	48
7 ratings	20	24	39

*Note.* Based on a medium effect size (0.25) and an alpha level of  $\alpha = .05$

### **Data Management**

Participant data from the survey was protected through the Qualtrics login page which requires a username and password known only by the investigator. Survey data will be deleted in Qualtrics within a 12 month period of time.

The confidentiality of all participants is of the utmost importance. Confidentiality was preserved for the duration of the research. Data was reported in the aggregate. Specifically, no identifying data (including IP addresses) was reported in the research and participants were given the choice to provide their email address if they wanted a study summary and copy of the full study. The survey asked respondents demographic information and respondents' personal perceptions of their experiences related to a leadership program. The purpose of collecting

anonymous demographic information was to allow for control of covariates during data analysis. The investigator secured data on the investigator's password-protected and encrypted computer and on an encrypted USB-C drive kept in a locked cabinet at the investigator's personal residence. The USB-C drive used for this research will be destroyed within three years of the completion of the study.

### **Data Analysis**

A non-experimental quantitative survey design was chosen for this study for several reasons. There is a dearth of research on: (a) evaluating the relevance of servant leadership training for East Africans, (b) measuring the impact of a multi-year leadership training program for African college students, and (c) measuring the leadership program impact on participants from a Sub-Saharan poverty-context. The sample was disbursed across a large geographical area. This dissertation utilized a questionnaire as a means for data collection to measure the attitudes and opinions with and intent to generalize findings to the population (Fowler, 2009).

Data analysis was completed within 14 days. Data analysis was conducted based upon steps established by Creswell & Creswell (2018). IBM SPSS version 25 was used to conduct statistical analyses. Results were presented in tables and figures and then the researcher interpreted survey results. The researcher reported information on the total number of participants that did and did not complete the online survey. The researcher reported findings in the form of descriptive statistics. Spearman's correlation coefficient ( $\rho$  or  $r_s$ ) was used for SQ1,3, and 4 instead of the more common Pearson's correlation coefficient due to the ordinal nature of the variables as well as the likely non-normative distributions for some dichotomous variables (Dellinger, 2017).

Data analysis for survey items located in Appendix E were conducted in the following manner. For SQ1, respondents were given a series of leadership topics that were used in the program (items 1 and 2) and were asked to select the three most helpful and three least helpful leadership topics that developed their leadership skills. Leadership topics were aggregated into three general scale categories: self-leadership, leading others, and ethical leadership.

Specifically, self-leadership include items A-E. Leading others included items F-L. Ethical leadership included items M-O. Given that a respondent only had three selections to choose from, the resulting scale scores ranged between zero (0) and 3 points. To address SQ1, the individual topics as well as the three scale scores (self-leadership, leading others, and ethical leadership) were correlated with the demographic variables using Spearman's correlation. A Friedman's nonparametric measures test and a Wilcoxon post hoc test were also used for SQ1 to establish significance.

For SQ2, respondents were given a series of leadership learning methods that were used in the program (item 3) and were asked to rank each leadership learning activity by level of effectiveness using a Likert scale. Leadership learning methods were aggregated into general scale categories: formal, experiential, and developmental relationships. Specifically, developmental relationships included items A-C. Experiential included items D and E. Formal learning included items F and G. For SQ2, with the Likert ratings of effectiveness, all the designated items were averaged together yielding a scale score between 1 and 5. To address SQ2, a repeated measures ANOVA statistical method was employed with Bon Ferroni post hoc tests and a Friedman's nonparametric measures test to establish if there were significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships).

For SQ3, respondents were given a series of leadership program impact scale items (items 4a-4d) and were asked to provide a ranked response. These leadership program impact scores were aggregated into a total program impact scale score. Respondents were also given a series of program enablement scale items (items 6a-6g). These program enablement scores were then aggregated into a total program enablement score. Test reliability of the scale scores were completed by establishing a Cronbach alpha coefficient after data collection. To address SQ3, individual program impact scores as well as the aggregate score were correlated with the demographic variables using Spearman's correlation.

For SQ4, participants responded to a series of leadership program impact effects items (items 5,6). Individual program impact effects scores were correlated with the demographic variables using Spearman's correlation coefficient.

The data analysis chart below (see Table 3) details sub-questions, related null hypotheses, scales and survey items, and the statistical approach.

### **Chapter Summary**

Chapter three has provided a methodological overview of this research. The objective of this research is to provide leadership practitioners, development professionals, and leaders interested in Sub-Saharan African leadership with data on effective leadership development practices for college-aged individuals in the region. Pragmatist and postpositivist worldviews guide this correlational research. A quantitative case study method was used for this study. The research was conducted via a web-based survey instrument. The research questions and sub-questions were restated and the research design was explained. The population is defined as participants of a leadership development program implemented in Kenya and Uganda by a large Christian non-profit organization. Participants were established based upon those that shared

Table 3

*Data Analysis Chart*

Sub Question	Related Null Hypothesis	Scales/ Survey Items	Statistical Approach
SQ1: What are the most helpful leadership topics and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?	H1 <sub>0</sub> : None of the leadership topics or scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	Individual items (1a-1o); self-leadership (1a-1e); leading others (1f-1l); ethical leadership (1m-1o); demographics items (8-15)  Survey item 1	Friedman's nonparametric measures test  Spearman's correlation  Wilcoxon post hoc test
SQ2: Are there significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships)?	H2 <sub>0</sub> : There are no significant differences in leadership learning effectiveness ratings between the three groups.	Developmental relationships (3a-3c); experiential (3d, 3e); formal (3f, 3g); demographics items (8-15)  Survey item 3	Repeated measures ANOVA  Bonferroni post hoc tests  Friedman's nonparametric measures test
SQ3: What are the leadership programmatic impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales, and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?	H3 <sub>0</sub> : None of the programmatic impact or program enablement effects or relevant scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	Individual leadership programmatic impact items (4a-4d); aggregated scale; demographics items (8-15)  Individual program enablement effects items (6a-6g); aggregated scale; demographics items (8-15)  Survey items 4a-4d, 6a-6g	Spearman's correlation  Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients
SQ4: What are the leadership contributions and relevant scale and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?	H4 <sub>0</sub> : None of the leadership contributions or relevant scale will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	Individual leadership contributions items (5a - 5h); aggregated scale; Demographics items (8-15)  Survey items 5a-5h	Spearman's correlation

interest in being a part of the study. In terms of human subject considerations, participants were selected based upon a convenience sample and were briefed on the purpose of the study, inherent risks, and how they could opt out of the study. Research was conducted in line with Pepperdine University IRB policies and guidelines.

## **Chapter 4: Findings**

### **Chapter Overview**

This chapter begins with an introduction section to restate the purpose of the study and the research question. Next, the data collection process will be described. Following is a description of data cleaning steps taken and the analysis approach. Next is a section on descriptive statistics which will describe the various statistical methods used and the results from the study by research sub question. Finally, the chapter will summarize results from the study and identify salient findings to be discussed in chapter 5.

### **Introduction**

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions. The following research question guided this quantitative study: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

### **Data Collection and Management Processes**

The IRB Office at Pepperdine University approved the research proposal and then data collection started. Inclusion criteria for this study are former Ugandan and Kenyan LDP participants. On day one, the investigator sent a recruitment email to Ugandan and Kenyan LDP cohort leaders. The recruitment email included the purpose of the study and a link to the informed consent form and survey (see Appendix F). LDP cohort leaders then forwarded the email to LDP participants from their cohorts. The email list LDP cohort leaders used contained a total of 574 former participants from the LDP (278 Kenyan and 296 Ugandan participants). On

day one, leadership program staff persons from Kenya and Uganda posted an invitation for LDP graduates to take the survey in existing and private leadership development program Facebook® groups. Facebook® posts included the contents within the recruitment email (Appendix F). On day eight, leadership program delivery staff posted survey reminders for LDP participants in the same private Facebook® groups. On day eight, the researcher sent a final email invitation to former LDP participants. The survey closed on the fourteenth day of data collection.

The confidentiality of all participants and their data is vitally important and has been preserved throughout the research. Participant data from the survey was stored within a Qualtrics password protected user account. Participants were asked demographic information, their personal perceptions of program impact, and the effectiveness of LDP leadership topics and learning methods. The rationale for collecting demographic information was to allow for covariates during data analysis. Data was reported only in the aggregate. Participants were given the choice to provide their email address if they desired a study summary and full copy of the study. Data was stored on a password protected and encrypted computer as well as on an encrypted USB-C drive kept in a locked cabinet at the personal investigator's personal residence. The USB-C drive used will be destroyed within three years of study completion.

### **Data Cleaning and Analysis Approach**

A total of 372 LDP participants began the survey. Selecting only those participants who completed this program reduced the sample to  $N = 282$ . Three of the respondents were removed from the data set as their answers were given during the piloting and development of the survey. This left the final sample to be  $N = 279$ .

A total of 69 dependent variables (56 survey items and 13 scale scores) were correlated against 11 demographic variables (gender, nationality, year completed program, education,



marital status, number of children, and number of employees supervised plus four dummy coded type of employment variables). Type of employment was dummy coded into four additional variables (working in ministry, working in business, working in government/nonprofit, and able to work but not working). In total, the 69 dependent variables were correlated against the 11 independent variables resulting in 759 correlations. Significance level for this study was set at  $p < .05$ . However, given the vast number of analyses performed plus the relatively large sample size ( $N = 279$ ), a decision was made to primarily focus the narrative on those correlations that had an absolute value of  $|r_s = .20|$ ,  $p < .001$ . Spearman's correlation coefficient ( $\rho$  or  $r_s$ ) was used for SQ1,3, and 4 instead of the more common Pearson's correlation coefficient due to the ordinal nature of the variables as well as the likely non-normative distributions for some dichotomous variables (Dellinger, 2017).

Tables 5 and 6 display the descriptive statistics for the 13 scale scores used in this study. Table 5 displays descriptive statistics for the seven summated scale scores. These scale scores were based on adding together the total number of endorsed items (see Tables 5 and 6). These scale scores include examining the most and least helpful leadership topics, the effectiveness of various leadership learning methods, the extent of program impact, the extent of program enablement, as well as total leadership contributions made by the student after they completed the program (see Tables 5 and 6).

Table 5 scale scores will now be discussed in detail. The most helpful (scale scores 1-3) and least helpful (scale scores 4-6) leadership topics scales were created as follows. The respondents were given a list of 15 leadership topics (See Table 9) and were asked to select the three leadership topics that were most helpful in developing leadership skills. In a similar manner, respondents were given the same 15 leadership topics (See Table 10) and were asked to

select the 3 least helpful leadership topics. Participant responses were then placed into the 3 scale categories: self-leadership, leading others, and ethical leadership (see Table 5). The total leadership contributions scale (scale score 12) in Table 5 was developed in the following manner. Respondents were given a list of 7 leadership contributions and were asked to select all the leadership contributions they have made since they completed the LDP (see Table 15). Leadership contribution scores were added together to form a total leadership contributions scale (see Table 5).

