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LEADERSHIP FOR PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY OF
NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION LEADERS IN HAITI

by

ADELIN RIVAL

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of the University of the Incarnate Word
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

UNIVERSITY OF THE INCARNATE WORD

May 2019

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The Lord says in the book of Ecclesiastes: “There is a time for everything” (3:1). The time for the end of my journey as a PhD student has finally arrived. It was a long journey, but I am glad to make it to the end. I was not alone in that journey. So, I feel indebted to thank God and all the people that accompanied me throughout the journey. With the blessing of good health and spiritual and material resources, I was able to fulfill all the requirements for graduation.

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Because of them, I always had a room to rest and sleep, food to eat, and transportation for moving around the country.

Adelin Rival

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family, especially my parents, Lopez Rival and Jacqueline Béon-Rival. They have been a great blessing to me all my life. Wholeheartedly, I owe them the inspiration which enabled me to be successful in education. My mom and dad have always been there for me to encourage and support me. Through their sacrifices, I was able to experience all levels of formal academic education, from primary to doctoral studies.

I also bestow this academic success to the victims of the 2010 Haiti earthquake. I was in my second semester when the earthquake hit the country. The casualties were many and the injured were countless. The earthquake inspired this dissertation by highlighting the country's lack of sustainable development. May the souls of the departed rest in peace! May those who are living with mental or physical disabilities due to the earthquake find God's comfort and peace in their pain and suffering!

LEADERSHIP FOR PROMOTING SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: A STUDY OF
NONGOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATION LEADERS IN HAITI

Adelin Rival

University of the Incarnate Word, 2019

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 nongovernmental organizations 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 that should be emphasized in NGO leadership development programs in Haiti.

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Chapter One: Study Background and Framework

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). Not surprisingly, this development in the recognition of the NGO sector in the global arena parallels an increasing scholarly interest in the concept of governance. In that respect, Hewitt de Alcántara (1998) argues that “it is difficult to find a publication on development issues put out by the United Nations, multilateral and bilateral agencies, academics or bilateral agencies that does not rely heavily on its use” (p. 105).

The idea of governance as a set of mechanisms for exercising authoritative power has been around for a long time (Hewitt de Alcántara, 1998). However, the term governance has significantly gained in popularity among both academics and practitioners of global governance studies in the 1990s, under the impetus of both neoliberalism and globalization (Hewitt de Alcántara, 1998; Karns & Mingst, 2010, Ozgercin & Weiss, 2009). Thus, gradually, the concept started to receive greater scholarly attention. Some of the academic discussion about governance has concentrated on how to define it conceptually (Treib, Bähr, & Falkner, 2007).

For the sake of semantic clarity, an effort has been made in the political science literature to contrast the concept of governance with the concept of government (Davies, 2007; Mayntz,

2003; Rhodes, 1996). A major conceptual difference between governance and government has to do with the exercise of coercive power. According to Huo, Wang, Zhao, & Schuh (2016), “coercive power refers to situations where the power source holds the ability to administer punishment to the target, and it functions as a ‘stick’ wielded to ensure the target’s compliance” (p. 2). In a government system, the source of coercive power is exclusively in organized bodies such as the states, the corporate boards, and so on. In a governance system, however, the source of coercive power resides in a plurality of public and private actors (Davies, 2007; Ozgercin & Weiss, 2009). By the same token, several academics have attempted to contrast the concept of global government versus global governance. While global governance is recognized as having been a part of human experience for a long time there has never been any global government in the history of humanity (Karns & Mingst, 2010; Ozgercin & Weiss, 2009). Positioned in a more radical stance is Cabrera (2015) who suggests that the notion of a global government should be discarded as an ideal, an absurdity, or an impossibility.

Another major difference between government and governance is that contrary to the former, the latter is, by its very nature, always a global phenomenon (Holzinger et al., 2016). As a universal entity, governance has its locus of power in individuals and organizations, public as well as private, including the nongovernmental organizations (Cabrera, 2015). The United Nations Commission on Global Governance (1995) endorses this conceptual understanding as it defines governance as follows:

Governance is the sum of the many ways individuals and institutions, public and private, manage their common affairs.... At the global level, governance has been viewed primarily as intergovernmental relationships, but it must now be understood as also involving non-governmental organizations (NGOs), citizen’s movements, multinational corporations, and the global capital market. Interacting with these are global mass media of dramatically enlarged influence. (pp. 2-3)

In the definition above, the United Nations recognizes the NGOs as legitimate social actors and warmly welcomes them into global governance. As representatives of the global civil society, NGOs have a mandate to play a variety of roles in global governance. Citing Krut's (1997) Discussion Paper No. 83, Katz and Anheier (2005) emphasize two major roles of the NGOs. Firstly, they are expected to integrate the "system of checks and balances, in promoting transparency and accountability of global governance institution" (p. 241). Secondly, they are called to serve as "representatives of the weak and marginalized, a window for popular participation in global governance" (p. 241). Another role of the NGOs is to contribute to sustainable development in low income countries (Hassan & Forhad, 2013; Vivian, 1994). In the course of their history, the NGOs have taken on a variety of forms to play these roles (Hailey, 2006; Jamali, 2003). A detailed typology of NGOs will be provided in chapter 2.

Like the concept of governance, the term NGO is largely discussed in the scholarly literature. NGO is mostly understood as an ambiguous term that is susceptible to a variety of definitions (Fernando, 2011; Martens, 2002; Werker & Ahmed, 2008). That is the reason why, in order to mitigate the possibility of a semantic difficulty and confusion, several academics and policymakers have adopted operational definitions provided by the United Nations and the World Bank (Kamat, 2003; Shihata, 1992).

The United Nations is largely credited to be the originator of the NGO concept. As such, the global organization has contributed a great deal to the conceptual history of the NGO that dates back to the 1940s (Martens, 2002). The latest United Nations definition of the NGO is largely adopted by academics, policymakers, and activists. The United Nations (as quoted in Teegen et al., 2004) provides the following definition of the NGO:

[An NGO] is any non-profit, voluntary citizens' group which is organized on a local, national or international level. Task-oriented and driven by people with a common

interest, NGOs perform a variety of services and humanitarian functions, bring citizens' concerns to Governments, monitor policies and encourage political participation at the community level. They provide analysis and expertise, serve as early warning mechanisms and help monitor and implement international agreements. Some are organized around specific issues, such as human rights, the environment or health. (p. 466)

Like the United Nations, the World Bank has seriously been committed to promoting the NGO sector since the 1980s for two major reasons. The first reason is the belief that the NGO sector represents an important source of human capital. The second reason has to do with the view that the NGO has the potential to support openness and accountability in global governance (Bräutigam & Segarra, 2007). In the Operational Directive 14.70 dated August 28, 1989, the World Bank proposes its own definition of the NGOs with which it wishes to partner in development cooperation:

Groups and institutions that are entirely/largely independent of government and characterized primarily by humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives. [Specifically, they are] private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, or undertake community development. (para. 2)

The definitions above imply that 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, international business, sociology, anthropology, and political economy—from delving deeper into the NGOs so as to boost understanding of their actual nature, purpose, function, and role in global governance (Teegen et al., 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). A second economic role of the NGOs is their being an important source of human capital for the developing economies (Dyczkowski, 2013). A third economic role of the NGOs is their position as preferred channels through which development aid reaches the target economies (Dreher et al., 2010). Another economic role of NGOs is their involvement in the developing economies as investors with the purpose of influencing corporate managerial behavior and market prices in the interest of the community of the “have-not.” NGOs do so by participating in the developing economies as foreign direct investors (Hasan, 2011), or microcredit lenders (Xiang et al., 2004). In this role, the NGOs function as international business partners in global governance (Teegen et al., 2004).

Although the NGOs have been active on the global scene since the 1980s, they have recently begun to be studied as business entities (Lambell et al., 2008; Teegen et al., 2004). International business scholars recognize them as key organizational actors in the global economy along with for-profit firms and governments (Doh & Teegen, 2003). The advocacy for the consideration of the nongovernmental organizations in international business research is based on the consideration that “as the civil society counterparts of MNEs [Multinational enterprises] and governments, [NGOs] act as a third key set of players in value creation and governance around the world (Teegen et al., 2004, p. 464). Typically, NGO participates in value creation and global governance through strategic economic partnership with the public and the market sector (Teegen et al., 2004). A key difference between the NGOs and their business

partners is their involvement in business to specifically pursue social and environmental goals (Dahan et al., 2010).

Not surprisingly, sociologists are naturally inclined to study nongovernmental organizations, which are products of social movements around the world (Ward, 2005). Sociology scholars even claim to be specifically qualified to address several social issues related to the NGO sector, some of which are uncertainty and expansion of the NGO organizational field that have yet to be explored (Watkins et al., 2012). In studying the NGOs, sociologists tend to highlight the NGOs' importance in "improving social integration, the implementation of subsidiarity principle, [and] building civil society" (Piotrowicz & Cianciara, 2013, p. 71). In their book chapter "Conclusion: Globalization and the future of NGO Influence," Doh and Teegen (2003) discuss three different social roles of NGOs. First, they are considered to be relevant stakeholders in society and recognized as legitimate actors in policy decision-making (Doh and Teegen, 2003). Second, they are expected to function as stakegivers specialized in doing things that are beneficial to their assigned constituencies (Doh & Teegen, 2003). Third, they are deemed to be staketakers capable of denying others benefits as well (Doh & Teegen, 2003). Another well-known social role of the NGOs is their influence on firms' decision-making regarding corporate social responsibility (Doh & Guay, 2006; Kakabadse et al., 2006; Winston, 2002). As the NGOs endeavor to fulfill their social role, their actions inevitably have a bearing on politics and political change (Schuller & Lewis, 2014).

As a discipline, anthropology has shed light on the political aspect of nongovernmental organizations. Anthropologists tend to view them as important organizational actors in the global political scene. Schuller and Lewis (2014) argues that NGOs, when acting in a political capacity, are inclined to be at the service of neoliberalism and the powerful states. In "Gluing

Globalization: NGOs as Intermediaries in Haiti,” Schuller (2009) points out that anthropologists should understand NGOs as “intermediaries” between the developed North and the developing South. As such, according to Schuller (2009), NGOs’ role in global governance is to contribute to strengthening globalization according to the agenda of the contemporary neoliberal world system. Schuller’s (2009) argument indicates that NGOs are no strangers to the political context of the societies they serve.

Political economists, like their sociologist counterparts, recognize the nongovernmental organizations as social agents who are called to play a role in social change. A good presentation of the political economy of NGOs is provided by Fernando (2011). The latter urges to take into account that NGOs have been trying to strive in a world dominated by excessive materialism and neoliberal capitalism. In such a world, NGOs are not only the representatives of a third sector along the state and for-profit firms. They are also partners with the state and the for-profit firms under the same neoliberal rules. In this sense, Fernando (2011) claims that NGOs are not totally unaccountable for the misfortune of the poor people, of whom they claimed to be the savior. Nevertheless, Fernando (2011) believes it is not necessary to discard the social role of the NGOs completely because the latter “have played, and will continue to play, a central role in producing new ideas, and leadership for politically meaningful social transformation (p. xi).

Context of the study

The above review of the academic opinions on the role and function of nongovernmental organizations in global governance is quite insightful and sheds light on their broader purpose. Regardless of these opinions, NGOs have imposed themselves on the developing world, the low-income countries in particular, as indispensable social and economic change agents (Lindenberg & Coralie 2001; Wallace, 2009). They “have earned praise for their role in producing a number

of successful international treaties on the environment, human rights, and sustainable development” (Fernando, 2011, p. 12).

In addition to the favorable academic opinions, the NGOs themselves defend their position as social and economic agents for the developing world. 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. For instance, Fernando (2011) said this about NGOs: “The relevance, efficiency, and sustainability of NGOs are all in question, now more than ever” (p. viii).

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 situation of the country.

Meteorologists considered the 2010 Haiti earthquake to be one of the major natural

disasters of the 21st century. The accuracy of the official data on the earthquake has been questioned, but evidence suggests that the earthquake claimed over 200,000 lives and caused thousands of private and public buildings to collapse, especially in the capital, Port-au-Prince (DesRoches, 2011; Pierre-Louis, 2011). Even before the earthquake, Haiti was considered “the example of ecological, social, and economic devastation in the western hemisphere” (Swartly & Toussaint, 2006, p. 4). As observed by many authors, the earthquake highlighted the country’s underdeveloped condition marked by abject poverty, precarious healthcare, ecological degradation, lack of drinking water, and high unemployment (Buss & Gardner, 2006). To this day, the country’s economic and human resources continue to be exposed to inexorable natural disasters due to lack of reliable infrastructure to mitigate their potential destructive effects (Pierre-Louis, 2011).

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).

Statement of the Problem

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.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine the extent to which leaders in grassroots nongovernmental organizations are able to provide leadership for sustainable development. Ultimately, the goal is to create awareness of any deficiencies in the leadership, so that training and remediation can be suggested. In order to accomplish its purpose and reach its goal, the study will have a two-fold focus. Primarily, it will investigate 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. Three classes of impact level will be discriminated: high, medium, and low impact. Secondly, the study will examine differences in leader characteristics and performance across geographical areas.

Research Questions

To realize the purpose and the ultimate goal of the study, the following questions will be addressed:

- 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
- Are there differences between geographical areas in respect to leaders' (1) knowledge of sustainable development, (2) leadership attitudes, and (3) leadership experience?
- Are there differences between geographical areas in respect to impact of development

activities on beneficiaries?

Theoretical Framework

Nongovernmental organizations have owned their place in global governance due to their promise to transform the world (Fernando, 2011). In order to fulfill their mission of social transformation, NGOs are in need of authentic leaders that are ready to tackle issues of sustainable development and economic growth (Haily, 2007). In light of this, three suitable theories will be used to build a conceptual framework for the study: Three-failures theory, sustainable development theory, and authentic leadership theory.

The three-failures theory will help to understand the economics role of NGOs as components of the nonprofit sector. Many scholarly works about NGO accountability are grounded on a variety of economic theories that treat the role of the nonprofit organizations in the broader economy. Drawing on the works of several economists, Steinberg (2006) synthesizes these theories and refers to his synthesis as the three-failures theories: (1) market failure associated with the for-profit firms, (2) government failure associated with government, and (3) voluntary failure, which is failure by nonprofit organizations. This theory recognizes the latter as important actor in the economic life of a country alongside the market and government. As such, the nonprofit organizations are important stakeholders in the current sustainable development movement. As Steinberg (2006) suggests, all three actors are prone to failure and can act as corrective to each other. When market fails, government and the nonprofit sector intervene in the economy as corrective to market failure. When government fails the market and nonprofit sector intervene as corrective agents. By the same token, government and market intervene situations where the nonprofit sector fails.

The sustainable development theory will help to appreciate sustainable development as a multidimensional reality. In a report by the Brundtland Commission, sustainable development is defined 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). Since the publication of that report, efforts at theorizing about sustainable development have gone beyond environmentalism to integrate economic and social ideas as well (Dempsey, 2011). In a recent book titled *Sustainable Development in the Developing World*, Bardy et al. (2013) discuss four dimensions of sustainable development: Systemic dimension, ethics dimension, growth dimension, and measurement dimensions. This study will primarily focus on the systemic or holistic dimension, which, according to Bardy et al. (2003) comprises four interconnected perspectives: economic, ecological, social, and institutional perspectives. Awareness of this is important to any NGO leaders who are determined to fulfill their promise to transform the societies in which they work. Specifically, such an approach can stimulate authentic and effective leadership behavior and style for sustainable development. As Adenigba and Omolawal (2010) argue, “at the heart of the success of the efforts for sustainable development is good leadership” (p. 18).

The authentic leadership theory will shed light upon the psychological and ethical foundations of leader behavior that is conducive to sustainable change. 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).

Conceptually, authentic leadership theory partially overlaps with two other forms of leadership,

namely, ethical leadership and transformational leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Therefore, a full understanding of authentic leadership theory requires contrasting it with the other two forms of leadership. That task is addressed in the next chapter.

Significance of the Study

As Hailey (2006) points out, more knowledge about Latin American NGO leadership is desperately needed. This study is an attempt to fill that need. It will do so by surveying NGO leaders in all the 10 administrative departments of Haiti. The outcomes of the survey will be useful to all the three main actors—namely, NGOs, donors, and the Haitian government—engaged in Haiti’s development.

Effective NGO leadership is key to the effort of rebuilding Haiti on sustainable grounds (Pierre-Louis, 2011). However, as scholars argue, NGOs have fallen short of their promise to contribute to sustainable development in Haiti (Pierre Étienne, 1997; Pierre-Louis, 2011; Schuller, 2007b) although they have potential and are aware of their call to make an impact (Fernando, 2011). This study will provide supplemental intellectual foundations for future NGO leadership development programs. The latter will enable NGOs to break the vicious circle of failure and focus their attention on development that is sustainable.

As the most undeveloped country in the Western Hemisphere, Haiti heavily relies on foreign aid for its development (Buss & Gardner, 2006). As evidenced in the literature, aid donors prefer to operate through NGOs. The rationale behind their preferential option for NGOs is that the latter are “more cost-effective than governments in providing basic social services, are better able to reach the poor” (Ebrahim, 2003, p. 813), more equipped to find solutions to environmental problems and address issues of sustainable development (Buss & Gardner, 2006). This study will enable aid donors to better support and instrumentalize the NGOs as catalytic

agents in the rebuilding of post-earthquake Haiti on sustainable grounds.

Although the NGOs are the preferred channels for development aid in Haiti, the input of the government warranted. When NGOs partner with the Haitian government, development programs tend to be more sustainable and effective (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Zanotti, 2010). By knowing more about NGO sector 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.

Definition of Terms

In this study, the following terms are defined as follows:

- **Accountability** is the fact of being *held responsible* by others and *taking responsibility* for oneself. NGOs are accountable to donors, governments, beneficiaries, and to their values (Kilby, 2006).
- **Development NGOs** are NGOs that are concentrated exclusively on development, including thousands of small grassroots organizations along with larger organizations like Grameen Bank, which provides microcredit loans to the poor (Karns & Mingst, 2010).
- **Donors** are Government agencies, international governmental organization (IGO) and private foundations that regularly fund development projects in developing countries.
- **Downward accountability** is the accountability of a nongovernmental organization to its constituency (Kilby, 2006).
- **Grassroots NGO** is a generic term that refers to the bottom-up NGO, which is more people-centric and does not have as close a relationship to the government, hence normally referred to as grassroots NGOs (Li, 2012, p. 20).
- **Nongovernmental organization (NGO)** is the generic term referring to “groups and

institutions that are entirely/largely independent of government and characterized primarily by ‘humanitarian or cooperative rather than commercial objectives and also private organizations that pursue activities to relieve suffering, promote the interests of the poor, protect the environment, or undertake community development (World Bank, OD, No. 14.70).

- **Development NGOs** are NGOs that are concentrated exclusively on development, including thousands of small grassroots organizations along with larger organizations that provide microcredit loans to the poor (Karns & Mingst, 2010).
- **North** is a term referring to the wealthy and industrialized countries of the world (Miner, 2013).
- **South** is a term used to refer to the developing countries in opposition to the industrialized countries that constitute the North (Bonilla, 2013).
- **Sustainable development** is “development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (Brundtland, p.43).
- **Upward accountability** is accountability of a nongovernmental organization to donors (Kilby, 2006).

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This study seeks to determine the extent to which leaders in grassroots nongovernmental organizations are able to provide leadership for sustainable development. Relevant knowledge about nongovernmental organization (NGO) leaders has the potential to create awareness of any possible deficiencies in the leadership so that training and remediation can be suggested. This chapter amplifies the theoretical framework highlighted in the previous one. The intent is to provide a detailed review of relevant theories and concepts that have been used in analysis of NGOs as components of the nonprofit sector. Defining the nonprofit sector is specific to each country of the world due to differences in law systems across countries (Salamon & Anheier, 1992). However, scholars tend to define the nonprofit sector as “a collection of organizations that are (1) institutionalized to a certain extent, (2) institutionally separate from the government, (3) not profit-seeking in purpose, (4) self-governing, and (5) voluntary (Lam & Perry, 2000, p. 357).

This review will have a strong interdisciplinary orientation and will attempt to accomplish two objectives due to the eclectic nature of the nonprofit sector (Boris & Steuerle, 2006). First, the review is intended to facilitate understanding of nongovernmental organizations and the dynamics in which they function as accountable agents of development in the context of the developing world. Second, the review is envisioned to serve as a support for the study’s rationale and show whether the prospective results of the study provide a significant addition to the body of knowledge about the voluntary sector. Much of the material reviewed was obtained from an electronic search of the related literature provided by ERIC, ProQuest, Education Full-text, EBSC, ABI Complete, and Google Scholar. The search was limited to the major areas of the topic under study, namely nonprofit sector, nongovernmental organizations, leadership, sustainable development, and Haiti.

The content of this chapter will be presented in seven sections. The first section is devoted to describing the conditions of life in Haiti. The second section is a presentation of the three-failures theory. The third section discusses nongovernmental organizations. The fourth section explores the concept of development. The fifth section is a discussion of the concept of sustainable development. The sixth section explores the area of NGO leadership. The seventh section examines the issue of NGO accountability. Finally, the chapter will end with a concluding statement of the review. In each section, an intentional effort will be made to contextualize the discussion to the existing socio-economic, political, environmental situation of Haiti.

Conditions of Life in Haiti

The condition of Haitian life reflects the fragility of the Haitian state (Shamsie & Thompson, 2006). In 2016, Haiti scored 105.5 on the Fragile State Index. With this score, the country is currently among the top 10 most fragile states in the world (Messner, 2016). Rotberg (2013) defines failed states as follows: “Nation-states fail because they are convulsed by internal violence and can no longer deliver positive political goods to their inhabitants. Their governments lose legitimacy, and the very nature of the particular nation-state itself becomes illegitimate in the eyes ... of its citizens (p.1). The socioeconomic and environmental conditions in which Haitians are palpable or visible signs of state fragility and government failure in Haiti (Shamsie & Thompson, 2006).

Socioeconomic Condition

Reliance on imports, remittances, and international development aid has complicated life for the majority of Haitians (Latino & Musumeci, 2016; Verner & Heinemann, 2006). The United Nations Development Program (UNDP) ranked Haiti 164 in the 2015 Human

Development Index (HDI). As a composite index, the HDI measurement takes into account three social dimensions: life expectancy, education, and GDP per capita (Noorbakhsh, 1998; UNDP, 2016). With an HDI score of 0.493, Haiti continues to be the most underdeveloped country in Latin America the Americas. The current situation of human development in Haiti was not created by the January 2010 earthquake (Pierre-Louis, 2011; Zanotti, 2010). Instead, the human crisis in Haiti has had a long history that goes back to the first days of independence when the international community decided to isolate the country (Pierre-Louis, 2011). In a review of the literature on aid development, Zanotti (2010) found that the government of Haiti, as the main protagonist in fostering human development, had “only provided a very thin share of basic services to its people” (p. 758).

Evidence of widespread poverty in Haiti abounds in the literature (Lundahl, 2011; Sletten, 2006). Scholars often evoke the statistics to give a general idea of the living condition in Haiti. For example, Buss and Gardner (2006) comment on Haiti’s poverty in these terms:

The facts of Haitian poverty are startling. The UN Development Index (HDI) ranks Haiti as 153rd least developed among the world’s 177 countries. About three-fourths of the population is impoverished—living on less than \$2 per day. Half of the population has no access to potable water. One-third have no sanitary facilities. Only 10% have electrical service. (p. 5)

In reviewing the literature for her case study, Zanotti (2010) found that 1.1 million of Haitians rely on remittances for subsistence. In a report on foreign aid in Haiti, Buss and Garner (2006) argue that 50% to 70% of Haitians were unemployed. As Zanotti (2010) and many other scholars have observed, the 2008 hurricanes, the 2010 earthquake and cholera epidemics have only exacerbated the already low living standards for the majority of Haitians.

Provision of health care in Haiti is precarious. Exposure to diseases is high because most Haitians do not have access to basic living necessities (Zanotti, 2010). The quality of health care

is compromised because “half of the population has no access to potable water. One-third have no sanitary facilities” (Buss & Gardner, 2006, p. 5). As a result, most Haitians are exposed to all kinds of infectious diseases. In their paper, Buss and Garner (2006) point to the emergence of tuberculosis and polio as epidemics. In 2006, the HIV/AIDS rate was estimated at five to eight percent (Buss & Gardner, 2006). Four years later, no substantial improvement has occurred as Zanotti (2010) found that “72 percent of [the Haitian] population had no access at all to health care” (p. 758). The impact of the lack of health care on the poor population is exacerbated by the fact that the latter lack of access to education that also prevails in the country (Pierre-Louis, 2011).

Like healthcare, lack of access to education is an enduring problem in Haiti. As reported by the Haitian government, international agencies, and researchers, the 2010 earthquake dealt a sharp blow to the Haitian education system (Pierre-Louis, 2011). However, many scholars note, the country's struggle to develop a healthy and sustainable education system is as old as the country itself (Pierre-Louis, 2011, Salien, 2002). The most obvious symptom of the poverty of the Haitian education system is the illiteracy rate. Although the Haitian education system started to take real shape in the 1960s and was successfully reformed in the 1980s, the literacy rate was estimated at 45 percent in the 2000s (Salien 2002). The current CIA World Factbook reports a literacy rate of 60.7 percent for Haiti, indicating a significant increase from 2002 to today. As many scholars have observed, the low literacy rate is due the education system's inability to accommodate every school-age child (Lundahl, 2011; Lunde, 2008; Salmi, 2000). Scholars have also pointed to lack of quality as another issue in the Haitian education system. The lack of education quality is believed to be caused by the limited government involvement in education

and the ensuing apparition of a majority of private schools, many of which are ill-equipped to deliver quality education (Salmi, 2000).

