


2017

Transformative Leadership and Its Development in Public Service Reform in Kenya

Gerald Paul Regier
Walden University

Follow this and additional works at: <http://scholarworks.waldenu.edu/dissertations>

 Part of the [African Languages and Societies Commons](#), [African Studies Commons](#), [Public Administration Commons](#), and the [Public Policy Commons](#)

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies Collection at ScholarWorks. It has been accepted for inclusion in Walden Dissertations and Doctoral Studies by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks. For more information, please contact ScholarWorks@waldenu.edu.

Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Gerald Regier

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee

Dr. George Larkin, Committee Chairperson,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Ron Hirschbein, Committee Member,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Dr. Anthony Leisner, University Reviewer,
Public Policy and Administration Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2017

Abstract

Transformative Leadership and Its Development in Public Service Reform in Kenya

by

Gerald (Jerry) Paul Regier

MA, Harvard University, 1989

BA, Michigan State University, 1968

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Public Administration

Walden University

February 2017

Abstract

Leadership on the African continent has been a focus of scholars as African nations have incredible human and natural resources but seem to be bereft of the leaders necessary to capitalize on its opportunities. Researchers acknowledge that the barrier to progress in the developing world is not the deficiency of money or natural resources, but suggested it to be the lack of leadership. Researchers have demonstrated reasons for this deficiency including the effects of the colonial system upon people and civil service systems, but have yet been able to establish a promising path to economic and social progress. Leaders in Kenya provided promising solutions in the national strategic plan, *Kenya Vision 2030*, to move it to a first world economy within 25 years. One of the foundations of the plan was public service reform with a flagship project to establish the Kenya School of Government to develop transformative leadership training and fill the leadership gap. The purpose of this study was to investigate, understand, and describe the process and progress of this strategic goal of Kenya's public service reform. The transformational leadership theory approach of Burns (1978) was used as the locus point for the study. Using a qualitative case study method, interview data were gathered from persons in Kenya who were integrally involved in the design and development of this strategic goal. The result of the analysis was that development of training for transformative leadership was an intentional goal which was seen as critical for national success. I described how the strategy was begun and implemented. Kenya and other developing countries may benefit from the results of this study as it provides a possible roadmap of leadership training for national progress.

Transformative Leadership and Its Development in Public Service Reform in Kenya

by

Gerald (Jerry) Paul Regier

MA, Harvard University, 1989

BA, Michigan State University, 1968

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Public Policy and Public Administration

Walden University

February 2017

Dedication

This is dedicated to my wife, Sharyn, who allowed me to dream, and then encouraged me to make this dream a reality even at this stage in our lives. You have been my inspiration and wonderful life partner for the past 48 years. I also dedicate this to my four children and their spouses and our 12 grandchildren who put up with dad/grandpa always studying during this 6-year journey. Thank you to each of you. And last I dedicate this to my mother and dad, Walter & Ruby Regier. You instilled in me the foundation of values and character that have guided me all of my life. Thank you for lives you modeled for me and for my two brothers. You would be proud of this milestone and I wish you were here to share my joy.

Acknowledgments

I want to acknowledge the chair of my committee, my mentor and friend, Dr. Richard (Dick) Larkin, and my committee member, Dr. Ronald Hirschbein. I could not have finished this journey without your guidance, leadership, advice, and encouragement along the way of this 5-year journey. Thank you.

And finally to all my friends in Kenya, especially my life-long friend Sam Owen who has lived in Kenya over 40 years and who has cheered me on, and opened many doors of opportunity along the way. I value deeply our friendship.

Table of Contents

List of Tables	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Introduction.....	1
Background.....	5
Kenya Vision 2030	7
Gaps and Deficiencies in Prior Research.....	9
Importance of Present Study.....	10
Problem Statement.....	10
Purpose of the Study.....	13
Research Question	14
Conceptual Framework.....	14
The Concept and Its Source	15
The Conceptual Framework.....	15
The Contextual Lens.....	16
Logical Connections	17
Nature of the Study.....	17
Rationale for Design of the Study.....	17
Methodology.....	19
Definitions.....	20
Assumptions.....	22
Scope and Delimitations	23

Limitations	23
Significance.....	24
Summary.....	24
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	25
Introduction.....	25
Literature Establishing the Relevance of the Problem.....	26
Preview of the Chapter.....	27
Literature Search Strategy.....	27
List of Research Sources.....	27
List of Key Search Terms	28
Description of Iterative Search Process	28
Theoretical Foundation	29
Theories.....	30
Description of Major Theoretical Propositions.....	30
Literature Based Analysis of Previous Theoretical Application.....	42
Relationship of Theory to Present Study	44
Conceptual Framework.....	45
The Concept.....	45
Synthesis of Literature Related to the Concept.....	46
Key Definitions and Benefits of the Framework	55
Literature Review Related to Key Concepts.....	55
Description of Related Studies.....	55

Description of Previous Approaches to the Problem.....	57
Justification From Literature for Selection of Concept	58
Review and Synthesis of Related Studies of Concept	59
Review and Synthesis of Related Studies to Research Question.....	61
Summary and Conclusions	61
Major Themes in the Literature Summarized	62
Known and Unknown in the Discipline Related to the Topic of Study.....	62
Gaps in Literature Filled by This Study.....	63
Chapter 3: Research Method.....	64
Introduction.....	64
Research Design and Rationale	64
Central Concepts.....	65
Research Tradition and Approach	66
Rationale	66
Role of the Researcher	67
Personal and Professional Relationships	68
Researcher Bias.....	68
Ethical Issues	69
Methodology.....	69
Participant Selection Logic.....	69
Instrumentation	71
Data Collection Procedures.....	71

Data Analysis	73
Issues of Trustworthiness.....	74
Credibility	75
Transferability.....	76
Dependability	77
Confirmability.....	77
Ethical Procedures	78
Summary	78
Chapter 4: Results.....	80
Introduction.....	80
The Setting	82
Demographics	82
Data Collection	82
Data Analysis	84
Evidence of Trustworthiness.....	89
Research Results	89
Process of the Development of Transformational Leadership.....	90
Progress of the Development of Transformational Leadership	99
Summary	105
Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations.....	106
Introduction.....	106
Interpretation of the Findings.....	106

Extension of Knowledge.....	107
Analysis.....	108
The Inclusion of Transformative Leadership in <i>Kenya Vision 2030</i> was the Result of Seeing It Modeled by Kenya Leadership and in Other Countries That NESC Members Visited.....	110
The <i>Kenya Vision 2030</i> Call for Training and Development of Transformative Leadership Was Intentional and Purposeful.....	110
The Transformative Leadership Concept Had a Major Impact on the Leadership and Implementation of <i>Kenya Vision 2030</i>	111
The KSG was Established and is Implementing the Transformative Leadership Agenda	112
The Transformative Leadership Training Curriculum is Developed and Operational.....	112
Limitations of the Study.....	113
Recommendations.....	113
Implications.....	114
Conclusion	115
References.....	118
Appendix A: Case Study Protocol Questions.....	135
Appendix B: Characteristics of a Transformed Leader Curriculum.....	136