Table 6 displays the psychometric characteristics for the 6 aggregated scale scores. Four of the scales pertained to the effectiveness of the program and were rated on a five-point metric: 1 = Extremely Effective to 5 = Slightly Effective. Total effectiveness had a mean of  $M = 1.93$ . The two other scales pertained to LDP impact and effectiveness and were based on a six-point metric: 1 = Strongly Agree to 5 = Strongly Disagree. Following is an explanation of Table 6 scale scores. Effectiveness scale scores 8-10 in Table 6 were created by adding the leadership learning method ratings (See Table 11) and organizing them into three general scale categories: formal, experiential, and developmental relationships. The total leadership learning effectiveness scale score (scale score 7) was created by adding all three leadership learning methods scales scores (scale scores 8-10): effectiveness-developmental relationships, effectiveness-experiential, and effectiveness-formal (see Table 6). The LDP impact scale score (see Table 6) is an aggregated score of program impact ratings from Table 13. The LDP enablement scale score (see Table 6) is an aggregated score of program enablement ratings from Table 14.

Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for 5 of 6 scales were below the desired standard of  $\alpha \geq .70$  (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). These alphas were not surprising given the few number of items in many of the scales (Bernardi, 1994). Given these low reliabilities, Spearman

correlations were used instead of the more common Pearson correlations due to the ordinal nature of these low reliability scales (see Table 6) (Dellinger, 2017). Appendix B as well as Table 3 provide the scoring protocols for each of the scales as well as which specific survey items were included in each scale.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

Table 4 displays the frequency counts for demographic variables. There were 192 males (68.8%) and 87 females (31.2%). There were 150 Ugandans (53.8%) and 129 Kenyans (46.2%). The years since the student completed the program ranged from 1 to 17 years with the median of  $Mdn = 7$  years. All of the respondents held bachelor's degrees, and one-fourth of them also held a graduate degree. Sixty-two percent were married. As for number of children, 48.4% had no children, 39.8% had one or two children, and 11.8% had 3 to 5 children. The most common employment status was either work in the government/nonprofit sector (40.1%) or a business setting (33.0%). Number of employees supervised range from none (14.3%) to 25 or more employees (14.7%) with a median of  $Mdn = 7$  employees (see Table 4).

Table 7 displays 3 scales based on the number of endorsed answers pertaining to the helpfulness of 15 leadership topics. These 15 topics were divided into three categories: self – leadership, leading others, and ethical Leadership. As seen in Table 7, the number of endorsed items are as follows: most helpful-self leadership ( $M = 1.06$ ), most helpful-leading others ( $M = 1.00$ ), and most helpful-ethical leadership ( $M = 0.94$ ). A Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test was used to compare the three mean scores and there were no significant differences between the three scale scores,  $\chi^2 (2, N = 279) = 3.89, p = .143$  (see Table 7).

Table 4

*Frequency Counts for Selected Variables*

Variable	Category	n	%
8. Gender	Male	192	68.8
	Female	87	31.2
9. Nationality	Kenyan	129	46.2
	Ugandan	150	53.8
10. Years since completing LDP	10 to 17 years ago	80	28.7
	5 to 9 years ago	109	39.1
	1 to 4 years ago	90	32.3
11. Highest education	Bachelor's degree	210	75.3
	Graduate degree	69	24.7
12. Current marital status	Single	105	37.6
	Married	174	62.4
13. Number of children	None	135	48.4
	1 or 2 children	111	39.8
	3 to 5 children	33	11.8
14. Current employment status	Work in a ministry or church setting	44	15.8
	Work in a business setting	92	33.0
	Work in a government /non-profit	112	40.1
	Not employed but able to work	20	7.2
	Other	11	3.9
15. Employees supervised	No employees	40	14.3
	1 to 4 employees	68	24.4
	5 to 9 employees	66	23.7
	10 to 24 employees	64	22.9
	25+ employees	41	14.7

Table 5

*Descriptive Statistics for the Summated Scale Scores*

Scale Score	Items	Low	High	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Most Helpful-Self Leadership	5	0.00	3.00	1.06	0.71
2. Most Helpful-Leading Others	7	0.00	3.00	1.00	0.73
3. Most Helpful-Ethical Leadership	3	0.00	3.00	0.94	0.70
4. Least Helpful-Self Leadership	5	0.00	3.00	0.96	0.79
5. Least Helpful-Leading Others	7	0.00	3.00	1.46	0.86
6. Least Helpful-Ethical Leadership	3	0.00	3.00	0.58	0.71
12. Total Leadership Contributions	7	0.00	7.00	4.21	1.69

Note. *N* = 279. Scales based on number of endorsed answers.

Table 6

*Psychometric Characteristics for the Aggregated Scale Scores*

Scale Score	Items	Low	High	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	$\alpha$
7. Total Leadership Learning Effectiveness <sup>a</sup>	7	1.00	3.86	1.93	0.49	.65
8. Effectiveness-Developmental Relationships <sup>a</sup>	3	1.00	4.00	2.17	0.67	.48
9. Effectiveness-Experiential <sup>a</sup>	2	1.00	3.50	1.42	0.49	.40
10. Effectiveness-Formal <sup>a</sup>	2	1.00	4.50	2.06	0.73	.42
11. LDP Impact <sup>b</sup>	4	1.00	6.00	1.30	0.48	.79
13. LDP Enablement <sup>b</sup>	7	1.00	3.43	1.54	0.43	.59

Note. *N* = 279.

<sup>a</sup> Scale based on five-point metric: 1 = *Extremely Effective*, 2 = *Very Effective*, 3 = *Moderately Effective*, 4 = *Somewhat Effective*, 5 = *Slightly Effective*.

<sup>b</sup> Scale based on six-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Agree*, 2 = *Agree*, 3 = *Somewhat Agree*, 4 = *Somewhat Disagree*, 5 = *Disagree*, 6 = *Strongly Disagree*.

Table 7

*Comparisons of the Summated Most Helpful Leadership Topic Category Scores*

Scale Score	Items	Low	High	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Most Helpful-Self Leadership	5	0.00	3.00	1.06	0.71
2. Most Helpful-Leading Others	7	0.00	3.00	1.00	0.73
3. Most Helpful-Ethical Leadership	3	0.00	3.00	0.94	0.70

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Scales based on number of endorsed answers. Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test:  $\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 3.89, p = .143$ . Wilcoxon post hoc test results: no scale score differences at the  $p < .05$  level.

Table 8 displays three scales based on the number of endorsed answers pertaining to the least helpful of 15 leadership topics. These 15 topics were divided into three categories: self-leadership, leading others, and ethical leadership. As seen in Table 8, the number of endorsed items are as follows: least helpful-self leadership ( $M = 0.96$ ), least helpful-leading others ( $M = 1.46$ ), and least helpful-ethical leadership ( $M = 0.58$ ). A Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test was used to compare 3 mean scores. The test found significant differences between the 3 scale scores,  $\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 85.86, p = .001$ . Wilcoxon post hoc tests found the following pattern of results: leading others ( $M = 1.46$ ) > self leadership ( $M = 0.96$ ) > ethical leadership ( $M = 0.58$ ) ( $p = .001$ ) (see Table 8).

Sub question one was: What are the most helpful leadership topics and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics? The related null hypothesis was,  $H_{10}$ : None of the leadership topics / scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics. As preliminary analyses, Table 9 displays the responses for the most helpful leadership topics while Table 10 displays the responses for the least helpful leadership topics.

Table 8

*Comparisons of the Summated Least Helpful Leadership Topic Category Scores*

Scale Score	Items	Low	High	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
4. Least Helpful-Self Leadership	5	0.00	3.00	0.96	0.79
5. Least Helpful-Leading Others	7	0.00	3.00	1.46	0.86
6. Least Helpful-Ethical Leadership	3	0.00	3.00	0.58	0.71

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Scales based on number of endorsed answers. Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test:  $\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 85.86, p = .001$ . Wilcoxon post hoc test results: leading others > self leadership > ethical leadership. Mean scale comparisons were all significant at the  $p = .001$  level.

In Table 9, the most helpful leadership topics were *exemplify servant leadership* (60.2%) and *live with integrity* (51.6%). In Table 10, the least helpful leadership topics were *personal awareness* (30.5%) and *conflict management* (28.7%).

Both Tables 9 and 10 display the 15 leadership topics. Those 15 topics yielded three scale scores each (self leadership, leading others, and ethical leadership). Taken together, these 36 dependent variables were correlated with 11 demographic variables, yielding a total of 396 Spearman correlations. A total of 29 correlations were significant at the  $p < .05$  level. However, none of those significant correlations met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of  $|r_s| = .20, p < .001$ . This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Sub question two was: Are there significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships)?

Table 9

*Most Helpful LDP Leadership Topics Sorted by Highest Frequency*

Leadership Topic	Category	<i>n</i>	%
1o. Exemplify servant leadership	Ethical Leadership	168	60.2
1d. Live with integrity	Self-Leadership	144	51.6
1e. Strive for excellence	Self-Leadership	66	23.7
1k. Lead with courage	Leading Others	65	23.3
1n. Commit to a local church	Ethical Leadership	61	21.9
1i. Equip others	Leading Others	49	17.6
1h. Cherish family	Leading Others	46	16.5
1g. Interpersonal skills development	Leading Others	40	14.3
1m. Ignite passion for ministry	Ethical Leadership	34	12.2
1b. Time management	Self-Leadership	34	12.2
1l. Master communications	Leading Others	34	12.2
1a. Practice personal disciplines	Self-Leadership	33	11.8
1f. Conflict management	Leading Others	24	8.6
1j. Humbly listen	Leading Others	20	7.2
1c. Personal awareness	Self-Leadership	19	6.8

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Respondents were asked to select the three most helpful leadership topics from a list of 15 choices.

The related null hypothesis was,  $H_{20}$ : There are no significant differences in leadership learning effectiveness ratings between the three scale scores. Table 11 displays the effectiveness ratings of leadership learning methods sorted by the most favorable rating.

