

Leadership for Promoting Sustainable Development: A Study of Nongovernmental Organization Leaders in Haiti

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Abstract: Nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have played an increasingly important role in global governance. Since the end of the Second World War, they have been involved in every aspect of social, economic, environmental, and institutional life in the whole world. The presence of NGOs has been seen as a necessity for the developing world, but much more so for low-income countries such as Haiti. The amount of scholarship dedicated to the post-2010 Haiti earthquake revitalization indicates that Haiti must heavily rely on the leadership of NGOs so that the country can achieve its sustainable development goals by 2030. However, significant delays in progress to date makes one question NGO leaders' readiness for leading sustainable development initiatives. Since achievement of sustainable development requires certain characteristics and acumen among the NGO leaders, more must be known about the NGO leadership. This research study examined the relationship between leaders' characteristics—leadership experience, knowledge of sustainable development, internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency—and the impact or location of their organizations. MANOVA results revealed significant group differences. The difference was that low impact NGO leaders reported higher levels of leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable than their medium and high impact counterparts. This study contributes to the NGO research literature by shedding light on some leader characteristics. These should be emphasized in any NGO leadership development programs aimed at promoting sustainable development in Haiti.

Keywords: Haiti, leader, leadership, nongovernmental organization, Sustainable development, nongovernmental organization

Introduction

Since their inception in the 1960s, nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) have played an increasingly vital role in leadership helping the world to deal with various social, economic, and environmental issues that are of uttermost importance (Ezeoha, 2006; Fernando, 2011; Karns & Mingst, 2010). As representatives of global civil society, such organizations are known as major non-state actors in global governance (Karns & Mingst, 2010; Ward, 2005). In a summary analysis of the 1995 report of the United Nations Commission on Global Governance, Lamb (1996) asserts that "NGO participation in global governance is an essential feature, and is, in fact, the dimension of governance that is totally new. It is no longer just an idea" (p. 10).

The term NGO is largely discussed in the scholarly literature (Fernando, 2011; Martens, 2002; Werker & Ahmed, 2008). Nonetheless, several academics and policymakers have adopted operational definitions provided by the United Nations and the World Bank (Kamat, 2003; Shihata, 1992; Bräutigam & Segarra, 2007). In these definitions of NGO, both global institutions have made a great effort to characterize the NGOs, clarify their purpose, and assign them specific roles in global governance. Nonetheless, this incredible effort did not prevent scholars from several allied disciplines—most notably economics—from delving deeper into the NGOs so as to boost understanding of their actual nature, purpose, function, and role in global governance (Teegen, Doh, and Vachani, 2004).

As a discipline, economics has been used in the study of the nonprofit sector (Steinberg, 2006). NGOs, as stakeholders in the nonprofit sector, have increasingly played a role in the world economy (Guay, 2004). However, the economic roles of NGOs are most noticeable in the context of the developing economies (Guay, 2004). An attempt to explain the economic role of the NGOs is expressed in the 'three-failures theory' (Steinberg, 2006).

Proponents of this theory proclaim that the nonprofit organizations—including the nongovernmental organizations—are instruments in the hands of the global civil society to respond to market and government failures (Steinberg, 2006). The three-failures theory was the main theoretical framework for this study as it helps to understand the economics role of NGOs as components of the nonprofit sector.

NGOs have imposed themselves on the developing world, the low-income countries in particular, as indispensable social and economic change agents (Lindenberg & Bryant 2001; Wallace, 2009; Fernando, 2011). Their rationale has been that the developing countries need them because they are part of the non-profit sector that is value-driven (Ebrahim, 2003; Kilby, 2006). Based on this rationale, they have promised “to compensate for the shortcomings of the state and of corporations while contributing to sustainable development and environmental justice” (Fernando, 2011, p. viii) in the world in general, and in the developing countries in particular. Nonetheless, the persistent conditions of socioeconomic precarity in which the peoples of the developing countries live have led many to question NGOs’ abilities and effectiveness to lead sustainable development initiatives (Fernando, 2011)

The important question of NGO leadership has moved to the center stage of the sustainable development debate following the dreadful earthquake that rocked Haiti in January 2010 (Pierre-Louis, 2011). In this debate, there has been a consensus on two points. The first is that, as pre-earthquake as well as post-earthquake scholarly works suggest, sustainable development is lacking in Haiti (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Pierre-Louis, 2011; Schuller, 2007a). The second is that the lack of sustainable development is due, in part, to the failure of foreign aid assistance programs that operate, for the most part, under the auspices of NGOs (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Pierre Étienne, 1997; Pierre-Louis, 2011; Schuller, 2007a). So, the earthquake only highlighted the already precarious social, economic, environmental, and institutional situation of the country.

The failure of the Haitian government and the for-profit sector to provide adequate remedies to this alarming situation has led to the proliferation of nongovernmental organizations (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Kristoff & Panarelli, 2010; Zanotti, 2010). There are legitimate concerns and doubts about the abilities of NGOs to live up to their promise to reshape society (Fernando, 2011), but they have been increasingly looked upon as alternatives for Haiti’s economic, ecological, social, and institutional redemption (Schuller, 2007b; Zanotti, 2010).