List of Tables

Table 1. Analysis of Interview Thoughts to Topics..... 86

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

The African continent is at a crossroads. It has incredible resources both human and natural, but it seems to be bereft of leadership to capitalize on its opportunities (Costantinos, 2012, 2016; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix, Ahmad, & Arshad, 2016; Wamwere, 2012;). On the one hand, it is striding forward, while on the other hand, it is stuck in the past. Young and old alike have lost faith in the government and see no path forward to a better life for themselves. There is an almost universal normative view of the government as being corrupt and without transformative leaders, which in turn fosters cynicism and hopelessness in its citizens (Ayittey, 2011; Chazan, 1994). The political culture and action reinforces this view (Diamond, 1994a). This postindependence malady of muddled progress, cynicism, and hopelessness continues unabated, and in this study, I investigated one country's attempt to address this malady and lack of progress through its national strategic plan—*Kenya Vision 2030*. Some scholars have placed the blame for the continued lack of progress in Africa on a perpetuation of segments of traditional African culture and mindset that are rooted deeply in the African psyche. Chatteris (2002) wrote about the continuance in Africa of this traditional mindset of *Africanism*. Africanism searches for the African way of doing things, and in many cases consciously questions and opposes Western ideas and proposals not out of substantive reason but simply because it is coming from the West (Adejumobi, 2013; Chatteris, 2002). This Africanism mindset has been fostered by the experience of colonialism whereby the African people were subjugated and looked upon as intellectual inferiors so that ability to act and think

for oneself was affected (Chatteris, 2002). It is a mindset that accepts autocratic leaders as worthy to lead since they have demonstrated the power of the traditional chieftain, and therefore can, and even should lead as long as they have the power to continue doing so (Chatteris, 2002). This mindset has led to self-degradation and a fatalistic view that when conquered it is because of not being worthy, a mindset that is deadly for democratic governance (Chatteris, 2002). Kuada agreed and stated that “some aspects of African culture may constrain effective leadership” (as cited in Fourie, van der Merwe, & van der Merwe, 2015, p. 18).

Not all scholars agree, however. Ayittey (2010) agreed that colonialism has altered the thinking of Africa’s leaders, but he argued that the traditional African mindset historically held leaders accountable for despotic actions but was never brought forward into postindependence governments. In contrast, Simiyu (1988) stated that traditional African society did not contain democratic principles but in fact was hierarchical and centralized. This debate is amplified in Chapter 2.

The following provides two examples of the aforementioned cynicism and hopelessness engendered by present day self-serving leaders and is typical of what is taking place in African countries today. Several years ago, I was in the bush country of northern Nigeria on a consulting assignment. It was an extremely hot day of over 100 degrees. I was in a village that had a busy highway running through it and sat on the stoop of the store with a young African man beside the highway. He was friendly, and we were having a good conversation. As I looked up, I curiously asked about large electrical power lines over the village that were visible from our perch on the steps, and whether

they supplied electricity to the village. So I asked him about the power lines. He immediately frowned and in a scoffing matter-of-fact tone said that those lines carried power from a large reservoir not too far away and carried it out of the country, but none of the electricity was supplied to his village that it went over. He said it had been this way for many years and was not likely to change anytime soon (personal conversation, October 12, 2009).

I was taken aback by his fatalistic view and asked him whether he was optimistic about power lines being changed in the future to come to his village. He replied there was absolutely no hope for change in his village or in his country because government officials were corrupt, and in his view that fact would never change (personal conversation, October 12, 2009). Even in a small rural village over 300 miles from a major city, this young businessman was aware of and talking about the corruption of public officials in Nigeria. He spoke about corruption in the country in such a matter of fact manner as if to assume this is the norm for governments around the world. He knew nothing different.

On another occasion, I was on consulting assignment in Nairobi with the Kenyan government on its reform agenda *Kenya Vision 2030*, a strategic plan for the country (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). During this trip, I had a conversation with a young woman who was a college graduate. She was working as an administrative assistant in a small firm with ties to the United States, so she was regularly exposed to a broader worldview. I asked her what she thought about *Kenya Vision 2030*, as its intention was to make life better for persons like her. She immediately said it was a

“piece of s---“ (personal conversation, January 18, 2013). I was surprised at her immediate and disdainful response and asked her why she felt that way. She answered that in her opinion, it was typical Kenyan politics because all politicians talk about problems and what they will do about it, but they never actually end up doing anything. She added that she felt Kenyan politicians are in public service only for themselves and for the money (personal conversation, January 18, 2013). Again, the immediate response of this young Kenyan professional was to assume corruption of government officials and to project no hope for the future. This helps to show that citizen involvement and trust in a democracy and its leaders is low and underdeveloped as the political culture hardens (Diamond, 1994b), and in actions of many leaders of African countries there is evidence of a hardened political culture corruptness (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Ayittey, 2010).

Kenya has taken steps to counteract this through a national strategic plan that includes major constitutional reform, a devolution of federal functions to 47 newly created counties where governors now lead a county government system similar to the federal and state system in the United States, and the development of transformative leaders within the civil service. This latter issue was the topic of this study—transformative leadership development as part of civil service reform in Kenya during the bounded time of 2007 to 2013. The story is told as to how the term *transformative leadership* came to be part of Kenya’s civil service reform approach. This study then documents and describes Kenya’s progress of implementing transformative leadership, a leadership style that has shown promise in fostering higher performing civil service leaders in the public sector (Felix et al., 2016; Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, &

Peterson, 2008), increased goal clarity (Caillier, 2016), improved job satisfaction (Kellis & Ran, 2012) as well as programmatic economic and social progress (Dartey-Baah, 2014).

In this chapter, I present the background of the problem as being a distinct new colonialism practiced in Kenya that is modeled after the old colonialism of the British. This systemic problem shows that in the 53 years since independence, little progress has been accomplished in relation to public service structure and leadership, and that Kenya has developed a reform approach to counteract this. I also propose that leadership has been a critical part of the problem and can be a critical part of a solution.

Background

Postcolonial Africa did not see the emergence of democracy and its requisite need for transformative leaders during the immediate years after the transition from colonial governments to independent nation status between 1960 and 1980. Scholars have illuminated this lack of institutional leadership function in Africa and have stated that postcolonial Africa was really a nation-building approach that called for “one people, one nation, one political party, and one supreme leader” (Shivji, 2009, p. 13). This resulted in a movement from one form of colonialism to another form—that form being an authoritarian state modeled on the old model of one leader and the suppression of the masses (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Ayittey, 2010, 2011; Chazan, 1994; Chazan, Lewis, Mortimer, Rothchild, & Stedman, 1999; Chweya, 2003; Costantinos, 2012; Shivji, 2009). With this postcolonial African brand of new colonialism, the countries of Africa have become mired in mediocrity and authoritarianism leading to decline, not progress, in

democratic governance since gaining independence (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012), and Kenya is a prime example as it was ranked 18 out of 20 African nations in a recent quality of democracy study (Logan & Mattes, 2010) and was listed in 2010 as a “failed state” (Ayittey, 2011, p. 22).

Costantinos (2012) offered the same perspective of past performance of African leaders since independence. He stated that postcolonial leadership was rife with corruption and lived to depose the opposition, and to gain personal fortune through suppressing the people (Costantinos, 2012). This led to loss of life, and to loss of respect for the law, the government, and anyone in authority (Costantinos, 2012). This type of leadership has brought general state decay and disorder (Ayittey, 2011; Bratton & Chang, 2006; Mueller, 2011, 2014; Otenyo, 1998), lack of sustainable development (Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016; Obong’o, 2013), and has been inseparably linked with public service personnel in levels of corruption and violation of civil liberties (Ayittey, 2011; Chweya, 2003; Macharia, 2007).