These ratings were based on a five-point metric: 1 = *Extremely Effective* to 5 = *Slightly Effective*. The most favorable methods were leadership workshops ( $M = 1.42$ ) and service opportunities ( $M = 1.43$ ) which were both experiential learning methods. For the formal learning methods, there was a difference in effectiveness ratings for the lectures on leadership ( $M = 1.69$ )



Table 10

*Least Helpful LDP Leadership Topics Sorted by Highest Frequency*

Leadership Topic	Category	<i>n</i>	%
2c. Personal awareness	Self-Leadership	85	30.5
2f. Conflict management	Leading Others	80	28.7
2j. Humbly listen	Leading Others	72	25.8
2n. Commit to a local church	Ethical Leadership	66	23.7
2l. Master communications	Leading Others	63	22.6
2m. Ignite passion for ministry	Ethical Leadership	62	22.2
2b. Time management	Self-Leadership	62	22.2
2g. Interpersonal skills development	Leading Others	57	20.4
2h. Cherish family	Leading Others	47	16.8
2a. Practice personal disciplines	Self-Leadership	47	16.8
2k. Lead with courage	Leading Others	44	15.8
2i. Equip others	Leading Others	44	15.8
2e. Strive for excellence	Self-Leadership	40	14.3
2d. Live with integrity	Self-Leadership	34	12.2
2o. Exemplify servant leadership	Ethical Leadership	34	12.2

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Respondents were asked to select the three least helpful topics from a list of 15 choices.

and studying the topics on their own ( $M = 2.43$ ). A Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test was used to compare the seven methods to each other. Effectiveness ratings for the different methods were significantly different,  $\chi^2(6, N = 279) = 427.39, p = .001$  (see Table 11).

Table 12 displays the results of the repeated measures ANOVA test comparing the effectiveness ratings for the three methods scores (developmental relationships, experiential, and formal). The overall test was significant,  $F(2, 556) = 172.75, p = .001$ . Bonferroni post hoc tests found experiential learning ( $M = 1.42$ ) to be significantly more effective than either formal learning ( $M = 2.06$ ) or developmental relationships ( $M = 2.17$ ). Formal learning was found to be

Table 11

*Leadership Learning Method Effectiveness Sorted by Ratings*

Leadership Learning Method	Category	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
3e. LDP leadership workshops	Experiential	1.42	0.63
3d. LDP service opportunities	Experiential	1.43	0.61
3g. LDP lectures on leadership	Formal	1.69	0.77
3c. Counseling/support from LDP specialists	Developmental relationships	1.94	0.91
3a. Peer mentoring	Developmental relationships	2.25	0.90
3b. Your upward mentor	Developmental relationships	2.33	1.05
3f. Studying LDP topics by yourself	Formal	2.43	1.05

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Ratings based on five-point metric: 1 = *Extremely Effective*, 2 = *Very Effective*, 3 = *Moderately Effective*, 4 = *Somewhat Effective*, 5 = *Slightly Effective*. Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test:  $\chi^2(6, N = 279) = 427.39, p = .001$ .

Table 12

*Comparison of Leadership Learning Effectiveness Ratings Based on Leadership Learning**Category*

Scale Score	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Effectiveness-Developmental Relationships	2.17	0.67
2. Effectiveness-Experiential	1.42	0.49
3. Effectiveness-Formal	2.06	0.73

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Ratings based on five-point metric: 1 = *Extremely Effective*, 2 = *Very Effective*, 3 = *Moderately Effective*, 4 = *Somewhat Effective*, 5 = *Slightly Effective*. Repeated measures ANOVA:  $F(2, 556) = 172.75, p = .001$ . Bonferroni post hoc tests: 2 < 1 ( $p = .001$ ); 2 < 3 ( $p = .001$ ); 3 < 1 ( $p = .04$ ). Friedman's nonparametric repeated measures test:  $\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 213.46, p = .001$ .

significantly more effective than developmental relationships ( $p = .04$ ) (see Table 11). As an additional method of verification, a Friedman's nonparametric repeated measures test was performed and found to be significant:  $\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 213.46, p = .001$ . This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

The seven teaching methods along with the four scale scores were correlated against the 11 demographic variables. For the resulting 121 correlations, 12 were significant at the  $p < .05$  level. However, it should be noted, that none of those significant correlations met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of  $|r_s = .20|, p < .001$ .

Sub question three was: What are the leadership programmatic impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales, and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics? The related null hypothesis was, H3<sub>0</sub>: None of the programmatic impact or program enablement effects or relevant scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics. As preliminary analyses, descriptive statistics were reported for the four program impact effects (see Table 13) and the seven program enablement effects (see Table 14).

Both tables used ratings measured on a six-point ordinal scale (1 = Strongly Agree to 6 = Strongly Disagree). In both tables, high levels of agreement were found for the program impact effects as well as the program enablement effects (see Tables 13 and 14).

These four program impact effects and seven program enablement effects plus the two aggregated scale scores (total of 13 dependent variables) were correlated with the 11 demographic variables. For the resulting 143 Spearman correlations, 24 were significant at the  $p < .05$  level and three of those significant correlations met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of  $|r_s = .20|, p < .001$ . Specifically, those respondents who supervised more employees gave more favorable ratings for the LDP enablement scale ( $r_s = -.22, p < .001$ ) and for

supervising others ( $r_s = -.22, p < .001$ ). Those who worked in ministry were more likely to agree that the leadership training was relevant to their work environment ( $r_s = -.20, p < .001$ ). This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 13

*Ratings of Program Impact Sorted by Highest Agreement*

Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
4d. Helped you to be an effective leader today?	1.25	0.54
4c. Leadership training you received contributed towards your life's success?	1.25	0.61
4b. Leadership training you received is relevant to your work environment?	1.34	0.63
4a. Inspired you to take on leadership opportunities after the program?	1.39	0.67

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Ratings based on six-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Agree*, 2 = *Agree*, 3 = *Somewhat Agree*, 4 = *Somewhat Disagree*, 5 = *Disagree*, 6 = *Strongly Disagree*.

Table 14

*Ratings of Program Enablement Sorted by Highest Agreement*

Statement	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
6c. Lead myself	1.23	0.52
6d. Lead in my family	1.37	0.67
6b. Supervise others	1.44	0.66
6e. Lead in a church or ministry	1.51	0.72
6f. Lead in my community	1.57	0.72
6a. Get a job	1.67	0.88
6g. Lead in a secular organization	2.00	1.25

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Ratings based on six-point metric: 1 = *Strongly Agree*, 2 = *Agree*, 3 = *Somewhat Agree*, 4 = *Somewhat Disagree*, 5 = *Disagree*, 6 = *Strongly Disagree*.

Sub question four was: What are the leadership contributions and relevant scale and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics? The related null hypothesis was, H4<sub>0</sub>: None of the leadership contributions or relevant scale will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics. As a preliminary analysis, Table 15 displays the leadership contributions since completing the program made by the respondents sorted by highest frequency. The most frequently endorsed contributions were mentoring someone (78.1%) and leading a work team (77.1%) (see Table 15).

Table 15

*Leadership Contributions Since Completing the Program*

Leadership Contribution	<i>n</i>	%
5a. Mentoring someone	218	78.1
5d. Leading a work team	215	77.1
5c. Advocating for the poor	186	66.7
5g. Involved in a ministry	181	64.9
5f. Part of church leadership	150	53.8
5e. Leading an organization	117	41.9
5b. Conducting leadership training	107	38.4
5h. None	1	0.4

*Note.*  $N = 279$ . Respondents were asked to select all applicable contributions.

To test the hypothesis, these eight contributions plus a total contributions score were correlated with 11 demographic variables. For the resulting 99 Spearman correlations, 26 were significant at the  $p < .05$  level, and seven of those significant correlations met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of  $|r_s| = .20$ ,  $p < .001$ .

Specifically, those respondents who supervised more employees were more likely to have conducted a leadership workshop ( $r_s = .21, p < .001$ ), led a work team ( $r_s = .27, p < .001$ ), led an organization ( $r_s = .27, p < .001$ ) and had more total contributions ( $r_s = .27, p < .001$ ). Further, men were more likely to have led an organization ( $r_s = -.20, p < .001$ ) and had more total contributions ( $r_s = -.21, p < .001$ ). Finally, those working in a business setting were less likely to have advocated for the poor ( $r_s = -.22, p < .001$ ). This combination of findings provided support to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 16

*Sub Questions, Hypotheses, and Results*

Sub Question	Related Null Hypothesis	Results
SQ1: What are the most helpful leadership topics and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?	H1 <sub>0</sub> : None of the leadership learning methods scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	<p>Exemplify servant leadership and live with integrity are the most helpful leadership topics. 29 Spearman correlations were significant at the <math>p &lt; .05</math> level. None met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of <math> r_s  = .20, p &lt; .001</math> (See Table 9).</p> <p>Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test found no significant difference between the 3 most helpful leadership topics scale scores, <math>\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 3.89, p = .143</math> (see Table 7).</p> <p>Friedman nonparametric repeated measures test found significant differences between the 3 least helpful scale scores, <math>\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 85.86, p = .001</math> (see Table 8).</p> <p>Wilcoxon post hoc tests found the following pattern of results for least helpful leadership topics: Leading Others (<math>M = 1.46</math>) &gt; Self Leadership (<math>M = 0.96</math>) &gt; Ethical Leadership (<math>M = 0.58</math>) (<math>p = .001</math>) (see Table 8).</p>

(continued)

Sub Question	Related Null Hypothesis	Results
SQ2: Are there significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships)?	H2 <sub>0</sub> : There are no significant differences in leadership learning effectiveness ratings between the three groups.	<p>Test was significant, <math>F(2, 556) = 172.75, p = .001</math>. Friedman's nonparametric repeated measures test was performed and found to be significant: <math>\chi^2(2, N = 279) = 213.46, p = .001</math> (See Table 12).</p> <p>Bonferroni post hoc tests found experiential learning (<math>M = 1.42</math>) to be significantly more effective than either formal learning (<math>M = 2.06</math>) or developmental relationships (<math>M = 2.17</math>). Formal learning was found to be significantly more effective than developmental relationships (<math>p = .04</math>) (See Table 12).</p>
SQ3: What are the leadership programmatic impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales, and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?	H3 <sub>0</sub> : None of the programmatic impact or program enablement effects or relevant scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	<p>High levels of agreement for leadership program impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales. Total of 24 Spearman correlations were significant at the <math>p &lt; .05</math> level and 3 significant correlations met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of <math> r_s  = .20, p &lt; .001</math>. Respondents who supervised more employees gave more favorable ratings for the LDP enablement scale (<math>r_s = -.22, p &lt; .001</math>) and for supervising others (<math>r_s = -.22, p &lt; .001</math>). Respondents who worked in ministry were more likely to agree that the leadership training was relevant to their work environment (<math>r_s = -.20, p &lt; .001</math>) (See Tables 13 and 14).</p>
SQ4: What are the leadership contributions and relevant scale and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?	H4 <sub>0</sub> : None of the leadership contributions or relevant scale will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	<p>The most frequent leadership contributions post-program were mentoring someone (78.1%) and leading a work team (77.1%). Total of 26 Spearman correlations were significant at the <math>p &lt; .05</math> level and 7 correlations met the reporting threshold of an absolute value of <math> r_s  = .20, p &lt; .001</math>. Respondents who supervised more employees more likely to have conducted a leadership workshop (<math>r_s = .21, p &lt; .001</math>), led a work team (<math>r_s = .27, p &lt; .001</math>), led an organization (<math>r_s = .27, p &lt; .001</math>) and had more total contributions (<math>r_s = .27, p &lt; .001</math>). Further, men were more likely to have led an organization (<math>r_s = -.20, p &lt; .001</math>) and had more total contributions (<math>r_s = -.21, p &lt; .001</math>). Finally, those working in a business setting were less likely to have advocated for the poor (<math>r_s = -.22, p &lt; .001</math>) (See Table 15).</p>

## Chapter Summary

In summary, this quantitative study used survey data from 279 students to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions. The research question

which guided this quantitative study is: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments? Table 16 displays a summary of hypotheses, related null hypotheses, and results.