Environmental Condition

The state of the Haitian environment is well-documented. According to Swartly and Toussaint (2006), Haiti represents the paradigm environmental degradation in the Western Hemisphere. Saikia (2017) offers the following definition of environmental degradation:

Environmental degradation refers to the deterioration of physical components of the environment brought in by human activities to such an extent that it cannot be set right by self-regulatory mechanism of environment. It may be defined as the deterioration of the environment through depletion of Earth's natural resources such as air, water and soil; the destruction of ecosystems and the extinction of wildlife. (p. 1)

Buss & Gardner (2006) report that “Haiti ranks among the worst countries environmentally: 41st of 155 on Yale University's Environmental Sustainability Index” (p. 5). Duraiappah (1998) thinks that poverty has been an important primary determinant of environmental degradation in the developing countries, but much more so in Haiti and the poorest countries of Africa such Zimbabwe. In a case study of an NGO project in Zimbabwe, Vivian (1994) offers a brief discussion of the state of Zimbabwe's environment. In this discussion, she focuses on four problems: (a) soil erosion, (b) deforestation, (c) inability to cope with drought, and (d) wildlife conservation. As a country, economically similar to Zimbabwe (Vivian, 1994), Haiti is faced with exactly the same environmental problems. A major consequence of this is dependency on foreign countries in terms of food products (Zanotti, 2010).

Soil erosion. Soil erosion is held as the main determinant of the country's dependence on food export (Jaramillo & Sancak, 2007). In a report on the 2010 cholera outbreak in Haiti, Lantagne, Nair, Lanata and Cravioto (2013) point to an association between deforestation and soil erosion. They say:

The majority of Haiti's land (63 %) is considered too steep for agricultural production; however, nearly 80 % of the country's area functions as agricultural land. Deforestation is extreme in Haiti, as forests covered nearly 60 % of the country in 1923, and only 2 % by 2006. Most Haitians still depend on charcoal as their primary fuel and cooking source. This deforestation has led to soil erosion, which has decreased agricultural yields and resulted in deadly landslides. (p. 3)

Soil erosion has also caused a large number of peasants to emigrate to urban areas (Williams, 2011). As a consequence of this emigration, "urban environments suffer from a lack of sanitation. Vast slum areas, especially in the capital, Port-au-Prince, are filled with people living in squalid, unsanitary conditions" (Federal Research Division, 2006, p. 10). Scholars expect the problem of soil erosion to increasingly worsen if nothing is done to counter the culture of unrestrained tree felling that has prevailed all over the country for a long time (Felima, 2009).

Deforestation. Deforestation has been widespread in Haiti and has proceeded at a rapid pace for many years. As Lantagne et al. (2013) point out, forests covered nearly 60 percent of the country in 1923, and only 2 percent by 2006" (p. 3). This has led to undermining domestic production and economic growth (Jaramillo & Sancak, 2007). Other scholars have contended that in 2006 the Haitian territory had already been deforested by 97 percent (Buss & Gardner, 2006). As the literature suggests, the culture of wood cutting is the main driver of deforestation in Haiti, as the large majority of Haitians rely on charcoal as their primary source of fuel for cooking and other things (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Lantagne et al., 2013). It is estimated that wood is used to produce 70% of energy consumption (Buss & Gardner, 2006, p. 5). Indirectly, deforestation has claimed many human lives by causing devastating floods and droughts (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Government of Haiti, 2010).

Drought. Environmentalists believe that there is a direct link between deforestation and drought (Bagley, Desai, Harding, Snyder & Foley, 2014). The Haitian government, however, does not refer to such a link in its 2010 report on natural hazards in Haiti. Instead, the

government used science to argue that in Haiti droughts are just normal climate-related hazards, most of which “can be attributed and linked to El Niño/ENSO (warm) episodes” (GOH, 2010, p. 10). In this official report, the government argues that Haiti experienced various episodes of drought from 1923 to 1985. These periods of drought contributed to the country's dependency on food exports and the availability of potable water. Recently, Latino and Musumeci (2016) in their analysis of the Haitian market, also refer to the 2015 climatic episode El Niño as the cause of “the continued dry spell ... [that] led to 50 percent reduction of cropped land with adverse impact on yields across all 2015/16 cropping seasons” (p. 2). The meteorological evidence for the cause of drought is credible, but many researchers and scholars believe that drought can also be triggered by human actions such as desertification or deforestation. For instance, Krimer and Musasinghe (1991) point out that where deforestation is intensive drought is a possibility even though rainfall occurs regularly. For these authors, the reason is that deforestation has the effect of rendering the soil less absorbing of water.

Wildlife. Poverty incites Haitians to engage in intensive tree felling for survival to the detriment of wildlife (Williams, 2011). According to the online *Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, wildlife includes “animals and plants that grow independently of people, usually in natural conditions” (Cambridge, Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 2017). Wildlife is almost nonexistent in Haiti because of the lack of vegetation due to desertification, deforestation, and drought (Faria & Sánchez-Fung, 2009). Wildlife is not officially protected, and wild animals are food for the majority of the poor. The lack of ecological education causes Haitians to foster ecological disequilibrium by destroying the wildlife stock of the country (Williams, 2011). In a brief essay on the Haitian environment, Vedrine (2002) asserts that “one of the differences between Haiti and the Dominican Republic lies in the ecological color of the two republics. Haiti

is brown, the Dominican Republic is green ... [As a result], most of the birds in Haiti have migrated to the Dominican Republic” (para. 1).

The Three-Failures Theory

The three-failures theory is an integration of three economic theories, namely market failure, government failure, and voluntary failure (Hannmann, 1980; Salamon, 1987; Weisbrod, 1975). This triadic economic theory is an attempt to explicate the relevance of nonprofit organizations as legitimate economic actors alongside the state and the market (Steinberg, 2006).

In her criticism of market fundamentalism, sociologist Margaret Somers (2008) acknowledges the existence of three domains of life: (a) the domain of politics represented by the state; (b) the domain of economics represented by the market; and (c) the domain of sociology represented by the civil society, of which the nongovernmental organizations are a part. As Farouqui (2016) asserts, these domains represent the three main groups of interactive social forces—public forces, market forces, and societal forces—that are different in magnitude and direction. Social life is a result of a dialectic dynamic between these three domains of life. One domain may be more dominant than the other depending of the way in which a specific society is designed to function. Farouqui (2016) puts forth several examples in support of this claim. One is the American society where the economic domain has always been the strongest social force. Another example is Japan that was marked by the predominance of the sociological domain for much of 16th century.

Each one of the domains of life discussed above has its own features, as given in table 1 below. Nevertheless, as Wright (2011) notes, “these domains are not hermetically sealed, autonomous domains, but rather interact in systematic ways” (p. 406). The three-failures theory

is an attempt to explain the way in which the state, the market, and civil society interact within the domain of economics.

Market failure. The first component of the three-failures theory is market failure. According to Steinburg (2006) “market failure ... concerns inefficiencies resulting from for-profit provision of goods and services” (p. 119). A full understanding of market failure requires an exploration of the economic concepts of market, efficiency, and inefficiency. According to the financial website Investopedia, market is defined as “a medium that allows buyers and sellers of a specific good or service to interact in order to facilitate an exchange” (Investopedia, 2016). Economists have distinguished between physical marketplace and virtual market based on the fact that, in today’s world, buyers and sellers can meet in person or online to negotiate prices for goods and services (Overby & Jap, 2009). In an effort to offer a more encompassing definition of market, Marshall (1890) quotes Cournot (1838) as saying:

Economists understand by the term Market, not any particular market place in which things are bought and sold, but the whole of any region in which buyers and sellers are in such free intercourse with one another that the prices of the same goods tend to equality easily and quickly. (Marshall, 1890, p. 189)

In defining market failure, Steinberg (2006) does not offer any definition of market. Nevertheless, he does mention phrase ‘for-profit firms’ indicates the implication of capitalism in the tripartite theory. In other terms, ‘capitalism’ appears to be the philosophical context for the theory of market failure. In fact, the market is at the heart of every capitalist economy (Wright, 2011). It is no wonder capitalism, from a Keynesian perspective, is defined as “a private-ownership system marked by great openness to the new commercial ideas and the personal knowledge of private entrepreneurs and, further, by great pluralism in the private knowledge and idiosyncratic views among the wealth-owners and financiers” (Phelps, 2006, p. 1). However, the

market is a better servant of the capitalist society when it functions with an adequate level of efficiency (Alagidede & Panagiotidis, 2009; Wan & Hillman, 2006).

The concepts of efficiency and inefficiency have been defined and debated across a plurality of academic disciplines and fields of study. Matt Grossman, writing for the Encyclopedia Britannica, defines efficiency “a measure of the input a system requires to achieve a specific output” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2016). Matt Grossman continues to say that “a system that uses few resources to achieve its goals is efficient, in contrast to one that wastes much of its input” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2016). In his book chapter titled *Economic Theories of Nonprofit Organizations*, Steinberg (2006) declares that the pursuit of profit in the market has a potential to lead to inefficiencies. In support of this claim, Steinberg (2006) discusses three sources of market inefficiency that are associated with the supply of good and services. The first source of market failure is named allocative inefficiency, which results from the underproduction of collective goods. In this sense, “market can be inefficient because they waste resources by producing the wrong mixture of goods and services (p. 119). According to Steinberg (2006), the second source of market failure is overexclusion from excludable public goods. He believes that “markets for excludable collective goods fail in a different way—although the market provides the good, it limits its consumption to paying customers” (p. 121). Finally, contract failure is the third source of market failure. Hansmann 1987a (as quoted in Steinberg, 2006) defines contract failure as follows:

Owing either to the circumstances under which a service is purchased or consumed or to the nature of the service itself, consumers feel unable to evaluate accurately the quality of quantity of the service a firm produces for them. In such circumstances, a for-profit firm has both the incentive and the opportunity to take advantage of customers by providing less service to them than was promised and paid for. (p. 121)

When a market failure is present in an economy, Steinburg (2006) goes further to say, governments and nonprofit organizations are impelled to intervene as corrective agents. Any market, big, medium, or small is susceptible to failure. However, the small markets of the low-income countries of the world are more likely to experience all three sources of inefficiency (Cunningham, 2011).

Markets in Haiti. As the poorest countries in the Western Hemisphere (Shamsie & Thompson, 2006), Haiti is also one of the low-income economies of the world (World Bank, 2017). In 2016, the country's gross domestic product (GDP) was estimated to 19.36 billion USD. In the same year, the GDP per capita is estimated at 1,800 USD as compared with the GDP per capita for Americans estimated at 57,300 USD. Although the GDP, from 2011 to 2016, has grown by an average of 3 percent, Haiti remains a country with of economic depression (CIA World Factbook, 2017). This is due, partly, to sustained lack of national production that forces the country to run trade deficits with all trade partners (Latino & Musumeci, 2016), the most important of which has been the United States of America. In 2015, 85.3 percent of Haiti's exports was directed to the US (CIA World Factbook, 2017).

In 2016, Haiti's imports were estimated to be 3.149 billion USD and exports to only 933.2 million USD. The main imported goods were food, manufactured goods, machinery and transport equipment, fuels, and raw materials. On the list of the main exported commodities goods were apparel, manufactures, oils, cocoa, mangoes, and coffee (CIA World Book, 2017). These imported goods and a reduced number of domestic products were available to potential buyers or consumers in the Haitian market (CIA World Factbook, 2017; Latino & Musumeci, 2016).

Like the US, Japan, and the UK, Haiti has a free market and free price system (CIA World Book, 2017). In economics, free market is understood as an economic system in which the prices for goods and services are negotiated on a voluntary basis. In other words, according to Stentz and Dias (1999), “[a market is free when it] is unencumbered by centralized planning; instead, individuals are free to exchange goods and services and enter into contracts as they see fit” (p.1). That is the reason why critics of capitalism have used the French phrase *laissez-faire* when referring to free market (Freidman, 2003). In economics, *laissez-faire* is associated with the belief that “an economy composed of self-seeking individuals and private business enterprises will function harmoniously so long as it is left alone by the government” (Holmes, 1976, p. 671). In organizational theory, the term *laissez-faire* “refers to leaders avoiding decision-making and abdicating responsibilities” (Chen & Barnes, 2006, p. 53). The central purpose of the market is to facilitate people’s access to goods and services that match their need (Lepper, 2011). That the market does so in an efficient fashion is desirable (Timmermann & Granger, 2004). Otherwise, the market is deemed to be in a state of inefficiency or failure (Steinberg, 2006; Cunningham, 2011). Such is the case of Haitian market, which display all the three inefficiencies discussed in Steinberg (2006).

The Haitian market is unable to provide adequately for the population (Latino & Musumeci, 2016), which is consistent with the first source of market failure, underprovision of collective goods (Steinberg, 2006). The Haitian market overly excludes many people from accessing certain public goods due to the weak purchasing power of the poor who are the country’s majority (Assessment Capacities Project (ACAPS), 2016, October). Such a situation is consistent with the second source of market failure, which is the overexclusion from excludable public goods (Steinberg, 2006). As Latino and Musumeci (2016) point out: “Ninety percent of

households now depend on food markets; however, families' incomes are not enough to buy increasingly expensive products and households resorted to reduce purchases of both local and imported foods" (p. 14).

According to Chiappori, Jullien, Salanié, and Salanié (2006), information asymmetry is a reality in all markets around the world. The authors put forward two reasons for this assertion. The first reason is that "whatever the product or service sold, the seller never knows the buyer's preferences nor the maximum price she would be willing to pay to acquire it" (p. 783). The second reason is the belief that "the buyer in general is unlikely to have much information about the seller's production technology or marginal costs" (p. 783). Steinberg (2006) considers information asymmetry as a source of contract failure. Based on Chiappori et al.'s (2006) assertion about market information asymmetry, it can be said that information asymmetry is another important issue in the Haitian market system. In Haiti, information asymmetry is mainly due to lack of transparency in economic transactions. In his assessment of the fertilizer markets in Haiti, Fuentes (2012) isolated information asymmetry as pressing issue. He notes that "for all market players to make informed decisions, information asymmetry should be reduced in the fertilizer market" (Fuentes, 2012, p. xvi). Regardless of the sociopolitical system, government has the political responsibility to intervene in the market regardless of whether there is failure or not (Orbach, 2013; Stiglitz, 2010). Ironically, while intervening to correct market failure, government is also subject to fail (Steinberg, 2006).

Government failure. The constitution and the law of every state guarantee government's right and obligation to play a role in economic activity. The scope of government's economic role depends on the type of socioeconomic and political system under which the citizenry lives (Samuels, 1989). For example, in the capitalist society of the United States of America, the

government's economic role is restricted (CIA World Factbook, 2017). By contrast, in socialist China, the government's economic role is all embracing (Liou, 1998). Again, government economic action, is not immune to inefficiency or failure, irrespective of the economic system (Orbach, 2013).

Economics have defined government failure in various ways. For Orbach (2013), government failure is “a concept in regulation [that] refers to substantial imperfection in government performance. Such imperfections are comprised of inadequate actions and unreasonable inactions” (p. 56). This definition indicates two sources of government failure—government inaction and ineffective government action—that are discussed in the debate over government regulation. According to Orbach (2013), in this debate, supporters of Adam's Theory of the Invisible Hand argue that “a government failure is a consequence of too much regulation, while for [their opponents] it is a result of too little regulation” (p. 55).

As Orbach (2003) suggests, government failure springs from sources, which are quite different from the sources of market failure. In *Economic Theories of the Nonprofit Organizations*, Steinberg (2006) discusses three other sources of government failure through the lens of three-failures theory: “Underprovision of collective goods, overexclusion from excludable public goods, and contract failure” (p. 122). As this list suggests, government failure and market failure are nourished by the same sources. Nevertheless, government and market fail in different ways. One government failure is its inability “to provide goods at the level of high demanders” (p. 122). Here, government fails in two ways. First, “whatever the form of government, one result pervades—some citizens will be dissatisfied with the level, quality, or style of collective goods provided (or paid for) by government” (Steinberg, 2006, p. 122). Second, constitutional or legal boundaries, in some context or the other, often restrict

government action or make it too broad. Another government failure is its inability to detect or address contract failure efficiently in what regards the profitmaking business of goods and services (Steinberg, 2006). Again, as the economics literature suggests, government everywhere is subject to government failure (Bhalla, 2001), but much more so governments in low-income countries such as Haiti (Cunningham, 2011).

The Haitian government. Haiti is a unitary semi-presidential republic. The country is run by a government system composed of a president (head of state), a prime minister (head of government), two legislative chambers, and a judiciary (CIA World Factbook, 2017). The current Constitution of the Republic of Haiti establishes a free market economic system and guarantees the government's right and obligation to make economic and political decisions for the common good of the Haitian people. However, from independence in 1804 to the present, the Haitian government has consistently fallen short of providing adequate collective goods and services to the Haitian people. This situation has led many in Haiti and foreign countries to perceive Haiti as a failed state (Shampie & Thompson, 2006).

Political scientists have put forward several key economic, social, and political indicators for identifying failed states. Gross (1996), for example, mentions a set of five symptoms of state failure: "economic malperformance, lack of social synergy, authoritarianism, militarism and environmental degradation caused by rampant population growth" (p. 462). Haiti is currently a demilitarized democracy, but it continues to display all the symptoms of state failure, fragility, or weakness (Shamsie & Thompson, 2006).

The issue of failed or fragile state raises the question of whether the failure of a state is directly attributable to government, which is one of the components of the state. In an attempt to contrast the concept of state with that of government, Robinson (2016) points out that "states are

juridical entities of the international legal system; governments are the exclusive legally coercive organizations for making and enforcing certain group decisions” (p. 556). Based on this conceptualization of the relationship of state and government, it is fair game to conclude that state failure does imply government failure. Therefore, as a failed state, government failure indeed applies to Haiti and reflect all the three sources of failure of government failure, as presented in the three-failures theory (O’Connor, Brisson-Boivin, & Ilcan, 2014; Steinberg, 2006).

Voluntary failure. Market failure or government failure in the delivery of goods and services in a country provide a clear justification for the involvement of the voluntary sector in the socioeconomic services (Steinberg, 2006). In the developing world where market failure and government failure are the norm (Bhalla, 2001; Cunningham, 2011), nongovernmental organizations have increasingly been called upon to play a role in economic development (Werker & Ahmed, 2008). As the nonprofit literature suggests, economists, anthropologists, donors, and the NGOs themselves have built rationales to support their interpretations of the role of the NGOs in the developing world (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Ebrahim, 2003; Kilby, 2006; Salamon, 1987; Schuller, 2007b; Steinberg, 2006).

Schuller (2007a) argues that anthropologists should understand the role of the NGOs as intermediaries between Global North and Global South. The term Global North—or simply North—describes all the so-called “developed” nation-states that presently serve as economic and cultural super-powers” (Miner, 2013, p. 4). In contrast to Global North, Global South—or simply Global South— refers to all the developing countries or nations of the world (Bonilla, 2013). As organizational intermediaries, their role in global governance is to glue the elements of globalization according to the agenda of the contemporary neoliberal world system. The donors’

rationale is that “NGOs are more cost-effective than governments in providing basic social services, are better able to reach the poor” (Ebrahim, 2003, p. 813), more equipped to find solutions to environmental problems and to issues of sustainable development (Buss & Gardner, 2006). The NGOs’ rationale is that the developing world needs them for its development because they are value-driven organizations (Ebrahim, 2003; Kilby, 2006). Backed up by the works of other scholars, Kilby (2006) distinguishes between three types of NGO values. First, the *Weltanschauung* based values, which are “the more permanent and deeply held values that NGOs hold that are based on a certain philosophy or way of seeing the world” (Kilby, 2006, p. 953). *Weltanschauung* as a German word that literally means worldview (Kilby, 2006). Second, the organizational values which are “the values that drive the way NGO work is undertaken.” Third, terminal values understood as “the values that indicate an end point, such as relief from poverty” (p. 953).

Proponents of the three-failures theory believe that the NGOs are an instrument that the nonprofit sectors around the world use to respond to market failure and government failure (Steinberg, 2006). Nonetheless, nonprofit organizations are also prone to failure while they attempt to correct market distortions and government ineffectiveness. Scholars call this type of failure “voluntary failure” (Salamon, 1987, Steinberg, 2006).

The sources of voluntary failure are quite different from those of market failure and government failure (Steinberg, 2006). In discussing voluntary failure, economists tend to quote Salamon (1987) who believe that “broadly speaking, there are four [voluntary failures]: first, philanthropic insufficiency; second, philanthropic particularism; third, philanthropic paternalism; and fourth, philanthropic amateurism” (p. 39). The occurrence of these sources of failure creates

an incentive for government to take action and provide support to the voluntary sector (Steinberg, 2006).

Salamon (1987) provides a list of sources of voluntary failure and briefly outlines the meaning of each one of them. The first source of voluntary failure—philanthropic insufficiency—results from the voluntary sector’s limitations in terms of responding adequately and sufficiently to large scale demand for social service. The second source—philanthropic particularism—has to do with “the tendency of voluntary organizations and their benefactors to focus on particular subgroups of the population” that is in need of social services (Salamon, 2007, p. 40). The third source—philanthropic paternalism—stems “from the fact that this approach inevitably vests most of the influence over the definition of community needs in the hands of those in command of the greatest resources” (Salamon, 2007, p. 41). Finally, the third source of voluntary failure—philanthropic amateurism—has to do with “its association with amateur approaches to coping with human problems” (Salamon, 2007, p. 42).

Inspired by Salamon’s (1987) framework, Steinberg (2006) goes further to discuss other ways in which voluntary failure materializes. One way is the fact that “with respect to the underprovision problem, philanthropic insufficiency obviously limits the nonprofit ability to respond” (Steinberg, 2006, p. 125). Another way has to do with the voluntary sector’s inability to solve the problem overexclusion. This is due to limitations in terms of the voluntary sector’s ability to charge high prices to high demanders so that subsidies can be allocated to low demanders. One more way in which voluntary failure may occur is their inability to combat contract failure effectively due to limited government regulation and monitoring of the nonprofit sector. This situation, Steinberg (2006) continues to say, has led to a combination of genuine nonprofits and for-profit-in-disguise organizations.

Concept of civil society. The voluntary sector is “often closely associated with the idea of civil society and voluntarism” (Corry, 2010, p. 11). Some scholars recognize civil society as pertaining to the life domain of sociology, which contrasts with two other domains, namely politics and economics (Somers, 2008; Wright, 2011). Other scholars use the term civil society “as the general equivalent of the nonprofit sector” (Casey, 2016, p. 36) or voluntary sector (Salamon, Sokolowski, & List, 2003). In this study, civil society and voluntary sector will be used interchangeably.

Theoretically, the concept of civil society has been approached from a variety of vantage points across different academic disciplines (Kumar, K., 1993). The debate over defining civil society is still ongoing and, without a doubt, is far from reaching a definitive settlement (Centre for Civil Society, 2009). In that debate, various competing views of the concept of civil society have been put forward. An intersection between the different views is the conception of civil society as “the “space” or “sphere” between the market, state, and family in which people organize, uncoerced, to pursue their interests” (Casey, 2016, p. 37).

Holding a political view of civil society, Scholte (2004) asserts that “civil society might be conceived as a political space where voluntary associations seek, from outside political parties, to shape the rules that govern one or the other aspect of social life” (p. 213). As Scholte (2004) suggests in his conception of civil society, the civil society of a country needs a political space to thrive. A clear illustration of Scholte’s (2004) view of civil society is the Haitian civil society before and after the 1986 popular revolt that resulted in the overthrow of twenty-nine-year dictatorship of the Duvalier regime (Shamsie & Thompson, 2006).

The 1999 USAID/Haiti Report No. 806 on Local Government and Civil Society in Haiti points out that “for most of Haitian history, civil society has had little room for maneuver (the

Haitians call this lack of "space") in the political arena” (p. 4). The Report continues to say that, as a result of the democratic space created by the end of the Duvalier regime, “civil society began to wage desultory warfare against this entrenched political and social system. A variety of civil society organizations (CSOs) began to feel increasingly empowered ... Haitian CSOs became increasingly involved in social and political protest” (p. 5).

A civil view of civil society is provided by the Center for Civil Society (CCS) based in the London School of Economics and Political Science. In its 1999 Report on Activities, CCS defines the concept of civil society in these words:

Civil society refers to the arena of uncoerced collective action around shared interests, purposes and values. In theory, its institutional forms are distinct from those of the state, family and market, though in practice, the boundaries between state, civil society, family and market are often complex, blurred and negotiated. Civil society commonly embraces a diversity of spaces, actors and institutional forms, varying in their degree of formality, autonomy and power. Civil societies are often populated by organisations such as registered charities, development non-governmental organisations, community groups, women’s organisations, faith-based organisations, professional associations, trades unions, self-help groups, social movements, business associations, coalitions and advocacy group. (p. i)

The voluntary sector of Haiti. As the literature on literature on civil society suggests, the development of the voluntary sector is contingent upon the existence of a favorable democratic space (Scholte, 2004). In Haiti, during the Duvalier regime, the voluntary sector could not evolve because the latter was condemned to atrophy (USAID/Haiti, 1999). However, the voluntary sector started to resurface following the overthrow of the regime in 1986. The 1999 USAID/Haiti Report says this about the change:

In 1986, civil society began to wage desultory warfare against this entrenched political and social system. A variety of civil society organizations (CSOs) began to feel increasingly empowered to become involved in civic action and to support political movements. Haitian CSOs became increasingly involved in social and political protest. These included unions, professional associations, socio-professional groups, human rights organizations, rural groups, neighborhood committees, and grassroots ecclesiastical communities. (p. 5)

The economics view of civil society envisions civil society as a third sector along with the state (first sector), and market (second sector) engaged in goods and services delivery (Steinberg, 2006), entrepreneurship and economic development (Teegen, Doh, & Vachani, 2004). Studies based on this view of civil society “focuses on organizational structures” (Casey, 2016, p. 37), the most important of which are the cooperatives, mutual funds, nongovernmental organizations with economic purposes, and so on (Fernando, 2011).