The amount of scholarship dedicated to post-2010 earthquake revitalization (Brown, 2011; Colglazier, 2015; International Monetary Fund, 2014; Nováček et al., 2008; Pisano et al., 2015; Toussaint-Comeau, 2012) indicates that Haiti must heavily rely on the leadership of nongovernmental organizations so that the country can achieve its sustainable development goals (SDGs) by 2030. However, significant delays in progress to date makes one question NGO leaders’ readiness for leading sustainable development initiatives, thereby causing the country to face an uncertain socioeconomic, ecological, and institutional future (Pierre-Louis, 2011; Zanotti, 2010;). Since achievement of sustainable development requires certain characteristics and acumen among the NGO leaders, more must be known about the NGOs’ leadership.

Supplementary knowledge about Latin American NGO leadership is desperately needed (Hailey, 2006). This study responds to that need by producing outcomes that will be useful to the main stakeholders—namely, NGOs, donors, and the Haitian government—engaged in Haiti’s development. By knowing more about the NGO leadership, the Haitian government will be better positioned to take to heart its duty to build capacity for maximizing the benefits of development assistance. Aid donors will be energized, and aid recipients satisfied.

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which leaders in grassroots nongovernmental organizations are able to provide leadership for sustainable development. The focus was primarily on investigating leader characteristics associated with nongovernmental organization performance. Here, performance is viewed in terms of the strength of the impact of grassroots NGOs engaged in development-related activities. In order to realize its purpose, this study addressed three questions. First, do NGOs from three classes of impact differ in terms of their leaders’ (1) knowledge of sustainable development, (2) leadership attitudes, and (3) leadership experience? Second, are there differences between geographical areas in respect to leaders’ (1) knowledge of sustainable development, (2) leadership attitudes, and (3) leadership experience? Third, are there differences between geographical areas in respect to impact of development activities on beneficiaries?

The remainder of this article is organized into five sections. The first section is a succinct review of extant literature on NGOs, sustainable development, and leadership. The second is a presentation of the methodology and methods used for collecting and analyzing the data. In the third, the results of the study are simply presented. The fourth section is devoted to a discussion of the results. The fifth section is about the implications of the findings. A conclusive statement marks the end of the article.

Literature Review

NGOs in the Context of Haiti

The socioeconomic and environmental conditions in which Haitians live are visible signs of state fragility and government failure in Haiti (Shamsie & Thompson, 2006). The post-Duvalier era has not only opened a democratic space for political participation and action in Haiti. It has also created better condition for entrepreneurship and economic development (Nicholls, 1996). This explains the rapid proliferation of grassroots NGOs in the country from 1986 onward (Kristoff & Panarelli, 2010). Most of the NGOs are involved in development program operations (Schuller, 2007a; Zanotti, 2010).

Typically, development programs are sponsored by intergovernmental organizations or governmental agencies such as the United States Agency for International Development (Buss & Gardner, 2006). The World Bank defines NGOs as “groups and institutions that are entirely/largely independent of government and characterized primarily by humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives’ and also as ‘private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, or undertake community development” (OD, No. 14.70, para. 2). In Haiti, a large number of NGOs are in concord with this definition (Kristoff & Panarelli, 2010; Schuller, 2007a; Zanotti, 2010).

In the low-income countries, NGOs are well-known as providers of goods and services to needy populations. The three-failure theory is an attempt to show that NGOs are not only providers, but also, they are legitimate actors in the economy alongside the state and the market (Steinberg, 2006). Like government and the market, the nonprofit sector has a broad role to play in the economy. The broad role is to intervene in the economy as corrective when the market or the government fail (Steinberg, 2006). This role makes the nonprofit sector an important contributor to sustainable development. NGOs may play a role in the economy in two ways. They may directly invest in the economy (Teegen, Doh, & Vachani, 2004). They may also indirectly have an impact on the economy through their impact on the beneficiaries (Steinberg, 2006).

Sustainable Development

A sustainable development movement started around the world in 1987. People in both the developed and developing countries were called upon to be part of that movement (Gillis, 2005). Active participation in the sustainable development movement presumes at least a basic knowledge and understanding of the concept of sustainable development. That is the reason why the United Nations have so far taken several initiatives to promote sustainable development awareness and engagement among individuals, communities, and countries around the world (UN General Assembly, 2000; UNESCO, 2005). The United Nations’ call to educate for sustainable development has given rise to two new developments in the area of sustainable development. First, countries around the world have started to incorporate sustainable development topics into their educational curricula at all levels (Michalos et al., 2009). Second, scholars have started to develop ways to measure the extent to which people are aware of the concept of sustainable development (Michalos et al., 2009).

Scholars and institutions have proposed a plethora of concepts and approaches to sustainable development. The Brundtland Commission defines sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (United Nations, 1987, para 27). This concept of sustainable development was well received among scholars. However, the academic controversy regarding the conceptualization and meaning of ‘sustainable development’ has persisted to this day (Bekemeyer et al., 2014; Spaiser, 2017).