Comparisons between all the ratings and scales with the demographic variables did find some weak correlations  $|r_s < .30|$  for SQ 1, 3, and 4. Taking the ratings in the aggregate would be a prudent analytic approach because the differences in responses across demographic subgroup characteristics (example: males versus females) were negligible. Given that, the findings are likely to be generalizable to the population.

In chapter 5, the findings will be discussed and compared to the literature, conclusions and implications will be drawn, and a series of recommendations will be suggested.

The key findings that will be discussed in Chapter 5 are:

- Finding 1 (F1): Exemplify servant leadership was the most helpful leadership topic to develop leadership skills.
- Finding 2 (F2): Live with integrity was a helpful leadership topic to develop leadership skills.
- Finding 3 (F3): Ethical leadership topics were the least likely to be deemed unhelpful.
- Finding 4 (F4): The 70:20:10 Model of Leadership Learning by Lombardo and Eichinger (1996) was partially supported.



## Chapter 5: Discussion

### Chapter Overview

In this chapter, the researcher will discuss several aspects of this research. The chapter starts with an introduction, followed by a discussion of research findings, the meaning of each finding, and how each finding relates to the literature. Next, conclusions from the study will be considered followed by implications. Recommendations for future research and an overall evaluation of the research project will be reviewed. This research study will conclude with a chapter summary.

### Introduction

The purpose of this case study is to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions.

The following research question guided this quantitative study:

- RQ: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

Several questions arose during the planning phase of this study. Others arose during the review of the literature. Sub-questions for this research are as follows:

- Leadership Topics (Leadership Theory)
  - SQ1: What are the most helpful leadership topics and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?
- Leadership Learning (Learning Theory)
  - SQ2: Are there significant differences in the effectiveness ratings for the three

types of leadership learning (experiential, formal, developmental relationships)?

- Perceptions of Program Impact (Contextualized Leadership Programming)
  - SQ3: What are the leadership programmatic impacts, program enablement effects, and relevant scales, and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?
  - SQ4: What are the leadership contributions and relevant scale and are those ratings related to students' demographic characteristics?

## Findings

A Summary of related null hypotheses and results are summarized in Table 17 and will be followed by research findings.

Table 17

### *Summary of Null Hypotheses and Results*

Related Null Hypothesis	Results	Reject Null Hypothesis?
H1 <sub>0</sub> : None of the leadership learning methods scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	See Tables 7, 8, and 9	Yes
H2 <sub>0</sub> : There are no significant differences in leadership learning effectiveness ratings between the three groups.	See Table 12	Yes
H3 <sub>0</sub> : None of the programmatic impact or program enablement effects or relevant scales will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	See Tables 13 and 14	Yes
H4 <sub>0</sub> : None of the leadership contributions or relevant scale will be related to any of the students' demographic characteristics.	See Table 15	Yes

The investigator will discuss four research findings:

- Finding 1 (F1): Exemplify servant leadership was the most helpful leadership topic to develop leadership skills. While servant leadership is seen in the literature as applicable within a Sub-Saharan context, there is also literature that challenges the idea of servant leadership being fully congruent within a Sub-Saharan African context.

On the one hand, servant leadership research supports high levels of congruence with Sub-Saharan African culture. Ngunjiri (2010) theorizes the servant leadership model closely allies with the Sub-Saharan African worldview in that they both value compassion and the nurturing of others. Research by Trompenaars and Voerman (2010) cited servant leaders synthesize different values, ideas, and opinions which is similar to the African values of leaders fostering in-group collectivism (House et al., 2004) and consensus building (Cosway & Anankum, 1996; Jackson, 2004). One theme from the African leadership literature is the concept of ubuntu which is the showing of humaneness to others (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Bolden & Kirk, 2009; Linnquist & Adolph, 2016; Nzelibe, 1986; Owusu et al., 2017) instead of a more command and control leadership style (Owusu et al., 2017). Ubuntu is similar to servant leadership in that servant leaders focus on the needs of those with less power (Bass et al., 2009) and value developing empathy and healing leadership traits (van Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010). Lastly, the high impact of servant leadership programming on college students is consistent with Polleys' (2001) servant leadership research which resulted in increases in all servant leadership behaviors.

On the other hand, servant leadership can be seen as incongruent within a Sub-Saharan African cultural context. Servant leadership theory espouses servant leaders: a) develop followers into leaders (Greenleaf, 1977), b) do not see themselves as greater than those they lead (Greenleaf, 1977; Sendjaya et al., 2008), and c) prioritize the needs of the organization and those they supervise above themselves (Greenleaf, 1977). These servant leadership values may not be congruent within an Sub-Saharan African high power distance culture between leaders and followers. High power distance can be described as the phenomenon of less powerful members of an organization accepting and expecting power not to be distributed equally (Hofstede, 2011). Hofstede (1980) studied interpersonal differences by people group through the Cultural

Dimensions Theory. The study originally contained four dimensions with cultural continuums so that cultures could be socially analyzed and contrasted. Sub-Saharan African leaders reported higher power distance compared to other cultures (Hofstede, 2011). Similarly, the GLOBE research study (House et al., 2004) studied cross-cultural leadership and their findings included Sub-Saharan Africans reporting higher power distances compared to other world regions.

One possible reason LDP participants placed a high value on servant leadership is due to the homogeneous population. All participants were from the same religion (Christianity) and the leadership development program was built upon Christian values. Servant leadership is linked with Judeo-Christian values (Blanchard & Hodges, 2002) and various authors identify Jesus Christ as a model for servant leadership (Sandelands, 2008). The LDP referenced Biblical passages to elucidate leadership principles throughout the global resource curriculum.

- Finding 2 (F2): Live with integrity was a helpful leadership topic to develop leadership skills. Similar to exemplify servant leadership, a reason why the topic live with integrity was highly rated could be the value of integrity within a Judeo-Christian worldview (Blanchard & Hodges, 2002). Integrity was likely discussed at length as part of the child development program that all LDP participants participated in. Integrity, as a leadership virtue, is evident in college student leadership development programs and the related literature. LeaderShape®, a U.S.-based non-profit organization, offers leadership development programs for higher education students. LeaderShape's® flagship 6-day leadership program is designed to enable individuals to lead with integrity (Leadershape Institute, n.d.). Similarly, Komives, Lucas, and McMahon's (1998) popular Relational Leadership Model for college student includes the topic Leading with Integrity. Integrity was one of four pillars in a university-based leadership development program

and was perceived by participants as the most important element of their leadership development program experience (Hastings, Wall, & Mantonya, 2018).

- Finding 3 (F3): Ethical leadership topics were the least likely to be deemed unhelpful.

Ethics is an integral element within leadership education and research (Watkin et al., 2017). Ethical leadership principles are found within various higher education leadership programs and models (Fritsch, Rasmussen, & Chazdon, 2018; Seemiller, 2018) due to the need for future ethical employees and leaders for the workplace (Andenoro, Sowcik, & Balser, 2017). An example of ethical leadership skill development seen in the literature is employing decision-based scenarios as experientially-based leadership learning (Grossman & Sharf, 2018). In multiple case studies, decision-based scenarios included students being placed into hypothetical and sometimes stressful situations. Then, students are forced to make ethical choices that result in various group outcomes (Olsen, Eid, & Johnsen, 2006).

Ethical leadership topics being least likely to be deemed unhelpful may be participants' general concerns about inadequate transparency and mistrust of its leaders within Sub-Saharan Africa (Civicus Association, 2012; Gaeta & Vasilara, 1998; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015). The literature states poor leadership in a developing world context often leads to corruption which damages society (Gaeta & Vasilara, 1998). On the contrary, integrous and trustworthy leaders are seen to foster and sustain African nation development efforts (Egharevba et al., 2016; United Nations, 2010). The following are representative quotes from the sample which illustrate the relevance of ethical leadership training in their local contexts:

- “There is a lot of corruption and mismanagement of funds at my workplace and the training in LDP has helped me to confront these behaviors and advocate for the rights of the disadvantaged.”

- “I have learned to positively stand up for those who are voiceless through the LDP and use those skills in my role as a social worker.”

The reason why ethical leadership was least likely deemed unhelpful could also be that when the respondents completed this survey (median of seven years post-graduation), topics within the leading self and leading others leadership categories may have been less relevant.

- Finding 4 (F4): The 70:20:10 Model of Leadership Learning by Lombardo and Eichinger (1996) was partially supported. LDP participants reported experiential learning as the most effective leadership learning method which is congruent with multiple studies (April & April, 2007; Bruce, 1997; Bourgeois & Bravo, 2019; Burgoyne & Hodgson, 1983; Downing, 2020; and Zemke, 1985). LDP participants reported formal leadership learning methods were more effective than learning leadership through developmental relationships. Specifically, the *leadership lectures* learning method, which was ranked as the third most helpful leadership learning method overall behind *leadership workshops* and *service opportunities*, was seen as more effective than learning leadership via developmental relationships. This finding is contrary to Western leadership research that has revealed lecture-based leadership learning is an inferior form of leadership learning compared to other methods (Oberg & Andenoro, 2019; Williams & McClure, 2010). Further, the finding of formal leadership learning being more effective than developmental relationships is also in opposition to Sub-Saharan African leadership research that found both experiential learning and learning through mentors were more effective leadership learning methods compared to formal leadership learning opportunities (Owusu et al., 2017).