These perspectives mirror the opinions of the majority of citizens on the African continent. Reform does not get implemented because it cannot get implemented. Progress does not go forward because it cannot go forward. This is not because of a lack of knowledge or intellectual capacity (Ayittey, 2011) or even historical culture (Ayittey, 2010), as evidenced by giant intellectual and government leaders in Africa like Bishop Tutu, Kofi Anan, and Nelson Mandela. Mandela is a particular example of reform and progress in a nation when a leader comes to the fore who is pure and selfless refusing to give in to revenge. Rather, a significant amount of this restriction in national progress

seems to be due to a cultural mindset in leadership that inhibits a true public service mindset within a democracy—seeing the citizen as the ultimate “boss” and therefore serving that citizen—and thus progress (Ayittey, 2011; Bratton & van de Walle, 1997).

African countries since independence have experienced persistent cultural impediments while other countries with similar challenges have overcome them. Every country and people exhibit a cultural mindset borne out of a unique experience that may include poverty and even subjugation. This is not unusual or even rare. However, other nations in similar situations have taken steps to move from abject poverty to first world status in that same 50-year time period while Africa as a continent and Kenya in particular remain stalled in poverty and despair. Singapore is a notable example of overcoming its cultural impediments to become economically successful (Rotberg, 2012).

Van de Walle (2007) investigated the lack of progress in the economies of African countries, and his conclusion was that it was not outside forces that constrained progress but instead was inside political and social forces (Van de Walle, 2003, 2007). Other scholars agreed and framed this lack of progress as leadership related (Ayittey, 2010, 2011; Chazan, 1994; Costantinos, 2016; Felix, Ahmad, & Arshad, 2015; Felix et al., 2016; Mueller, 2014; Wamwere, 2012;). Nyong’o (2012) postulated that principles found in the new Kenya constitution of 2013 will be the catalyst to change this mindset.

Kenya Vision 2030

Seeing the example of Singapore in virtually eliminating corruption (Rotberg, 2012) and creating a first world economy and nation (Adejumobi, 2013; Rotberg, 2012), prompted Kenya to develop a national strategic plan with specific steps of reform. The

plan was conceived by a small group of senior advisors in the Kibaki administration, and the National Economic & Social Council (NESC) was tasked with its development. NESC was composed of international and national social and economic experts, ordinary Kenyan citizens, and other key stakeholders within the country. Thus, NESC, between October 2006 and May 2007, initiated and developed *Kenya Vision 2030*, a comprehensive national reform plan with 5-year intervals of review and adjustment, the first being for 2008 to 2012 (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). After the development of the document, it was shared in public meetings throughout Kenya during the 2 months of July and August 2007, and then finalized. The stated aim of the document is “to create a globally competitive and prosperous country with a high quality of life by 2030” (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007, p. vii).

Kenya Vision 2030 has three pillars with 10 foundations. The pillars are economic, social, and political governance. The foundations are enumerated as follows:

1. Macroeconomic stability for long-term development,
2. Continuity in government reforms,
3. Enhanced equity and wealth creation opportunities for the poor,
4. Infrastructure,
5. Energy,
6. Science, technology, and innovation,
7. Land reform,
8. Human resource development,
9. Security, and

10. Public service.

The 10th foundation is public service, and it contains a flagship project of establishing a Kenya School of Government (KSG) for the express stated purpose “to provide research and training for transformative leadership to the highest international standards” (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007, p. ix). The continuation of the reform effort was officially adopted into law through enactment of *Sessional Paper No. 10 of 2012 on Kenya Vision 2030* (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2013a). A second 5-year medium term of plan for 2013 to 2017 was implemented in 2013 (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2013c).

Gaps and Deficiencies in Prior Research

No researcher has investigated *Kenya Vision 2030* relative to its goal of training transformative leadership for the public service. Thus, little is known about the process or progress of the development of transformative leadership for the public service in Kenya during the first 5-year medium-term rolling plan. Previous civil service reform efforts have focused on structural issues and activities of leadership rather than on leadership itself (Felix et al., 2016). Other civil service reform efforts have focused on past deficiency of leadership and institutions, but do not present evidence as to whether instituting a new paradigm of leadership could be part of a solution. This has started to change as researchers have begun to explore the role of transformative leadership in the public sector in other nations (Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016).

Thus, there is a gap in the literature as to what led to making transformative leadership training a key aspect of the public service reform plan articulated in *Kenya*

Vision 2030, and subsequently what progress has been made in the development of a transformative leadership curriculum and training program as part of the planned civil service reform in Kenya from 2007 to 2013.

Importance of Present Study

This study is important because I consider the time period in Kenya during which constitutional reform was enacted as an accomplishment of a major goal of *Kenya Vision 2030*. The new constitution was drafted in 2009, passed by the National Assembly on April 1, 2010, approved by national referendum on August 4, 2010, and signed into law by President Kibaki on August 27, 2010. This constitutional reform was implemented in 2013 and included a devolution of federal functions to the newly created 47 counties where governors lead a second tier of government in a devolved system. It also spelled out the values and leadership framework for public service reform.

This case study was of *Kenya Vision 2030* during the bounded time of 2007 to 2013 and provided the process and progress of its transformative leadership aspects. It included how it came into being and how it has progressed, thus contributing to future development in a devolved system. This case study discovered important reform principles for other African nations that are seeing the need to reform public service systems and can serve as roadmap for progress.

Problem Statement

The problem in Africa and in Kenya is lack of leaders. Governance in Kenya has continued to exhibit the character of its historical colonial system rooted in self-interest. This legacy inhibits the nation from economic and social progress due to the lack of

leaders who demonstrate statesmanship (Costantinos, 2016). Ayittey (2010) stated this in the strongest terms: “To many Africans, independence was in name only. One set of masters (white colonialists) was replaced by another set (black neocolonialists), with the oppression and exploitation of the African people continuing unabated” (p. 1203). This new set of masters either lived under or were influenced by a colonial system before independence more than 50 years ago (Kanyinga & Long, 2012), leading to the replication of the old system (Ayittey, 2010; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003) and governing in like manner of greed (Ayittey, 2010; Chatteris, 2002; Costantinos, 2012, 2016). This continued dilemma of destructive governance cannot be rectified without leaders who act ethically and take decisive action for the good of the nation, as contrasted with leaders who continue to bask in the ongoing glorifying of position alone (Cetin, 2012).

A consensus has emerged in the research that a new approach is needed. For governance to flourish and be considered *good governance*, it is of absolute necessity that leadership be visionary and transformative (Cetin, 2012). Dartey-Baah (2014) suggested that the antidote is development of effective transformative leadership if sustainable development is ever to be achieved. Petithomme (2010) provided evidence that economic growth alone will not reduce underdevelopment and poverty in sub-Saharan Africa, but it must be linked with new leadership strategies to successfully reduce poverty and improve development, a theory shared by Hope (2012). Training in ethics and ethical behavior has been suggested as essential for not only Africa’s leadership gap, but also for its economic rejuvenation (Costantinos, 2016; Otenyo, 1998).

Furthermore, a stable and ethical civil service has been shown to be indispensable to the implementation of good governance (Ayittey, 2011; Felix et al., 2015), and a positive legacy of the colonial system was a strong civil service institution (Boahen, 1987). But the ongoing scarcity of skilled public service workers (Costantinos, 2012, 2016) led to a full blown decline by the late 1970s (Hope, 2012). Thus, a public service system that was initially effective soon fell victim to patrimonialism that required obedience to the ruler rather than the rules (Erdmann & Engel, 2006). This new colonialism or patrimonial-administrative approach (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003; Erdmann & Engel, 2006) has little regard for public service processes in public administration because it allows leaders to function without accountability (Ayittey, 2010; Taylor, 1992) through a system of tribal and ethnic patronage including monetary reward to consolidate and maintain power (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Chweya, 2003; Cruz & Keefer, 2015; Erdmann & Engel, 2006; Macharia, 2007; Mwenda & Tangiri, 2005) for personal gain as opposed to societal gain (Kofele-Kale, 1978 as cited in Fourie et al., 2015).