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 development nongovernmental organizations in the country from 1986 onward (Kristoff & Panarelli, 2010).

Nongovernmental Organizations

Nongovernmental organizations are considered the most notable of the nonstate actors in global governance (Karns & Mingst, 2010). Their influence is felt in the social, economic and political spheres of the country where they are established (Jamali, 2003). Because of the large numbers of NGOs and the diversity of activities in which they are involved around the world, how to define or typologize them has been a matter of discussion among scholars for a long time (Yaziji & Doh, 2009).

NGO is a generic term coined by the United Nations in 1950 to refer to a diversity of groups or organizations that deemed independent from government (Yaziji & Doh, 2009). These groups or organizations are either involved in social or political activism, aid development or provision of basic services to the populations they serve (Jamali, 2004). The terminological debate around the definition of the NGO has produced several definitions that reflect contrasting academic views on the NGO topic. Yaziji and Doh (2009) explored several of these definitions

in their book titled *NGOs and Corporations: Conflict and Collaboration*. However, researchers and policymakers tend to espouse official definitions provided by the World Bank and the United Nations. A definition by the World Bank often adopted by scholars (Jamali, 2004) 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)

Typology of NGOs

This official definition by the World Bank suggests that nongovernmental organizations exist in various types that correspond to specific community needs (Yaziji & Doh, 2009). Scholars have wrestled with the problem of classifying the NGOs due to the latter's great number and diversity (Lewis & Kanji, 2009). However, Yaziji and Doh (2009) provide a typology that appears to be worthy of consideration. For Yaziji and Doh (2009), "NGOs can be broadly divided along two dimensions – (a) whom the NGO is designed to benefit and (b) what the NGO does" (p. 5). Yaziji and Doh (2009) go further to say that NGOs that provide a service to their members are "self-benefiting NGOs" (p. 5), whereas those that are designed to serve the public good are "other-benefiting NGOs" (p. 5).

Another way the NGOs are classified has to do with the types activities in which they are involved. NGOs are either involved in advocacy or engaged in delivering a certain goods and services. So, NGOs are called either advocacy NGOs or service NGOs. For Yaziji and Doh (2009), NGOs that pursue both sets of activities simultaneously—advocacy and service—or evolve from one to the other are known as hybrid and evolving NGOs. In the context of the developing world, NGOs are classified into two groups: NGOs that are involved in development

and NGOs that are not. Karns and Mingst (2010) distinguish between NGOs that focus exclusively on development and relief NGOs specialized in providing relief services that are “integrat[ing] developmental components into their relief work” (p. 224). Jamali (2003) names “development NGOs,” the NGOs that play a key role in development. In Haiti, nongovernmental organizations, irrespective of their types and forms, are understood from a perspective of development (Schuller, 2007a). One way or another, these NGOs activities have impacted Haitian life in all its aspects (Covell, 2013; Morton, 1997; Pollock, 2003).

NGOs in the Context of Haiti

The three-failures theory explains the economic role of the voluntary sector as provider of goods and services and corrective agent to respond to market or government failure (Steinberg, 2006). In the developing world, nongovernmental organization are not only providers of goods and services. They have also been increasingly recognized as important actors in development (Attack, 1999), alongside with other actors, namely “individuals, households, communities, governments, private companies, and multilateral organizations” (Willis, 2005, p. 27). Understanding the role of the NGOs as agents of development requires reference to the literature on development theory and practice where the concept of development and approaches to development are extensively debated (Kothari & Minogue, 2001).

Although sustainable movement is believed to identify more with the interests of the industrialized countries of the North (Osorio et al., 2005), it has had an impact on development policies in developing countries where governments desire to improve living conditions for their citizens (Estes, 1993). The question of the lack of sustainable development in Haiti has occupied the center stage since the earthquake and the cholera epidemics hit the country in 2010 (Pierre-Louis, 2011). The reality in which the majority of Haitians have lived before and after the

earthquake indicates that Haiti has not engaged yet in the sustainable development movement (Zanotti, 2010).

What are the motives of the growing NGO presence in the developing world? This question is widely discussed in the literature related to the voluntary sector. Some scholars believe that the NGOs have just invaded the developing countries as representatives of neoliberal capitalism and globalization (Pierre Étienne, 1997; Pierre-Louis, 2011; Schuller, 2007b). For others, the rapid growth NGOs is explained by the fact that donors perceive them as value-producing agents and better servants of the poor (Ebrahim, 2003; Kilby, 2006) and “alternative agents of development, particularly in view of state retreat and retrenchment” (Jamali, 2003, p. 4).

As the NGO literature suggests, Haiti has a large population of NGOs. Kristoff and Panareli (2010) titled their April Peace Brief *Haiti: A Republic of NGOs?* In this Peace Brief, they point out that “estimates of the number of NGOs operating in Haiti prior to the earthquake range from 3,000 to as many as 10,000” (Kristoff & Panareli, 2010, p. 1). In support of their claim, Kristoff and Panarelli (2010) cite former U.S. President Bill Clinton. The latter notes that, compared to other countries, Haiti occupies the second position in terms of number of NGOs per capita (Kristoff and Panareli, 2010). In reviewing the NGO literature for a case study research, Zanotti (2010) found that the number of NGOs working in Haiti is estimated between 8000 and 9000. However, for the fiscal year 2015-2016, only 605 NGOs are registered with the Haitian government (MPCE, 2017).

Most of the NGOs are involved in development program operations (Schuller, 2007a; Zanotti, 2010). Development programs are often sponsored by intergovernmental organizations or governmental agencies such as the United States Agency for International Development (Buss

& Gardner, 2006). The NGO sector has to share implementation of these programs with government agencies. As a consequence, the NGO sector and the government have been in competition for grant money aimed at development (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Schuller, 2007a). It seems that the NGO sector has won the competition because, according to Schuller (2007a), “NGOs in Haiti receive nearly all official grant aid” (p. 114). However, reliance on NGOs to deliver services does mean that guarantee the success of foreign assistance (Buss and Gardner, 2006). They discuss six reasons why NGOs might fail to contribute to economic development even though they hold the monopole in terms of the implementation of bilateral or multilateral programs.

The first reason out forward by Buss & Gardner (2006) is that channeling aid assistance through NGOS causes the government to become indifferent to these programs. The second reason is that the privileged involvement of the NGOs in aid programs made them more attractive to skilled public workers who tend to brain drain to the NGO sector in quest of better wages. The third reason is that coordinating the NGOs is a challenge because of their large number. The fourth reason is that the NGOs involvement in service delivery may mitigate the already limited government legitimacy. The fifth reason is that NGOs tend to compete with the government for power regarding the control of the programs. The sixth and final reason is that the privileged position of the NGOs may cause them to lapse into politics, advocating for causes.

Zanotti (2010) also believes that the strategy of privileging the NGOs in terms of aid assistance “has proven faulty both as a tool of institution building and as an instrument against corruption” (p. 759). She also discusses several reasons for the faultiness of this strategy, several of which are similar to the reasons given by Buss and Gardner (2006). Nevertheless, Zanotti’s (2010) list of reasons include the issue of the instrumentalization of the NGOs to serve foreign or

domestic political interests. Zanotti (2010) believes that the NGOs' influence in local politics is likely to be stronger than the local electorate because of the fact that local politicians rely heavily on the NGOs to access financial resources. On the other hand, Zanotti's (2010) also believes that some international organizations and foreign government agencies have chosen to channel funds through the NGOs as a strategy to isolate even democratically elected government they don't want to support. According to Zanotti (2010), another reason why international donors have tended to bypass government in favor of NGOs is their concern with accountability. As Zanotti's (2010) case study shows, "organizations that are locally accountable, needs-driven and connected to a diversified network of international funding have created social capital, sustainable source of income, literacy, access to health and credit, and durable positive effects in the life of the populations they serve" (p. 768). As the NGO literature suggests, effective and catalytic leaders are needed to build and lead this type of organizations (Hailey, 2006).

Concept of Development

In the Online Cambridge Dictionary, development is defined as "the process in which someone or something grows or changes and becomes more advanced." Development has been conceptualized in various ways across a variety of academic disciplines, mainly biology, psychology, and economics. In defining development, biologists emphasize the idea of observable change. Development is thus defined as the "progressive changes in size, shape, and function during the life of an organism by which its genetic potentials (genotype) are translated into functioning mature systems (phenotype)" (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2017). In psychology, development is understood as a process that is closely associated with the process of learning focus on the idea of learning (Piaget, 1972). The concept of development thus "refers to a

process of active learning from experience-leading to systematic and purposeful development of the whole person, body, mind, and spirit” (Sundari, Murty, & Narasimharao, 2015, p. 137).

In economics, there is not a single agreed-upon focal point for the definition of development. According to Lewis and Kanji (2009), “development is a slippery concept which has no agreed single meaning. It is used by its advocates to denote positive change or progress, but also carries the meaning of organic growth and evolution” (pp. 48-49). For Willis (2011), different people define development differently depending on their purpose for doing so. For example, definitions of development offered by major international organizations, World Bank and United Nations, are based on the purpose of modernity, which is to promote “industrialization, urbanization and the increased use of technology within all sectors of the economy” (Willis, 2011, p. 3). Currently, the World Bank’s definition of development focuses on the wealth of a country in terms of amount of Gross National Income per capita (Willis, 2011).

The United Nations’ concept of development is expressed into the so-called Human Development Index (United Nations Development Program, 2016), which considers wealth as well as non-economic factors. This way of conceptualizing development has been largely used to compare countries in terms of human development and economic advancement (Willis, 2011). Although these definitions of development offered by these major international organizations are largely used, the development debate is far from being settled (Idemudia, 2008). Another interesting subject matter of the debate is the various approaches and theories of development (Willis, 2011).

Approaches to Economic Development

The literature on economic development contains a set of well-established theories of or approaches to development that have been used in scholarship from the end Second World War onward (Lewis & Kanji, 2009; Willis, 2011). In her book *Theories and Practices of Development*, Willis (2011) provides a good discussion of three approaches to development that are applicable to the development NGOS, namely the neoliberal approach, the grassroots development approach, and the sustainable development approach.

The Neoliberal Approach

Development, from the end of the Second World onward, has been deeply influenced by neoliberalism (Willis, 2011). Inspired by Harvey's (2005) neoliberal historical narrative, Barnett (2010) defines neoliberalism as "a theory of political-economic practices of free markets, which is highly flexible and can be implemented by both liberal democratic and authoritarian regimes" (p. 272). According to Willis (2005), neoliberalism represents a determined departure from the Keynesian approach to development, which "was based on government intervention at a national level and foreign assistance in terms of aid on an international scale" (p. 52). Proponents of the neoliberal approach believe that economic development is better achievable in as much as the market, not the state, is allowed to determine prices and wages (Lewis & Kanji, 2009; Willis, 2011).

In *Neoliberalism: A Very Short Introduction*, Steger and Roy (2010) discuss neoliberalism as a three-dimensional theoretical approach to economic development. The first dimension, named an ideology, has to do with neoliberals' conception of a worldview that celebrates "free-market capitalism...[and] puts the production and exchange of material goods at the heart of the human experience" (p. 12). The second dimension, named a mode of governance,

has to do with the Foucaultian concept of governmentalities. Concerning the second dimension, Steger and Roy (2010), point out that “a neoliberal governmentality is rooted in entrepreneurial values such as competitiveness, self-interest, and decentralization. [And] it celebrates individual empowerment and the devolution of central state power to smaller localized units” (p. 12).

Finally, in its third dimension, neoliberalism supports economic deregulation, freedom of trade and industry, de-etatization of enterprises, and other related public policies such as tax cuts and welfare reform (Steger and Roy, 2010).

In the Global North, powerful governments have enlisted major national or international organizations such the International Monetary Fund, the World Bank, and the United States Agency for International Development to promote the neoliberal agenda in the global South through international aid packages (Willis, 2011). Most Northern NGOs, due to absolute reliance on donor funding, have embraced the global neoliberal agenda to the detriment of their mission to contribute to real socioeconomic, and environmental change (Wallace, 2009). Even more so, most southern governments and NGOs have also embrace neoliberalism as a way to survive in times of dire financial crisis (Willis, 2005; Lewis and Kanji, 2009).

NGOs flourished in the age of neoliberalism. Denunciations of the NGO sector as accomplice of neoliberalism abound in the literature (Fernando, 2011; Schuller, 2007b; Wallace, 2009). After conducting an ethnographic study of two women NGOs in Haiti, Schuller (2007b) describes NGOs’ involvement in neoliberalism as follows:

Drawing from two ethnographic case studies, both from Haiti, this article argues that NGOs “glue” globalization in four ways. First, as gap fillers NGOs provide legitimacy to neoliberal globalization, representing alternatives to fragmented states. Second, NGOs can undermine Southern states’ governance capacity, eroding the Keynesian social welfare state ethos and social contract that states should be responsible for service provision—an ideology Glick Schiller and Fouron (2001) have termed an “apparent state” (212). Third, NGOs provide high-paying jobs to an educated transnational middle class, reproducing inequalities inherent to and required by the contemporary neoliberal

world system. Fourth, NGOs constitute buffers between elites and impoverished masses and can present institutional barriers against local participation and priority setting (p. 85).

The criticisms of the neoliberal role of the NGOs prove that the forces of neoliberalism have greatly influenced the NGO sector in one way or another (Fernando, 2011; Schuller, 2007a; Schuller, 2007b Wallace, 2009; Willis, 2009) Nonetheless, there is evidence in the literature that the latter has significantly contributed to social, economic, environmental, and political change in southern societies (Fernando, 2011) such as Haiti, which is populated with NGOs involved in development at all levels, including at the grassroots level (Schuller, 2007b; Zanotti, 2010).

Grassroots Approach

Another approach to development associated with the NGOs is grassroots development (Willis, 2011). According to the Inter-American Foundation (2017), grassroots development is “community-based change through participatory, self-help initiatives, [whose] primary objective is to improve the quality of life for the poor and the disadvantaged” (para. 1). The grassroots development approach has a multiplicity of social, economic, and political components. In her *Theories and Practices of Development*, Willis (2011) provide a discussion of the components of the grassroots development approach. The topic discussed are: basic needs, decentralization, NGO as the development solution, empowerment, participation, civil society, social capital, grassroots, and grassroots organizations and post-development.

In the discussion, Willis (2011) considers each of the components of the grassroots development approach as constituting an approach to development in its own right. Under the basic need approach, development focuses on creating a better economic future for the world’s neediest populations. In the context of decentralization, development celebrates efficiency and cost-effectiveness in economic matters, and greater access to decision-making in political

matters. The NGO approach places the NGO sector in the center of development. As such, NGOs are recognized to be capable of engaging with the material as well as the non-material processes of development. The goal of the empowerment approach to grassroots development is to support the powerless and marginalized. Here, NGOs are perceived as being in a better position “to help set up conditions within which individuals and groups can empower themselves” (p. 113). According to Willis (2011), participatory approaches to grassroots development are intertwined with the empowerment approach. Under the participatory approaches, grassroots development requires the involvement of local constituencies in every aspect of development activities that are usually NGO-based. Grassroots development with a civil society approach is not economic; it rather values what Willis (2005) calls non-material processes such as democratization. Finally, the social capital approach to grassroots development values all types of social resources that are available in communities (Willis, 2005).

Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is considered a new concept that has made its way in the literature on development (Songa, 2011). In its 1987 report, the World Commission on Environment and Development, or Brundtland Commission, defines sustainable development as “development that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). The report of the Brundtland Commission launched a sustainable development movement around the world. People in both the developed and developing countries were called upon to be part of that movement (Gillis, 2005). However, scholars believe that Southern countries have a greater interest in participating in the sustainable development

movement because “poor people in [these] countries are far more dependent on their soils, rivers, fisheries, and forests than are citizens of rich countries” (Gillis, 2005, p. 20).

Since the publication of the 1987 Brundtland Report on sustainability of development, “the concept of sustainable development has become an important part of the vocabulary of politicians, administrators and planners (Naess, 2001, p. 503). Several scholars agree with the essence of the concept of sustainable development, but they disagree as to how it should be defined, interpreted or understood (Asefa 2005; Bagheri & Hjorth, 2007; Bekemeyer et al., 2014; Ciegis et al., 2009; Jabareen, 2008; Osorio et al., 2005; Redclift, 2005). The Brundtland Commission’s definition of sustainable development— “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)—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).

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. The first initiative was the establishment, in 2000, of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) for the year 2015. The MDGs were not exclusively about sustainable development. However, the United Nations, as shown in the Millennium Declaration, have unequivocally and strongly endorsed the sustainable development cause (UN General Assembly, 2000). The second step was the launching, in 2005, of the 2005-2014 UN Decade of Education for Sustainable Development (DESD) under the auspices of the United Nations Education, Scientific, and

Cultural Organization. (UNESCO). According to UNESCO (2005), “the basic vision of the DESD is a world where everyone has the opportunity to benefit from education and learn the values, behaviour and lifestyles required for a sustainable future and for positive societal transformation” (p. 6). The third initiative was the launching, in 2014, of the current UNESCO Global Action Program on Education for Sustainable Development (GAP) for the year 2030. As a follow-up to the DESD, “the GAP has identified five Priority Action Areas: 1) Advancing policy; 2) Transforming learning and training environments; 3) Building capacities of educators and trainers; 4) Empowering and mobilizing youth; and 5) Accelerating sustainable solutions at local level” (UNESCO, 2017, p. 2). 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). Despite all this progress, sustainable development remains one of the most debated concepts of development around the world (Hopwood, Mellor, & O’Brien, 2005).

Sustainable Development Debate

The concept of sustainable development has generally been well received among scholars from a variety of disciplines (Redclift, 2005). Nevertheless, sustainable development quickly has become one of the most debated concepts of development around the world (Hopwood, Mellor, & O’Brien, 2005). The debate features, on one side, scholars who agree to join the commission in the sustainable development movement (Asefa, 2005; Escobar, 1995; Estes, 1993; Osorio, Lobato & Del Castillo, 2005) and, on the other side, scholars who believe that the concept of

sustainable development itself is highly questionable (Bagheri & Hjorth, 2007; Ciegis, Ramanauskiene, & Martinkus, 2009; Jabareen, 2008; Osorio et al., 2005).

Supporters of the concept of ‘sustainable development’ do not shy away from voicing their opinions. Asefa (2005) points out that the concept of sustainable development is worthwhile because it incorporates “natural resources as a form of *natural capital*, defined as the value of the existing stock of natural resources such as forests, fisheries, water, mineral deposits, and the environment in general” (p. 1). Anti-poverty advocates and environmentalists also rejoice. For example, Estes (1993) points out that “both in the Commission's report and elsewhere Brundtland drew attention to the intimate and inseparable relationship that exists between poverty, development and environmental un-sustainability (para. 6). Backed up by the work of Escobar (1995), Osorio, Lobato and Del Castillo (2005) praise Brundtland for “adopting the concept of *sustainable development*, [in which] two old enemies, growth and the environment, are reconciled” (p. 514).

Other scholars agree with the essence of the concept of sustainable development, but disagree as to how it should be defined, interpreted or understood. For instance, Bagheri and Hjorth (2005), Ciegis et al. (2009) and Jabareen (2008) believe that the concept of sustainable development is meaningful, but it is not adequately defined. For Osorio et al. (2005) and Bagheri and Hjorth (2005) an adequate definition of the concept of sustainable development should take into account the understanding that ‘sustainability’ and ‘sustainable development’ are part of an unending process of development.

Other scholars engage forthrightly in deconstructing the concept of sustainable development. In their deconstruction, they ask epistemological questions so as to figure out a way to explain the essence and meaning of the concepts of sustainability and sustainable

development. Some of these questions are found in Osorio et al. (2005): “What kind of development are we talking about? Is it economic? Biological? Social? Political? Cultural? Besides, what kind of sustainability is implied?” (p. 505). Scholarly efforts to answer these questions have given rise to a litany of interpretations to the concept of sustainable development (O’Riordan, 1979; Willis, 2011).

Approaches to Sustainable Development

Another area of the debate on sustainable development centers on how to approach the concept of sustainable development (Willis, 2011). Following the lead taken in the Brandtland Report, early writings about sustainable development have taken on a strong environmentalist approach (O’Riordan, 1979). From a social science perspective, environmentalism is defined as follows:

Environmentalism is a political and ethical movement that seeks to improve and protect the quality of the natural environment through changes to environmentally harmful human activities; through the adoption of forms of political, economic, and social organization that are thought to be necessary for, or at least conducive to, the benign treatment of the environment by humans; and through a reassessment of humanity’s relationship with nature (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2017).

In reviewing the literature on environmentalism literature, O’Riordan (1989) found evidence of a modern conceptualization of environmentalism, which considers environmentalism as the result of a conflict between two different worldviews. The first worldview is “a conservative and nurturing view of society-nature relationships, where nature provides a metaphor for morality... and a guide to rules of conduct” (O’Riordan, 1989, p. 82). The second worldview is “a radical and manipulative perspective in which human ingenuity and the spirit of competition dictate the terms of morality and conduct” (O’Riordan, 1989, p. 82).

For O’Riordan (1989), the proponents of the manipulative worldview of environmentalism are known as technocentrists, while the proponents of the nurturing

conception of environmentalism are known as ecocentrists. Again, according to O’Riordan (1989), technocentrism has two features: interventionism and accommodation. Interventionists firmly believe in humans’ capacity to manipulate the earth and exploit the natural resources for the sake of improving well-being. Accommodators believe in the exploitation of natural resources to improve well-being, but accommodators also promote sensitivity for society and the environment. O’Riordan (1989) goes further to say that ecocentrism includes communalism, and Gaianism. For communalists, “economic relationships are intimately connected with social relationships and feelings of belonging, sharing, caring, and surviving” (p. 2649). Communalists recognize the relevance of the household and human cooperation to economic development. Inspired by the mythologic Greek goddess Gaia, Gaianists see people as both potential contributors and destroyers of environmental systems. There is a reward for the contributors and punishment for the destroyers.

O’Riordan’s (1989) mapping of environmental views has been the object of constructive criticism on the part of scholars interested in sustainable development issues. The major criticism is that environmental issues are not always intertwined with socioeconomic issues (Marcuse, 1998; Hopwood et al., 2005). As a follow-up to their criticism, Hopwood et al. (2005) propose that “O’Riordan’s original mapping can be expanded by considering environmental and socio-economic views on two separate axes” (p. 41). The expanded map proposed by Hopwood et al. (2005) features “three broad views on the nature of the changes necessary in society’s political and economic structures and human–environment relationships to achieve sustainable development” (p. 42)—namely status quo, reform, and transformation.

According to Hopwood et al. (2005), the proponents of the status quo, reform, and transformation agree that change is necessary. However, they hold differing views about society,

the environment and the role of governments and businesses in sustainable development. Supporters of the status quo “see neither the environment nor society as facing insuperable problems. [For them,] adjustments can be made without any fundamental changes to society, means of decision making or power relations” (p. 42). Status quo supporters tend to advocate for reduced role of governments in sustainable development.

Like status quo supporters, advocates of the reform approach believe that things need to change, but they “do not consider that a collapse in ecological or social systems is likely or that fundamental change is necessary” (p. 43). Unlike the supporters of the status quo and the reformers, the proponents of the transformation approach believe deep change is warranted. Transformers are against the status quo and think reform is does not go far enough as a response to the deep-seated social and environmental problem. Transformers’ main argument is that “a transformation of society and/or human relations with the environment is necessary to avoid a mounting crisis and even a possible future collapse” (p. 45). Hopwood et al (2005) believes that there are differing approaches to sustainability within the transformation movement, but transformationists “generally see a need for social and political action that involves those outside the centres of power such as indigenous groups, the poor and working class, and women” (p. 45).

The insight that environmental issues and socioeconomic issues should treated as separate areas in sustainable development studies (Hopwood et al., 2005; Marcuse, 1998) has been adopted by a variety of authors (Willis, 2011). However, up to recently, the tendency has been to treat sustainable development as a complex, multidimensional construct (Bardy, Massaro, & Rubens, 2013; Dempsey, 2011). That is the reason why that “debates about sustainability no longer consider sustainability solely as an environmental concern, but also incorporate economic and social dimensions” (Dempsey, 2011, p. 1). Still, scholars have argued

over how many dimensions are there (Pawłowski, 2008) and over how the dimensions are interrelated (Redclift, 1991).

There is agreement among scholars that sustainable development has three dimensions: economic dimension, social dimension, and ecological (Dempsey, 2011; Willis, 2011). However, for other scholars, sustainable development has more than three dimensions (Bardy et al., 2013; Čiegis, & Šimanskien, 2010; Ciegis, Ramanauskiene, & Martinkus, 2009). In a recent book entitled *Sustainable Development in the Developing World*, Bardy et al. (2013) discuss four dimensions of sustainable development: Systemic dimension, ethics dimension, growth dimension, and measurement dimensions. The systemic dimension of sustainable development is part of the theoretical framework of this study.

Systemic Dimension of Sustainable Development

In their treatment of sustainable development as a systemic construct, Bardy et al. (2013) discuss four separate approaches, namely economic approach, ecological approach, social approach, and institutional approach. Furthermore, they attempt to show the interrelation between these perspectives.

Bardy et al. (2013) believe that Solow's (1974, 1986) theory of capital convertibility, Lindahl's (1933) concept of income, and Hicks-Lindahl's theory of maximum income can be considered to constitute the theoretical foundation of the economic approach to sustainable development. For Bardy et al. (2013), capital maintenance is another concept that is at the basis of economic sustainability. The authors believe that capital maintenance is the basic goal of economic sustainability irrespective of whether one thinks macro- or micro-economically. They say:

Maintenance of a capital stock yields an indefinite stream of output or income. Implicit in this proposition is that we must, to the best of our ability, live off 'interest' on this capital

stock and not draw it down. Thus, if a part of this capital is consumed, it must be replaced by substitute capital. (pp. 5-6)

While the economic approach to sustainable development seeks to uphold the stock of natural capital, “the ecological approach ... calls for stability of biological and physical systems” (Bardy et al., 2013, p. 7). Mostly taken by strong sustainability supporters, ecological sustainability seeks “to determine the natural systems’ limits for the various economic development activities” (Bardy et al., 2013, p. 8).