The reason why leadership lectures are seen as more effective than relational methods in this research may be due to two reasons. First, East African education systems rely predominantly on lecture and recitation-based learning pedagogies (Mendenhall et al., 2015). All program

participants were in school full-time while in the LDP. Therefore, the participants in this study may have been more accustomed to and accepting of lecture-based learning pedagogies at the time of instruction. In addition, the reason why Sub-Saharan Africans hold a higher regard for learning leadership through lectures compared to other people groups may be due to the high power distance between leaders and followers in Sub-Saharan Africa (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004).

### **Conclusions**

Conclusions can be defined as reasonable judgments based upon the research findings and other analyses performed in a case study (Mills, Durepos, & Wiebe, 2010). The researcher identified two conclusions from this study.

- **Conclusion 1 (C1): The LDP successfully integrated learner profiles into their program model to support contextualized leadership programming.** Participant feedback on leadership topics, learning methods, program impacts, and program enablement ratings were relatively equal across all demographic characteristics. As a result, we may conclude the LDP's implementation model supported participants similarly regardless of demographic characteristics in this study: gender, marital status, employment status, nationality, year participants completed the program, level of education, or the number of supervisees.

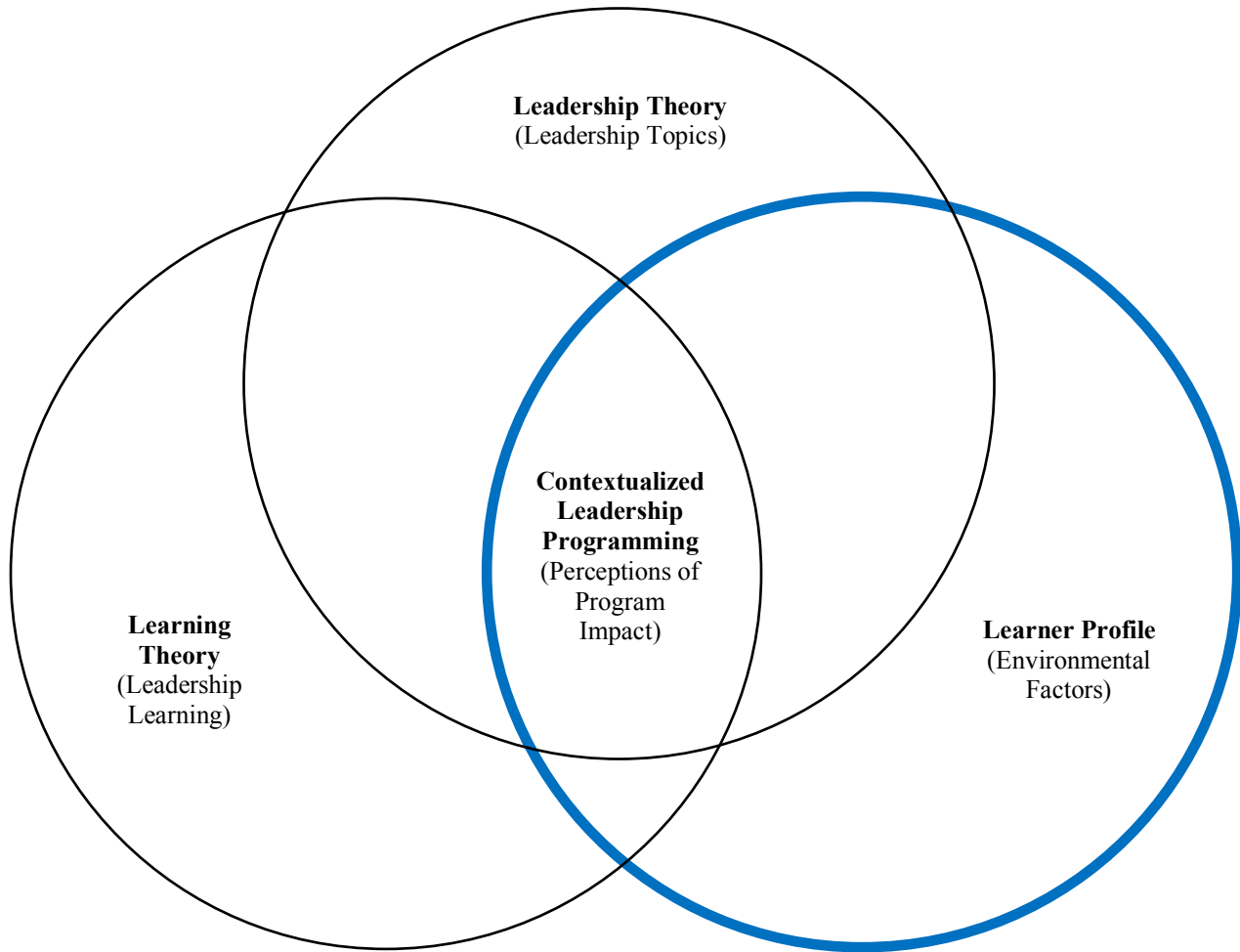
There are examples of college student leadership programs which yielded similar impacts and effects across all demographic variables. Polleys' (2001) servant leadership research findings included increases in all servant leadership behaviors across demographic characteristics. Additionally, both males and females equally stated servant leadership was a helpful leadership topic to develop leadership skills.

It is more common to find college student leadership program impact literature stating statistically significant differences in perceived leadership experiences and abilities across demographic characteristics. Dugan's (2011) research revealed varied leadership program impacts across demographic factors. Magner's (2012) global servant leadership research found that females reported higher servant leadership scores compared to males. Research by Rosch, Stephens, & Collins (2016) found social leadership motivation ratings varied by ethnic group. A Multi-Institutional Study of Leadership (MSL) conducted on 52 U.S. campuses by Dugan and Komives (2007) reported several demographic differences. Females reported more socially responsible leadership skills and males reported higher leadership efficacy. Various pre-college experiences predicted college leadership outcomes. Social responsibility leadership ratings varied by ethnicity. Marginalized students indicated higher degrees of willingness to change compared to other student groups. Lastly, institutional leadership positions and participation in formal leadership programs had positive impacts on students' leadership efficacy.

The LDP participant population is highly homogeneous. Participants were from the same countries, were self-professed Christians, graduated from the same child development program, and emerged from a deep poverty background. These similar demographic aspects within the population could explain the lack of statistically significant variances in responses.

The homogeneity in participant responses across demographic characteristics indicates that LDP program delivery staff contextualized leadership development opportunities and curriculum to match the various learner profiles. The researcher contends that the contextualized leadership programming framework (see Figure 3) relies on leadership program delivery staff to analyze the various learner profiles they are instructing. Then, program delivery staff can select the relevant leadership topics and learning methodologies to best support participant learning.





*Figure 3.* Learner profile supporting contextualized leadership programming.

- Conclusion 2 (C2): The distinctive LDP model should be further highlighted and studied as an example of an effective human capital development program for developing economies.** Participants reported the LDP had a large impact on their leadership skills, the program enabled them to lead in various contexts, and most participants have been involved in mentoring, leading work teams, and taking active leadership roles in their churches since program completion. Positive program impact results are consistent with multiple college student leadership studies which demonstrate leadership programs increase participants' leadership behaviors immediately after program completion (Cress et al., 2001; Zimmerman-Oster &

Burkhardt, 1999) as well as creating positive long-term personal and organizational impacts (Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). LDP participants received mentoring, were engaged in service learning, and were a part of formal leadership programs which are seen by Dugan and Komives (2007) as factors that most significantly contribute towards leadership behaviors.

The following are representative quotes indicating the impact the LDP has had in their spheres of influence:

- “It [the LDP] never left me the same. I thought the sole purpose of the program was to enable my college education but it was the leadership training which helped me to appreciate for the first time the leadership gifts God has given me. I learned that leadership is not a position but is influence. I am now the founder of a ministry that trains and equips others.”
- “I am so thankful for the training the LDP gave me as I work as an administrator in a hospital. It helps me today as I manage conflicts daily and I try to humbly listen to my staff so I can support and lead them.”
- “I lead a finance firm in Kenya and I use the leadership skills learned in the LDP to lead the associates I supervise.”

Respondents indicating the LDP was impactful may be partially due to the LDP’s systematic leadership learning model. The LDP coupled a set of leadership principles with a well-articulated framework (Bass & Stogdill, 1990) and a mission which are seen as factors that create the most successful leadership programs (Rosch et al., 2017; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). Further, the LDP was a robust and immersive experience that spanned the student’s entire undergraduate experience. Participants took part in various LDP activities (formal, relational, experiential, or a mixture) between six and seven hours per week for an average of four years.

## **Implications**

This study revealed several implications for the advancement of Sub-Saharan African leadership development theory, research, and practice. This research was a baseline case study considering the scant literature on Sub-Saharan African leadership theory and leadership programming for Sub-Saharan African college-aged individuals or individuals with a poverty background in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Hofstede (1980) and House et al., (2004) remind leadership researchers and practitioners that leadership traits are culturally-bound and that leadership content should fit the learner's context to be most effective. Given this reality, the LDP framework and global resource curriculum which was designed for nearly 20 developing economies across Asia, Africa, Latin and South America should have been contextualized for their local contexts. For example, the high power distance found in Sub-Saharan African cultures could be outweighed by aspects other than national cultural norms (e.g., religious cultures) and these other cultural realities should be taken into consideration in leadership development program design and implementation. The researcher suggests LDP curriculum designers from all 18 countries should develop a resource guide on how leadership topics and learning methodologies were contextualized to the learner profiles in their programs and what they learned about local contextualization throughout multiple years of implementing the LDP. This contextualization guide should be socialized within higher education institutions and other entities that are interested in human development programs. Findings from all 18 countries should be described, analyzed, and compared to existing cross-cultural leadership research and published in a reputable leadership development journal.

Sub-Saharan African leadership research is still in its infancy (Owusu et al., 2017) and must be bolstered. As an example, college student leadership programs in the United States and other Western contexts are pervasive (Posner, 2012; Zimmerman-Oster & Burkhardt, 1999). There are very few Sub-Saharan African leadership college leadership programs and research evident in the literature. The lack of Sub-Saharan African leadership research goes beyond a lack of college student leadership research. There are very few Sub-Saharan African leadership peer reviewed journal articles on several leadership topics including: personal leadership development, organizational leadership, ethical leadership, and other leadership research fields. The researcher suggests institutes of higher education, think tanks, and other leadership research entities should promote Sub-Saharan African leadership research by instituting faculty and student exchanges, short-term global exposure programs for both Sub-Saharan African and students from other cultures, and creating research grants that endeavor to support additional leadership research for the Sub-Saharan African region. The literature review revealed that Sub-Saharan Africans do not necessarily ascribe to specific Western leadership theories or models. When additional Sub-Saharan literature is created, more contextualized leadership theories, models, and programs will be developed. New theories and models should birth a Sub-Saharan African leadership language which will generate greater interest in the importance of leadership across the continent and improve the democratization of leadership resources to all throughout the region.