Bardy, Massaro, and Rubens (2013) understand sustainable development as a multidimensional reality that comprises four dimensions: a) a systemic dimension; b) an ethics dimension; c) a growth dimension; and d) a measurement dimension. In their treatment of sustainable development as a systemic construct, these authors discuss four separate approaches, namely economic approach, ecological approach, social approach, and institutional approach. They do not only present the four approaches that constitute the systemic dimension of sustainable development. They also make attempt to show the extent to which the approaches are connected with each other “through multi-stakeholder dialogues” (p. 15). Their concept of stakeholder relation is based on system theory originally based on the thoughts of Herbert Spencer and Émile Durkheim (Bardy, Massaro, & Rubens, 2013).

Applied to sustainable development, systems theory allows understanding the interrelation between the different approaches (Bardy, Massaro, & Rubens, 2013). As the literature suggests, this holistic approach can be very helpful to any NGO leaders determined to contribute to fulfill their promise to transform the societies in which they work. Specifically, such an approach can stimulate effective leadership behavior and style for sustainable development. As Adenigba and Ayodeji (2010) argue, “at the heart of the success of the efforts for sustainable development is good leadership” (p. 18).

Leader Characteristics

In this study, the NGO leader is the unit of analysis. According to Hailey (2006), “dictionary definitions identify a leader as one that provides guidance by going in front, or causes others to go with them” (p. 2). NGO leaders are expected to have a number of specific characteristics that set them apart from other types of leaders. Plakhotnikova&Kurbanova (2008) mention some of these characteristics in *Profile of an NGO Leader*: “The qualities required of an NGO leader include professionalism, managerial and teamwork skills, and the ability to conduct a dialog with the government and with other non-governmental organizations....NGO leaders of today must [also] be competent, creative, and capable of strategic thinking. (p. 27). Such leader qualities discussed by Plakhotnikova&Kurbanova (2008) seem to make sense to profile good examples of NGO leaders. However, this study focused on three leadership characteristics: authenticity, experience, and knowledge.

Authentic leadership is an important leadership phenomenon in the contemporary world. Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson (2008) define authentic leadership as “a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders” (p. 94). The significance of authentic leadership is three-fold. First, authenticity in leadership is important in a world where leaders as well as organizations are increasingly being held accountable for their decisions and behavior (Khilji, Keilson, Shakir, & Shrestha, 2015). Second, “authentic leadership is the only way we know to create sustainable long-term results” (George, Sims, McLean, and Mayer, 2007, p. 8). Third, authentic leadership promotes healthy followership because the former presumes a close relationship between leaders and followers grounded in morality (Aviolo& Gardner, 2005).

There are four distinct conceptual components that make up authentic leadership: (a) Leader self-awareness, (b) relational transparency, (c) Internalized moral perspective, and (d) Balanced processing. In reviewing the literature for their study of authentic leadership, Walumbwa et al. (2008) provide a discussion of these concepts. The first components of authentic leadership, self-awareness, refers to the leader’ ability to receive feedback positively (positive and negative) about his or her performance and to self-supervise adequately. The second component, relational transparency, refers to the leader’ honesty and willingness to learn from his or her mistakes. The third component, internalized moral perspective, refers to leader’s ability to act in ways that are consistent with his or her personal belief system and values. The fourth component, balanced processing, has to with the leader’s openness to outside viewpoints that may support or contest his or her conclusions and decisions. Leaders become fully aware of these component as they grow in leadership experience (Thomas & Cheese, 2005).

Experience is considered to be an invaluable leader characteristic. Leaders are considered to be students in the school of leadership where experience is their best instructor (Thomas & Cheese, 2005). Formal and non-formal leadership education is important but actual living experience is more effective in forming leaders (Thomas & Cheese, 2005). The didactic power of experience is also noted by McCall (2004). The latter points out that “the primary source of learning to lead, to the extent that leadership can be learned, is experience” (p. 127). Fiedler (1994) identifies tenure and time as the main contributors to experience in an organization. A number of studies reviewed by Fiedler (1994) examine the relationship between leadership experience and leadership—or organizational—performance. Fiedler (1994) found that leadership experience is a weak contributor to leadership—or organizational—performance. All these authors seem to agree on the epistemological significance of experience.

Knowledge is another important leader characteristic that is worth highlighting. In his review of research on leadership traits, Hailey (2006) found that relevant knowledge is among the highest scored traits. For Hailey (2006), a well-developed leader should remain up-to-date in terms of knowledge. Zand (1997) posits that “effective leaders synthesize knowledge, trust, and power to develop and implement a strategic vision” (p. 5). In order to promote sustainable development, a leader needs to know what sustainable development is about. Knowledge and organizational or leadership performance are related. However, there is no empirical evidence that establishes a causation between an organization’s performance and the level of knowledge of its leader (Connelly et al., 2000).

The whole world knows that the situation of the environment, the economy, and the Haitian society is catastrophic (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Faria & Sánchez-Fung, 2009; Kreimer and Musasinghe, 1991; Pierre-Louis, 2010; Williams, 2011; Zanotti, 2010). This knowledge serves as justification for the case of lack of sustainable development in Haiti. Following the 2010 earthquake, NGOs have been called upon to show greater commitment to sustainable development in Haiti (Zanotti, 2010). They must change their strategy in order to be relevant in Haiti (Pierre-Louis, 2011). In their case study on leadership in Nigeria, Adenugba & Ayodeji (2010) conclude that “to move forward and to guarantee sustainable development, the [Nigerian] nation needs a new breed of leaders who are sensitive, patriotic, and accountable” (p. 18). The Haitian nation also longs for this same type of leaders (Pierre-Louis, 2010; Zanotti, 2010). In the context of NGO leadership, Hailey (2006) names these leaders catalytic leaders who are “more likely to generate longer-term, sustainable, strategic growth” (p. 3) to the benefit of both the NGO sector itself and society.