This personal gain mindset of government officials has led to a continued scourge of corruption (Kiai, 2008; Mwangi, 2008; Obong'o, 2013; Taylor, 1992) through unreasonable salaries of cabinet ministers and members of parliament (Kiai, 2008), the diversion of resources needed for economic and social development (Obong'o, 2013), and the lack of integrity in public service (Nasong'o, 2007). This model of governance and government leadership has been ineffective and in disrepute for the 6 decades of independence (Chweya, 2003; Nyong'o, 2012; Pyper & Burnham, 2011).

Scholars have suggested transformative leadership as a path out of this conundrum and into government effectiveness, and have shown it as a path to improved worker motivation and sustained high performance (Felix et al., 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011), institutional goal clarity (Caillier, 2016), overall improved outcomes (Kellis & Ran, 2012, 2013), economic and social progress (Dartey-Baah, 2014), and facilitation of a learning organization culture whereby performance is improved through shared vision and goals (Caillier, 2016; Moynihan, Pandey, & Wright, 2012, 2014).

Kenya Vision 2030 was the strategic plan that called for transformative leadership training as a key aspect of public service reform in Kenya. However, no researcher has researched the genesis of this approach or the process of its development in Kenya. My research fills this gap in the literature.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate, understand, and describe the process and progress of the Kenya strategy to develop transformative leadership training for public service reform as presented in the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan. Public service reform was one of the 10 foundations articulated in the plan to anchor its economic, social, and political pillars (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007), and in this study, I described how the strategy for transformational leadership development in the public service was begun and implemented.

In the study, I focused on discovery of the central concept (Creswell, 2013) through an interactive process (Maxwell, 2013). This central concept was the *Kenya*

Vision 2030 call for development of transformative leadership training for the public service system as a key to reform and progress. Researchers have shown that transformative leadership impacts long term worker motivation and sustained high performance in the public sector (Felix et al., 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011) as well as programmatic economic and social progress of nations (Dartey-Baah, 2014). I have sought to describe how this has borne true in Kenya and focused my study on the first 5-year medium term plan between 2007 and 2013. It was not my goal to survey public service leaders to determine whether they had become transformative leaders. Rather it was my goal to investigate and describe the process and progress of the training path to develop transformative leaders as set forth in *Kenya Vision 2030*.

Research Question

The research question for this study is as follows: What was the process and the progress of the development of transformative leadership as a part of public service reform in the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan?

Conceptual Framework

Maxwell (2013) advocated constructing a conceptual framework through the use of four sources of information: the researchers' own knowledge and experience, existing theory and research, preliminary exploratory research data, and thought experiments. I used all of these sources. It is conceptual but at the same time relies on existing leadership theory following what Maxwell posited, that a qualitative research study can both use theory to frame the study conceptually and develop a theory at the same time.

The Concept and Its Source

This research study was first a conceptualization of thoughts from personal experience as a former public administrator of large public agencies that led to minitheories of leadership, effectiveness of policy approaches, the role of strategic planning, and other approaches to effective public leadership. This knowledge had been gained as a practitioner and implementer of public institution reform efforts (Sharp & Housel, 2004). Through these practical experiences, I formed inklings as to what role leadership, strategic planning, and implementation of those plans can play in reform efforts of a government department or even of a nation.

Further questions were raised concerning why nations in Africa have not moved forward in democratic governance as well as economic and social development when it has nations that are rich in natural and human resources (Chazan et al., 1999; Costantinos, 2016), has a history of democratic governance in its culture according to Ayittey (2010), and has persons who are educated and intellectually capable (Ayittey, 2011; Oyugi, 1988).

The Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework was that leadership development of a new generation of Kenyan leaders in a transformative leadership model is a potential solution to break the cycle of corruption, greed, and overall stagnation of social and economic growth in Kenya. In this framework, I designed a case study approach of investigating, understanding, and describing a concept. The central concept was the development of

transformative leadership training for the civil service system in Kenya. I employed an open ended interview protocol (see Appendix A).

The Contextual Lens

The contextual lens was a specific kind of leadership termed in the literature as *transformational leadership* and its potential effect within a civil service system in a developing country. Researchers have acknowledged that the primary barrier to progress in the developing world is not the deficiency of money or natural resources, but it is suggested to be the lack of leadership (Ayithey, 2011; Caillier, 2016; Costantinos, 2012, 2016; Cruz & Keefer, 2015; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016; Wamwere, 2012). This led to the exploration of the contextual lens of transformative leadership within the public service system as a potential key to reform and progress.

This style of leadership was popularized by Burns (1978) as a concept and theory of leadership operating with a new paradigm related to followers that is more than an exchange of commands and rewards and includes inspirational vision and sense of purpose that is transformative for the followers. It is a leadership model that is ethical, exhibits core values of integrity and service, demonstrates concern for the welfare of the people rather than the enrichment of political elites, emphasizes statesmanship in attitude and purpose, and “stimulates and inspires followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 3). This is developed in Chapter 2. In this research study, I focused on the stated goal of *Kenya Vision 2030* to develop transformative leadership as a key component in building institutional capacity to reform the public service.

Logical Connections

The civil service is an indispensable institution in building a progressive nation (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Bratton & van de Walle, 1997) and as such must have visionary and ethical leadership. Nations make progress or do not make progress for specific reasons. It is not fate that created struggling democracies in African countries. Therefore, the conceptual lens of transformative leadership in the public service—its development, progress, and potential impact—is critical to the development of a path forward for African nations. This lens guided me to uncover evidence on the process and progress of the development of transformative leadership in Kenya from 2007 to 2013.

Nature of the Study

The nature of the study was a qualitative research case study. It was designed around discussion and informal interviews with key public service leadership. Interaction was concentrated around five to seven persons who were selected in a purposeful and criteria-based manner to create the sample (Creswell, 2009; Patton, 2002). Participants were persons who had been involved in the development and implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030* and specifically in its development of transformative leadership. The bounded time (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Rudestam & Newton, 2007) of the study was 2007 to 2013. The interactions and interviews took place on-site in Kenya.

Rationale for Design of the Study

The paradigm was qualitative research as a means to bring detail and richness to the study, and the specific design was the case study approach described by Creswell (2013) as the study of an event, process, problem, or specific issue. The rationale for

choosing a qualitative case study approach was its framework for investigating and understanding a specific process that had been articulated in *Kenya Vision 2030*. The case study approach also aligned with the work that I was involved with in Kenya, specifically consulting with the government during its constitutional reform transition.

This case study was of the national strategic plan, *Kenya Vision 2030* (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007) and its call for the development of transformative leadership training for public service reform through the establishment of a KSG “to provide research and training for transformative leadership to the highest international standards” (p. ix). I sought themes and key aspects of this reform plan that have facilitated or have not facilitated its goal of implementing transformative leadership as a key contributor to public service reform.