According to Bardy et al (2013), the social approach to sustainable development has to do with both economic development and stakeholder groups’ cultures. Citing Ciegis et al. (2009), Bardy et al. (2013), point out that the goal of the social approach is to consolidate society and its organizations in a sustainable way. Bardy et al. (2013) agrees that “the principles of human well-being, equity, democratic government and democratic civil society are ... the primary constituents of social sustainability” (p. 11). However, these principles are so in as much as they are shared by social shareholders around the world at the individual, communal, and institutional levels. (Bardy et al., 2013).

As Bardy et al. (2013) note, institutional sustainability has made its way into the sustainable development literature recently. The authors believe that institutional sustainability is as important as the other three perspectives because “effective, properly functioning institutions are essential for sustainable development in the realization of the social, economic, and environmental aims of society” (p. 12). But, much more so in the developing world where most countries have suffered institutional pathologies that threaten their economic, social, and ecological futures.

As stated above, Bardy et al. (2013) does not only present the four approaches that constitute the systemic dimension of sustainable development. They also make an attempt to

show the extent to which the approaches are connected with each other “through multi-stakeholder dialogues” (p. 15). The authors’ concept of stakeholder relation is based on system theory. Originally based on the thoughts of Herbert Spencer and Émile Durkheim, systems theory is “the study of society as a complex arrangement of elements, including individuals and their beliefs, as they relate to a whole” (Encyclopedia Britannica, 2017). Applied to sustainable development, systems theory allows understanding the interrelation between the different approaches, which ultimately “poses the issue of distinguishing between qualitative and quantitative changes in the utilization of our natural resource base, and changes in the participation of institutions, in social impact and in economic effects” (Bardy et al., 2013, p. 15).

Bardy et al (2013) believe that, for sustainable development to be achieved, various stakeholders must be involved into a constructive dialogue and partnership. The range of stakeholder varies “from potential suppliers and customers, to government representatives on all levels, to trade unions, society and church leaders, to tribal chiefs, and civil rights activists, etc.” (p. 15). Furthermore, according to Bardy et al (2013), “building blocks of a knowledge base” (p.16) should be established to the dialogue to take place. The success of the partnership will depend on establishing a trusted network of communication where the interests of all stakeholders are taken into consideration. Bardy et al. (2013) believe that the social triad of partnership, knowledge sharing, and communication is much more critical in societal and business relationships in the context of the developing countries, such as Haiti.

In this study, the Brundtland Commission’s approach to sustainable development and the holistic approach to sustainable development proposed by Bardy, Massaro, and Rubens (2013) will be adopted. The latter authors 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. This paper will primarily focus on the systemic dimension, which, according to Bardy et al. (2003) comprises four interconnected perspectives: economic, ecological, social, and institutional perspectives. This holistic approach to sustainable development 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 Omolawal (2010) argue, “at the heart of the success of the efforts for sustainable development is good leadership” (p. 18).

Leadership

‘What is leadership?’, ‘who is a leader?’, and ‘what is effective leader?’ are questions that have received a good deal of anecdotal as well as empirical attention (Bolden, 2004; DePree, 1990; Hunt, 2004; Kruse, 2013; Mayer & Caruso, 2002; Nahavandi, 2009). In her book *The Art and Science of Leadership*, Nahavandi (2009) examined several definitions of leadership and discovered three elements that are common among them: (a) “leadership is a group phenomenon,” (b) leadership is goal-oriented,” and (c) “leadership supposes some form of hierarchy within a group.” Combining these three elements, she defines a leader as “any person who influences individuals and groups within an organization, helps them in establishing goals, and guides them toward achievement of those goals, thereby allowing them to be effective (p. 4).

In order to explain the meaning of ‘effective leadership,’ Nahavandi, again, reviewed various opinions held by participants in the leadership debate and found three elements that characterize effective leadership: (a) “goal achievement,” (b) “smooth internal processes,” and (c) “external adaptability.” Regardless of how good a definition of leadership or leader sounds, the task of defining leadership will remain open. A reason for this is that, to a certain extent, all

definitions of leadership or leader or effective leadership lack specificity (Barker, 2001).

Nevertheless, as the leadership literature suggests, significant progress has been made recently in the area of leadership theorizing or modeling.

Leadership Models

Contemporary models of leadership emphasize “neo-charisma, inspiration, and the relationship of leaders with followers (Nahavandi, 2009). Three of such leadership models are transformational leadership, ethical leadership, and authentic leadership. These contemporary leadership theories are distinct, but, as Walumbwa et al. (2008) note, they somewhat intersect conceptually. Specifically, according to Walumbwa et al. (2008), all three leadership theories share two common theoretical components: (a) Internalized moral perspective; and (b) moral person. These two components of leadership have to do with moral integration in the practice of leadership (Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Authentic leadership theory. 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). As the leadership literature suggests, 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, Authenticity in leadership is also relevant to delivering effective leadership. As George, Sims, McLean, and Mayer (2007) point out, “it may be possible to drive short-term outcomes without being authentic, but authentic

leadership is the only way we know to create sustainable long-term results” (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). As the above definition suggests authentic leadership is made of four distinct conceptual components: (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.

Transformational leadership theory. Transformational leadership theory helps to understand how leaders contribute to meaningful, effective and sustainable change. According to Hall, Johnson, Wysocki, and Kepner (2002), transformational leadership aims at “get[ting] people to want to change, to improve, and to be led.... A transformational leader could make the [organization] more successful by valuing its associates” (p. 1). In their study of leadership, Bass and Steidlmeir (1998) discuss four components of transformational leadership. The first component, idealized influence, enables the leader to be emotionally connected to the followers, resulting in the loyalty and trust of the latter to the former. The second component of transformational leadership, inspirational motivations, enables the leader to inculcate in his or

her followers the challenges and meaning associated with the undertaking of major change. The third component, intellectual stimulation, enables the leader to motivate followers to use their intellect to solve problems in a creative way. The fourth component of transformational leadership, individualized consideration, allows the leader to establish a personal relationship with each individual follower so as to utilize the gifts that each individual brings to the organization. A mixture of these four components of transformational leadership is necessary to enable the leader to accomplish sweeping change (Nahavandi, 2009).

Ethical leadership theory. The relevance of ethics to the practice of leadership cannot be overstated (Okagbue, 2012). In her book *the Art and Science of Leadership*, Nahavandi (2009) describes ethics as an important attribute of leadership. For her, leaders in this increasingly global and multicultural world have no choice but to grapple with ethical matters that can be extremely intricate depending on the situation. Brown, Treviño, and Harrison (2005) put forward what they call a constitutive definition of ethical leadership: “the demonstration of normatively appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making” (p. 120). According to Walumbwa et al. (2008), ethical leadership intersects with authentic leadership theory and transformational leadership theory on several conceptual components, but it has two fundamental dimensions: (a) the moral person; and (b) the moral manager. Under the inspiration of several authors, Walumbwa et al. (2008) offer a description of these two core dimensions of ethical leadership. The first dimension, *the moral person*, supposes that the leaders is capable of “display[ing] actions indicating they seek to do the right thing personally and professionally and have the attributes of honesty, fairness, integrity, and openness” (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p. 102). The second dimension, *the moral manager*, assumes

that “ethical leaders are self-disciplined and consistent in their pursuit of clear ethical standards” (102).

Typology of NGO Leadership Style

Leadership is crucial role to the sustainable development process. Therefore, in order to contribute to sustainable development, the NGO sector needs to develop effective leaders (Adenugba & Omolawal, 2010). In reviewing the NGO literature, Hailey (2006) found four types of leadership the NGOS have developed overtime: Paternalistic leaders, activist leaders, managerialist leaders, and catalytic leaders. Hailey (2006) provides a definition for each type of leadership and briefly comments on their strengths and weaknesses.

Hailey (2006) believes that paternalistic leadership is typical of patriarchal or matriarchal societies where personal relationships are well-established. Paternalistic leaders can attract the loyalty of their followers and establish a close relationship with the latter, but they can be perceived as authoritarian and their relationship with their followers may be unsustainable in the long run. For Hailey (2006), activist leadership refers to the leaders who are in charge of advocacy or lobbying organizations or groups. Activist leaders are motivated and gifted to energize and inspire followers to take action towards solving a particular issue. However, they tend to focus on a single issue, neglecting their internal organizational management.

Managerialist leadership, Hailey continues to say refers to the leaders known for their managerial and administrative skills. Managerial leaders can use their management skill efficiently to ensure the stability and growth of their organizations and are professional in their approach to development. However, it may be difficult for them to deal with change in partners and stakeholders. Hailey (2006) defines catalytic leadership as referring to leaders who act as strategic catalysts, fostering and implementing change. He sees them as ideal NGO leaders, as

expressed in the following comment:

[NGO leaders] demonstrate a wider worldview, and the capacity to take a longer-term strategic view while balancing tough decisions about strategic priorities with organizational values and identity. Their success as change agents depends on their ability to delegate work to talented colleagues, so freeing time to engage actively with external stakeholders and partners, build coalitions and strategic alliances, and be involved in a variety of networks. (p. 3)

As already stated, NGOs are known as value-driven organizations (Ebrahim, 2003). In order to achieve self-sustainability and contribute to sustainable development, they need to develop catalytic leadership guided by all the values they uphold (Hailey, 2006). Some of the key values are transparency, accountability, and selflessness (Adenugba & Omolawal, 2010), and sustainability (Zanotti, 2010). NGO leaders who incarnate all the NGO values are more likely “to both engage with the external world and manage performance” (Hailey, 2006, p. 30).

Hailey’s (2006) review of the NGO literature reveals two important points regarding leadership. First, Catalytic leaders are difficult to find in the NGO sectors worldwide. Second, research about the role and character of NGO leadership in Latin America is scarce. Scarcity of knowledge about NGO leadership indeed holds true for Haiti, which is the country context for this dissertation study. Yet there exist a few studies that give an idea of the role and character of NGO leaders in the country. For example, a study by Schuller (2007b) shows that some NGO leaders are deceptive, but others are more open, autonomous, and prone to promoting participation. Another study by Zanotti (2010) recounts the success stories of two NGOs whose leaders show commitment to sustainability and accountability.

Forces Influencing NGO Leadership

As Hailey (2006) points out, catalytic leadership is the type of leadership that can make the NGOs accountable for sustainable development. However, the NGOs are not working in a vacuum. Instead, they operate in a particular environment that has an impact on their role and

effectiveness (Hailey, 2006). Scholars often point to many contextual forces that may induce the NGOs into adopting other types of leadership. In the developing countries, some of the forces are represented by governments, donors, and local NGO constituencies (Buss & Gardner, 2006).

Managerialist NGO leaders are more likely to establish a good relationship with the government of the country where they work (Hailey, 2006). Because some governments depend on foreign assistance and have to compete with a large number of NGOs for it, they often pressure the NGO leaders to be better managers (Buss & Gardner, 2006). Depending on the country, the government is more or less concerned about NGO regulations. India is one of the countries where government shows an interest in NGO management. In a case study involving Indian NGOs, Kilby (2006) found that the Indian government, both at the state and federal level, is active in NGO regulations. Part of these regulations is that the NGOs are required to be financially transparent. So, the NGOs need to have good managerialist leaders in order to pass the financial transparency test.

Scholars often refer to Haiti as an example of country where government is disinterested in NGO regulation. Even though the NGOs are involved in many activities, from providing basic services to managing development programs, the Haitian government barely oversees them (Buss & Gardner, 2006). However, in 2004, during the second presidency of René Préval, the government attempted to claim a larger sharing of the management of programs funded by international donors (Pierre-Louis, 2011).

Donors represent the major force constraining NGOs to develop managerialist leadership. NGOs are required by donors to practice good management under penalty (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Ebrahim, 2006; Gray, Bebbington, & Collison, 2006). This is a firm requirement because donors dispose of tool mechanisms to assess and evaluate the performance of the NGOs; and use

evaluation results to determine future funding (Ebrahim (2003). As a matter of fact, donors must be more concerned about NGO managerialist leadership in the countries where the NGO sector is for the most part in charge of managing and implementing development programs (Banks Hulme, & Edwards, 2015; Rauh, 2010). A good example of these countries is Haiti where the major part of aid development falls under NGO management (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Pierre-Louis, 2011; Schuller, 2007; Zanotti, 2010).

Another force that can compel an NGO to embrace a particular leadership style is the constituency or the followers. In the developing countries, the followership comprises the immediate NGO employees and field workers. In some countries, many small grassroots organizations are also part of the constituency of a larger NGO (Jamali, 2003). As organizational behavioral scholars acknowledge, leadership is a phenomenon that involves a leader and followers. Gini (2004) conceives leadership as a mutually determinative activity involving a leaders and followers. For Ciulla (2004) leadership is sometimes ... cooperative, sometimes ... struggle, and often it's a feud, but it's always collective" (Ciulla, 2004, p. 33). Besides leaders and the followers, the environment also plays a role in the leadership dynamics (Adenugba & Omolawal, 2010). So, the cultural values held by both the leader and the followers play a major role in determining the type of leadership in which they are involved (Hailey, 2006; Gini, 2004; Nahavandi, 2009).

NGO Accountability

Nongovernmental organizations are being challenged to be more accountable to governments, donors and their constituencies. According to Ebrahim (2003), this is "due to in part to a series of scandal that eroded public confidence in nonprofit organizations, coupled with a rapid growth in NGOs around the world" (p. 813). Scholars have suggested many definitions of

the concept of accountability. After reviewing several scholarly definitions of accountability, Ebrahim (2003) defines accountability in the following manner:

A means by which organizations and individuals are held responsible for their actions..., but also as a means for by which organizations and individuals take internal responsibility for shaping their organizational mission and values, for opening themselves to public or external scrutiny, and for assessing performance in relation to goals. (p. 815)

Ebrahim (2003) offers a good operational definition of accountability, but he does not distinguish between not-for-profit and commercial organizations. According to Gray, Bebbington, & Collison (2006), is important to consider this distinction because, for the most part, the accounting literature has drawn its understandings from the commercial organizations. For Gray et al. (2006), NGO accountability should be understood differently for three reasons. First, as nonprofit organizations. Second, some parties involved in the NGOs, such as managers and donors, do not owe accountability to their clients or beneficiaries. Third, like the commercial organizations, the NGOs do not have a clear performance or financial measurement system based on profit/deficit theories. However, as Gray et al. (2006) note, the NGOs are accountable organizations and their accountability occurs in four forms. First, many countries have accountability mechanisms to screen the activities of NGOs involved in the delivery of charity services. Second, the NGOs are forced to be more or less transparent through public scrutiny provided by the media. Third, the NGOs owe accountability to the not-for-profit sector in which they hold membership. Fourth, many NGOs have been increasingly showing commitment to accountability by adopting formal reporting and disclosure practices that are proper to corporate businesses. While these different forms of accountability allow us to understand the extent to which the NGOs are accountable, they do not say much about the dimensions of the NGO accountability. Three dimensions of NGO accountability are discussed in the NGO literature: upward accountability, downward accountability, and internal accountability.

Upward accountability. Inspired by the works of several authors, Ebrahim (2003) points out that upward accountability refers to the relationships the NGOs establish with donors and governments. He discusses several accountability mechanisms that the NGOs have put in place to nurture their accountability to governments and donors. Ebrahim (2003) believes that in many countries the NGOs are required to submit disclosure statements and reports to the government. In the United States, such statements and reports are required of all NGOs willing to benefit from federal tax-exemption status. In India, every NGO funded by foreign donors is regulated by the government. Pierre-Louis (2010) points out that in Haiti the NGOs are required to report to a government agency—the Ministry of Planning—which is in charge of licensing and monitoring them. According to Ebrahim (2003), this accountability mechanism of reporting also serves the purpose of accountability to donors.

Another NGO accountability mechanism is what Ebrahim (2003) calls “performance assessment and evaluation” (p. 813). Evaluations conducted by donors are known as external evaluations. In the words of Ebrahim (2003), “such evaluations typically aim to assess whether and to what extent program goals and objectives have been achieved and are pivotal in determining future funding to NGOs” (p. 817). As the literature suggests, external evaluations of NGOs by donors are not lacking, especially in the case of weak governments where the NGO sector is counted upon to manage development aid. However, the critics of the NGO sector in Haiti, such as Pierre-Louis (2011), Schuller (2007b) and Zanotti (2010), note that not only there is a lack of NGO upward accountability to the Haitian government, but also of downward accountability to their beneficiaries.

Downward accountability. According to Ebrahim (2003) downward accountability refers to the relationships that NGOs have established with individual beneficiaries and

sometimes an entire community or region that benefits indirectly from their service. They tend to use beneficiary participation as a mechanism for downward accountability. Ebrahim (2003) discusses four levels of participation. The first level of participation includes the sharing of information regarding a planned project with the general public. The second level refers to the active involvement of the public in project implementation. In its third level, participation involves allowing the citizenry to have a say in decision-making. Finally, the fourth level of participation includes the recognition of the people's ability to take initiatives in an autonomous manner. Ebrahim (2003) goes further to say that downward accountability can be enhanced if beneficiaries are allowed and encouraged to evaluate NGOs and donors. Other scholars believe that participation is key to promoting sustainable development in the developing countries (Kilby, 2006; Robèrt, 2000; Zanotti, 2010). Research involving several NGOs in Haiti suggests that participation has been effectively used as a process mechanism of downward accountability.

Internal accountability. Internal accountability is the accountability of an NGO to its mission and employees (Ebrahim, 2006). For other scholars, NGO internal accountability is accountability to their values. Because of their internal accountability, NGOs understand their involvement in providing services or development “not as an end in itself, but rather as a way of responding to their values” (Kilby, 2006, p. 959). NGOs use the mechanism of self-regulation to promote internal accountability. For Ebrahim (2006), “the term “self-regulation” refers specifically to efforts by NGO or nonprofit networks to develop standards or codes of behavior and performance” (p. 819). Ebrahim (2003) adds that by self-regulation the NGOs not only promote accountability, but also ensure their own survival, identity and legitimacy in governance. In Haiti, the critics of the NGO sector have often raised the question of NGO internal accountability. Specifically, they have wondered about what values drive the functioning

of the NGOs in the Caribbean country. For Pierre-Étienne (1997), it is the values of capitalism. For Schuller (2007b), it is the values of neo-liberalism or globalization. The fact is that research that focuses on NGO values in Haiti is sorely needed.

Scholars believe that NGO upward accountability tends to be high, while downward and internal accountability very low (Ebrahim, 2003). This is typical to the NGOs established in Haiti. Following the 2010 earthquake, the question of NGO downward and internal accountability has moved to the forefront in the debate about NGO presence in Haiti (Pierre-Louis, 2011; Zanotti, 2010). As several scholars acknowledge, NGO upward accountability to the government of Haiti is low for two reasons. First, there is not sufficient government regulation of NGO (Pierre-Étienne, 1997; Pierre-Louis, 2010; Schuller, 2007b); second, donors prefer to contract the NGOs for implementing development programs, so the sector is empowered to function independently (Pierre-Louis, 2011, Zanotti, 2010).

In their quest for resources, NGOs also tend to emphasize upward accountability to donors to the detriment of downward accountability to their constituencies and internal accountability to themselves (Lawrence & Nezhard, 2009). A new paradigm of development is necessary so that the country can be rebuilt successfully from the earthquake and placed on the rail of sustainable development (Pierre-Louis, 2011). In order to contribute to the success of this new paradigm of development in post-earthquake Haiti, the NGO sector should strive to develop catalytic leaders. The reason is that, as Hailey (2006) recognizes, only catalytic leaders can effect changes that are real and sustainable.

Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, seven broad areas were reviewed: (a) the Haitian context, (b) the three-failures theory, (c) nongovernmental organizations, (c) concept of development, (d) concept of

sustainable development, (e) NGO leadership, and (f) NGO accountability. The exploration of the definitions of the concept of sustainable development indicates that scholars have shown an interest in deconstructing this new concept of development. Although the definition provided by the Brundland commission is widely used, this study adopts the idea that sustainable development applied not only to “ecological systems and resources, [but also] to the economic, social, and even cultural spheres” (Adenugba & Omolawal, 2010, p. 18). So, the NGOs that contribute to the environment, the economy, the society, and the institutions are considered to be part of development in Haiti.

This review of the literature showed that NGO leadership is key to the future of sustainable development in Haiti. Most everyone knows that the situation of the environment, the economy, and the Haitian society is catastrophic (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Faria & Sánchez-Fung, 2009; Krimer and Musasinghe, 1991; Pierre-Louis, 2010, Russ, 2006; Williams, 2011; Zanotti, 2010). This knowledge serves as justification for the case of lack of sustainable development in Haiti. NGOs must change their strategy in order to be relevant in Haiti (Pierre-Louis, 2011). Following the 2010 earthquake, NGOs have been called upon to show greater commitment to sustainable development in Haiti (Zanotti, 2010).

As suggested in the review, leadership is needed for the promotion of sustainable development. In their case study on leadership in Nigeria, Adenugba & Omolawal (2010) conclude that “to move forward and to guarantee sustainable development, the nation needs a new breed of leaders who are sensitive, patriotic, and accountable. 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. Government and market failure is part of everyday life in Haiti. As an indispensable

corrective for government and market failure, the NGO sector should be omnipresent in the economy. In order to play its corrective role and promote sustainable development, the NGO sector needs leaders who take seriously their accountability to the government, the donor community, and the beneficiaries.

Chapter Three: Methodology

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. Ultimately, the goal was to create awareness of any deficiencies in the leadership, so that training and remediation can be suggested. Pospositivism was the main epistemological for this study. Postpositivist adherents see scientists not as passive discoverers of natural laws but as active participants in scientific knowledge production (Crotty, 1998). Like their positivist counterparts, postpositivists engage the world through a deterministic lens in the search of the truth (Crotty, 1998). According to Creswell (2014), “determinism suggests that examining the relationships between and among variables is central to answering questions and hypotheses through surveys and experiments” (p. 155).

This chapter is an attempt to describe in detail the methodological and methodical strategies for studying NGO leaders’ ability to impact sustainable development initiatives in Haiti. This description will be accomplished in five steps. First, a panoramic view of the research design will be provided. Second, the population and the sample will be described. In the third step, an explanation of the instrumentation process will be provided. The fourth step will be devoted to the procedures that will guide data analysis and interpretation. The final step will be a discussion of the ethical safeguards undertaken to protect the prospective research participants.

Research Design

There are several quantitative methodologies that fit the purpose of research conducted through the lens of postpositivism (Crotty, 1998). Yet the researcher opted for using a survey design to understand the research problem and answer the research questions. Fowler Jr. (2014) points out that “the purpose of [survey research] is to produce statistics, that is, quantitative or

numerical descriptions about some aspects of the study population” (p. 1). This research methodology, if carefully followed, will allow making statistical inferences from a sample to the study population (Creswell, 2012).

The option for the survey methodology was inspired by many pro-survey arguments found in research methods literature. For example, Babbie (2014), asserts that “survey research is probably the best method available to the social researcher who is interested in collecting original data for describing a population too large to observe directly” (p. 256). Furthermore, Babbie (2014) points out that “surveys are also excellent vehicles for measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population” (p. 256). Another research methodologist, Creswell (2012), recommends survey research to researchers who seek to describe population trends, to determine individual opinions and knowledge in various areas, to inquire into important beliefs, attitudes, and perception about a range of topics, and to check in with follow up with research respondents.

Surveys have been extensively used in research. Nevertheless, survey researchers still have a choice between two fundamental types of survey designs, namely cross-sectional or longitudinal surveys (Creswell, 2012). A cross-sectional survey design was selected for the study. The choice of this type of survey design was enthused by scholarly opinions. For example, Creswell (2012) offers three reasons why a cross-sectional survey is usually used in research. First, a cross-sectional survey allows “to collect data about current attitudes, opinions, or beliefs” (p. 377). Second, a cross-sectional design is good for comparing two or more ... groups in terms of attitudes, beliefs, opinions, or practices” (p. 378). Third, surveys allow to collect sufficient information in record time. Based on Creswell’s (2012) opinion, the researcher believes that this was the right design for the study because data will be collected at one point in time and NGOs from different groups of impact will be compared in terms of their leaders’ characteristics.

Population

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*:

Today’s world poses new challenges to NGO leaders. 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. In addition to a proactive stance, NGO leaders of today must 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, these qualities were not used to identify the study population. The latter comprised leaders of nongovernmental organizations—domestic or international—that are currently active in Haiti’s development. The Haitian NGO population is quite large. It is so large, that the country is ironically named a republic of NGOs (Kristoff & Panareli, 2010). The exact number of NGOs is unknown, but, in 2010, it was estimated to be in the thousands (Kristoff and Panareli, 2010; Zanotti, 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.

Sample

The sample frame for this study was leaders whose NGOs are officially recognized by the Haitian Government. According to Fowler Jr. (2014), a sample frame typically comprises members of the designated population that are intentionally included in the study to the exclusion of others. 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. For Karns and Mingst (2010), development NGOs are NGOs that are concentrated exclusively on development, including thousands of small grassroots organizations along with larger organizations that provide microcredit loans to the poor.