Methodology

In this study, the NGO leader is the unit of analysis. The population comprised leaders of nongovernmental organizations—domestic or international—that are currently active in Haiti’s development. The Haitian NGO population is quite large. The exact number of NGOs is unknown, but, in 2010, it was estimated to be in the thousands (Kristoff and Panareli, 2010). Among all these NGOs, only a small number are registered with the Haitian government. The Haitian Ministry of Planning and External Cooperation (MPCE) published a list of 605 NGOs that are registered for the fiscal year 2015/2016 (MPCE, 2016). The list includes important background information which will allow easy identification of these NGOs: Name, abbreviation, country of origin, address, registration number, approval date, email, telephone, and area of intervention. As indicated in this list, most of these NGOs are involved in agriculture.

The sample frame for this study was leaders whose NGOs are officially recognized in the country. The Government of Haiti has published a list of 605 NGOs that are registered for the fiscal year 2015-2016. Since sustainable development is part of the topic to be investigated, NGOs whose activities correspond to at least one of the four aspects of sustainable development—economic, social, environmental, and institutional—were considered. Therefore, the sample frame contained only NGOs that are involved in economic, social, environmental, or institutional development activities. Since the researcher did not have access to a complete list of NGO leaders in Haiti, a convenience sampling strategy was used. The sample for this study included NGO leaders who could be reached via email or in person, face-to-face during the data collection period. Due to data collection limitation, a sample of 78 NGO leaders participated in the study. Although small, the sample was enough for analysis. The tables 1-4 contain some demographic information about the sample.

Table 1: Frequency of NGO Leaders Based on Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	14	17.9%
Male	57	73.1
Total	71	100%

Table 2: Frequency of NGO Leaders Based on Age Group

Age	Frequency	Percentage
30-40	17	23.9%
41-50	24	33.8%
51-60	20	28.2
61-73	10	14.1%
Total	71	100%

Table 3: Frequency of NGO Leaders Based on Formal Academic Education

Formal Education	Frequency	Percentage
Primary Diploma	1	1.4%
High School – No Diploma	7	10.0%
HS Diploma I	7	10.0%
HS Diploma II	9	12.9%
Undergraduate	5	7.1%
Bachelor's	23	32.9%
Graduate	18	25.7%
Total	70	100%

Table 4: Frequency of NGOs Based on Location

Department	Frequency	Percentage
Artibonite	2	2.6%
Center	6	7.7%
Grand'Anse	1	1.3%
North	27	34.6%
Northeast	7	9.0%
Northwest	3	3.8%
West	18	23.1%
South	6	7.7%
Southeast	1	1.3%
Total	78	100%

Two forms of data collection were used in this study: online survey and face-to-face survey. The data collection was a four-step process. The first step was to identify the leaders of the NGOs. The second step consisted of piloting the questionnaires on a small group people. The third step was the launching of the data collection online. In an effort to boost response rate, the investigator was in the country for the last two weeks of the data collection, from July 30th, 2018 to August 12th, 2018. Several had the opportunity to complete the survey on paper and in person. Four different research instruments were used to collect the data: A demographics questionnaire (DQ), a knowledge of sustainable development index (KSDI), and the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ).

Two independent variables and a set of five dependent variables were involved in this study. The independent variables were impact and location. The variable “impact” has three levels: High Impact, medium impact, and low impact. In the 1997 study of OECD/DAC’s study of NGO evaluation, impact is defined as “improvements in the lives and livelihoods of beneficiaries” (p. 11). Impact assessment is very important to NGOs as they have no choice but to compete fiercely for resources and donor connections (Cannon, 2013). Despite the pressing need to assess the impact of NGO activities on beneficiaries, no clear assessment methods of impact assessment have been established (Cannon, 2013).

In a review of the literature paper, Cannon (2013) introduces a tripartite approach that was used by the Global Journal to evaluate NGO raw impact. For her, raw impact is “cost effective reach to maximum number of beneficiaries” (14). This approach comprises three sub-criteria: (a) ‘Raw’ NGO impact in terms of cost effectiveness (p.14);(b) “impact in comparison to counterpart organisations” (p.14); and (c) “impact to which an NGO achieves its mission/theory of change” (p. 14). According Cannon (2013), raw impact scores indicate “number of beneficiaries reached with ... number of staff and operating budget” (p. 14). This study considered the first- sub-criterion described above in the calculation of raw impact scores. More precisely and simply, impact was determined as the ratio of expenses to beneficiaries. Two items on the demographic survey were used to compute the ratios: total expenses and number of direct beneficiaries for the year 2017.