Creators of the LDP global resource curriculum stated that due to the higher amounts of staffing needed, complexity, and cost of implementing experiential leadership learning methods, the LDP should rely on self-study as the predominant leadership learning method. LDP participants reported self-study was the least effective leadership learning method compared to

experiential and developmental relationship leadership learning methods. Indeed, practicing leadership in a real world context is seen as an effective andragogical leadership learning method in a multitude of leadership learning research including Owen's (2015) first leadership learning hallmark, Eich's (2007) Cluster II, and Oberg and Andernoro's (2019) adaptive leadership application. Experiential learning can improve the participant learning process by integrating formal leadership learning activities and concepts and relating them into contextually relevant scenarios. As a result, the researcher suggests Sub-Saharan African leadership programs limit self-study solutions and develop less resource intensive experiential leadership learning activities. One potential solution is to assist the student in identifying opportunities to practice leadership on their university campuses, at local internship sites, and within their local churches or communities.

LDP participants stated leadership lectures were the third most effective leadership method. While these results were surprising given the existing leadership research, lecture-based learning is in-line with East African educational systems. Given this reality, Sub-Saharan leadership development researchers and practitioners should consider implementing more in-person or internet-based leadership lectures as an alternative to participants studying leadership topics by themselves.

The contextualized leadership framework introduced by the researcher should be considered by leadership development curriculum developers and facilitators in any setting in order to deliver the most contextualized leadership development programming. The researcher's theory is that leadership development implementers should consider the various learner profiles in order to determine the leadership theories (content) and learning theories (leadership learning method) in order to deliver a contextualized leadership program.

Leadership development practitioners should consider implementing andragogical leadership learning methods into their leadership learning frameworks. Participants are more motivated to learn knowledge, abilities, and skills from a training opportunity if they know that their work performance will improve (Bass et al., 2009). In one research study, participants were significantly more motivated to learn about leadership if they could see the interrelatedness of leadership concepts to their work, are confident in their ability to apply learned abilities, and believe the new abilities would help manage job demands (Noe & Schmitt, 1986).

The researcher agrees with Haber's (2011) exhortation for leadership programming to continually adapt to student needs and advances in leadership theory and application. To this end, Sub-Saharan African and global higher education institutions, and public and private sector human resource personnel should investigate, evaluate, and publish leadership development findings in order to add to the very limited Sub-Saharan African leadership literature.

Leadership development programming is currently viewed as a very small facet of human capital development efforts within a larger community or nation building strategy in Sub-Saharan Africa (Owusu-Ampomah, 2015). This fact is despite literature indicating Africa's most pressing need at this time is fostering ethical and capable leaders (Lawal & Tobi, 2006; Mwaniki, 2006; Owusu-Ampomah, 2015). The current concern for effective leader development for the Sub-Saharan African region yet the severe lack of leader development research and programs is very concerning. Organizations like the Young African Leadership Initiative (YALI), Ashesi University Foundation, the African Leadership University, and the program explored in this study are rare and should be further studied. The researcher recommends leadership development program staff in the Sub-Saharan African region should cross-pollinate ideas and produce comparative leadership research on the impact and efficacy of their leadership programs.

Relief and development organizations, as well as local Sub-Saharan African organizations that focus on local human capital development solutions should evaluate how they could best incorporate indigenous leadership development programming throughout the enterprise. While leadership development may not be the main thrust for a vast amount of human development organizations, it is important for leadership development to be integrated to better enable organizational goals. Employee leadership development opportunities and leadership pipelines should be integrated into an overall human resource strategy within Sub-Saharan organizations. Relief and development organizations should consider utilizing personal and ethical leadership development skill building tools within their program implementation methodology. For example, micro-finance organizations solutions have become pervasive throughout the Sub-Saharan African region. Personal and ethical leadership skill building activities coupled with a values-based framework could be integrated within the micro-finance curriculum for loan recipients. A robust system for formative and summative evaluation should be developed to assist organizations to best understand and utilize leadership development solutions.

Sub-Saharan African countries are currently facing a significant talent and leadership shortage due to the mass migration of some of their brightest individuals who move to developed countries for new opportunities. Local governments, businesses, and international non-profit agencies should consider providing incentives for high potential leaders to invest within their local contexts to generate value for their local communities and sectors. This leadership or talent development strategy should include encouraging expatriates to return to their home countries. Incentives could include scholarships to attend higher education institutions or leadership program opportunities and financial incentives.

## **Recommendations**

There are number of recommendations for future research. Follow-up qualitative studies are recommended to further explore the results from this study. For example, while LDP participants cited servant leadership as the most helpful leadership topic, the researcher recommends researching how servant leadership is relevant in various professional environments in Kenya and Uganda given Sub-Saharan African societies report high power distances between leaders and followers (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Jackson, 2004). LDP participants cited integrity as the second most important leadership topic and ethical leadership topics were deemed as least unhelpful. The researcher recommends studying how LDP graduates integrate Christian ethics in the workplace given the high rates of corruption and milieu of a general mistrust of leaders in the region (Gaeta & Vasilara, 1998). Given the perceived high impact of the program, a phenomenological study is recommended to further elucidate the learner's experience in the program.

The researcher recommends further analysis of LDP impact by comparing various indicators (e.g., income, self-reported leadership abilities, leadership impacts, etc.) between LDP graduates, individuals that were eligible for the LDP but were not admitted and still graduated from college, and other college graduates from the large Christian non-profit organization's child development program.

While participant responses indicated the LDP enabled them to engage in leadership behaviors post-program, this research did not take into account other factors that could have led to post-program leadership behaviors. Therefore, the researcher recommends a mixed-method study to more deeply analyze and understand the factors that may have led LDP graduates to engage in post-program leadership behaviors.



The LDP employed a talent identification process within the child development program which should be further studied by educational institutions and human development organizations in order to learn how to best identify and develop high potential leaders during their youth.

According to Bass et al. (2009) trainer qualities, participant group dynamics, reinforcement, and the level of congeniality in the environment impact training outcomes. The researcher recommends an analysis of these four environmental impacts within the LDP context to further understand learners' perceptions of the programmatic experience.

The researcher recommends expanding this research to other countries that implemented the LDP. One research expansion idea is to include other countries in Sub-Saharan Africa that were not included in this study to create a more robust East African LDP leadership impact and effectiveness study. Another research expansion project could be to include all countries that operated the LDP in Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, Latin America, and South America to create a global LDP study.

Given the existence of other leadership programs for college-aged individuals in Sub-Saharan Africa, the researcher suggests conducting a comparative analysis of leadership programs for college-aged participants across the continent using the contextualized leadership programming framework as an analysis tool.

Experiential learning was the most preferred leadership learning method in this research project and was also established as a resource-intensive means of leadership learning by the large Christian non-profit organization. The researcher suggests a meta-analysis of experiential leadership learning research studies to provide recommendations to Sub-Saharan African

leadership development practitioners and researchers. The focus of the study could be to identify scalable, culturally-relevant, and economical experiential leadership learning methods.

Surprisingly, leadership learning opportunities via developmental relationships were not more potent than formal leadership learning opportunities. It is important to note that upward mentors were identified, selected, and mostly managed by LDP participants. While global LDP mentor training curriculum and standards were introduced to field offices in 2009, research findings call into question the quality of upward mentoring relationships. The selection, training, and management of upward mentors may have been the leadership training element with the lowest amount of quality control. Additional research is needed to understand as well as to evaluate the maximization of LDP mentors in the lives of LDP participants.

### **Evaluation**

The LDP was a multi-faceted human development program considering the five outcome areas (i.e., mental, socio-emotional, physical, spiritual, and leadership). The researcher chose to not analyze all program elements given the scope of this research was solely leadership development. Respondents may have found it difficult to separate and evaluate only the leadership development portions of the program when taking the survey. As a result, the researcher could have scoped this research as a human development program case study which included all program outcome areas and elements.

Implementing contextualized strategies and tactics to garner survey responses is critical. The researcher was told by staff at the large Christian non-profit organization that it would be difficult to acquire an adequate number of survey responses if the researcher directly e-mailed participants. As a result, the researcher sought feedback on data collection strategies from former leadership program delivery staff in Kenya and Uganda as well as former LDP participants. Their

data collection ideas were collected and analyzed. While not all data collection ideas were possible, their ideas were instrumental in the final data collection process which acquired 279 responses.

The principal investigator sent monthly e-mails to former program delivery staff and former participants committed to assisting with data collection throughout this research. The e-mails provided updates on the research, communicated gratitude for their support, and reiterated the potential impact of the study. Program delivery staff and former participants stated the monthly e-mail communications increased their interest in and commitment to the research.

The researcher received invaluable feedback from the dissertation committee at select periods of time which helped shape the research question, sub-questions, research methodology, survey instrument, data analysis methods, and data display. It may have been more advantageous for the researcher to seek out committee feedback earlier and throughout the research endeavor to work more efficiently.

The LDP operated in other East African countries including Tanzania, Rwanda, and Ethiopia. The reasons why participants from these countries were not included in this research were because of language differences, a lack of the researcher's connection with former LDP program delivery staff in these countries, and a lack of resources to complete research within a reasonable timeframe. This dissertation research would have been greatly enriched with data from the other East African countries.

The original intent of the researcher was to conduct a global study by including LDP participants from Asia, Latin America, South America, and Sub-Saharan Africa. After consultations with former personnel from the large Christian non-profit organization, the researcher understood that LDP participant reflections from the other countries that implemented

the LDP would have required a team of research assistants, more than a year to prepare for the study, and significant funding to support them.

Similar to other post-program evaluations, this research captured respondent feedback at one single point in time. Considering half of the sample completed the LDP longer than seven years ago, there was a concern that participants that completed the LDP five or more years ago may not be able to accurately recall the most salient LDP leadership topics or leadership learning methods. Data analysis indicated participants that completed the program between one and four years ago did not respond significantly different than participants that completed the program between five and nine years ago or ten to seventeen years ago. These findings support the idea of expanding this research to LDP participants in other countries that may have completed the program more than four years ago.

The LDP mission, vision, curriculum and program offerings were based upon Judeo-Christian principles and all participants were professed Christians. It is important to ask if the LDP case study and research findings are relevant to non-Christian or non-faith-based environments. The researcher believes this case study is relevant to secular environments for two reasons. First, the systematic leadership learning model (Bass & Stogdill, 1990) states a values-based framework should be coupled with curriculum to create effective leadership programs. In this case, Christianity provided a very clear moral framework for LDP participants. A secular values based-framework could also create salient leadership programming. Second, the problem statement cited unethical leadership being a significant ill within the Sub-Saharan African continent. The LDP case study offers an example of how moral and ethical frameworks within leadership programs could be implemented to promote more ethical leaders for the region.