Researchers have the option of using a random sampling method or a nonrandom sampling method in selecting a sample for a study. As methodologists acknowledge, it is ideal to use a random sampling for a study (Babbie, 2014; Fowler Jr., 2014; Salant & Dillman, 1994). According to Babbie (2017), random sampling is desirable for two reasons. First, “this procedure serves as a check on conscious or subconscious bias on the part of the researcher” (p. 203). Second, and more important, “random selection offers access to the body of probability theory, which provides the basis for estimating the characteristics of the population as well as estimates of the accuracy of Samples” (p. 203). The ultimate advantage of using a random sampling is that the latter allows to make inferences from the sample to the population with significant accuracy (Creswell, 2012; Creswell, 2014; Fowler Jr., 2014). A strong requirement for constructing a

random sample is to have access to a complete list of all the members of the target population (Creswell, 2012).

Research scholars strongly urge utilizing purposive or convenience sampling in situations where random sampling is not possible. Creswell (2014) believes that convenience and availability are incentives for using purposive sampling. Another remark about the purposive sampling approach is provided by Babbie (2014). The latter points out that “sometimes it’s appropriate to select a sample on the basis of knowledge of a population, its elements, and the purpose of the study” (Babbie, 2014, p. 196). 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.

Sample Size

Fowler Jr., 2014 points out that sample size determination is still a matter of debate among research methodologists. According to Creswell (2014), the tendency has been to select a sample on three distinct bases. First, the sample represents 10% of the study population. Second, the sample size is selected as it has been selected in extent studies. Third, the choice of a sample size is contingent upon the margin of error that is acceptable to the researcher. There is not a clear way of determining the size of a sample, but some research scholars have attempted to offer estimates that are based on experience. as cited in Sekaran (1992) reports a method for estimating sample size conceived by behavioral scientist Roscoe (1975):

1. Sample sizes larger than 30 and less than 500 are appropriate for most research.
2. Where samples are to be broken into subsamples; (male/females, juniors/ seniors, etc.), a minimum sample size of 30 for each category is necessary.
3. In multivariate research (including multiple regression analyses), the sample size Should be several times (preferably 10 times or more) as large as the number of variables in the study.

4. For simple experimental research with tight experimental controls (matched pairs, etc.), successful research is possible with samples as small as 10 to 20 in size. (p. 295)

Roscoe's (1975) sampling method is quite popular in research circles, but still some researchers maintain other ideas about how to determine sample size. Educational research methodologist Creswell (2014) believes that a sample of 15 participants is good enough to perform an educational research experiment. Another methodologist Fowler Jr. (2014) refrains from suggesting an estimate of sample size. He instead strongly recommends that the choice of a sample size be based on a data analysis plan. The researcher completely agrees with Fowler Jr.'s (2014) conception that it depends more on what the researcher is trying to do with the data. 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%

Data Collection

Another important point about planning survey research regards the procedure for collecting the data. From recent decades to the present, research theorists have often pointed to a variety of ways in which data collection has been done. Mail, telephone, the internet, personal interview, or focus group interview constitute a list of forms of data collection that appear in most research books (Creswell, 2012; Fowler Jr. 2014; Krueger & Casey, 2009; Salant & Dillman, 1994). Each form of data collection features its unique strengths and weaknesses that investigators should take into consideration (Creswell, 2012). As the literature suggests, the option for a particular method of data collection is contingent upon a number of factors. A good

explanation for the contingent character of the choice of a method is provided by Fowler Jr. (2014): “The choice of data collection mode ... is related directly to the sample frame, research topic, characteristics of the sample, and available staff and facilities: it has implications for response rates, question form, the quality of survey estimates, and survey costs” (p. 61).

According to Creswell (2012), survey researchers also have the option of combining two or more methods of data collection. In their *How to Conduct Your Own Survey*, Slant and Dillman (1994) mention another form of data collection called “the drop-off survey,” [which] combines features of face-to-face interviews with mail surveys” (p. 33). The combination of different forms of data collection allows to mitigate the weaknesses of a particular method of data collection (Creswell, 2014). In this study, two forms of data collection were used: 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. This identification step started as soon as IRB approvals were obtained from the University of the Incarnate Word and the Haitian government. The investigator contacted the NGOs by phone to get the names, the phone numbers, and the personal or work emails of their leaders. A few gatekeepers or informants participated in the identification process. The researcher opened a special file to keep record of the leaders’ names and contact information. An email with the consent form and the questionnaire was sent out as soon as a leader was identified and his or her contact information taken. The identification step continued to the end of the data collection period.

The second step consisted of piloting the questionnaires on a small group people. The purpose of this was to ensure clarity of the questions and comprehensibility of the scales. Six people participated in the pilot process: two NGO leaders and four people who are experts in the

NGO sector in Haiti. The participants in the pilot process were asked to give feedback so that the investigator could make necessary corrections before launching the data collection. The pilots were administered the French and Creole versions of the consent form and questionnaires online through Survey Monkey. Feedback received from the pilot participants was especially useful to improve the translations in the target languages.

The third step was the launching of the data collection. The internet allowed the researcher to survey the members of the target population regardless of whether they were inside or outside the country. The participants received the survey by email through Survey Monkey, including an informed consent form asking them to give consent. The form informed them of the purpose of the study, the benefit of participating in it, and their rights to confidentiality. Also, they were notified that there would be no direct compensation for participating in the research in order to remove the possibility of procedural bias. Prior to accessing the survey, the participants were asked two questions. First, are you the leader of your NGO? Second, do you agree to participate in the research study? Each participant was required to answer both questions in order to continue to the survey. Only those who responded “yes” to both questions were allowed to access the consent form and the questionnaires. The consent form and the questionnaires were available in English and French. The researcher kept sending emails until the end of the data collection period. A coding system was used so that the respondents who did not claim anonymity could be identified. Non-respondents were re-emailed an additional two times, in three week intervals.

The fourth and final step was the wrap-up. 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. During that time, the investigator continued to contact NGOs by phone to

identify their leaders and to get their contact information. The investigator also visited a few organizations in person to identify their leaders and get their contact information. The researcher had the opportunity to meet and speak with several leaders. Some of them took the survey on paper.

Instrumentation

This study seeks to compare groups of NGOs in terms of their leaders' characteristics. That is why data were collected from the NGO leaders themselves. 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).

The DQ was developed by the researcher. This questionnaire proved useful in three ways. First, it primarily served to gather background information on the leaders and their organizations. Second, it gathered data for the formation of the three NGO groups: High impact, medium impact, and low impact. The ratio of number of expenses to beneficiaries was the criteria for forming the groups. Third, it provided the data for the dependent variable of leadership experience.

The KSDI was developed for a study about sustainable development sponsored by the International Institute for Sustainable Development (IISD) headquartered in Winnipeg, Canada. This index is "a set of 17 true/false items testing respondents' knowledge of sustainable development" (Michalos et al., 2009, p. 4). The scores on this index correspond to the number of items/answers that are correct. The reliability and validity of the index were established. The index was made in two identical versions: An adult questionnaire and a student questionnaire. Data were collected from a sample of adult respondents and a sample of grade school student respondents. Confirmatory factor analysis reveals a Cronbach's alpha of 0.74 for the adult

sample and 0.72 for the student sample. These α values indicate an acceptable level of validity and reliability of the instrument. The index is available in the study report by Michalos (2009) for free use by researchers. The investigator received permission from IISD to use it as it is or adjust it to fit the participants in this study. In compliance with the owner's guidelines, IISD was recognized as the owner of the instrument.

The ALQ is a well-established questionnaire developed by Avolio, Gardner, and Walumbwa (2007). It was designed to measure the components that comprise authentic leadership. 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. Mind Garden is the current publisher.

According to Mind Garden, the ALQ has already gone through validation testing repeatedly and has consistently shown both reliability and construct validity. A review of several research studies related to the ALQ allowed to confirm the assertion of the publisher. In the very study conducted to validate the ALQ, Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, and Peterson (2008) used two different samples were used: A U.S. sample and a Chinese sample. According to the authors, confirmatory factor analysis on the U.S. Sample “the estimated internal consistency alphas (Cronbach's alpha) for each of the measures were also at acceptable levels: self-awareness, .92; relational transparency, .87; internalized moral perspective, .76; and balanced processing, .81.” (p. 98). Confirmatory analysis on the Chinese sample also indicate an acceptable level of internal consistency: self-awareness, .79; relational transparency, .72; internalized moral perspective, .73; and balanced processing, .76. (pp. 100-101). The investigator will run Cronbach's alpha on the data that will be collected on the ALQ as well.

The ALQ is available on the website of the publisher for free use by researchers, upon permission. It exists in two identical versions—a rater version and a self-rate version—and in

several languages. For the purpose of this study, a French and a Creole translation of the self-rate version of the questionnaire was used. The investigator received permission from the publisher to use the questionnaire as it is. In compliance with the publisher's guidelines, only three sample items of the questionnaire will be included in the final dissertation report.

The Variables in the Study

Two independent variables and a set of five dependent variables were involved in this study. The independent variables were impact and location. The dependent variables were knowledge of sustainable development, leadership experience, relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective. The last three variables were factored in the measurement of leadership attitudes. A codebook for the variables used in this study is shown in Table 5.

Impact. The independent 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 will consider 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.

Location. 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.

Knowledge of sustainable development. This variable was measured on the KSDI. This instrument includes items that are correct or incorrect. The variable’s scores correspond to the number of correct items. The leader with the most correct items has the highest score.

Leadership experience. The data for this variable came from the DQ. Leadership experience was as the number of years as the leaders of the NGO. The leader who reported the highest number of years were considered to be most experienced.

Other variables. This other dependent variables—relational transparency, balanced processing, and internalized moral perspective—somewhat have to do with ethics. They are independent factors that comprise the ALQ. The scores for “relational transparency” are the average value of the items 1, 2, 3, 4 & 5. The scores for “balanced processing” are the average value of the items 6, 7, 8 & 9. The scores for “internalized moral perspective” are the average value of the items 10, 11 & 12. The leader with the highest average score on a factor was considered to have the best leadership attitude relative to that factor.

Data Analysis

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.

Data cleaning. The first step consisted of cleaning the data. Overall, 99 surveys were returned to the researcher: 72 were completed online and 27 were completed in person. Some online participants unwittingly provided duplicate responses. By investigating the IP addresses of the electronic devices used by the respondents and the dates of the surveys, the researcher discovered that 17 out of the 72 online surveys were duplicates. The latter were deleted. Some participants agreed to take the survey, but they returned it without responding to any questions. These surveys were also deleted. Due to the deletions, the number of online surveys completed was reduced to 55. Therefore, a total of 82 NGO leaders (55 online + 27 in person) actually participated in the study.

The data collection did not yield a 100% completion rate. Therefore, several values were missing for two reasons. First, some respondents did not address a few questionnaire items.

Others only filled out one or two questionnaires out of three. Some respondents filled out all three questionnaires, but they skipped one or two questions altogether. In this case, the

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

researcher either found a way to fill the blank or left it blank. In the cases of respondents who skipped three or more items, the research did not fill the blanks.

Some respondent provided unclear or confusing responses. For example, to the question “Approximately, how many leadership training classes, sessions, workshops or seminars have you attended so far?,” a respondent answered: several. To the question “Approximately, how many people has your NGO helped directly in 2017?,” another respondent answered: A network of farmers. In these cases and others, the research decided to leave the blanks unfilled. In other cases, the researcher did fill the blank. For example, a respondent responded “incalculable” to the question “Approximately, how many leadership training classes, sessions, workshops or seminars have you attended so far?” The researcher entered 50, which is the mean of the two highest scores, 40 and 60. To this same question about leadership training, a respondent answered “many because I am an MBA. The researcher entered 3 for this respondent on the assumption that MBA programs provided an average of 3 leadership or leadership-related courses or seminars. At the end of the cleaning procedure, data collected from 78 respondents were included in the analysis.

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. As the boxplots 1-4 show, there are no outliers 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 ($1.5 \times \text{IQR}$) to detect them (Hoaglin, & Iglewicz, 1987). Therefore, they will not be excluded from the analysis.

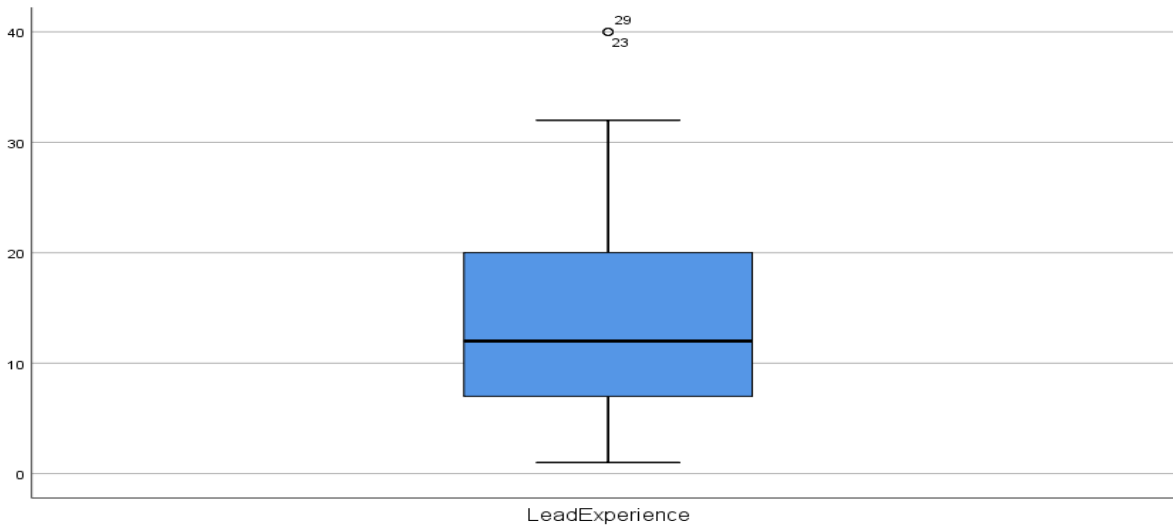


Figure 1. Boxplot of the variable Leadership Experience.

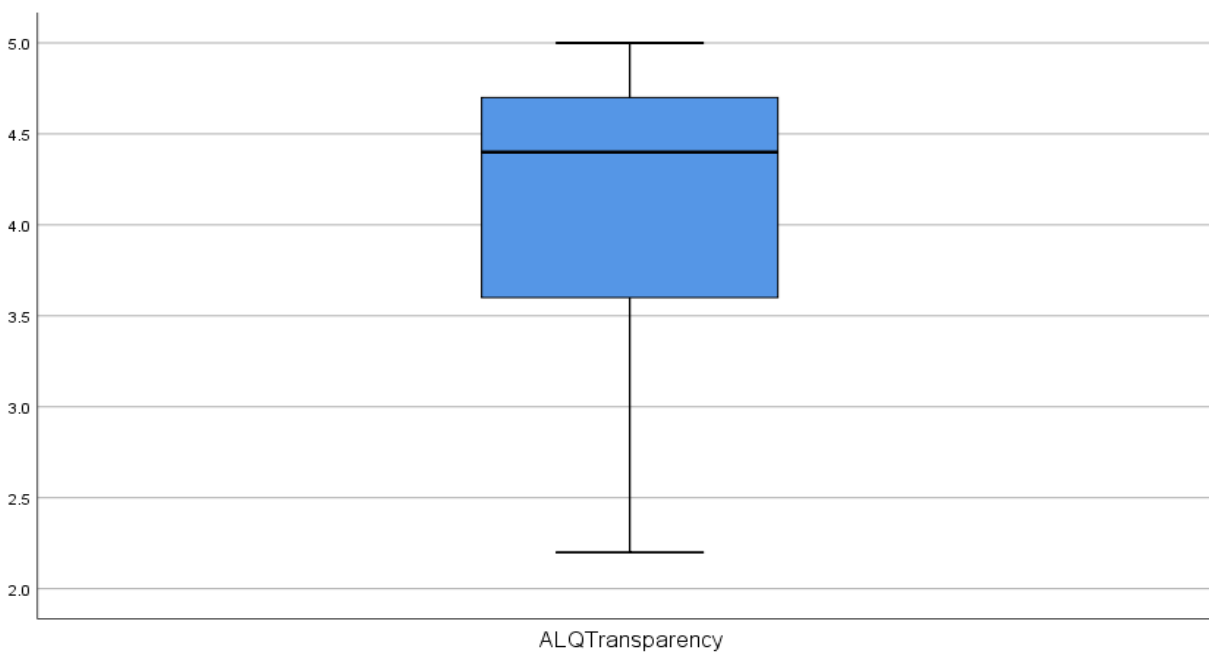


Figure 2. Boxplot of the variable Relational Transparency.

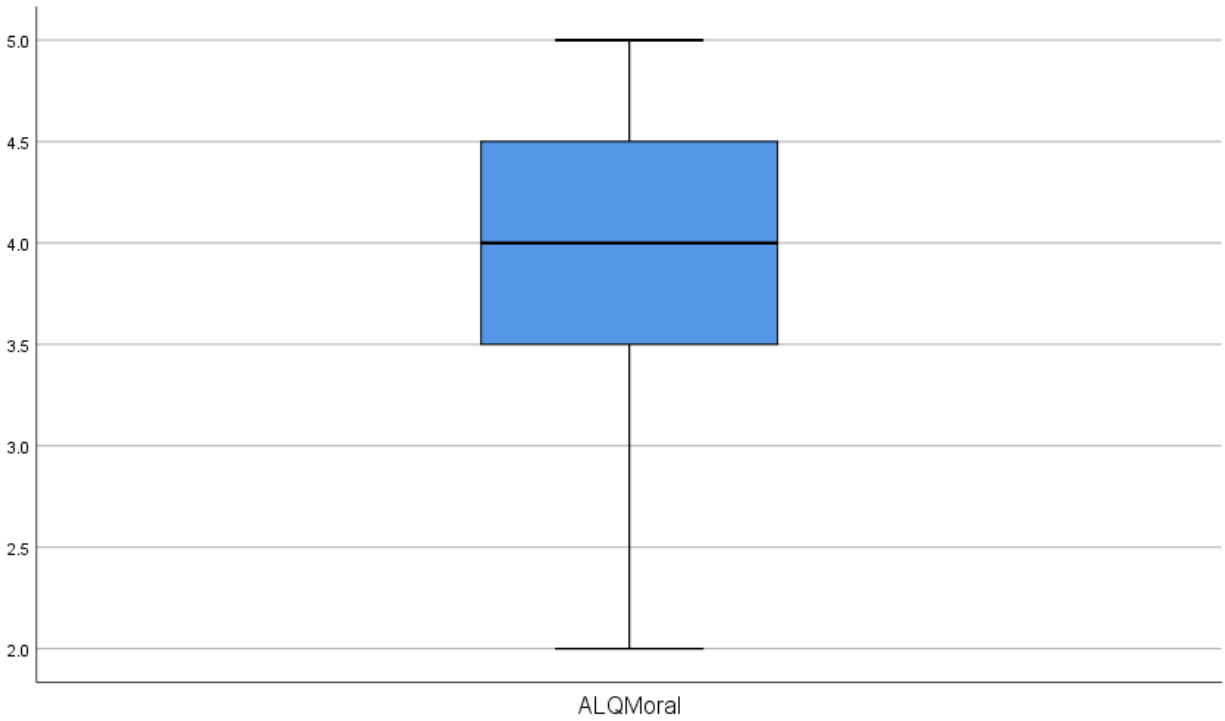


Figure 3. Boxplot of the variable Internalized Moral Perspective.

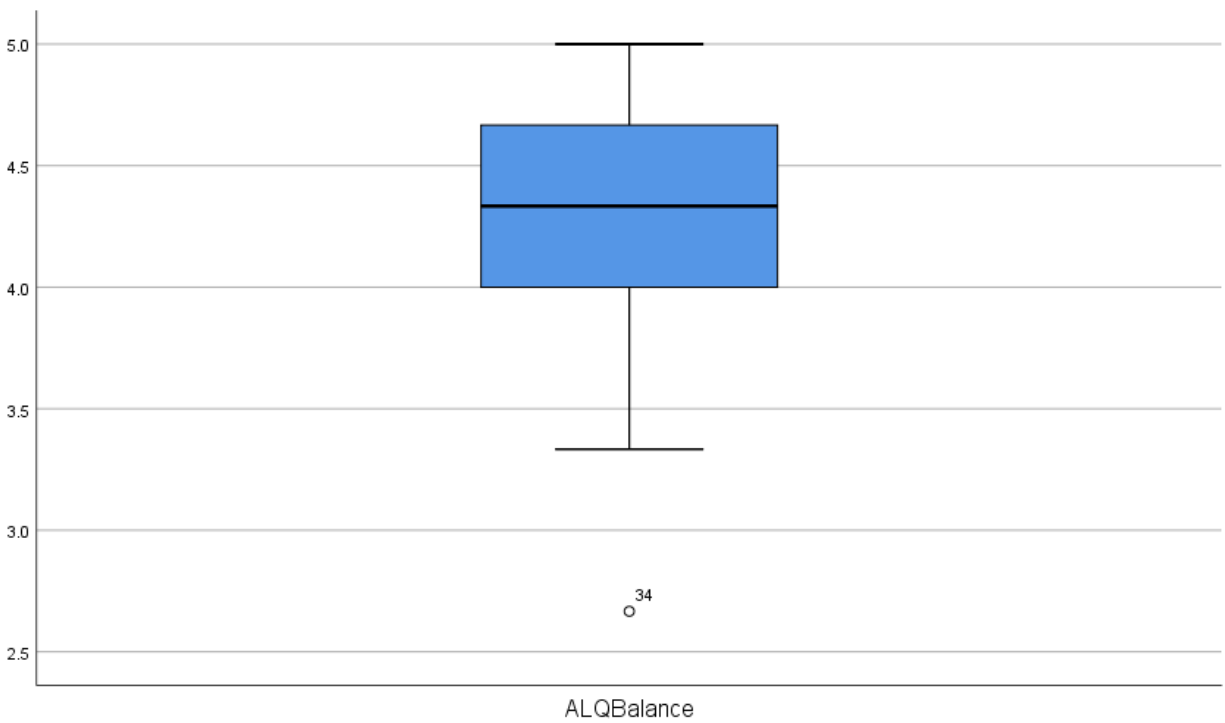


Figure 4. Boxplots of the variable Balanced Processing.

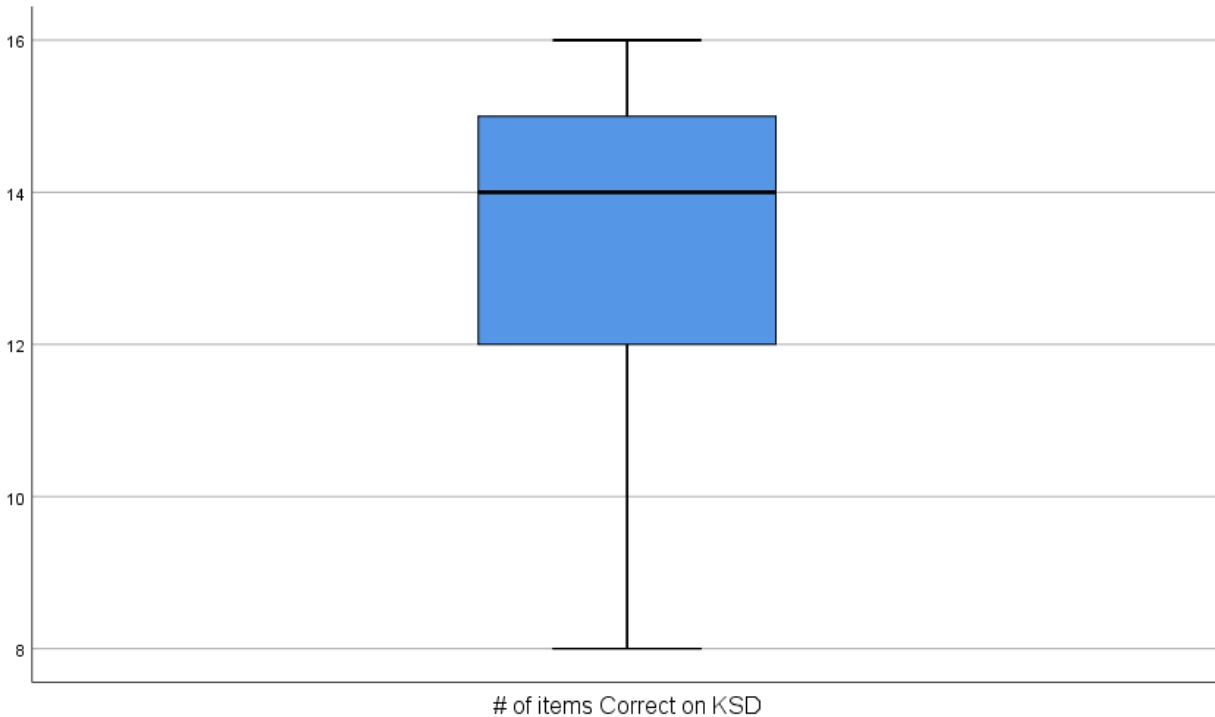


Figure 5. Boxplot of the variable Knowledge of Sustainable Development.

Descriptive analysis. The second step was a descriptive analysis of the data. This analysis was made to show the trends frequencies in the independent variable and trends in the dependent variables. At least, means, standard deviations, and range of scores were presented.

Inferential analysis. This type of analysis allowed to answer the three inferential questions. The first question was about whether there are differences between the three groups of NGOs in terms of leader characteristics. The second question asked whether the location of an NGO makes a difference in leader characteristics. A multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) test was run to answer both questions. MANOVA was substituted for analysis of variances (ANOVA) because the analysis involved a dependent variable with three levels (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The third question asked whether there are differences between the department groups with respect to impact of development activities on the beneficiaries. A Kruskal-Wallis Test was run to answer this question. This test was used instead of an ANOVA

because the variable “impact” was not random and lack normality and homogeneity of variances. Each of these tests were performed after carefully evaluate their corresponding assumptions.