The independent variable “location” was broken down into three department groups: North & Northeast, West, and Other. Only three groups were formed due to the small size of the data sample. The formation of the group reflects the regional concentration of the NGOs. The Haitian territory is divided into 10 administrative departments: North, South, West, Nippes, Northwest, Artibonite, Southeast, Center, and Grand’Anse. The North & Northeast group reflects the similarity of these two departments. This group includes leaders whose NGOs have most of their activities in the Northern and Northeastern regions of the country. The West group include leaders whose NGOs are mostly active in the West. The “Other” group includes leaders whose NGOs are well-established in the other departments, excluding the North, The Northeast, and the West.

The data for the dependent variables were collected on all three questions. The variable “knowledge of sustainable development” was measured on a Knowledge of Sustainable Development Index owned by the International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD). The index includes 17 true or false statements designed to test understanding of the concept of sustainable development. The level of knowledge of sustainable development is determined according to the number of correct answers. For this reason, this variable was coded “# of correct answers.”

The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was used to measure authentic leadership. This questionnaire is well-established, and it was designed to measure the components that comprise leadership attitudes. It is a set of 16 items rated on a Likert scale. of 0-4, where 0 = Not at all and 4 = Frequently, if not always. A bilingual French/Haitian Creole, self-rater version of the questionnaire was used in the study. This questionnaire measures authentic leadership on four different scales: Transparency, moral/ethical, balance processing, and self-awareness. For the purpose of this study, only the first three scales were considered.

Leadership experience was one of the leader characteristics studied in this study. This variable was measured as the total number of years in a leadership position. The participant was asked to give an answer to the question “How many years of leadership experience do you have?” As table 6 shows, the leaders have a mean experience of 13.9 years.

Once collected, the data were analyzed utilizing appropriate tools and techniques. In this analysis, each variable—dependent or independent—were described and inferences were made using IBM SPSS version 25. The analysis followed a three-step process: Data cleaning, descriptive analysis, and inferential analysis. Overall, 99 surveys were returned to the researcher: 72 were completed online and 27 were completed in person. Among the NGO leaders

surveyed, 81 provided useful responses. Nonetheless, only a sample of 78 NGO leaders provided enough information to be included in the analysis.

Table 5: Codebook for the Variables.

Variables	Label	Values	Measure	Comments
Impact	Ratio of expenses to beneficiaries	None	scale	Expenses & direct beneficiaries for the year 2017
ImpactGroups	Group Ratio of expenses to beneficiaries	1= low impact 2= medium impact 3= high impact	Nominal	Expenses for the year 2017 Beneficiaries are that the NGO helped directly in 2017
Departmentgroup	Grouping of NGOs by location	1= North & Northeast 2= West 3= Other	Nominal	NGOs in all the other 7 departments are in the "other" group.
KSDCorrect	# of items correct on KSD	0 = incorrect 1= correct	Nominal	This variable measures Level of knowledge of sustainable development.
LeadExperience	Experience as the leader of the NGO	None	Scale	Number of years as the leader of the NGO
ALQBalance	Balanced processing	None	Scale	Raw score is the average of items 10, 11, & 12.
ALQMoral	Moral/Ethical attitude	None	Scale	Raw score is the average of items 6, 7, 8 & 9
ALQTransparency	Transparency	None	Scale	1, 2, 3, 4 & 5

Results

Following cleaning, the data was submitted to statistical analysis. This section is a presentation of the findings. The data analysis involved both descriptive and inferential statistics.

Descriptive statistical testing was conducted on the dataset to determine whether univariate or multivariate outliers were present or not. To detect univariate outliers, a separate test was run for each of the five continuous dependent variables. No outliers were found in ALQMoral, ALQTransparency, and KSDCorrect. However, a total of three outliers were found in the other two variables: Cases #23, 29, 34. That these cases are outliers is inaccurate because SPSS used the interquartile range rule ($1.5 \times IQR$) to detect them (Hoaglin, & Iglewicz, 1987). Therefore, they were

not excluded from the analysis. Descriptive analysis was also run to show frequencies in the independent variable and trends in the dependent variable as presented in Figures 1-2 and Table 6. At least, means, standard deviations, and range of scores were presented.