As stated in chapter four, Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for 5 of 6 scales were below the desired standard of  $\alpha \geq .70$  (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). These alphas were not surprising given the few number of items in many of the scales and some scales contained items that were only tangentially related to each other (Bernardi, 1994). As a result, it is important to state results would be more dependable if scale score findings for SQ2, SQ3, SQ4 were based upon scales that were more reliable.

Chapters four and five were written during the COVID-19 outbreak in late winter and spring of 2020. COVID-19 was a substantial interrupter and created a new normal for billions of people around the world. The researcher's professional life at the time was composed of directing international education programs for more than 300 undergraduate students at seven campuses across the world. It was a challenge for the researcher to fully give attention to as well as to complete chapters four and five due to the need of focusing on assisting students to return home, shifting to an online learning environment, and closing multiple global campuses. The researcher was grateful for the tremendous assistance LDP cohort leaders and staff provided during this time. The encouragement and coaching from the dissertation committee and Pepperdine professors and staff kept the momentum up to complete the research. The researcher's spouse took on a significant amount of household duties during his entire doctoral program and especially so during the spring 2020 semester where she managed distance learning for their children for a few months. The principle investigator acknowledges the support, direction, and partnership during this difficult time was the most potent element that led to the successful publishing of this manuscript.

The identification and grooming of potential Christian leadership program participants during primary and secondary school years may be unique in the relief and development field

and could be a significant factor in the perceived success of the LDP. When LDP participants took part in the child development program, participants were regularly evaluated, supported, and promoted for leadership development opportunities. Therefore, results from this research should be understood within the context of a highly engaged staff that monitored and supported future LDP participants during pre-collegiate years.

Finally, the researcher learned the importance of carefully planning a study with all relevant stakeholders and to create as much flexibility as possible in the research plan to account for elements which are outside the control of the researcher.

### **Chapter Summary**

The objective of this case study was to explore the efficacy and impact of a multi-year servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions. The following research question guided this study: What is the efficacy and impact of a servant leadership-based program for East African college students with a poverty background based on participant perceptions and do various demographic factors influence their assessments?

Sub-questions for this research were reviewed. Findings from this study included that exemplify servant leadership and live with integrity were the two most helpful leadership topics to develop leadership skills. Ethical leadership topics were the least likely to be deemed unhelpful. Lastly, the 70:20:10 Model of Leadership Learning by Lombardo and Eichinger (1996) was partially supported in that LDP participants stated experiential learning was the most effective form of leadership learning compared to formal or relational learning. Conclusions from this study were drawn and implications and recommendations were discussed. This chapter concluded with an evaluation of the research methodology.

Research points to effective and ethical leadership being a top need for the Sub-Saharan African region (Adadevoh, 2007; Ncube, 2010). There is currently very scant literature on Sub-Saharan African leadership theory or leadership programming (Bolden & Kirk, 2009).

Researching the LDP provided an opportunity to rigorously study a multi-year servant-leadership based leadership program which operated in Uganda and Kenya for more than 15 years. The contextualized leadership programming framework and research elucidated the LDP's unique and robust implementation model. Overall, the LDP successfully integrated the learner profile into the program model to support contextualized leadership programming as evidenced by the lack of significant differences in participant responses.

The LDP case study provides non-profits, public, and private sectors with compelling evidence to identify and groom high potential youth for leadership impacts within the Sub-Saharan African region. The LDP case study elicited positive results which will continue to propagate in the lives of LDP participants and those they lead and serve in their families, communities, and nations.

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## APPENDIX A

## Document Analysis Permission

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**Alistair** [REDACTED]

Mon, Mar 9, 1:01 PM (11 days ago)



to me ▾

Hey Greg,  
You are good to go,  
Al

---

**From:** Chuck [REDACTED]  
**Sent:** Tuesday, March 10, 2020 6:51 AM  
**To:** Alistair Sim [REDACTED]  
**Subject:** RE: LDP Research Update

I have no problem with that.

---

**From:** Alistair [REDACTED]  
**Sent:** Sunday, March 08, 2020 5:43 PM  
**To:** Chuck [REDACTED]  
**Subject:** FW: LDP Research Update

Hey Chuck,  
Any thoughts on this?



Al

---

**From:** Greg A Muger <[greg.muger@pepperdine.edu](mailto:greg.muger@pepperdine.edu)>  
**Sent:** Thursday, March 5, 2020 12:14 PM  
**To:** Alistair [REDACTED]  
**Subject:** Re: LDP Research Update

Hi Alistair,

Thank you again for working with me on my research. I have analyzed data from 277 Kenyan and Ugandan respondents. There are some interesting findings that I would like to discuss with you after my dissertation is published. Very positive.

Checking in to see if Chuck got back to you regarding the document analysis request. Appreciate your guidance.

All the best.

Thank you,

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**Greg Muger**

## APPENDIX B

## Survey Items, Scales, Scope, and Level of Evaluation

Item #	Survey Item	Response Options	Scales	Item Scope	Kirkpatrick Evaluation Level	Bloom's Cognitive Process Dimension
1	Select the three (3) LDP topics that helped you the most to develop your leadership skills	A. Practice personal disciplines B. Time management C. Personal awareness D. Live with integrity E. Strive for excellence F. Conflict management G. Interpersonal skills development H. Cherish family I. Equip others J. Humbly listen K. Lead with courage L. Master communications M. Ignite passion for ministry N. Commit to a local church O. Exemplify servant leadership	Leadership topic scale categories  <b><u>Self-leadership</u></b> A. Practice personal disciplines B. Time management C. Personal awareness D. Live with integrity E. Strive for excellence  <b><u>Leading others</u></b> F. Conflict management G. Interpersonal skills development H. Cherish family I. Equip others J. Humbly listen K. Lead with courage L. Master communications  <b><u>Ethical leadership</u></b> M. Ignite passion for ministry N. Commit to a local church O. Exemplify servant leadership	Leadership topics	1	Applying & Evaluating

(continued)



Item #	Survey Item	Response Options	Scales	Item Scope	Kirkpatrick Evaluation Level	Bloom's Cognitive Process Dimension
2	Select the three (3) LDP leadership topics that least helped you develop your leadership skills.	A. Practice personal disciplines B. Time management C. Personal awareness D. Live with integrity E. Strive for excellence F. Conflict management G. Interpersonal skills development H. Cherish family I. Equip others J. Humbly listen K. Lead with courage L. Master communications M. Ignite passion for ministry N. Commit to a local church O. Exemplify servant leadership	Leadership topic scale categories  <u><b>Self-leadership</b></u> A. Practice personal disciplines B. Time management C. Personal awareness D. Live with integrity E. Strive for excellence  <u><b>Leading others</b></u> F. Conflict management G. Interpersonal skills development H. Cherish family I. Equip others J. Humbly listen K. Lead with courage L. Master communications  <u><b>Ethical leadership</b></u> M. Ignite passion for ministry N. Commit to a local church O. Exemplify servant leadership	Leadership topics	1	Evaluating

(continued)

Item #	Survey Item	Response Options	Scales	Item Scope	Kirkpatrick Evaluation Level	Bloom's Cognitive Process Dimension
3	Rate the effectiveness of these LDP leadership learning methods.  A. Peer mentoring (fellow students or campus/batch leader) B. Your upward mentor C. Counseling/support from LDP Specialists D. Service opportunities E. Leadership workshop F. Studying LDP topics by yourself G. Lectures on leadership	A. Extremely effective (5) B. Very effective (4) C. Moderately effective (3) D. Somewhat effective (2) E. Slightly effective (1)	Leadership learning scale categories  <b><u>Developmental Relationships</u></b> A. Peer mentoring (fellow students or campus/batch leader) B. Your upward mentor C. Counseling/support from LDP Specialists  <b><u>Experiential</u></b> D. Service opportunities (examples: work camps or service at a child development project) E. Leadership workshop  <b><u>Formal</u></b> F. Studying LDP topics by yourself G. Lectures on leadership	Leadership learning methods	2	Evaluating
4a	To what extent would you agree that the LDP inspired you to take on leadership opportunities after the program?	A. Strongly agree (6) B. Agree (5) C. Somewhat agree (4) D. Somewhat disagree (3) E. Disagree (2) F. Strongly disagree (1)		Program impact scale	3	Evaluating

(continued)

Item #	Survey Item	Response Options	Scales	Item Scope	Kirkpatrick Evaluation Level	Bloom's Cognitive Process Dimension
4b	To what extent would you agree that the LDP leadership training you received is relevant to your work environment?	A. Strongly agree (6) B. Agree (5) C. Somewhat agree (4) D. Somewhat disagree (3) E. Disagree (2) F. Strongly disagree (1)		Program impact scale	1	Evaluating
4c	To what extent would you agree that the LDP leadership training you received contributed towards your life's success?	A. Strongly agree (6) B. Agree (5) C. Somewhat agree (4) D. Somewhat disagree (3) E. Disagree (2) F. Strongly disagree (1)		Program impact scale	1	Evaluating
4d	To what extent would you agree that the LDP leadership training helped you to be an effective leader today?	A. Strongly agree (6) B. Agree (5) C. Somewhat agree (4) D. Somewhat disagree (3) E. Disagree (2) F. Strongly disagree (1)		Program impact scale	1	Evaluating
5	In which of these ways, if any, have you been making leadership contributions since you completed the LDP? Select all that apply.	A. Mentoring someone B. Conducting leadership training C. Involved in a ministry D. Advocating for the poor E. Leading a work team F. Leading an organization G. Part of church leadership H. None		Leadership Contributions	4	Applying

(continued)

Item #	Survey Item	Response Options	Scales	Item Scope	Kirkpatrick Evaluation Level	Bloom's Cognitive Process Dimension
6	To what extent would you agree that the leadership training you received in the LDP better enabled you to do the following?  A. Get a job B. Supervise others C. Lead myself D. Lead in a church or ministry E. Lead in my community F. Lead in a secular organization G. Lead in my family	A. Strongly agree (6) B. Agree (5) C. Somewhat agree (4) D. Somewhat disagree (3) E. Disagree (2) F. Strongly disagree (1)		Program enablement	3	Applying
7	Did you complete the LDP?	Yes/No		Demographics		
8	Gender	Male, Female		Demographics		
9	Nationality	Kenyan, Ugandan		Demographics		
10	What year did you complete the LDP?	Actual year		Demographics		
11	What is the highest level of education you have achieved?	bachelors degree, graduate degree		Demographics		
12	Current marital status	Single, Married		Demographics		
13	Number of children you have	Actual number of children		Demographics		

(continued)

Item #	Survey Item	Response Options	Scales	Item Scope	Kirkpatrick Evaluation Level	Bloom's Cognitive Process Dimension
14	What is your current employment status?	A. Work in a ministry or church B. Work in a business setting C. Work in a government or non-profit setting D. Not employed but able to work E. Stay at home parent F. Full-time student G. Military H. Retired I. Unable to work		Demographics		
15	How many people do you supervise at work?	Actual number of supervisees		Demographics		
16	Please write your email address below if you wish to receive a study summary and full copy of the study.	Open text response				

## APPENDIX C

## IRB Approval From Pepperdine University



Pepperdine University  
24255 Pacific Coast Highway  
Malibu, CA 90263  
TEL: 310-506-4000

**NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH**

Date: February 10, 2020

Protocol Investigator Name: Greg Muger

Protocol #: 19-12-1238

Project Title: LEADER DEVELOPMENT IN EAST AFRICA: A CASE STUDY OF A MULTI-YEAR COLLEGE STUDENT LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Greg Muger:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at [community.pepperdine.edu/irb](http://community.pepperdine.edu/irb).