Protection of Human Subjects

The investigator will make sure that the research is conducted in a strict ethical manner. To do so, he will seek permission from all the parties that are involved. Proper paperwork will be filed with the Institutional Review Board based at the University of the Incarnate Word. This is a way to ensure that the rights of the prospective participants are protected and to appraise the degree of risk and harm that this research study may represent to them.

The members of the samples—NGO leaders and beneficiaries—will be formally asked to give their consent prior to the start of the study. Those who consent to participate will receive a letter informing them about the purpose of the study, their rights as research participants, and the benefits they will derive from participating in the study. Specifically, they will be assured that the study does not involve any foreseeable risks, that all measures will be taken to keep their identity and responses confidential, and that they could have access to the results upon request.

Chapter Four: Results

This chapter is a presentation of the findings that originated from the statistical analysis of the data collected from the NGO leaders. 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. Ultimately, the goal was to create awareness of any deficiencies in the leadership, so that training and remediation can be suggested.

A cross-sectional quantitative survey design was selected to address three major research questions: (a) Do NGOs from three groups of impact differ in terms of their leaders' knowledge of sustainable development, leadership attitudes, and leadership experience?; (b) Are there differences between geographical areas in respect to leaders' knowledge of sustainable development, knowledge of sustainable development, leadership attitudes, and leadership experience?; and (c) Are there differences between geographical areas in respect to impact of development activities on the beneficiaries?

This study had a two-fold focus. Primarily, it investigated leader characteristics associated with nongovernmental organization performance. Secondly, it examined differences in leader characteristics and organizational performance across geographical areas.

Among the NGO leaders who were surveyed, 81 provided useful responses. Data were collected from them in three areas: Demographics, sustainable development, and leadership. Once received, the data were analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics version 25. To facilitate the numerical operation of the statistical software, a coding system involving all three data categories was developed. Prior to running the statistical tests, the data went through a cleaning procedure that allowed the researcher to deal with missing values and outliers.

The data analysis involved both descriptive and inferential statistics. With the help of statistics, leader characteristics and differences in leader characteristics and organizational impact were described. Through this description, the study provided an understanding of how leader characteristics influence organizational impact. Inferential statistics methods—specifically MANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis testing—were used to answer the three research questions. These test were conducted to determine whether there is a relationship between independent and dependents variables.

Descriptive Analysis

Three questionnaires were used to gather the data. The quantitative data for the independent variables were collected on the demographics questionnaire. The research participants provided, among other things, the total expenses in Haitian currency (gourds)—including employee salaries—for the year 2017 and the number of direct beneficiaries for the same year. The researcher used the ratio of expenses to beneficiaries as the criterion to create three impact groups. NGOs that spent \$0 to \$3000 per beneficiary were placed in the low impact group; NGOs that spent \$3001 to \$20,000 per beneficiary were placed in the medium, impact group; and NGO that spent more than \$20,000 per beneficiary were placed in the high impact group. Only 66 out of the 78 NGO leaders provided enough data to be included in the groups. As shown in Figure 6, the low impact group is the largest, while the medium impact group is the smallest.

The participants were also asked for the department where their NGOs have the bulk of their activities. The Republic of Haiti comprises ten different administrative departments. The plan was to determine whether there are differences between the ten department in terms of leader characteristics or organizational impact. Due to the scarcity of data, the researcher had to

form and compare three department groups only. Descriptive statistics for the department group are displayed in Figure 7.

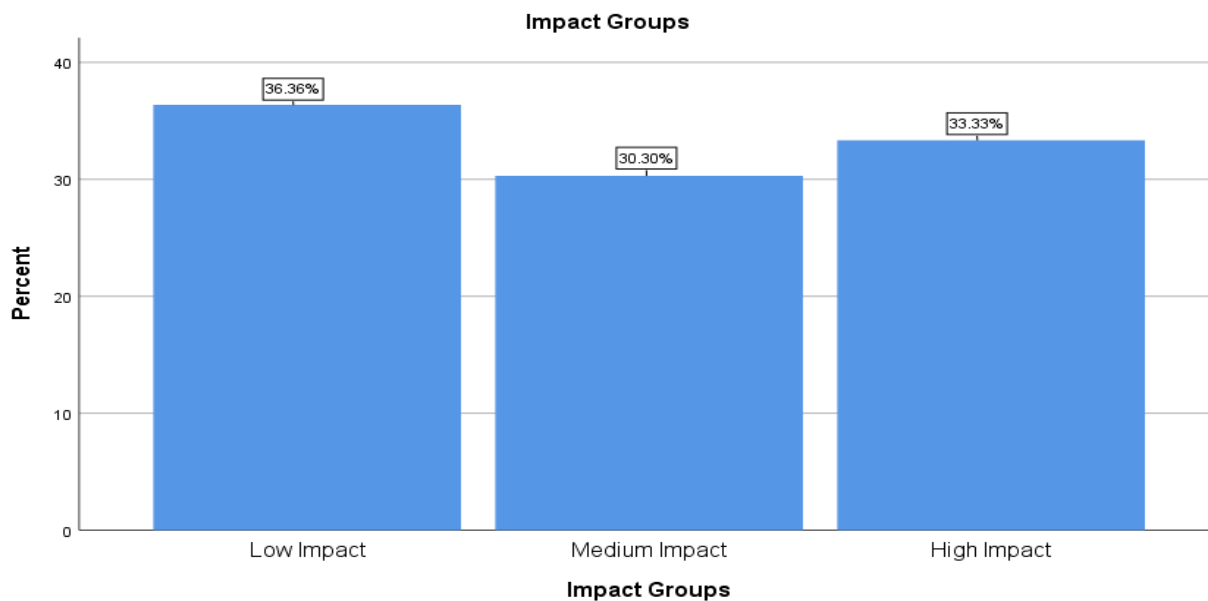


Figure 6. Descriptive statistics for the impact group of NGOs.

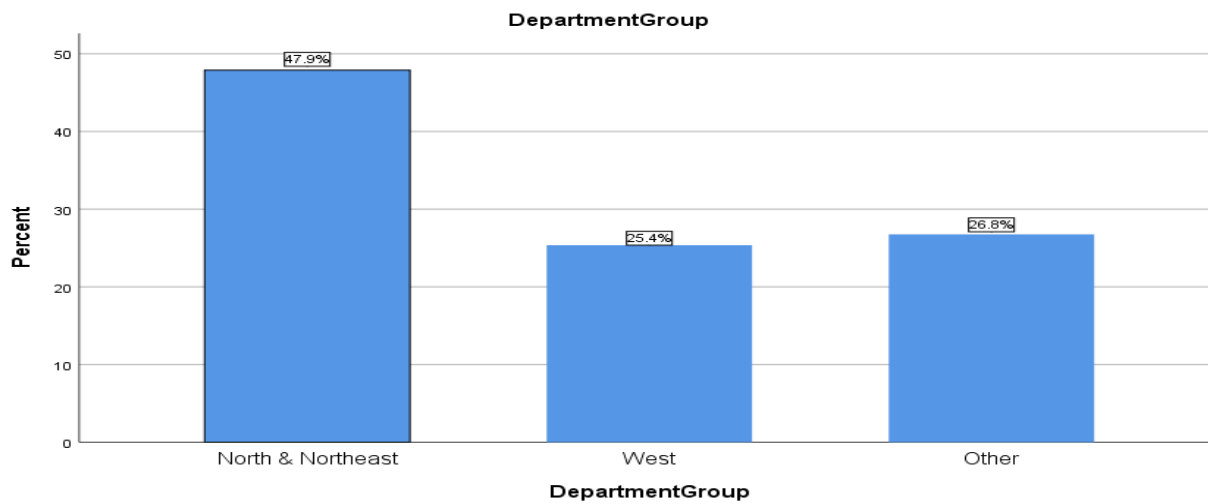


Figure 7. Descriptive statistics for the department groups.

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.” Table 2 displays a mean score of 13.5 for this variable.

The Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) was used to measure leadership attitudes. 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. As shown in table 2, the mean score on balance processing is 4.31, 3.97 for internalized moral perspective, and 4.16 for transparency.

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.

Research Question One

The first research question asks whether NGOs from three groups of impact differ in terms of their leaders’ knowledge of sustainable development, leadership attitudes, and

leadership experience. Multivariate analysis—specifically one-way MANOVA—was used to explore group differences in the set of dependent variables. Table 7 & Figure 8 show the descriptive trends for the variables that participated in the MANOVA. This analysis is preceded by a scrutiny of the major underlying assumptions.

Evaluation of MANOVA Assumptions

Statisticians believe that a MANOVA may yield more useful results if the following conditions are met: (a) A sample size with a number of cases that is greater than the number of dependent variables; (b) multivariate normality, (c) absence of outliers in the dataset, (d) linearity, presence of homogeneity of regression, absence of multicollinearity and singularity, and presence of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices (George & Mallery, 2003; Pallant 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013;). These assumptions were carefully evaluated before running the MANOVA test.

Sample size. MANOVA functions best when the number of cases in each cell is greater than the number of dependent variables (Pallant, 2013). Since there are three levels of independent variable and five dependent variables, the total number of cells is 15 cells. As indicated in Table 8, there are more than the required number of cases per cell. Therefore, the assumption of sample size has been met.

Normality. Normality testing was run to determine whether the data subsets come from normal distributions. Since each data subset is smaller than 2000 cases, the Shapiro-Wilk test was used. As shown in Table 9, The Shapiro-Wilk test shows a significant result (Sig. value of less than .05) for each variable. This suggests that the assumption of normality is violated. Nevertheless, a look at the Histogram (Figures 9-13) that represents the actual shapes of the

distributions suggests the significant result of the Shapiro-Wilk test may be due to the small size of the sample.

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

Table 7

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

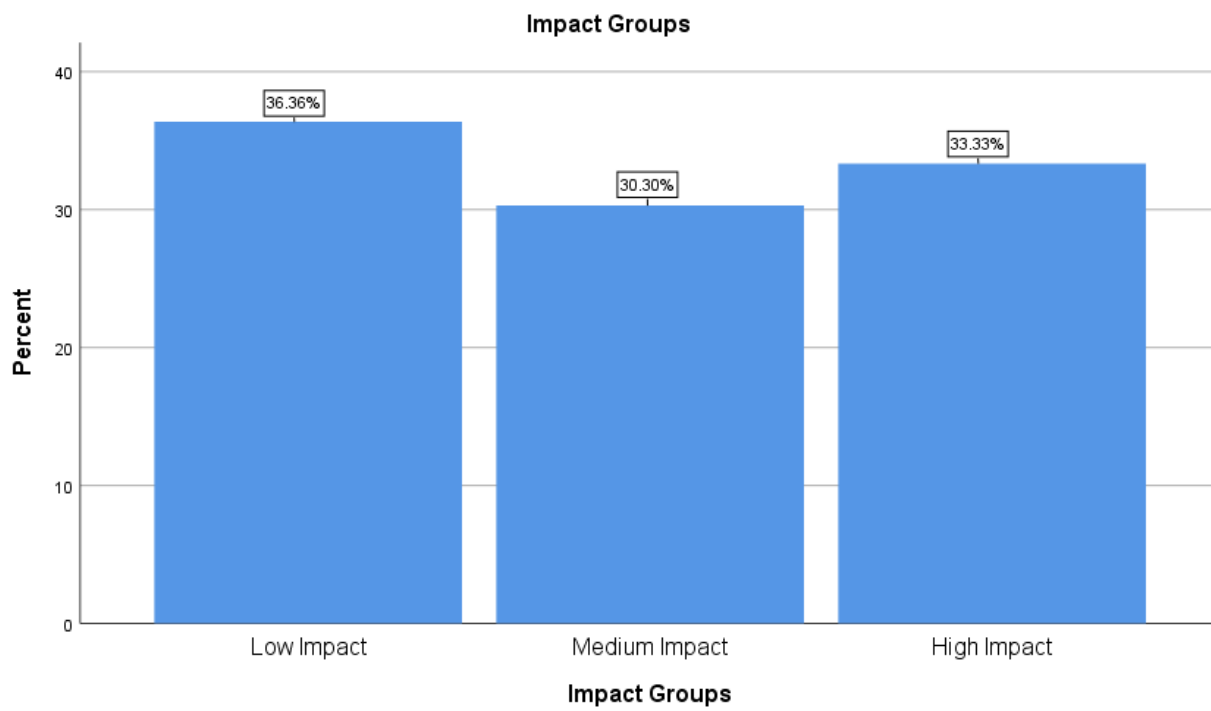


Figure 8. Frequencies of the variable Impact Group.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for the Dependent Continuous Variables per Impact Group

Variable	Impact Group	Means	Std. Deviation	N
ALQTransparency	Low Impact	4.33	.55	24
	Medium Impact	4.21	.74	20
	High Impact	3.85	.82	22
	Total	4.14	.73	66
ALQMoral	Low Impact	4.26	.80	24
	Medium Impact	4.00	.64	20
	High Impact	3.62	.64	22
	Total	3.97	.74	66
ALQBalance	Low Impact	4.50	.50	24
	Medium Impact	4.18	.50	20
	High Impact	4.14	.63	22
	Total	4.28	.56	66
# of items Correct on KSD	Low Impact	14.38	1.28	24
	Medium Impact	13.45	2.26	20
	High Impact	12.41	2.06	22
	Total	13.44	2.03	66
LeadExperie	Low Impact	20.58	9.63	24
	Medium Impact	11.40	6.51	20
	High Impact	9.32	5.63	22
	Totalnce	14.04	9.00	66

Table 9

Shapiro-Wilk Test of Normality for the Dependent Continuous Variables

Variable	Statistic	df	Sig.
ALQtransparency	.907	76	.000
ALQMoral	.951	75	.005
ALQBalance	.917	75	.000
LeadExperience	.917	71	.000
# of items correct on	.904	78	.000

KSD

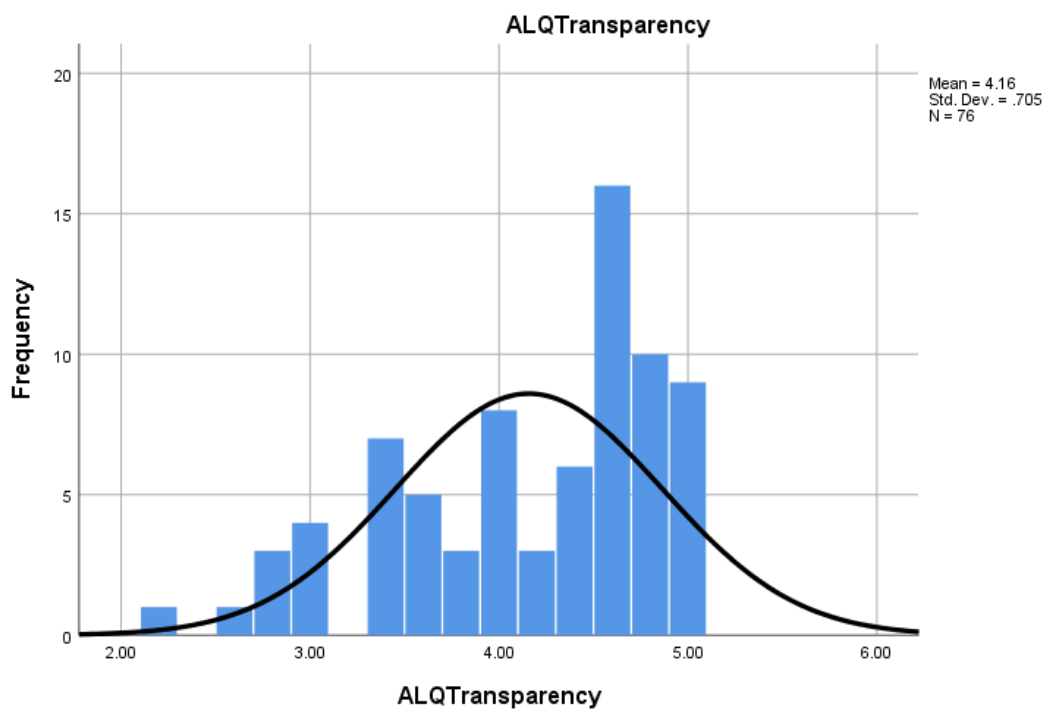


Figure 9. Histogram of the variable Relational Transparency.

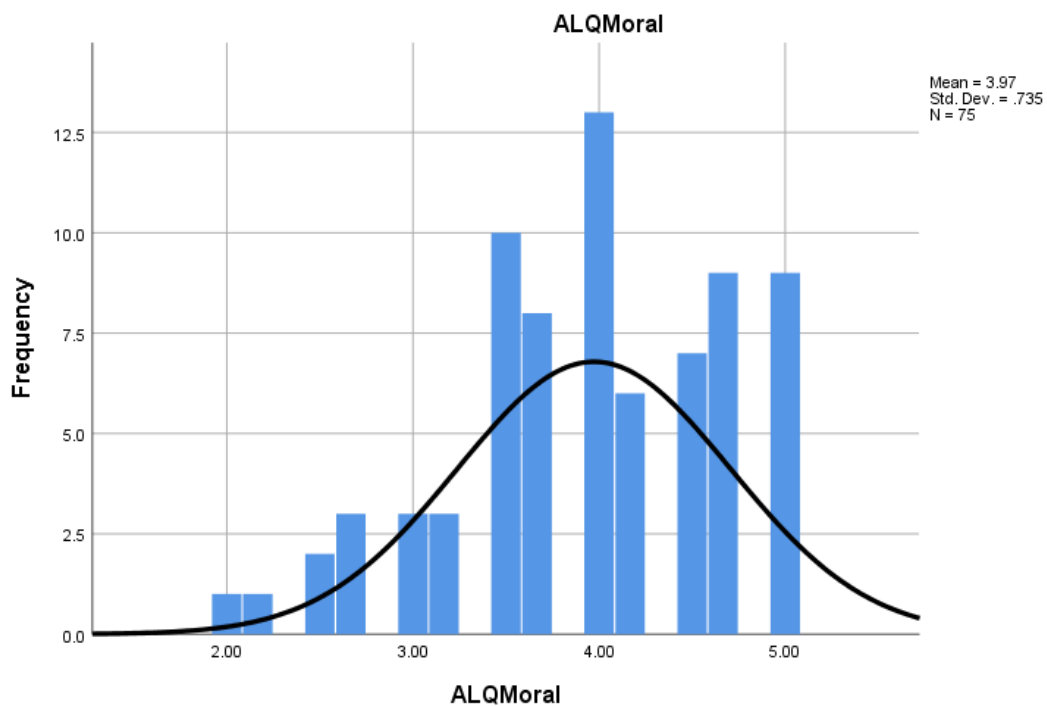


Figure 10. Histogram of the variable Internalized Moral Perspective.

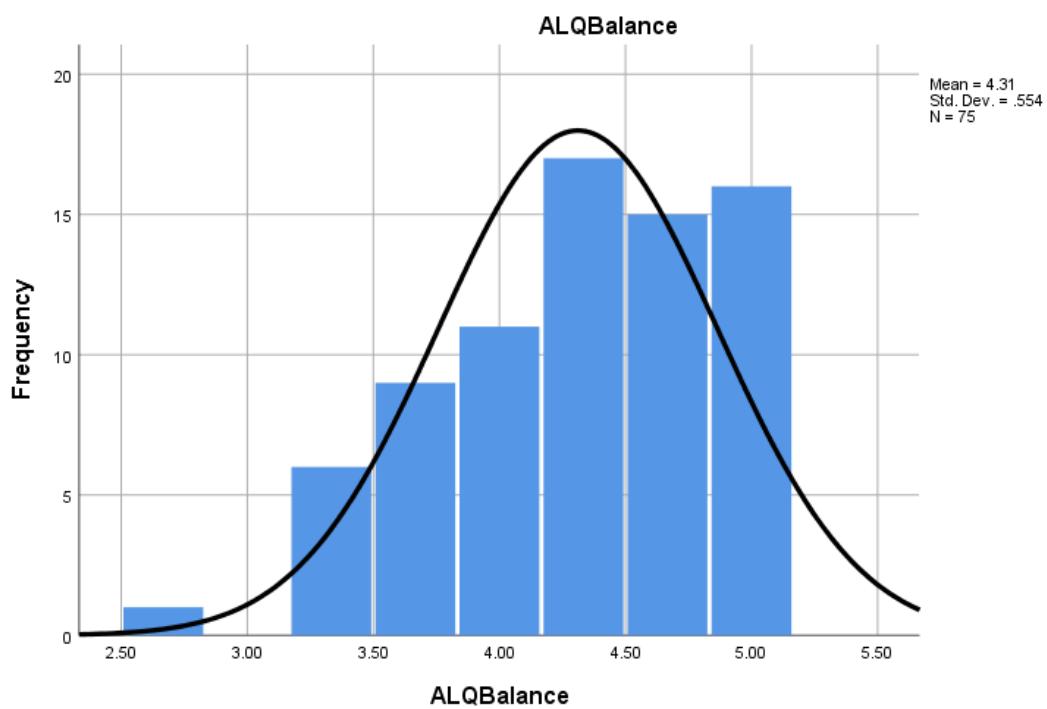


Figure 11. Histogram of the variable Balanced Processing.

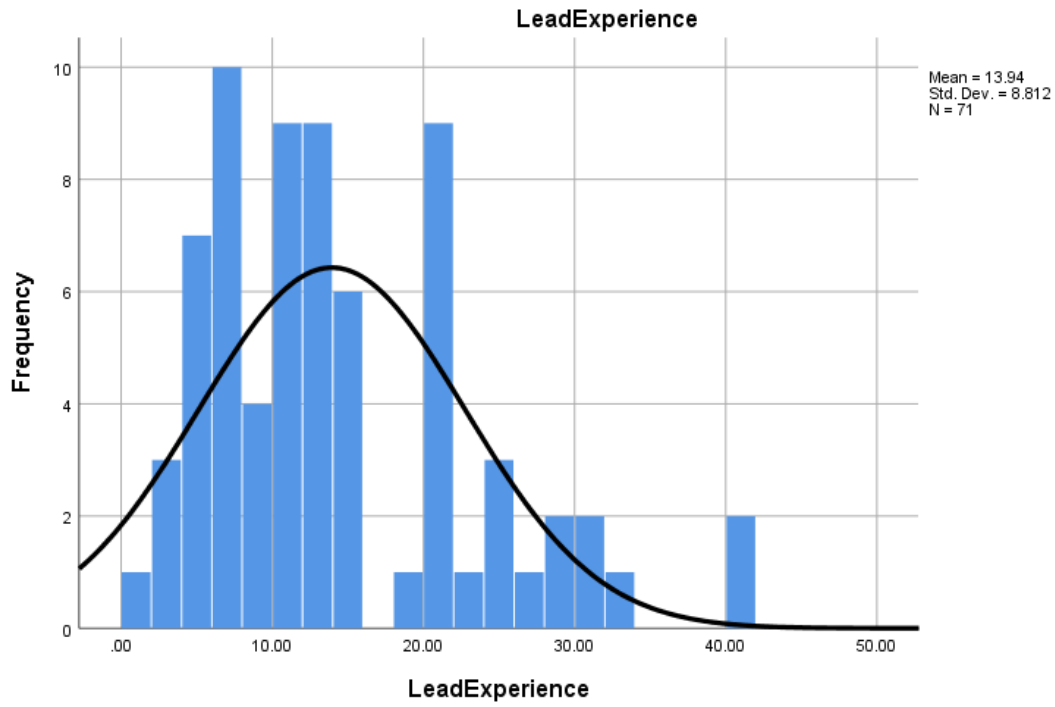


Figure 12. Histogram of the variable Leadership Experience.

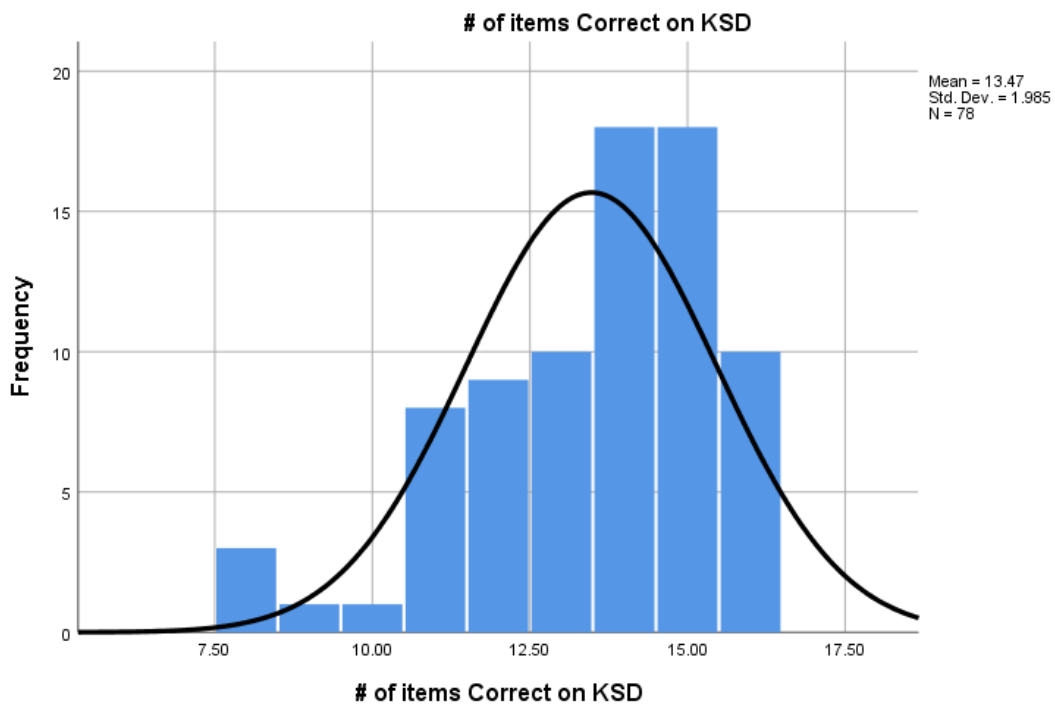


Figure 13. Histogram of the variable Knowledge of Sustainable Development.