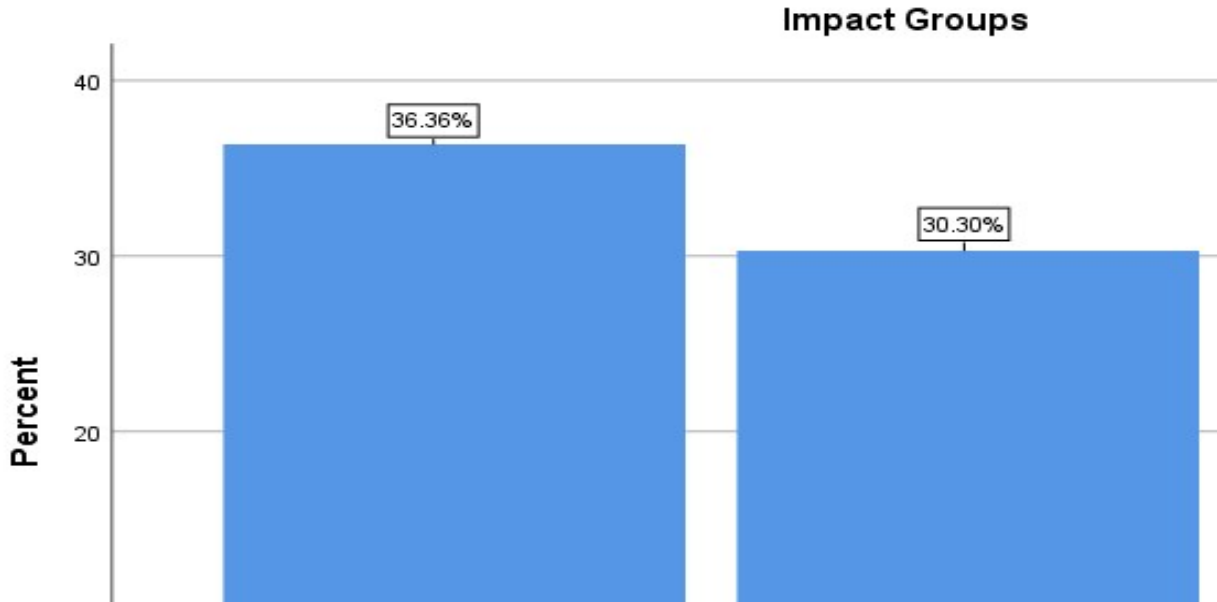


Figure 1. Descriptive statistics for the impact group of NGOs.

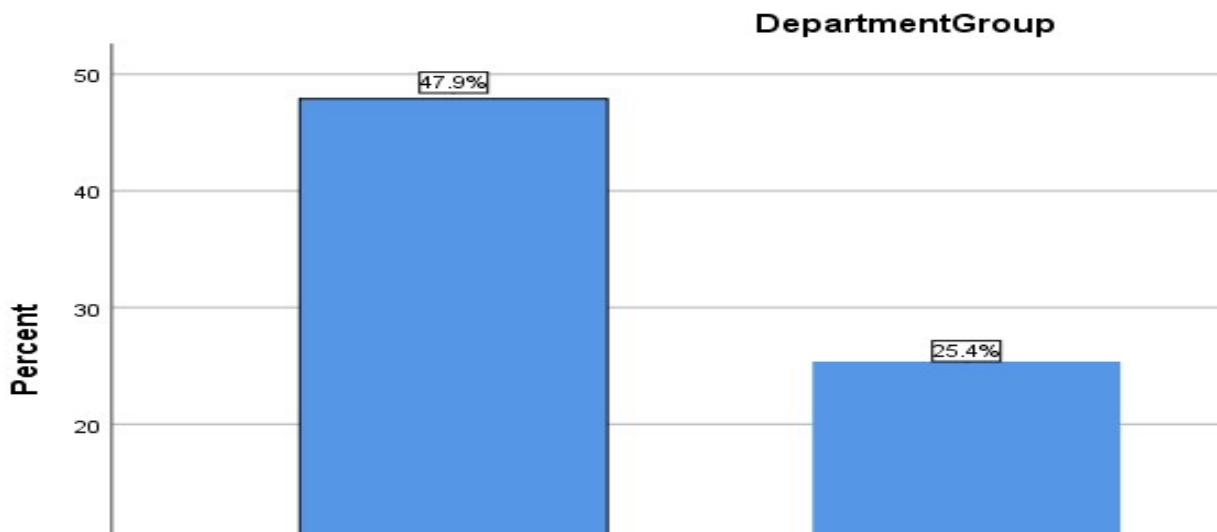


Figure 2. Descriptive statistics for the department groups.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Continuous Variables.

Variable	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Balance	75	4.31	.55
Moral	75	3.97	.73
Transparency	76	4.16	.71
Leadership experience	71	13.9	8.81
#items correct on KSD	78	13.5	.99

The first research question asks whether NGOs from three groups of impact differ in terms of their leaders' knowledge of sustainable development, authentic leadership (relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective), and leadership experience. A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis was performed to investigate NGO impact group differences in leader characteristics. Five dependent variables were used: knowledge of sustainable development, leadership experience, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective. The independent variable was impact group. Table 6 & Figure 1 show the descriptive trends for the variables that participated in this MANOVA. Preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity. Only the assumption of normality was violated. This violation did not invalidate the MANOVA.

There was a statistically significant difference between the impact groups on the combined dependent variables, $F(10, 120) = 3.89, p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = .49, partial eta squared = .25. When the results for the dependent variables were considered separately, the only differences to reach statistical significance, using Bonferroni adjusted alpha level of .01, were leadership experience, $F(2, 63) = 14.49, p = .000$, partial eta squared = .32; and level of sustainable development knowledge, $F(2, 63) = 6.24, p = .003$, partial eta squared = .17.

Two *post hoc* tests—Turkey's HSD and Bonferroni—were performed with the purpose of comparing Means to determine which group record the highest scores. On "leadership experience," the mean score was 20.58 ($SD = 9.63$) for "low impact," 11.4 ($SD = 6.51$) for "medium impact," and 9.32 ($SD = 5.63$) for "high impact." On "# of items on KSD," the mean score was 14.38 ($SD = 1.28$) for "low impact," 13.45 ($SD = 2.26$) for "medium impact," and 12.41 ($SD = 2.06$) for "high impact."