With transformative leadership suggested as an effective path for higher level performance and integrity within an organization (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002), the conceptual framework of this study was that the leadership development of a new generation of Kenyan leaders in a transformative leadership model had the potential to break the cycle of corruption and overall stagnation of social and economic growth.

I considered the phenomenological approach, but rejected it as it changed the focus of my research to how public service reform was experienced from the perspectives of the participants (Creswell, 2013; Patton, 2002). This approach did not provide an answer to the research question.

Methodology

The methodology was to select participants from a pool of persons: persons involved in *Kenya Vision 2030* development and implementation, persons in the public service at the federal level, and persons who are principals in the KSG tasked with implementing transformative leadership.

The site was the country of Kenya. I traveled to Kenya to gather data personally. I used purposeful sampling and criterion sampling (Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002;), selecting persons relative to their role in the development and implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030* reform and specifically in the transformative leadership goal, thus providing rich information (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2013). I also allowed for the inclusion of leaders with whom I already had a trusted relationship to overcome cultural inhibition (Maxwell, 2013).

The unit of analysis was the process and progress of the *Kenya Vision 2030* specific goal of developing transformative leadership. Process was measured in a qualitative manner by eliciting steps taken to call for, and implement, the development of transformative leadership. Progress was measured of the overall initiative.

Participants were chosen from the identified pool and were persons directly involved. I developed a list of 10 and chose seven persons. This number was kept small so that I could go in-depth with persons closest to the process. I ensured diverse data and a range of perspective with depth as my primary goal to build confidence and validity (Maxwell, 2013).

Data collection procedures. Interviews with informal discussion was the most appropriate data collection procedure for the study. The interviews were audio recorded when possible, and additional notes were compiled in journal format when recording was not possible. This electronic audio recording and note taking led to thorough transcripts that were organized, analyzed, and interpreted.

Data analysis and interpretation. A case study protocol (Yin, 2013) was used that is analogous to what Creswell (2013) referred to as “lean coding” (p. 184). This provided a framework for the interviews and discussions. The case study protocol is found in Appendix A. A review of documents, interview notes, and recordings was conducted. Themes and patterns were identified and refined in order to develop the meaning and interpretation of the data (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Definitions

Terms used in this study are common, but in order to lessen misunderstanding, they are listed with the intended meaning.

Africanism: A traditional mindset or worldview that comes from history and experience of colonialism whereby Africans were treated as intellectual inferiors and repeatedly subjugated so that thinking for oneself and the ability to act for oneself was affected (Chatteris, 2002).

Africanization: The process of African persons taking over leadership of their own society and specifically of the civil service at Kenyan Independence in 1963; thus, the civil service in Kenya was Africanized or Kenyanized as non-Africans were dismissed and Kenyans were hired.

Kenya Vision 2030: This is the document prepared by leaders of the Government of the Republic of Kenya (2007) as a strategic plan for Kenya for the 5 years of 2008 to 2012. It was formulated in 2007 by the NESC, so that year and 2013 are included within the bounded time of this study. It is a distinct book and strategic plan that can be read, dissected, and analyzed as to its efficacy and its result.

Pan-africanism: “A liberation consciousness which hinges on social mobilization and the organic unity and solidarity of the black race” (Adejumobi, 2013, p. 176).

Patrimonial: Political leadership where individuals place themselves above the law and rule from a position of power and prestige rather than from a rational-legal position (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Erdmann & Engel, 2006). This can also be seen as an extension of the African culture chieftain taking care of the tribe.

Neopatrimonial: Patrimonial rule within the framework of rational-legal institutions but where in reality these institutions are largely ignored (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Erdmann & Engel, 2006).

Public service: The public administration by public or civil servants of the business of government. These persons are sometimes referred to as bureaucrats who are not elected nor are they considered political, but who are critical to governing. The term can be used interchangeably with *civil service* and in this paper, I do so, although *public service* is the term used in the *Kenya Vision 2030* document on which this case study is focused (i.e., public service system, Public Service Commission, etc.). The literature refers to both terms liberally as in civil service reform or public service reform. Some high level politically appointed leaders like cabinet ministers or cabinet secretaries would

be considered in public service generally, but due to political ties are usually considered separately when speaking about the public service or the civil service system.

Transformative leadership: Transformative leadership is used in this paper interchangeable with transformational leadership. It is defined as leadership that is “other,” focused both in its aim as well as in its purpose. It is the transformative leaders’ desire to make those around them perform beyond the capacity of the leader, and it is their goal to facilitate that process and result (Geier, 2016).

Tribalism: The phenomenon that describes the cultural history and loyalty of different people groups in Kenya. This segmentation has great implication and impact on the government of Kenya and specifically on the public service system

Assumptions

It was assumed that the public service as an institution can be beneficial to a country in development. Although there was some research to lead to this assumption, it cannot absolutely be demonstrated to be true, primarily because it cannot be isolated as a variable. This assumption was necessary because I focused upon transformative leadership within the *Kenya Vision 2030* public service reform agenda, and this agenda intimates that its development was a necessary ingredient for successful nation building within Kenya. It was also assumed that increased transparency, accountability, and service to citizens would be a result in the public service system from the development of transformative leadership, as those characteristics are core to its definition in the literature.

Scope and Delimitations

The specific aspect of the research problem addressed in the study was to isolate the development of transformative leadership in the public service reform agenda of the *Kenya Vision 2030*. In the study, I delineated the process of its design, implementation, and progress. A case study approach was taken so that a particular event and process in Kenya—*Kenya Vision 2030* and its call for development of transformative leadership training—could be investigated and described critically in-country rather than to theoretically study public service reform in Kenya from a Western theoretical viewpoint.

The boundary of the study was the time period of 2007 to 2013, during which time the *Kenya Vision 2030* first 5-year medium term plan was specifically focused on the development of transformative leadership training for the public service system.

Limitations

One limitation to the study was that the specific curricula data was unavailable. This impacted the ability to report quantifiable results per Appendix B and was due to cultural barriers that were unable to be penetrated, thus inhibiting access to the specific curriculum. Another limitation that was anticipated but did not occur was that key persons would not be available. However, since I had traveled to Kenya numerous times, key players in the government were known to me and were available for interviews.

The potential limitation of personal bias due to my extensive consulting work in Kenya did not materialize as there was a congruence of thoughts and responses among the participants. This was documented to communicate to other researchers how data

were gathered, and to reduce potential threats to quality and validity (Patton, 2002). This is detailed in later chapters.

Significance

This study was significant because Kenya initiated reform on a number of fronts during the bounded period of time—the bold national strategic plan of *Kenya Vision 2030* in 2007, emphasis on transformative leadership development in its rhetoric in 2007, revised constitution approved and adopted in 2010, election of 47 new governors in a devolved federal system in 2013, and the overall goal of professionalization of the public service (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). Thus, this case study of the *Kenya Vision 2030* stated purpose of development of transformative leadership for the public service provided a link between public service reform and strengthened national governance. It also amplified the role of transformative leadership training in civil service reform during Kenya’s renaissance, and provides a roadmap for nation building and social change in other African countries.