Multivariate outlier. Mahalanobis distance was used to determine whether the dataset contains multivariate outliers or not. Table 10 indicates that the maximum value in the Mahal Distance row is 22.69. This study has 5 dependent variables, so the critical value for evaluating Mahalanobis distance value is 22.52. Since the maximum value is larger than the critical value, there must be at least one multivariate outlier in the data file (Pallant, 2013; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). A subsequent investigation of the new variable MAH_1 revealed that only one case, #37, had a score (22.69) that is larger than the critical value. Therefore, case #37 was the substantial outlier. This finding confirms the exclusion of that case from the analysis.

Table 10

Residual Statistics

Name	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Predicted Value	.77	3.12	1.97	.49	67
Std. Predicted Value	-2.44	2.32	.00	1.00	67
Standard Error of Predicted Value	.12	.42	.20	.06	67
Adjusted Predicted Value	.72	3.74	1.98	.53	67
Residual	-1.23	1.56	.00	.67	67
Std. Residual	-1.76	2.23	.00	.96	67
Stud. Residual	-1.99	2.30	-.004	1.01	67
Deleted Residual	-1.74	1.66	-.007	.75	67
Stud. Deleted Residual	-2.04	2.39	-.004	1.02	67
Mahal. Distance	.80	22.69	4.93	3.81	67
Cook's Distance	.00	.37	.02	.05	67
Centered Leverage Value	.012	.344	.075	.058	67

Linearity. To check for linearity, a matrix of scatterplots was generated. The purpose was to determine whether or not the relationship between each pair of dependent variables is a straight line. As the scatterplot matrix (Figure 14) shows, there is evidence of some linear trends among pairs of dependent variables. Therefore, the assumption of linearity clearly is not violated.

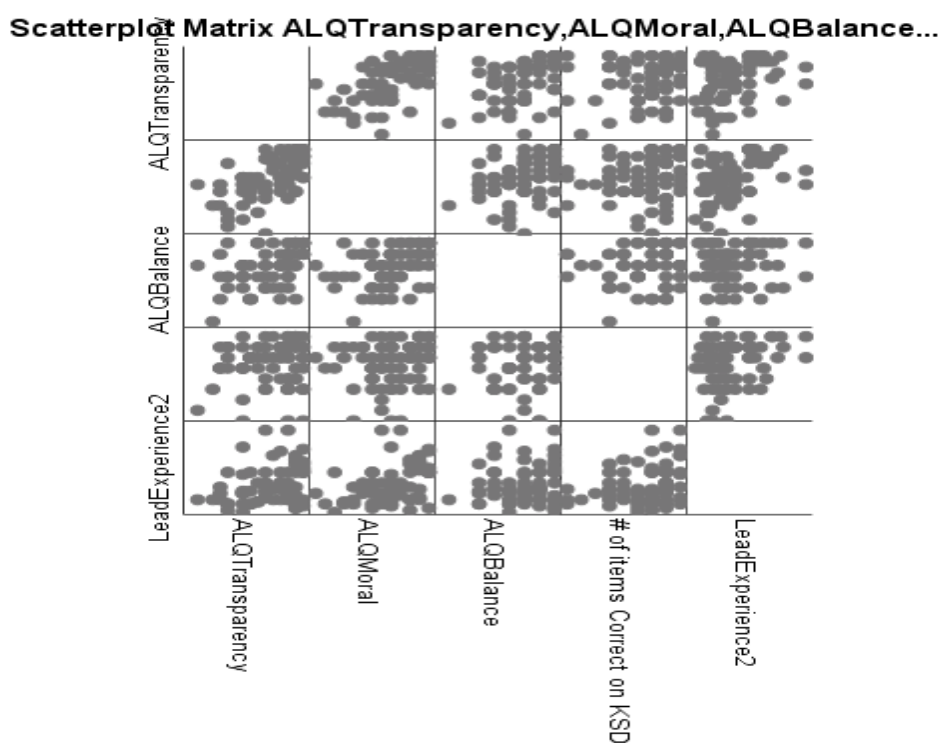


Figure 14. Scatterplot matrix of the dependent continuous variables.

Homogeneity of regression. The assumption of homogeneity of regression indeed applies to MANOVA. However, testing for it is required only in the case of conducting a Roy-Bargmann stepdown analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This type of analysis was not used in this MANOVA. Therefore, it is not necessary to test for homogeneity of regression.

Multicollinearity and singularity. Collinearity statistical test was run to detect the presence of multicollinearity among the dependent variables. To do so, the Tolerance and VIF values in the Coefficients table were inspected. According to research methodologists, there is

indication of multicollinearity when a Tolerance value is less than .10 and a VIF value is above 10. As the table 11 shows, the Tolerance values are more than .10 and the VIF values are below 10. Therefore, there is no multicollinearity issue among the variables in the study. Likewise, there are no singularity concerns.

Table 11

Coefficients of Collinearity Statistics

Model	Tolerance	VIF
ALQTransparency	.55	1.81
ALQMoral	.58	1.73
ALQBalance	.74	1.35
# of items correct on KSD	.90	1.12
LeadExperience	.75	1.34

Homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. A Box's test was run to assess whether or not the data violate the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices.

According to Pallant (2013), the sig. value must be larger than .001 for this assumption to be satisfied. As shown in Table 12, the sig. value is .180. Hence, this assumption was not violated.

Results of First MANOVA

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. 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.

Table 12

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices

Statistics	Value
Box's M	41.75
F	1.23
df1	30
df2	12024.49
Sig.	.180

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 as presented in Table 13 indicated 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.

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics of the Dependent Continuous Variables per Impact Group

Variable	Impact Group	Means	Std. Deviation
ALQTransparency	Low Impact	4.33	.55
	Medium Impact	4.21	.74
	High Impact	3.85	.82
	Total	4.14	.73
ALQMoral	Low Impact	4.26	.80
	Medium Impact	4.00	.64
	High Impact	3.62	.64
	Total	3.97	.74
ALQBalance	Low Impact	4.50	.50
	Medium Impact	4.18	.50
	High Impact	4.14	.63
	Total	4.28	.56
Correct items on KSD	Low Impact	14.38	1.28
	Medium Impact	13.45	2.26
	High Impact	12.41	2.06
	Total	13.44	2.03
LeadExperience	Low Impact	20.58	9.63
	Medium Impact	11.40	6.51
	High Impact	9.32	5.63
	Total	14.04	9.00

Research Question Two

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. Multivariate analysis—specifically one-way MANOVA—was used to explore group differences in the set of five dependent variables. This MANOVA used one categorical variable 'geographical area' with three levels: North & Northeast, West, and Other. The later includes all the other seven administrative departments:

South, Nippes, Northwest, Artibonite, Southeast, Grand'Anse, and Center. The dependent continuous variables are the same used in the first MANOVA.

This is a second MANOVA on the same dataset and the same dependent variables. There no need to check for the assumptions that underlie MANOVA. All the assumptions—sample size, normality, outliers, linearity, homogeneity of regression, multicollinearity and singularity, and homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices—have already been evaluated. All of these assumptions except normality were met. Again, the lack of normality may be due to the small size of the dataset.

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables

This MANOVA analysis used six variables: One categorical and five dependent continuous variables. The categorical variable 'geographic areas' had three levels: 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 include leaders whose NGOs have most of their activities in the other seven administrative departments. Figure 15 and Table 14 show present a description of the variables

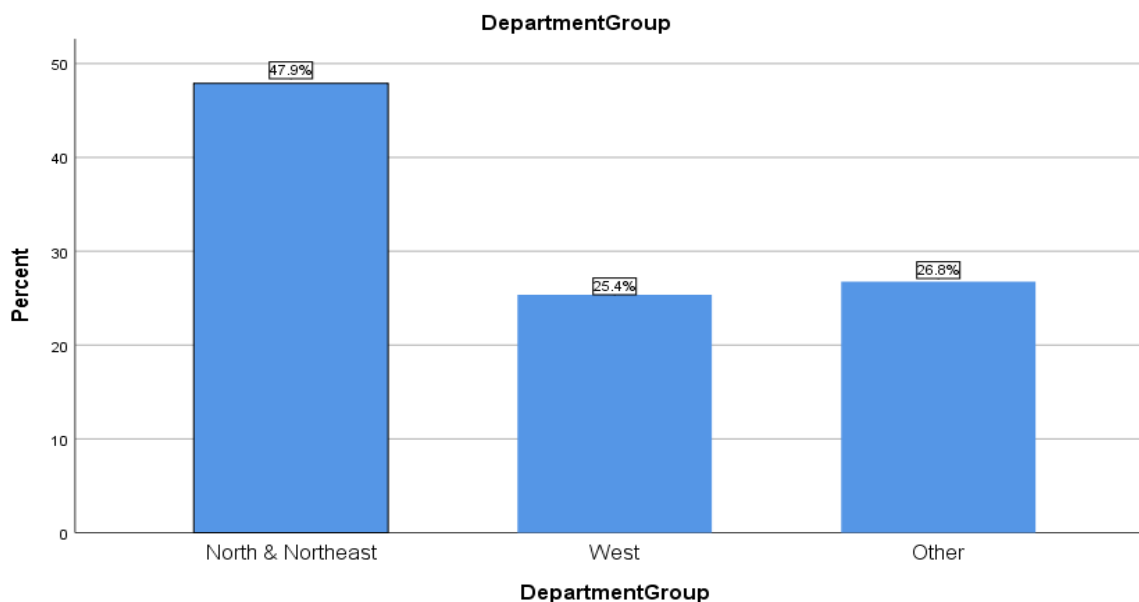


Figure 15. Frequencies of the variable Department Group.

Table 14

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
Correct items on KSD	78	13.5	.99

Results of Second MANOVA

A one-way between-groups multivariate analysis was performed to investigate differences between geographical areas in terms of 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 geographical area.

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 for all data subsets. Again, the absence of normality was presumed to be due to the small size of the sample.

The test results are displayed in Table 15. As this table shows, 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.

Table 15

Multivariate Tests

Variable	Test	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Sq.
Department group	Pillai's Trace	.24	.07	.12
	Wilks' Lambda	.77	.08	.1
	Hotelling's Trace	.27	.08	.120
	Roy's Largest Root	.16	.08	.14

Research Question Three

The third research question asks whether there are differences between the department groups with respect to impact of development activities on direct beneficiaries? Univariate analysis, specifically a Kruskal-Wallis test was used to explore group differences in the dependent variable. This nonparametric test used one categorical variable 'geographical areas'

with three levels: North & Northeast, West, and Other. The later includes all the other seven administrative departments: South, Nippes, Northwest, Artibonite, Southeast, Grand’Anse, and Center. The frequencies for the department group variable are presented in Figure 16.

The dependent continuous variable “impact” was measured as the ratio of expenses to beneficiaries. As already mentioned, the data for this variable were collected on the demographics questionnaire. The research participants provided, among other things, the total expenses in Haitian currency (gourds)—including employee salaries—for the year 2017 and the number of direct beneficiaries for the same year. Descriptive trends for the dependent variable “impact” are presented in Table 16.

Assessment of Kruskal-Wallis Assumptions

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. Like its parametric counterpart, the Kruskal-Wallis test is typically used to determine whether there is a difference between two or more categories of a single independent variable or factor (Pallant, 2013). A Kruskal-Wallis Test makes several assumptions, the most important of which are level of measurement of the variable, categorical independent variable, and independence of variation (Pallant, 2013; Tabacknick & Fidell 2013). These assumptions were verified so as to ensure the usefulness of the nonparametric statistical test.

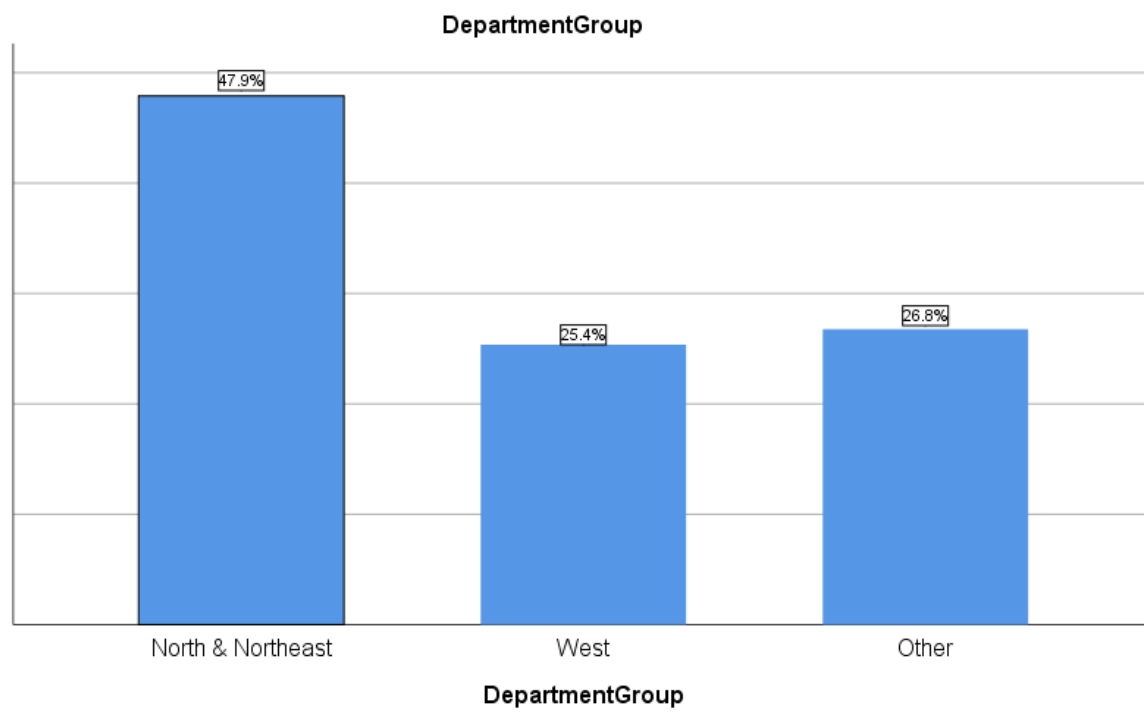


Figure 16. Frequencies of the variable Department Group.

Table 16

Descriptive Trends for the Variable Impact

Variable	Statistics	Values
Impact	Mean	23204.43
	Std. deviation	36820.46
	Skewness	2.49
	Std. Error of Skewness	.29
	Kurtosis	6.51
	Std. Error of Kurtosis	.578

Level of measurement. The assumption of level of measurement involves the dependent variable exclusively. The requirement is that the dependent variable should be measured on either continuous or ordinal scale (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This assumption was met because the dependent variable in the study “ratio of expenses to beneficiaries” is continuous.

Independent variable. A Kruskal-Wallis test favors the use of a nominal or ordinal independent. The independent variable should also exist in groups that are independent from each other. The requirement is that the categorical variable should consist of at least three groups (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). This assumption was met because the independent variable, geographic area, was broken down into three independent groups: North & Northeast, West, and Other.

Independence of observations. The scores for the dependent variable were obtained from different NGO leaders. These participants filled out the same questionnaires, but they were not related in any way to each other. Therefore, the assumption of independence of observations was not violated.

Results of the Kruskal-Wallis Test

A Kruskal-Wallis test was run to explore whether the impact of NGO’s activities on beneficiaries is significantly different with respect to where the NGO is located. Participants were divided into three groups according to location of their NGOs: North & Northeast, West, and Other. As shown in Table 17, 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.

Table 17

Kruskal-Wallis Test

Variable	Statistics	Value
	Kruskal-Wallis H	2.675
Expenses to beneficiary ratio	Df	2
	Asump. Sig.	.262

Summary of Findings

As presented on table 18, 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 18

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

Chapter Five: Discussion

This quantitative study aimed to determine the extent to which leaders in grassroots nongovernmental organizations are able to provide leadership for sustainable development. Ultimately, the goal was to create awareness of any deficiencies in the leadership, so that training and remediation can be suggested. For the purpose of the study, three different research questions were addressed. A total of 7 variables—5 continuous dependents and 2 categorical independents—were used in answering the questions. The continuous variables were knowledge of sustainable development, leadership experience, relational transparency, internalized moral perspective, and balance processing. The categorical variables were impact and location. Two separate Multivariate Analysis of Variances (MANOVAs) and a Kruskal-Wallis Test were carried out to detect any significant differences among the independent group variables. This chapter will accomplish four different tasks. First, the findings will be reviewed and discussed in light of the theoretical framework, and compared with prior research findings. Second, the limitations of the study will be presented. Third, some recommendations for future research will be suggested. Fourth, some policy recommendations will be suggested. A conclusion statement will be made at the end of the chapter.

Review and Discussion of Findings

This study dealt with three research questions. The first two questions involved five dependent variables. Therefore, two separate MANOVAs were conducted to answer these questions. The third question involved only one dependent variable. Hence, a Kruskal-Wallis Test instead of an ANOVA was run to answer this question. One-way ANOVA was excluded due to lack randomness, normality, and, especially homogeneity of variances in the data.

First Question

The first question asked whether NGOs from three groups of impact differ in terms of their leaders' knowledge of sustainable development, leadership attitudes, and leadership experience. For this research question, the MANOVA test was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. This significant result suggests that the NGO groups differ on the characteristics of their leaders. However, a post-hoc Bonferroni test revealed that the groups actually differed only on two characteristics: leadership experience and level of sustainable development knowledge. The post-hoc tests—Turkey's HSD and Bonferroni—also reveal a significance 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 invites further discussion on the concepts of impact, experience, and knowledge.

Impact. The variable 'impact' was defined as the ration of expenses to beneficiaries for the year 2017. This operational definition was inspired by a definition of impact as "improvements in the lives and livelihoods of beneficiaries" (OECD/DAC, 1997). The study's definition of impact was also inspired by Blankenberg's (1995) definition of impact as "long-term and sustainable changes introduced by a given intervention in the lives of beneficiaries" (p. 282). As Blankenberg's (1995) suggests, it is more realistic to assess the impact of a given intervention. The current study did not consider a specific NGO intervention, but all interventions made in the year 2017, and the total cost for the interventions, including employee salaries and transaction costs. It is clear that defining impact as the ration of expenses to beneficiaries is simplistic. The reason is that a simple ratio does not account for whether an NGO

brings long-term and sustainable changes or not. However, for the purpose of this study, this was the best possible way impact could be measured.

Although the measurement of impact is weak, the study established that leadership experience and level of knowledge of sustainable development made a difference among low, medium, and high impact NGOs. Comparisons were significant between low impact and medium impact or high impact. Low impact NGOs reported higher levels of leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable development. 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

Experience. 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. That is the reason why, in this study, leadership experience is defined as the

number of years as the leader of the NGO. 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. The present study just found a relationship between leadership experience and organizational impact on the beneficiaries. Further research is needed to determine the how of that relationship.

In this study, impact was used as a group variable. The researcher used the ratios of expenses to beneficiaries to form the impact groups: Low impact, medium impact, and high impact. NGOs with a ratio at USD 20,000 per beneficiary were assigned to the high impact group. Nonetheless, as the results suggest, their higher impact is attributable more to the size of their budget expenses than to the experience of their leaders.

Knowledge. 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. That is the reason why, in this study, the knowledge of sustainable development index (KSDI) was used. According to the results of the current study, 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.

Results in Light of Three-Failure Theory

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 et al., 2004). They may also indirectly have an impact on the economy through their impact on the beneficiaries (Steinberg, 2006). This study shows that an NGO's impact on the beneficiaries is related more to the size of its expenses budget than to the characteristics of its leader. However, the study also shows that leadership experience and level of knowledge of sustainable development make a difference between the impact group of NGOs. In order to play its role as economic corrective, NGO leaders indeed needs money, knowledge, and experience. 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.

Second and Third Question

The second question asked whether there are differences between geographical areas with respect to leaders' leadership experience, knowledge of sustainable development, and leadership attitudes? The MANOVA test for this question was not significant. Therefore, the null

hypothesis was accepted and no further post-hoc testing was necessary. This nonsignificant MANOVA results led to the conclusion that the location of an NGO does not make any difference in the characteristics of its leader.

The third question asked whether there are differences between geographical areas in respect to impact of development activities on beneficiaries. In what regards this question, the Kruskal-Wallis Test was not significant. As a result of this, the null hypothesis was accepted, and it was not necessary to obtain the median ratio value for each department group. This nonsignificant result led to the conclusion that the location of an NGO did not influence the impact of its activities on the beneficiaries.

The nonsignificant results relative to questions two and three highlight the variable of geographical location. According to the results, the location of an NGO seems to have nothing to do with its leader characteristics or its impact on the beneficiaries. However, 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.

Limitations

The study yielded some significant results. However, it bore several limitations that are worth highlighting. The limitations concern mainly (a) the sample, (b) the research instruments, (c) the study language, (d) the data collection procedure, and (e) the data themselves.

Sample. The sample is nonrandom and small ($n = 78$). The small size of the sample caused two problems. First, none of the data subsets was normally distributed. Second, the group variables—impact and geographical location—contained a limited number of cases. This may be the reason why the second MANOVA and the Kruskal-Wallis Test were not significant. Another problem with the sample was that the leaders came from NGOs that vary greatly in size, budget, organization, staff size, location, and activity. This caused a large standard deviation in the data subsets. The small size of the sample coupled with the lack of randomness may make the findings less generalizable to the population.

Instrument. Three instruments were used in this study: a demographic questionnaire (DQ), the authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ), and a knowledge of sustainable development index (KSDI). The DQ—since it was built from scratch for the purpose of the study—was suitable to collect demographic data and other data on NGO leaders in Haiti. The other questionnaires—the ALQ and the ALQ—, however, were not fully suitable for research in the context of Haiti. Both questionnaires were built for a Western research participantship. They would have helped to collect better data if they were adapted to fit a Haitian research participantship.

Study language. Three languages were used in this study: English, French, and Haitian Creole. The research proposal and all related documents were written in these three languages as required by the campus-based IRB at UIW and the government-based IRB (Comité National de Bioéthique du Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population) in Haiti. As required by the Haitian IRB, both English and Creole versions of the questionnaires were administered to the participants. The questionnaires were not back translated as good practice requires due to time limitation and financial constraints. During the piloting process, a pilot participant pointed to differences in the French and Creole translations. Proper corrections were made, but it is still possible that some of items were not clear to the participants due to linguistic confusion.

Data collection procedure. The study covered the whole territory of Haiti. However, the bulk of the data came from the West and the North due to high concentration of NGOs in these regions. This situation led to a lack of diversity in the sample in terms of the location of NGOs. The lack of diversity coupled with the small size of the sample may have undermined department comparisons between the departments

The data. Quantitative data were exclusively collected on the participants. The latter responded online or on paper. The researcher had the opportunity to speak face-to-face with those who completed the questionnaires on paper. These participants were willing to provide more information than simply filling out a questionnaire. Without any doubt, collecting some qualitative data would have enhanced understanding of the NGO phenomenon and the interpretation of the quantitative data.

As discussed above, the study encountered several limitations. Certainly, the effects of these limitations may have weakened the likelihood of finding significant differences in the

second MANOVA and the Kruskal-Wallis Test. Nonetheless, the limitations were not so severe as to invalidate the results of the study.

Recommendations for Further Research

Further research on the NGO sector in Haiti should consider the limitations highlighted above. Furthermore, there are some important areas that should be considered as well. These areas are: (a) NGO reporting, (b) methodology, (c) beneficiary study, (d) leadership style, and (e) NGO impact.

Reporting. NGOs are accountable to their donors and the Haitian government. According to Kilby (2006), this type of accountability is upward accountability. Upward accountability requires NGOs to make reporting on an annual basis. Future research should examine the extent to which self-reporting data are available and reliable. The availability of reliable demographic data and other data will be helpful to any future study involving the NGO sector in Haiti.

Methodology. As already said, several NGO leaders were willing to provide more information than simply filling out a questionnaire. Future research should use a mixed-method approach, instead of a quantitative methodology exclusively. This is much needed when research involves grassroots and community-based NGOs. Research instruments should be made from scratch or carefully adapted to reflect the reality of life in Haiti.

Beneficiary study. Most of the studies about the NGOs sector focus either on organizational performance or leadership performance. The present study examined leader characteristics and the latter's relationship to organizational impact. Further studies should focus specifically on the beneficiaries. Beneficiaries' input is key to knowing more about the NGO sector and its leadership.

Leadership style. In this study, the authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ) was used to measure leadership attitudes and behaviors. This instrument is much about ethics because it was used to assess the extent to which leaders are capable of behaving properly and ethically. Further research is needed to examine leadership style among NGO leaders, including paternalistic leadership. The reason for including paternalistic leadership style is that paternalism is deeply anchored in Haitian culture and language (Baroco, 2011).

NGO impact. Haiti is considered to be a republic of NGOs (Kristoff & Panarelli, 2010). The presence of NGOs on the socioeconomic arena is necessary and even indispensable, given the precarious economic situation in the country (Schuller, 2007b; Zanotti, 2010). However, the enduring economic catastrophe in the country has led many to ask whether NGOs are having a positive impact on the country in general, or their direct beneficiaries in particular (Buss & Gardner, 2006; Pierre Étienne, 1997; Pierre-Louis, 2011; Schuller, 2007a). This study used a simplistic measure of NGO impact as the ration of expenses to beneficiaries. Further research is needed to create a more valid and reliable assessment tool to measure NGO impact.

Implications of the Study

The study examined the extent to which leader characteristics are related to NGO impact on the beneficiaries. The characteristics were: leadership experience, knowledge of sustainable development, internalized moral perspective, balance processing, and relational transparency. The first two characteristics—leadership experience and knowledge of sustainable development—were measured with the demographic questionnaire (DQ). As the concepts of experience and knowledge suggests, these characteristics are more in the domain of epistemology and education. The other characteristics—moral, balance, and transparency—are independent factors that were measured on the authentic leadership questionnaire (ALQ). As the

concepts of moral, balance, and transparency suggest, these characteristics have more to do with ethics. 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.