According to both tests; there is a significant mean difference between low impact NGOs and medium impact NGOs and between low impact and high impact NGO on leadership experience. On level of knowledge of sustainable development, there is a significant mean difference between low impact NGOs and high impact NGOs only. Nevertheless, the actual difference between mean scores is very small on Leadership experience (1.97) and much larger on level of knowledge of sustainable development (9.18 & 11.24). An inspection of the mean scores indicate that, leaders from low impact NGOs reported higher levels of leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable development ($M = 20.58, SD = 9.63$; $M = 14.38, SD = 1.28$) than leaders from medium and high impact NGOs.

The second research question asks whether there are there differences between geographical areas in respect to leaders' leadership experience, knowledge of sustainable development, and leadership attitudes. A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis was performed to answer this question. Five dependent variables were used: knowledge of sustainable development, leadership experience, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective (refer to Table 6). These are the same dependent variables used in the first MANOVA. As described above, the independent variable was geographical area, which has three levels: North & Northeast, West, and Other. Figure 2 presents a description of the grouping independent variable. There was not a statistically significant difference between the geographical areas on the combined dependent variables, $F(10, 130)$

= 1.77, $p = .072$; Pillai's Trace = .24, partial eta squared = .12. Therefore, no leader characteristic was influenced by the geographical location of an NGO.

The third research question asks whether there are differences between the department groups with respect to impact of development activities on direct beneficiaries. The dataset lacks randomness, normality, and homogeneity of variances. Therefore, the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) could not be used. The Kruskal-Wallis test was used instead as a nonparametric substitute for ANOVA. Participants were divided into three groups according to location of their NGOs: North & Northeast, West, and Other. No significant difference was found ($H(2) = 2.675, p > .05$). Therefore, there is no need to inspect the Mean Rank for the three groups because the groups did not differ from each other. Therefore, the location of an NGO did not seem to influence the impact of its activities on the beneficiaries.

Summary of Findings

As presented on Table 7, three tests were run to answer the research questions. The MANOVA for the first question showed a significant difference between the NGO groups on leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable development only. The MANOVA for the second question was not significant. The Kruskal-Wallis test for the third question also was not significant.

Table 7: Questions, Tests, and Results

Question	Test	Results	Post hoc
1. Do 1. NGOs from three classes of impact differ in terms of their leaders' knowledge of sustainable development, leadership attitudes, and leadership experience?	MANOVA 1	Significant: $F(10, 120) = 3.89, p = .000$; Pillai's Trace = .49, partial eta squared = .25. Significant difference between the groups on leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable development only.	Turkey's HSD and Bonferroni Significant mean difference between low impact and medium impact or high impact NGOs
2. Are there differences between geographical areas in respect to leaders' (a) knowledge of sustainable development, (b) leadership attitudes, and (c) leadership experience?	MANOVA 2	Not significant: $F(10, 130) = 1.77, p = .072$; Pillai's Trace = .24, partial eta squared = .12. No difference between the geographical areas.	Not Applicable
3. Are there differences between geographical areas in respect to impact of development activities on beneficiaries?	Kruskal-Wallis	Not significant: ($H(2) = 2.675, p > .05$). No difference between the geographical areas.	Not Applicable

Discussion of Results

The study found a significant difference between low impact NGOs and medium impact NGOs or high impact NGOs. The difference is that low impact NGO leaders reported higher levels of leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable than their medium and high impact counterparts. This result is in contrast to the intuitive expectation that higher impact NGOs would report higher levels of leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable development. In Haiti, the popular culture associates NGOs with the size of their bureaucracy and

money. NGOs that are small and that do not manage big money are not even considered NGOs. In other terms, in Haiti, NGOs are all about money (Ramachandran & Walz, 2015; Schuller, M. (2007c). The results seem to be in accord with that popular culture. So, NGO impact is not so much about the experience and knowledge of its leader, as to how much money the NGO has to spend on its beneficiaries

In order to play their role as economic correctives, NGOs need to have an impact. NGOs may have a direct impact when they directly invest in the economy (Teegen, Doh, and Vachani, 2004). They may also have an indirectly an impact on the economy through their impact on the beneficiaries (Steinberg, 2006). As the study shows, money is not the only thing that matters. Knowledge and experience also matter. Well-spent money, knowledge of government and market behavior, knowledge of sustainable development, and leadership experience are key to successful NGO intervention in the economy.

Knowledge is considered to an important leader characteristic. In order to promote sustainable development, a leader needs to know what sustainable development is about. That is the reason why, in this study, the knowledge of sustainable development index (KSDI) was used. The study found that leaders in low impact NGOs reported higher levels of knowledge of sustainable development than their medium or high counterparts. Knowledge and organizational or leadership performance are related (Connelly et al., 2000). However, there is no empirical evidence that establishes a causation between an organization's performance and the level of knowledge of its leader. This means that it is possible, as the results suggest, that low impact NGO leaders reported higher level of knowledge of sustainable development.

The results indicate that the location of an NGO seems to have nothing to do with its leader's characteristics or its impact on the beneficiaries. However, the contingency and charismatic leadership models, the characteristic of leader may change when a leader moves to a different organization or location (Nahavandi (2009). Also, there is empirical evidence that link geographical location with organizational performance (Carmeli&Tishler, 2004).