Summary

I provided the background of Kenya and how the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan was developed to include transformative leadership as a strategy. I articulated the problem including the background that created the problem. I stated the research question, along with the design and approach taken to answer the questions posed. I addressed the significance of the research and its implications for social change within Kenya as well as throughout the developing world.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

The problem in Africa and in Kenya is lack of leaders. Governance in Kenya, like other African countries, has continued to exhibit the character of neopatrimonialism despite a new constitution in 2010 that initiated the devolution of the federal system into a second tier state system and 47 new governors (Ayittey, 2011). This type of governance, rooted in self-interest, continues to inhibit the nation from economic and social progress due to the lack of leaders who demonstrate statesmanship for the good of all citizens of the nation (Costantinos, 2016). Leadership that is visionary and transformative is an absolute necessity for good governance to flourish (Cetin, 2012), and a stable and ethical civil service is necessary for the implementation of good governance (Ayittey, 2011; Felix et al., 2015). This continued dilemma cannot be rectified without leaders who exhibit morality and implement policies for social and economic change, as contrasted with leaders who only seek the limelight of the position (Cetin, 2012).

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate, understand, and describe the process and progress of the Kenya strategy to develop transformative leadership training for public service reform as presented in the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan. Public service reform was one of the 10 foundations articulated in the plan to anchor its economic, social, and political pillars (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007), and in this study, I described how the strategy for transformational leadership development in the public service was begun and implemented.

Literature Establishing the Relevance of the Problem

Lack of effective civil service leadership has presented an ongoing problem in Africa and has roots in the prior colonial experience and the patronage and corruption it has spawned. Effectiveness in public service is defined as skilled, ethical, inclusive, and focused on results for the betterment of the nation. Pressman and Waldavsky (1984) saw implementation and results within the civil service as a critical component of effectiveness, but this is largely missing in the developing world.

The majority of African leaders have lived under or have been influenced by the colonial imperialistic system practiced upon them before their nations became independent. Despite being bequeathed a strong civil service institution (Boahen, 1987) and democratic promises from reform leaders both at Independence and in subsequent years, leaders have perpetuated an ineffective copy of the colonial model. It is a model that allows those in power to take from the people to meet self-centered goals (Ayittey, 2010, 2011; Chatteris, 2002; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003; Costantinos, 2012; Kanyinga & Long, 2012; Nasong'o, 2007; Shivji, 2009; Taylor, 1992), and to do so without accountability to the rule of law or the people (Dartey-Baah, 2014). In addition, these leaders pay little attention to the serious implementation of government business.

This postindependence mindset adopted characteristics of the prior colonial system, like patronage and tight controls, without adopting and developing the potential positives into an effective public service system (Pyper & Burnham, 2011). This neopatrimonial-administrative approach (Ayittey, 2010; Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Chazan, et.al, 1999; Chweya, 2003; Costantinos, 2016; Erdmann & Engel, 2006; Mueller,

2014) resists reform that may reduce personal power (Cruz & Keefer, 2012) and has been disastrous for Africa (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Adejumobi, 2013; Ayittey, 2011; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Mueller, 2014).

Preview of the Chapter

In this chapter, I discuss my literature search strategy, including resources and terms. I provide theoretical foundations in the literature related to leadership, civil service reform, and governance in a federal system within a developing country. I present literature to support the conceptual framework of transformational leadership chosen to undergird this study, including the rationale for this choice. An exhaustive literature review follows with a conclusion as to how the study fills a gap and extends knowledge in the discipline.

Literature Search Strategy

The literature research initially focused on broad topics of the history of governance in Africa and particularly Kenya, civil service reform in developing countries, and transformational leadership and its history and application to civil service leadership in general and to the developing world in particular. It was this last topic that became the primary focus of the literature search and this study.

List of Research Sources

The Walden University Library and its extensive access to large research databases has been an invaluable resource. Search engines used include ProQuest Central, EBSCOhost, SAGE Premier, and Political Science Complete. Google Scholar was also employed although it primarily produced books rather than articles. Online

access to Kenya government sources has been used along with hard copy documents obtained in the course of consulting in Kenya over the past 6 years.

List of Key Search Terms

Terms used in searches included *civil service* and *transformational* in all fields of the SAGE Journals database. This yielded literature that was directly related to my research question. In EBCOhost and ProQuest Central the term *civil service reform* was searched as well as *public service reform* with limited success. Linking *public service, reform, Africa,* and *transformational leadership* in varying combinations provided the most recent studies related to my research question.

Description of Iterative Search Process

The result of the varying search options yielded books and articles that were pertinent to the purpose of my research. I discovered additional literature by searching the bibliography in these books and articles. This additional material was then searched in the mentioned databases.

The literature review led first to the history of colonial Africa and then to history of African nations after obtaining Independence. Topics of this literature included governance, civil service systems, public service reform efforts, and leadership styles. This led to literature on governance and civil service theory and experience in a variety of different country settings to understand the precursor systems to independent African nations, the immediate postindependence systems, and the more recent modern day systems. In many cases, best practices were identified in both developing and developed countries.

Upon obtaining an understanding of colonial Africa and specifically the Kenyan history of colonialism, independence, and civil service reform efforts, I began to link transformative leadership to public sector leadership. This yielded 21 research studies outside of Kenya that provided insight to the potential of instituting transformational leadership within a civil service public sector system. Hope (2012) provided one study from Kenya with an overview of its reform efforts from 1993 to 2014.

Five studies of the 21 were conducted over 5 years ago. Sixteen studies were within the past 5 years. All of these studies were related to transformational leadership and are discussed later in this chapter.

Theoretical Foundation

The theoretical foundation for this study is based on theories of governance in a developing country federal system, theories of civil service systems and reform, and theories of leadership with a focus on transformational leadership within the public service system. These theories are linked relative to successful nation building, both in the statist institutional sense as well as in sustainable social and economic progress. In *Kenya Vision 2030*, these theories come together.

Kenya Vision 2030 presents the proposition that public service reform is foundational to its long term national economic and social progress, and a key component of that foundational reform is the development of transformative leadership at the KSG for civil service personnel (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). This proposition is reinforced by scholars who agree that the civil service institution is critical to democratic and economic progress within a nation, and its leadership is key to its

functioning (Chazan et al., 1999; Felix et al., 2015). Scholars have also linked transformative leadership and its variations to increased performance in the work place generally (Walumbwa et al., 2008), and more recently in the public sector specifically (Cetin, 2012; Darty-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016; Trottier et al., 2008; Van Wart, 2013).

Theories

Theories of governance, civil service, and leadership are intertwined, especially in the developing world. Kenya is a case in point. Its postindependence autocratic government leaders have co-opted the public service system through neopatrimonialism and patronage to serve themselves (Ayittey, 2011; Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Chweya, 2003; van de Walle, 2003, 2007), but on the other hand, this same autocratic government has called for transformative leadership within the public service system as a key to future economic and social progress (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). This is paradoxical thinking that is common in the developing world where leaders say the right thing but their actions are quite different. However, this can also be an indicator of progress.

Description of Major Theoretical Propositions

Theories implemented in each of the three areas have a ripple effect and thereby seriously affect the others. Thus, governance theory affects how civil service systems operate, and leadership styles affect both how governance operates and how the civil service system operates. They are interdependent as seen in the literature.

Theories of federal governance. The evolution of Kenya from its colonial past to its present state has followed a somewhat predictable path in the negative, meaning if the

opposite of a researched solution is followed, then one will have a predictable outcome of failure. Rostow (1971) provided research on the five stages of economic growth in a society, which also provided insight into the continued African malady of stunted growth.

Rostow (1971) proposed five stages of growth: (a) the traditional hunter-gatherer agrarian society, (b) the transition from the old way toward a new state, (c) the period of growth when a society begins to take off economically, (d) the consolidation of technological progress toward a mature society, and finally, (e) the actions of a society when its needs move beyond simply consumption. A historical analysis reveals that the catalyst for moving into a higher stage of growth is related to technological innovation, leadership, and political decisions (Rostow, 1971).