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,



## APPENDIX D

## Informed Consent

**PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY**  
**INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES**  
**LEADER DEVELOPMENT IN EAST AFRICA**

**DESCRIPTION:** Because you are a former [REDACTED] Kenyan or Ugandan Leadership Development Program (LDP) participant, you are invited to participate in a brief research study conducted by Greg Muger, Doctoral Student at Pepperdine University. Your participation is voluntary.

**PURPOSE OF THE STUDY:** The purpose of the study is to evaluate how LDP participants from Kenya and Uganda best learned leadership, what leadership topics were most effective in developing leadership abilities, the impact the leadership training has made in their lives, and determine how various demographic factors influence their assessments.

**TIME INVOLVEMENT:** Your participation will take approximately 10-15 minutes.

**RISKS AND BENEFITS:** The risks of participating in this study are less than minimal and include distraction from other duties for 10-15 minutes while completing the survey. Participating in this study offers no direct benefits. Indirectly the results of this study may serve to provide guidance for those that wish to offer leadership programming in the Sub-Saharan African region.

**PAYMENTS:** You will not be paid to participate.

**PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL:** Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

**ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION:** The alternative to participation in the study is to not participate.

**CONFIDENTIALITY:** There is no requirement for any identifiable information to be obtained in connection with this study. You may choose to enter your email address if you wish to receive a copy of the full study. Data from survey responses will be stored on a password protected Qualtrics account for up to 12 months or until the study is accepted by Pepperdine University. The investigator will secure data on the investigator's password-protected and encrypted computer and on an encrypted USB-C drive kept in a locked cabinet at the investigator's personal residence. All USB-C drives used for this research will be destroyed within 3 years of the completion of the study.

**RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION:** If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or

research in general please contact [REDACTED] of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500 Los Angeles, CA 90045, [REDACTED].

**INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION:** I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Greg Muger at [REDACTED] if I have any other questions or concerns about this research.

**CONSENT:** By clicking on the I ACCEPT button below, you are acknowledging that you have read the study information. You also understand that you may end your participation at any time, for any reason without penalty.

Principal Investigator Contact Information:

Greg Muger

Pepperdine University Doctoral Student  
[REDACTED]



## APPENDIX E

## Leadership Development Program Survey Instrument

**Start of Block: Study Information and Informed Consent****Introduction****INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPATION IN RESEARCH ACTIVITIES**

**DESCRIPTION:** Because you are a former Kenyan or Ugandan Leadership Development Program (LDP) participant, you are invited to participate in a brief research study conducted by Greg Muger, Doctoral Student at Pepperdine University. Your participation is voluntary.

**PURPOSE OF THE STUDY:** The purpose of the study is to evaluate how LDP participants from Kenya and Uganda best learned leadership, what leadership topics were most effective in developing leadership abilities, the impact the leadership training has made in their lives, and determine how various demographic factors influence their assessments.

**TIME INVOLVEMENT:** Your participation will take approximately 10-15 minutes.

**RISKS AND BENEFITS:** The risks of participating in this study are less than minimal and include distraction from other duties for 10-15 minutes while completing the survey.

Participating in this study offers no direct benefits. Indirectly the results of this study may serve to provide guidance for those that wish to offer leadership programming in the Sub-Saharan African region.

**PAYMENTS:** You will not be paid to participate.

**PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL:** Your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

**ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION:** The alternative to participation in the study is to not participate.

**CONFIDENTIALITY:** There is no requirement for any identifiable information to be obtained in connection with this study. You may choose to enter your email address if you wish to receive a copy of the full study. Data from survey responses will be stored on a password protected Qualtrics account for up to 12 months or until the study is accepted by Pepperdine University. The investigator will secure data on the investigator's password-protected and encrypted computer and on an encrypted USB-C drive kept in a locked cabinet at the investigator's personal residence. All USB-C drives used for this research will be destroyed within 3 years of the completion of the study.

**RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION:** If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact [REDACTED]

**INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION:** I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Greg Muger at [REDACTED] if I have any other questions or concerns about this research.

**CONSENT:** By clicking on the I ACCEPT button below, you are acknowledging that you have read the study information. You also understand that you may end your participation at any time,

for any reason without penalty.  
Principal Investigator Contact Information:  
Greg Muger  
Pepperdine University Doctoral Student  
[REDACTED]

I ACCEPT (1)

End of Block: Study Information and Informed Consent

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Start of Block: Leadership Topics in Compassion's LDP



Q1

Select the three (3) LDP leadership topics that helped you the most to develop your leadership skills.

- Practice personal disciplines (1)
- Time management (2)
- Personal awareness (3)
- Live with integrity (4)
- Strive for excellence (5)
- Conflict management (6)
- Interpersonal skills development (7)
- Cherish family (8)
- Equip others (9)
- Humbly listen (10)
- Lead with courage (11)

- Master communications (12)
- Ignite passion for ministry (13)
- Commit to a local church (14)
- Exemplify servant leadership (15)



Q2 Select the three (3) LDP leadership topics that least helped you develop your leadership skills.

- Practice personal disciplines (1)
- Time management (2)
- Personal awareness (3)
- Live with integrity (4)
- Strive for excellence (5)
- Conflict management (6)
- Interpersonal skills development (7)
- Cherish family (8)
- Equip others (9)
- Humbly listen (10)
- Lead with courage (11)

- Master communications (12)
- Ignite passion for ministry (13)
- Commit to a local church (14)
- Exemplify servant leadership (15)

End of Block: Leadership Topics in Compassion's LDP

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Start of Block: Leadership learning



Q3 Rate the effectiveness of these LDP leadership learning methods.

	Extremely effective (1)	Very effective (2)	Moderately effective (3)	Somewhat effective (4)	Slightly effective (5)
Peer mentoring (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Your upward mentor (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Counseling/support from LDP Specialists (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
LDP service opportunities (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
LDP leadership workshops (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Studying LDP topics by yourself (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
LDP lectures on leadership (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

End of Block: Leadership learning

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Start of Block: LDP Impact in Your Life



## Q4 To what extent would you agree that the LDP...

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Somewhat disagree (4)	Disagree (5)	Strongly disagree (6)
Inspired you to take on leadership opportunities after the program? (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Leadership training you received is relevant to your work environment? (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Leadership training you received contributed towards your life's success? (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Helped you to be an effective leader today? (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>





Q5 In which of these ways, if any, have you been making leadership contributions since you completed the LDP? Select all that apply.

- Mentoring someone (1)
- Conducting leadership training (2)
- Advocating for the poor (3)
- Leading a work team (4)
- Leading an organization (5)
- Part of church leadership (6)
- Involved in a ministry (7)
- None (8)



Q6 To what extent would you agree that the leadership training in the LDP better enabled you to do the following?

	Strongly agree (1)	Agree (2)	Somewhat agree (3)	Somewhat disagree (4)	Disagree (5)	Strongly disagree (6)
Get a job (1)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Supervise others (2)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lead myself (3)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lead in my family (4)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lead in a church or ministry (5)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lead in my community (6)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lead in a secular organization (7)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

End of Block: LDP Impact in Your Life

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Start of Block: Demographic information

Q7 Did you complete the LDP?

Yes (1)

No (2)

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Q8 Gender

Male (1)

Female (2)

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Q9 Nationality

Kenyan (1)

Ugandan (2)

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Q10 What year did you complete the LDP?

2002 (1)

2003 (2)

2004 (3)

2005 (21)

2006 (22)

2007 (23)

2008 (24)

2009 (25)

2010 (26)

2011 (27)

2012 (28)

2013 (29)

2014 (30)

2015 (31)

2016 (32)

2017 (33)

2018 (34)

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Q11 What is the highest level of education you have achieved?

Bachelor's degree (1)

Graduate degree (2)

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Q12 Current marital status

Single (1)

Married (2)

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## Q13 Number of children you have

 0 (1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6 (7) 7 (8) 8 (9) 9+ (10)

Q14 What is your current employment status?

- Work in a ministry of church setting (1)
  - Work in a business setting (2)
  - Work in a government or non-profit setting (3)
  - Not employed but able to work (4)
  - Stay at home parent (5)
  - Full-time student (6)
  - Military (7)
  - Retired (8)
  - Unable to work (9)
-

Q15 How many people do you supervise at work?

0 (1)

1 (2)

2 (3)

3 (4)

4 (5)

5 (6)

6 (7)

7 (8)

8 (9)

9 (10)

10 (11)

11 (12)

12 (13)

13 (14)



14 (15)

15 (16)

16 (17)

17 (18)

18 (19)

19 (20)

20 (21)

21 (22)

22 (23)

23 (24)

24 (25)

25+ (26)



Q16 Please write your email address below if you wish to receive a study summary and full copy of research findings.

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**End of Block: Demographic information**

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## APPENDIX F

## Recruitment Email

Subject: Leadership Development Program (LDP) Survey Invitation

Dear [Name of Prospective Participant]

Because you are a former [REDACTED] Kenyan or Ugandan Leadership Development Program (LDP) participant, you are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Greg Muger, Doctoral Student at Pepperdine University. Your participation is voluntary.

The purpose of the study is to evaluate how LDP participants from Kenya and Uganda best learned leadership, what leadership topics were most effective in developing leadership abilities, and the impact the leadership training has made in their lives. Your participation will take approximately 7-12 minutes.

Please click on this link to take the survey: [REDACTED]

Thank you,

[Name of LDP Cohort Leader]