There may be two reasons why location does not make a difference. The first reason is the small size of the country. Haiti is a small, unitary state with very little territorial variations. The size of Haiti is comparable to the size of the state of Maryland, USA (Arthur, 2002). Therefore, most leaders can easily move around. A grassroots NGO may be led by a leader who live elsewhere. Most NGO leaders lead their NGOs from the capital or even a foreign country, especially the United States or Canada. During data collection, the researcher met with several of these leaders. The second reason has to do with small size of study sample. Department group comparisons were undermined by the sample's limitation. The Haitian territory is divided into 10 administrative departments. The researcher could form only three department groups. The formation of a limited number of department groups destroyed all chance of isolating the effects of location.

Implications of the Findings

This study focused on education and ethics to examine the extent to which leader characteristics are related to NGO impact on the beneficiaries. The epistemological-educational characteristics made a difference between the impact groups of NGOs. In contrast, the ethical factors did not make a difference. This brought to mind the question of whether education should be emphasized more than ethics in a leadership formation program that target NGO leaders in Haiti.

The relevance of education to leadership performance and effectiveness was assumed. That is the reason why two demographic questions asked about leadership experience and formal and non-formal leadership education. Another demographic question asked about formal academic education. The findings somewhat confirmed the intuitive assumption that a leader's level of education matters. Leadership has been, at least conceptually, linked to the promotion of sustainable development (Adenigbaand Ayodeji, 2010). There is also empirical evidence that establishes a positive link between leadership education and leadership effectiveness (Brungardt, 1997). These links suggest that, in what concerns the promotion of sustainable development, leadership education and knowledge of sustainable development matter a lot to effective leaders. Part of that education may be gained through experience alone (Thomas & Cheese, 2005; McCall, 2004; Fiedler, 1994).Therefore, in order to transform leaders into promoters of sustainable development, it is important to emphasize education in its formal, nonformal, and informal aspects.

The relevance of ethics to leadership effectiveness was assumed as well. For this reason, three ethical factors— relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective moral— associated with the

authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ)—were used. The results suggest that ethics did not make a significant difference among the groups. The researcher believes these results did not seem to be conclusive for two reasons. First, they may be due to some of the limitations highlighted above, such as the small sample size. Second, ethics has been linked to leadership performance and effectiveness both conceptually and empirically (Ciulla, 2004; Gini, 2004). The concept of sustainable development itself is closely intertwined with ethics (Bardy, Massaro, and Rubens, 2013). Therefore, although the study found that ethics did not make a difference among the groups, future leadership formation programs should incorporate ethics courses, seminars or workshops that include such ethical topics as “ethics of leading,” “ethics of sustainable development,” “ethics of transparency,” and so on.

The promotion of transparency among NGO leaders is particularly important (Burger & Owens, 2010). NGOs owe upward accountability to the government and their donors (Kilby, 2006). Leaders need to be transparent in their annual reporting for the sake of organizational sustainability (Burger & Owens, 2010). As the survey responses show, several leaders skipped the demographic questionnaire that asked a few questions about themselves as leaders and their NGOs. The pattern of skipping somewhat justifies the belief that transparency is an issue for the NGO sector in Haiti (Ramachandran & Walz, 2013; Ramachandran, & Walz, 2015). Future leadership formation programs that emphasize the cultivation of transparency is highly warranted.

As has been demonstrated, leaders need ethics as well as knowledge to play their role as promoters of sustainable development outcomes. It is important that leaders not only know about sustainable development and the ethics associated with it. They also need to understand and grasp the intrinsic ethical and epistemological dimension of leadership itself. The knowledgeable, experienced, and ethical leader will be a better position to ensure the future of sustainable development in Haiti. The Haitian government, the donor community, and the world scholarly community must conjugate their effort and pool their resources to develop such leaders.

Conclusion

The NGO sector is key to the future of economic development in Haiti. However, the country will continue to simply be a republic of NGOs if the latter are not effective in playing their social, economic, environmental, and institutional role. More empirical knowledge about the sector and its leadership can contribute enormously to making it more efficient and effective. Up to this point, there exists only a handful of studies about the NGO sector in Haiti. These studies are mostly in the areas of anthropology, political science, or education. Most of these studies focused on one NGO or a group of NGOs and used a qualitative or mixed-method approach. None of these studies, except the present one, have quantitatively studied the Haitian NGO sector as a whole.

The present study quantitatively examined the extent to which leaders’ characteristics are related to the impact of their organizations on the beneficiaries. The study yielded few significant results. This was possibly due, in part, to the limitations regarding the sample size and characteristics, the research instruments, the study language, the data collection procedure, and the data themselves. The significant MANOVA results revealed some relationship between NGO impact and leader characteristics, specifically leadership experience and level of sustainable development knowledge. One important implication of the results is that they induced the discussion of the concepts of organizational impact, leadership experience, and knowledge in reference to the NGO sector and its leadership.

The results garnered some conclusions. The conclusions have limited generalizability beyond the sample, but they shed bright light on certain characteristics of the NGO leaders in Haiti. Now, it is known money is not the only resources NGOs need to have an impact. Every NGO whose leader has solid leadership experience, knowledge of sustainable development, and ethical background are more likely to have an impact on the beneficiaries and contribute to sustainable development.

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