In order for a society to move to the next stage of growth, its political leaders must make the right political decisions relative to targeting resources to infrastructure and incentives for business and entrepreneurship to create and innovate. This is critical as an economic foundation to nation building.

However, this has not happened in Kenya or in most of Africa because leaders have “wrecked the continent” (Adejumobi, 2013, p. 176) through neopatrimonial rule (Adejumobi, 2013; Ayittey, 2011; Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003; Clapham, 1985; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Eisenstadt, 1973; Mueller, 2014) that serves the elite and disregards the masses and the nation as a whole. Resources have not been targeted for economic improvement but have been diverted through corrupt practices and crimes of omission and commission against citizens (Ayittey, 2010; Mueller, 2014). As a result, Kenya’s democratic and economic progress has been stunted

and stymied by this lack of political leadership and continued civil service patronage-related corruption (Chweya, 2003; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Macharia, 2007). This is also due to leaders not being able to find a solution for one of the key tenets of nation building and democracy—that of assimilation of subcultures into one nation (Dahl, 2015).

This public leadership governance model of neopatrimonialism has been ineffective and in disrepute for most of the almost six decades of independence (Chweya, 2003; Pyper & Burnham, 2011). It has impeded the development progress of countries in Africa in contrast to other countries during the same 50 years since independence (Chweya, 2003; Kanyinga & Long, 2012; Mwenda & Tangiri, 2005; Nasong'o, 2007; Obong'o, 2013; Shivji, 2009; Taylor, 1992). It perpetuates the continuing corruption practiced by leaders (Kiai, 2008; Mwangi, 2008; Obong'o, 2013; Taylor, 1992), including unreasonable salaries of cabinet ministers and members of parliament (Kiai, 2008; Mueller, 2014). It also perpetuates the diversion of resources needed for economic and social development (Obong'o, 2013), the lack of integrity in public service (Nasong'o, 2007), and the absence of competent public service workers to support growing democratic systems (Costantinos, 2012). Kenya typifies these challenges.

Wamwere (2012) agreed that leadership continues to be self-serving in Kenya and contributes to its problems, but he took it a step further by placing the blame on voters who do not look into the implications of the leaders they elect and are not cognizant of the leaders' actual intent because they do not even know their own interests. Gifford (1999) had made the same argument in the late 90s. Wamwere (2012) argued that colonialism has been exchanged for an ethnic system that is not much different, and to

counteract this, voters must ask questions from candidates rather than seek favors. In recent years, one organization instituted scorecards and candidate forums, and this has the potential to inform voters and hold leaders more accountable (personal conversation, M. Mutunga, January, 2013).

When political decisions continue to be made to serve the elite and not the nation, it cannot reach a new stage of growth. Political decisions matter. To counteract this and move forward through the stages of growth, a nation must develop leadership that emerges and is prepared to make the modernization of the economy the first and highest political priority (Rostow, 1971). This priority must be to create state infrastructure and institutions necessary to carry out a serious government effort fostering progress, as it is the ability of those institutions to function and implement policies and programs that will determine the nature of progress (Chazan et al., 1999). Furthermore, Acemoglu and Robinson (2012) provided a documented history of why nations fail to progress, and the barometer was whether a nation has an institutional framework, and whether those institutions are extractive or inclusive (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012). The key institution in both of the previous analyses was the civil service, which was the basis for national stability and progress (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Ayittey, 2011; Chazan et al., 1999; Felix et al., 2015).

Bratton and Chang (2006) agreed with this analysis and stated that most African countries do not have a “viable state” (p. 1059) because they have been unable to create an institutional framework epitomized in a functioning and responsive civil service system. In addition, in many cases a national identity and a consistent rule of law ethos

has been missing. Costantinos (2016) decried weak institutional capacity as a major inhibitor of industrialization, which is a necessary step to transition from a traditional society to the next stage of economic growth (Rostow, 1971).

Political leaders resist reform that will undercut their power base (Cruz & Keefer, 2012). Despite this there have been periodic instances in Kenya when small progress has been made. This was usually due to a crisis, and the violence of the Kenya elections in 2007 provided such a crisis that led to the development and passage of a new constitution in 2010. This major achievement was illuminated by Kanyinga and Long (2012) through data from four separate household surveys administered to citizens nationwide that explored their demand for reforms. The case study concerns a specific item in the reform process of the political and governmental system in the Republic of Kenya, “agenda item 4” (p. 31) that is a package of reforms proposed after post-election violence and focused specifically on constitutional revision (Kanyinga & Long, 2012). The research answers the question of why political elites were now unified to support the new constitution in contrast to self-interest that had undermined past efforts. The primary finding was that grassroots support and pressure, combined with a coalition government rather than a one-party or multi-party system, resulted in significant progress on the reform item (Kanyinga & Long, 2012). Kanyinga and Long focus on factors that fueled reform efforts including: (a) alignment of interests of the political principals, (b) mediation among factions and coalition building, (c) the formation of a coalition government that succeeded in blurring the line between opposition and incumbent leading to collaboration, and (d) an independent body overseeing the development of the revised constitution that kept it from

being undermined by political forces (Kanyinga & Long, 2012). Many of these reform efforts were included in *Kenya Vision 2030* with high expectations. It is beyond the scope of this study to see if those expectations were met.

Governance in Africa and in Kenya has improved from the decades of repressive authoritarian leaders since independence when “authoritarian regimes could neither produce development nor democracy” (Adejumobi, 2013, p. 176) but that progress has been weak and miniscule (Mueller, 2014). This weakness is especially stark when one understands that during this same timeframe an authoritarian regime (though notably benevolent and public service oriented) was successful in development of major advance to first world in Singapore (Adejumobi, 2013). Political decisions by the leader made the difference in Singapore, and decisions and actions of the political leader within a governance system always strongly affect the ability of civil service leaders to implement decisions.

Theories of civil service. The civil service or public service is composed of persons in government who are given authority to administrate and implement policy decisions to serve the people of the state. Theories of civil service were included in this discussion because there is a link between the civil service workers of a country and the values that permeate that civil service. This link was important since the *Kenya Vision 2030* included a strategy to develop transformative leadership training for the public service. Since transformative leadership cannot be discussed without its ethical component, and since civil service in Kenya cannot be discussed without its present patronage and corruption, the link between the two was relevant. Theories of civil service

included Wilson's theory of public administration, Weber's theory of bureaucracy, the British system of civil service, and Rohr's theory of regime values in bureaucracy.

Wilson (1887) advocated that the civil service was the administrative arm of public policy, but was to operate neutrally and at arm's length from the policy. Neutrality and administration were the highest virtues of a well-functioning administrative bureaucracy, and its involvement in policy making in any manner was to be avoided. This view of civil service was the accepted approach for 40 years in the United States and influenced the developing world as well.

Weber (2009) wrote *Economy and Society* in 1922 that developed a theory of organization and bureaucracy based on rational-legal authority. This approach separated different labor tasks into a hierarchical framework and routinized system for the sake of efficiency, precision, and reduction of cost (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Weber, 2009). This compartmentalized system theoretically led to better production by being more accurate and efficient, whether in manufacturing or in government (Weber, 2009). Weber formulated features of structure as well as behavior in a bureaucratic system that had emphasis on merit as an entry point, division of labor, a clear hierarchy of reporting relationships, clear rules of operation, an administrative neutrality relative to politics, and a focus on individuals blending together into impersonality for the corporate goal (Chazan et al., 1999; Weber, 2009).