Implication for education. In this study, the relevance of education to leadership performance and effectiveness was intuitively 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 (Adenigba and Omolawal, 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. Therefore, in order to transform leaders into promoters of sustainable development, it is important to emphasize education in its formal, nonformal, and informal aspects.

Implication for ethics. In his study, the relevance of ethics to leadership effectiveness was intuitively assumed as well. For this reason, three ethical factors—balance, moral, and transparency— 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. The first reason is that 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 et al., 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.

Policy Recommendations

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. Therefore, I recommend following policies:

The Haitian government and the donor community conjugate their effort and pool their resources to develop such leaders. The Haitian educational can be used to establish a culture of sustainable development awareness and leadership education in the country. I recommend that the government include sustainable development and leadership subjects or classes in the educational curriculum at all levels of education.

The world scholarly community can also help promote sustainable development awareness and leadership education in the country. For this reason, I recommend the organization of an annual leadership conference specifically for the NGO leaders. Scholars who are interested in sustainable development and leadership scholars and practitioners from around the world can be invited to present scholarly papers or teach seminars or workshops at the annual conference. Either the government or the donor community can take the initiative to establish the conference. The conference should be fully funded by the government or the donor community. Local NGO leaders should participate free of charge.

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 that NGOs whose leaders have a 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. The study contributes to expanding knowledge about the NGO sector by pointing to several areas—NGO reporting, methodology, beneficiary study, leadership style, and NGO impact—for future research. Moreover, the results of this study point to some policy initiatives that are necessary to successfully develop NGO leaders for the future of sustainable development in Haiti.

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Appendices

Appendix I: Demographic Questionnaire (DQ)

Please, provide some information about your NGO and yourself.

1. How many years have you been the leader of your NGO? _____
2. What year did your NGO start working in Haiti? _____
3. What department does your NGO currently hold the most development activities?

Please select only one department.

- a) North _____
 - b) South _____
 - c) Northeast _____
 - d) West _____
 - e) Nippes _____
 - f) Northwest _____
 - g) Artibonite _____
 - h) Southeast _____
 - i) Grand'Anse _____
 - j) Center _____
4. What kind of activity is your NGO involved in? Please select all that apply.
 - a) Agriculture _____
 - b) Cooperative Enterprise _____
 - c) Micro-credit _____
 - d) Environmental _____
 - e) Social Work _____
 - f) Education _____

- g) Healthcare _____
 - h) Community Capacity Building _____
 - i) Institutional Development _____
5. In general, how many years of leadership experience do you have? _____
6. Approximately, how many leadership training classes, sessions, workshops or seminars have you attended so far? _____
7. Please, check the box that best estimates your level of schooling.
- a) Less than certificat _____
 - b) Certificat _____
 - c) Some secondary education _____
 - d) Baccalauréat I _____
 - e) Baccalauréat II _____
 - f) Some college _____
 - g) A college or university degree _____
8. In 2016, how many employees did your NGO have, including yourself? _____
9. In 2016, how much money (in Haitian currency) did your NGO spend on development projects and employee salaries, including yourself? _____
10. In 2016, how many people, approximately, did your NGO help directly? _____
11. What is your gender? a) female _____ b) male _____
12. How old are you? _____

Appendix II: Demographic Questionnaire (DQ)—bilingual version in French and Haitian Creole

Veillez fournir quelques informations sur votre organisation et vous-même. / *Tanpri, voye kèk enfòmasyon sou ONG w la ak sou tèt ou.*

1. Depuis combien d'année êtes-vous le leader de votre ONG? *Depi konbyen lane w ap dirije ONG a?* _____

2. En quelle année votre ONG a-t-elle commencé à travailler en Haïti? *Depi ki lè ONG w ap dirije a ap travay nan peyi d Ayiti?* _____

3. Dans quel département votre organisation détient-elle le plus d'activités de développement actuellement? Choisissez seulement un département s'il vous plaît. *Nan ki departman ONG w ap dirije a gen plis aktivite devlopman pou koulye a ? Tanpri, chwazi yon sèl departman.*

Nord / *Nò* _____

Sud / *Sid* _____

Nord-est / *Nòdès* _____

Ouest / *Lwès* _____

Nippes / *Nip* _____

Nord-ouest / *Nòdwès* _____

Artibonite / *Latibonit* _____

Sud-est / *Sidès* _____

Grand'Anse / *Lagrandans* _____

Centre / *Sant* _____

4. Dans quels types votre organisation s'est-elle engagée? *Choisissez toutes celles qui s'appliquent. Nan ki kalte aktivite òganizasyon w lan ap travay? Chwazi tout bon repons yo.*

a) Agriculture / *Agrikilti* _____

b) Coopérative de finance / *Kès popilè* _____

c) Microcrédit / *Ti krédi* _____

d) Environnement / *Anvirònman* _____

e) Travail Social / *Travay Sosyal* _____

f) Education / *Edikasyon* _____

g) Soins de Santé, *Lasanté* _____

h) Renforcement des Capacités Communautaires / *Bay òganizasyon Kominotè yo jarèt.* _____

i) Développement Institutionnel, *Kore enstitisyon prive at piblik yo* _____

5. En général, combien d'années d'expérience avez-vous en tant que leader? *Apeprè konbyen ane esperyans ou genyen kòm Lidè yon òganizasyon* _____

6. Approximativement, combien de cours, sessions, ateliers, ou séminaires de formation avez-vous suivi sur le leadership jusqu'à présent? Apeprè konbyen kou, oswa sesyon, oswa atelye, oswa seminè fòmasyon ou te suiv sou fason pou dirije yon òganizasyon _____
7. S'il vous plaît, choisissez la lettre estimant le mieux votre niveau de formation/niveau scolaire. Tanpri, chwazi repons ki koresponn pi byen ak nivo lekòl ou rive.
- a) Un peu d'études primaires / Pi ba pase sètifika _____
 - b) Certificat / Sètifika _____
 - c) Un peu d'études secondaires / Yon pati nan lekòl segondè _____
 - d) Baccalauréat I/ Rhéto / Bakaloreya I/ Reto _____
 - e) Baccalauréat II/ philo / Bakaloreya I/ Filo _____
 - f) Un peu d'études universitaire / Yon pati nan etid inivèsite _____
 - g) Etude universitaire-Niveau Licence / Etid Inivèsite nivo Lisans _____
 - h) Etude universitaire-Niveau Licence ou Doctorat / Etid Inivèsite nivo Metriz oswa doktora. _____
8. En 2017, combien d'employés comptait votre organisation, incluant vous-même? Pou lane 2016, konbyen anplwaye (ak tout oumenm) òganizasyon w lan te genyen ?

9. En 2017, combien d'argent (en devise haïtienne) votre organisation a-t-elle dépensé pour les projets de développement, le salaire des employés, vous-même y compris? Pou lane 2017 la, konbyen kòb (an goud) òganizasyon w lan te depanse pou pwojè devlopman yo ; pou salè anplwaye (konte tèt ou ladann) _____
10. En 2017, combien de personnes à peu près, votre organisation a-t-elle aidé directement? Nan lane 2017 la, konbyen moun, apeprè, òganizasyon w lan te ede dirèkteman ?
11. Quel est votre sexe? / Ki sèks ou?
- a) Féminin / Fanm _____
 - b) Masculin / Gason _____
12. Quel âge avez-vous? / Ki laj ou ? _____

Appendix III: Knowledge of Sustainable Development Index (KSDI)

Please, answer “true” or “false” for each item.

1. Economic development, social development and environmental protection are all necessary for sustainable development. Education for sustainable development emphasizes education for a culture of peace.
2. Sustainable development is as much about the children in the future as it is about what we need today.
3. Sustainable development has nothing to do with social justice.
4. Haiti’s overall energy is improving.
5. Sustainable consumption includes using goods and services in ways that minimize the use of natural resources and toxic chemicals, and reduces waste.
6. Education for sustainable development emphasizes gender equality.
7. Helping people out of poverty in Haiti is an essential condition for Haiti to become more sustainable.
8. Education for sustainable development seeks to balance human and economic well-being with cultural traditions and respect for the earth’s natural resources.
9. We cannot slow the rate of climate change.
10. Corporate social responsibility is irrelevant to sustainable development.
11. Conservation of fresh water is not a priority in Haiti because we have plenty.
12. Maintaining biodiversity—the number and variety of living organisms—is essential to the effective functioning of ecosystems.
14. Education for sustainable development supports cultural diversity.
15. Use of nonrenewable resources like oil should not exceed the rate at which sustainable renewable substitutes are used.
16. It is useful to estimate the monetary value of the services that the ecosystem provides to us, such as neutralizing air pollutants or purifying water.
17. Education for sustainable development emphasizes respect for human rights.

Appendix IV: Knowledge of Sustainable Development Index (KSDI)—bilingual version in French and Haitian Creole

S'il vous plaît, répondez par vrai ou faux pour chaque assertion / *Tanpri, reponn VRE oswa FO pou chak repons.*

1. Le développement économique, le développement social, la protection de l'environnement, sont tous nécessaires pour le développement durable. *Devlòpman ekonomik, devlòpman sosyal, pwoteksyon anviwònman, yo tout enpòtan pou devlòpman dirab.*
2. L'éducation pour un développement durable met l'accent sur l'éducation pour une culture de paix. *Edikasyon nan devlòpman dirab chita sou yon edikasyon pou lapè antre nan mantalite tout moun.*
3. Le développement durable est aussi important pour l'avenir des enfants que ce dont nous avons besoin aujourd'hui. / *Devlòpman dirab la enpòtan pou lavi timoun yo demen menm jan ak sa noumenm nou bezwen jodi a.*
4. Le développement durable n'a rien à voir avec la justice sociale. / *Devlòpman dirab pa gen anyen pou wè ak jistis sosyal.*
5. L'énergie globale d'Haïti s'améliore. / *Kesyon enèji a an jeneral ap amelyore nan peyi d Ayiti.*
6. La consommation durable comprend l'utilisation des biens et services de manière à minimiser l'utilisation des ressources naturelles et des produits chimiques toxiques et à réduire les déchets. / *Sèvi ak pwodi yo yon fason dirab mande pou nou sèvi ak byen yo epi ak sèvis yo yon manyè pou nou redui sèvis n ap fè ak resous natirèl yo epi ak pwodi chimik ki gen pwazon ladan yo epitou pou nou fè mwens fatra.*
7. L'éducation pour un développement durable met l'accent sur l'égalité des sexes. / *Edikasyon pou devlòpman dirab chita sou fanm egal ak gason.*
8. Aider les gens à sortir de la pauvreté en Haïti est une condition essentielle pour le développement du pays. / *Ede pou moun soti nan mizè ann Ayiti se yon kondisyon enpòtan anpil pou devlòpman fèt nan peyi a.*
9. L'éducation pour un du développement durable cherche à vise l'équilibre entre le du bien-être humain et économique et avec les traditions culturelles et le respect des ressources naturelles de la terre. / *Edikasyon pou devlòpman dirab ap chèche tabli yon balans ant bon kalite lavi popilasyon an ; pwogrè nan ekonomi ; tradisyon kilti popilasyon an epi respè resous natirèl latè.*
10. La responsabilité sociale limitée des entreprises est sans importance pour le développement durable. *Responsablite sosyal tout entrepriz prive ak publik yo an depaman ak devlòpman dirab.*
11. Nous ne pouvons pas ralentir le rythme du changement climatique. / *Nou pa kapab ralanti kous chanjman k ap fèt nan kalite tan an.*

12. La conservation de l'eau douce n'est pas une priorité en Haïti parce qu'il y en a assez. / Estoke dlo dous pa yon priyorite nan peyi d Ayiti paske nou gen anpil dlo dous.
13. Le maintien de la biodiversité—le e nombre et la variété des organismes vivants—est essentiel au bon fonctionnement des écosystèmes. / Kenbe tout kalte plant, bèt, materyo ki gen nan divès milye natirèl yo, nan bon kondisyon, enpòtan anpil pou yo ka kontinye byen devlope ansanm epi kontinye byen adapte youn ak lòt.
14. L'éducation pour un développement durable soutient la diversité culturelle. / Edikasyon pou devlopman dirab chita sou bon kolaborasyon ant tout kalte kilti popilasyon yo.
15. L'utilisation des ressources non renouvelables comme le pétrole ne devrait pas doit pas dépasser la fréquence des substituts, le taux de ressources renouvelables durables qui sont de substitution utilisés. / Jan nou sèvi ak resous ki pap renouvle yo tankou petwòl, pa fèt pou depase jan n ap sèvi ak resous dirab ki ka renouvle yo.
16. Il est utile d'estimer la valeur monétaire des services que l'écosystème nous fournit, tels que la neutralisation des polluants de l'air atmosphériques ou la purification de l'eau. / Li itil pou nou evalye konbyen kòb sèvis milye natirèl yo rann nou, tankou netwaye vye dechè ki gen nan lè n ap respire a oswa trete dlo yo.
17. L'éducation pour le développement durable met l'accent sur le respect des droits humains de l'homme. / Edikasyon pou devlopman dirab se konsatre sou respè pou dwa moun.

Appendix V: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ Version 1.0 Self)

Instructions: The following survey items refer to your leadership style, as you perceive it. Please, judge how frequently each statement fits your leadership style using the following scale:

Not at all	Once a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always.
0	1	2	3	4

As a leader, I ...	0	1	2	3	4
1. say exactly what I mean					
2. admit mistakes when they are made					
3. encourage everyone to speak their mind					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					
13.					
14.					
15.					
16.					

Appendix VI: Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ Version 1.0 Self)—bilingual version in French and Haitian Creole

S'il vous plait, veuillez juger à quelle fréquence chaque déclaration correspond à votre style de leadership en utilisant l'échelle suivante: / Tanpri, sèvi ak nòt sa yo (0 rive 4), pou mezire nan ki degre chak pawòl sa yo koresponn ak fason ou fonksyone kòm dirijan.

0 -- Pas du tout / **Non**

1 – Une fois de temps en temps / **Yon lè konsa**

2 – Parfois, **Gen de fwa**

3 – Assez souvent, **Tanzantan**

4 – Fréquemment, sino toujours / **Byen souvan, si se pa toutan**

En temps que leader, / Antanke yon lidè,	0	1	2	3	4
1. je dis exactement ce que je pense. / mwen toujou di sa m panse.					
2. j'admets les erreurs lorsqu'il y en a. / mwen toujou admèt si m fè erè.					
3. j'encourage tout le monde à donner son avis. / mwen konn ankouraje					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					
13.					
14. 15. 16.					

Appendix VII: Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI)

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM)

COMPLETION REPORT - PART 1 OF 2
COURSEWORK REQUIREMENTS*

* NOTE: Scores on this [Requirements Report](#) reflect quiz completions at the time all requirements for the course were met. See list below for details. See separate Transcript Report for more recent quiz scores, including those on optional (supplemental) course elements.

- **Name:** ADELIN RIVAL (ID: 1710271)
- **Institution Affiliation:** University of the Incarnate Word (ID: 2014)
- **Institution Email:** rival@student.uivtx.edu
- **Institution Unit:** education
- **Curriculum Group:** Dreeben School of Education
- **Course Learner Group:** Same as Curriculum Group
- **Stage:** Stage 1 - Basic Course
- **Record ID:** 25793780
- **Completion Date:** 17-Apr-2018
- **Expiration Date:** 16-Apr-2021
- **Minimum Passing:** 85
- **Reported Score*:** 93

REQUIRED AND ELECTIVE MODULES ONLY	DATE COMPLETED	SCORE
Students in Research (ID: 1321)	16-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
History and Ethical Principles - SBE (ID: 490)	16-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE (ID: 491)	16-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
The Federal Regulations - SBE (ID: 502)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Assessing Risk - SBE (ID: 503)	17-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
Informed Consent - SBE (ID: 504)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE (ID: 505)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Research with Children - SBE (ID: 507)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Research in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools - SBE (ID: 508)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Internet-Based Research - SBE (ID: 510)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Workers/Employees (ID: 483)	17-Apr-2018	4/4 (100%)
Conflicts of Interest in Human Subjects Research (ID: 17464)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
University of the Incarnate Word (ID: 14285)	17-Apr-2018	No Quiz

For this Report to be valid, the learner identified above must have had a valid affiliation with the CITI Program subscribing institution identified above or have been a paid Independent Learner.

Verify at: www.citiprogram.org/verify/?k0e4d68b4-ecfe-495b-af05-f3e32c584122-25793780

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI Program)

Email: support@citiprogram.org

Phone: 888-529-5929

Web: <https://www.citiprogram.org>

Appendix VII: Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI)—Continued

COLLABORATIVE INSTITUTIONAL TRAINING INITIATIVE (CITI PROGRAM)
COMPLETION REPORT - PART 2 OF 2
COURSEWORK TRANSCRIPT**

** NOTE: Scores on this Transcript Report reflect the most current quiz completions, including quizzes on optional (supplemental) elements of the course. See list below for details. See separate Requirements Report for the reported scores at the time all requirements for the course were met.

- **Name:** ADELIN RIVAL (ID: 1710271)
- **Institution Affiliation:** University of the Incarnate Word (ID: 2014)
- **Institution Email:** rival@student.uivwtx.edu
- **Institution Unit:** education

- **Curriculum Group:** Dreeben School of Education
- **Course Learner Group:** Same as Curriculum Group
- **Stage:** Stage 1 - Basic Course

- **Record ID:** 25793780
- **Report Date:** 29-Apr-2018
- **Current Score**:** 93

REQUIRED, ELECTIVE, AND SUPPLEMENTAL MODULES	MOST RECENT	SCORE
Students in Research (ID: 1321)	16-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
University of the Incarnate Word (ID: 14285)	17-Apr-2018	No Quiz
History and Ethical Principles - SBE (ID: 490)	16-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
Defining Research with Human Subjects - SBE (ID: 491)	16-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
The Federal Regulations - SBE (ID: 502)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Assessing Risk - SBE (ID: 503)	17-Apr-2018	4/5 (80%)
Informed Consent - SBE (ID: 504)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Privacy and Confidentiality - SBE (ID: 505)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Research with Children - SBE (ID: 507)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Research in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools - SBE (ID: 508)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Internet-Based Research - SBE (ID: 510)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)
Vulnerable Subjects - Research Involving Workers/Employees (ID: 483)	17-Apr-2018	4/4 (100%)
Hot Topics (ID: 487)	15-Jan-2018	No Quiz
Conflicts of Interest in Human Subjects Research (ID: 17464)	17-Apr-2018	5/5 (100%)

For this Report to be valid, the learner identified above must have had a valid affiliation with the CITI Program subscribing institution identified above or have been a paid Independent Learner.

Verify at: www.citiprogram.org/verify/?k0e4d68b4-ecfe-495b-af05-f3e32c584122-25793780

Collaborative Institutional Training Initiative (CITI Program)

Email: support@citiprogram.org

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Web: <https://www.citiprogram.org>

Appendix VIII: Institutional Review Board Approval from the University of the Incarnate Word



February 5 2018

To: Mr ADELIN RIVAL

From: University of the Incarnate Word Institutional Review Board, FWA00009201

ADELIN:

Your request to conduct the study titled Leadership for Promoting Sustainable Development: A Profile Analysis of Nongovernmental Organization Leaders in Haiti was approved by Exempt review on 02/05/2018. Your IRB approval number is 18-02-001. You have approval to conduct this study through 02/05/2019 at which time you will need to submit an **IRB Study Status Update**.

Please keep in mind the following responsibilities of the Principal Investigator:

1. Conducting the study only according to the protocol approved by the IRB.
2. Submitting any changes to the protocol and/or consent documents to the IRB for review and approval prior to the implementation of the changes. Use the **IRB Amendment Request** form.
3. Ensuring that only persons formally approved by the IRB enroll subjects.
4. Reporting immediately to the IRB any severe adverse reaction or serious problem, whether anticipated or unanticipated.
5. Reporting immediately to the IRB the death of a subject, regardless of the cause.
6. Reporting promptly to the IRB any significant findings that become known in the course of the research that might affect the willingness of the subjects to participate in the study or, once enrolled, to continue to take part.
7. Timely submission of an annual status report. Use the **IRB Study Status Update** form.
8. Completion and maintenance of an active (non-expired) CITI human subjects training certificate.
9. Timely notification of a project's completion. Use the **IRB Closure** form.

Approval may be suspended or terminated if there is evidence of a) noncompliance with federal regulations or university policy or b) any aberration from the current, approved protocol.

If you need any assistance, please contact the UTW IRB representative for your college/school or the Office of Research Development.

Sincerely,

Ana Hagendorf, PhD, CPRA

Ana Hagendorf, PhD, CPRA
 Research Officer, Office of Research Development
 University of the Incarnate Word
 (210) 805-3036
 wandless@uiwtx.edu

Appendix IX: Institutional Review Board Approval from the University of the Incarnate Word— IRB Study Status Update



January 22, 2019

PI: Mr ADELIN RIVAL

Protocol title: Leadership for Promoting Sustainable Development: A Profile Analysis of Nongovernmental Organization Leaders in Haiti

ADELIN:

Your request for revisions to Exempt protocol 18-02-001 was approved. The following revisions to your protocol have been approved:

Please keep in mind these additional IRB requirements:

- Either a study status update (for exempt studies) or a request for continuing review (for expedited and full Board studies) must be completed for projects extending past one year, and closure of completed studies must be reported. Use either the **IRB Study Status Update**, **IRB Continuing Review Request** or **IRB Closure** form.
- Changes in protocol procedures must be approved by the IRB prior to implementation except when necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Use the **IRB Amendment Request** form.
- Any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects or others must be reported immediately.

Approved protocols are filed by their number. Please refer to this number when communicating about this protocol.

Approval may be suspended or terminated if there is evidence of a) noncompliance with federal regulations or university policy or b) any aberration from the current, approved protocol. Congratulations and best wishes for successful completion of your research. If you need any assistance, please contact the UIW IRB representative for your college/school or the Office of Research and Sponsored Projects Operations.

Sincerely,

Mary Jo Bilicek
Research Compliance Coordinator
University of the Incarnate Word
(210) 805-3565
bilicek@uiwtx.edu

Appendix X: Institutional Review Board Approval from the Comité National de Bioéthique du
Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population d’Haïti—évaluation initiale



16 mars 2018

Evaluation initiale

Adelin Rival

Réf: 1718-26

Le leadership pour la promotion du développement durable : une analyse du profil des leaders des organisations non gouvernementales en Haïti, version de mars 2018

Monsieur Rival,

Le Comité National de Bioéthique a revu le dossier soumis et donne un avis favorable pour sa conduite du 16 mars 2018 au 15 mars 2019.

Le Comité vous saurait gré de lui soumettre avant le début de la collecte la version créole de la forme de consentement et du questionnaire car dans certains cas le créole sera utilisé pour avec des leaders d’ONG.

Le Comité vous rappelle qu’il vous faut soumettre pour approbation avant implémentation une copie de toute modification apportée au protocole, une copie des différents rapports, publications et présentations qui seront élaborés à partir de cette évaluation.

Le Comité souhaite que les résultats de cette étude soient présentés en Haïti.

Le Comité vous souhaite du succès dans la conduite de cette étude.

Gerald Lerebours,
Président

Comité National de Bioéthique
c/o Association Médicale Haïtienne (AMH)
29, 1^{er} avenue du Travail, Port-au-Prince

Appendix XI: Institutional Review Board Approval from the Comité National de Bioéthique du
Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population d’Haïti—évaluation initiale finale



REPUBLIQUE D'HAÏTI
**MINISTÈRE DE LA SANTÉ PUBLIQUE
ET DE LA POPULATION**
Comité National de Bioéthique

9 avril 2018

Evaluation initiale finale

Adelin Rival

Réf: 1718-26 rev

Le leadership pour la promotion du développement durable : une analyse du profil des leaders des organisations non gouvernementales en Haïti, version de mars 2018

Monsieur Rival,

Le Comité National de Bioéthique a revu le dossier soumis et donne un avis favorable pour sa conduite du 16 mars 2018 au 15 mars 2019.

Le Comité vous rappelle qu'il vous faut soumettre pour approbation avant implémentation une copie de toute modification apportée au protocole, une copie des différents rapports, publications et présentations qui seront élaborés à partir de cette évaluation.

Le Comité souhaite que les résultats de cette étude soient présentés en Haïti.

Le Comité vous souhaite du succès dans la conduite de cette étude.

Gerald Lerebours,
Président

Comité National de Bioéthique
c/o Association Médicale Haïtienne (AMH)
29, 1^{er} avenue du Travail, Port-au-Prince

Appendix XII: Institutional Review Board Approval from the Comité National de Bioéthique du
Ministère de la Santé Publique et de la Population d'Haiti—révision annuelle



**MINISTRE DE LA SANTE PUBLIQUE
ET DE LA POPULATION**
Comité National de Bioéthique

11 mars 2019

Révision Annuelle

Adelin Rival

Réf: 1819- 20 : ***Le leadership pour la promotion du développement durable : une analyse du profil des leaders des organisations non-gouvernementale en Haïti, version de mars 2018***

Monsieur,

Le Comité National de Bioéthique a revu le dossier soumis et donne un avis favorable pour sa poursuite du 16 mars 2019 au 15 mars 2020.

Le Comité vous rappelle qu'il vous faut

- Soumettre votre demande un mois avant la date d'expiration de l'avis,
- soumettre pour approbation avant implémentation une copie de toute modification apportée au protocole,
- soumettre une copie des différents rapports, publications et présentations qui seront élaborés à partir de cette évaluation.

Le Comité vous souhaite du succès dans la poursuite de cette étude.



Gerald Lerebours
Président

Comité National de Bioéthique
c/o Association Médicale Haïtienne (AMH)
29, 1^e avenue du Travail, Port-au-Prince