This approach to civil service operations was adopted by the British, and later it was the system passed along to the post-independent colonial states in Africa (Oyugi, 1988; Simiyu, 1988). It was molded in the Weberian model in that it was orderly, rules

oriented, and hierarchical with no distinction between the roles of implementation and of decision making (Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003).

Its operation in colonial Africa began when the Imperial British East Africa Company was granted a Royal Charter in 1880 to employ persons to build the railroad from Mombasa to Kisumu and on to Uganda (Abrero, 1986). The company gave up its charter in 1895, and the locus for control of the territory was transferred to the colonial office in Kisumu. This office was moved to Nairobi in 1905 marking the informal beginning of the civil service in Kenya (Abrero, 1986). This civil service system was the defacto government in colonial Kenya as it was outposted from the imperial power (Ayittey, 2011; Oyugi, 1988) to be “governments eyes and ears in the countryside” (Mueller, 2014, p. 4). This style of civil service leadership and administration was the first view of organized western government that was experienced by Kenyans.

It is this orderly, but repressive and non-African, system that the British handed over to the new leaders of the independent nation of Kenya in 1963, and new leadership adopted many of the negatives of the old British colonial system without adopting and developing the positives (Pyper & Burnham, 2011). However, the new nation was not prepared to administrate its own bureaucracy because it did not have the skilled and trained human capital (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997). Despite this fact, the civil service apparatus was rapidly Africanized through patronage rather than merit, and this led to its politicization within the first decade of independence (Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003; Cruz & Keefer, 2015).

As in the British colonial world, the theories of Wilson in the late 19th century and Weber early in the 20th century became the classic civil service system throughout the western world. It was a system based on the idea of administrative neutrality with the separation of politics from policy making. However, it was a model that was not neutral in the colonial world as it was the on-site decision making apparatus of a distant central government. This blurring of the lines of neutrality was an example of the type of civil service operations that led to debate among public administration scholars concerning neutrality versus policy making

This growing dichotomy among scholars was capsulized by Rohr (1978) when he proposed that bureaucrats do not simply robotically administrate government, but that “bureaucrats govern” (p. 33) due to the fact that they advise and exercise discretion in policy decisions. Kellis and Ran (2012) agreed that the idea of civil service workers as administrative automatons was “anachronistic and poses a greater danger to democracy than the idea of effective, empowered leaders” (Kellis & Ran, 2012, p. 1). Due to this shift in thinking, Rohr (1978) argued that it was essential that members of the civil service be provided training in ethics, and he proposed regime values as the basis for this ethic. This will be discussed later in the section on theories of leadership.

This knowledge concerning the need for ethical training with civil service systems has been researched by scholars who have shown evidence in Nigeria that acting and reasoning ethically is a key characteristic of transformational leadership, and that it has fostered ethical actions within followers and within the civil service system (Felix et al., 2016). Thus leadership is a critical aspect of a civil service system.

Theories of leadership. Cetin (2012) states that good governance is the institutionalization of the values of a nation from its constitution, and it is only through its leaders adopting these values that the same can be institutionalized. Therefore, a nation cannot reach good governance unless it has public leaders that carry national values into the civil service implementation process (Cetin, 2012). This sought after ideal leadership model is found in several theories of leadership that included *regime value* leadership (Rohr, 1978) and transformational (also used interchangeably in this study with the term *transformative*) leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978).

The first is regime values leadership theory, and Rohr (1978) argued persuasively for ethical training for workers in the civil service. In this argument he laid out the different potential bases of political philosophy or humanistic philosophy as a normative foundation of ethics. Since it takes considerable time to understand political philosophy writings of Rawls, Kant, or Hume, it is impractical as a foundation for the study of ethics in public administration (Rohr, 1978).

Similarly, humanistic philosophy delves into the writings of Maslow, Rogers, or Kohlberg, and Rohr (1978) again maintained that this is impractical for a student of public administration to master or even digest. Rather, Rohr (1978) suggested “regime values” (p. 59) as the starting point for an ethic in public administration, and defined it as follows:

[Regime is] the most appropriate English word to suggest what Aristotle meant by ‘polity’. More specifically ‘regime values’ refer to the values of that political

entity that was brought into being by the ratification of the Constitution that created the present American republic. (Rohr, 1978, p. 59)

Therefore, regime values are the traditional values of the nation based on its own constitution, and these values come from societal values, not state or political values (Rohr, 1978). Ayittey (2010) built on this point when he articulated values of democracy, transparency, and accountability that were historically built into the African society, but have been forgotten or hidden. His argument was that there are non-western forms of these values built into the traditional society of Africa, but these values have not been articulated or followed (Ayittey, 2010). This debate is discussed more fully later.

Nevertheless, if a civil servant is going to accept and operate by regime values, the primary question becomes whether the regime is just and fair, and thus worthy of following. Civil servants take an oath to uphold the constitution of the country based upon commonly accepted values that may be related to religious or tribal background. It is these regime values that a transformative leader within the civil service will uphold based on the constitution and his own integrity, even when the political leader in power does not reflect the same values. Since persons studying in the public administration field have the aspiration to be leaders in government—within the existing regime—it follows that regime values are a place to start when thinking about reform and ethical behavior (Rohr, 1978).

Burns (1978) developed transformational leadership theory as a new approach specifically contrasted with transactional leadership. Most research at the time was focused on managers and the transactional exchange leadership model, but Burns (1978)

wrote about leaders becoming change agents by motivating followers to be more than they dreamed they could be through shared vision (Van Wart, 2003). Other scholars have researched this approach extensively as well (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Cetin, 2012; Trottier et al., 2008; Van Wart, 2009; Wang et al., 2011).

Burns (1978) proposed that transformational leadership transformed followers and organizations through four behavioral elements: 1) individualized consideration, 2) idealized influence, 3) intellectual stimulation, and 4) inspirational motivation. He also showed, along with Bass and Riggio (2006), practical results of these four elements in leadership behavior that (a) showed concern for followers that met felt needs and raised trust in the leader, (b) engendered admiration, loyalty, and pride in followers because the leader modeled ethical behavior that motivated to higher level performance beyond expectation, (c) stimulated followers intellectually through questioning old ways of operating and challenging to think differently, and (d) projected a vision that lifted followers to find fulfillment and purpose in their work beyond their own self-interest.

Transformational leadership also includes what Greenleaf (1977) termed *servant leadership* (p. 87) that served people in the true public service model through the moral power of ideas, actions, and agenda of the leader. He wrote that servant leadership motivated followers with an emphasis on growth and change for the individual, developed an active agenda to seek the best interest of citizens, ensured skilled public administration personnel available to implement that agenda, and created the tools and environment for followers to develop and thrive (Greenleaf, 1977).

Literature Based Analysis of Previous Theoretical Application

Previous theoretical application to both governance and to civil service reform have focused on actions of leaders and how to possibly change those actions rather than on the style of leadership practiced by the leader (Felix et al., 2016).

Prior researchers have searched for different and better governance approaches, including changing electoral systems (Nasong'o, 2007), strengthened governance in terms of separation of powers (Chweya, 2003; Marwa & Zairi, 2009), decentralization (Oluwo, 2003) and devolution (World Bank, 2012). Another approach has been shared power theory (Kanyinga, 2012), including consociational democracy—a theory of how democracy can be implemented in a deeply divided society through (a) forming a grand coalition, (b) autonomy for segmented divisions of society, (c) proportionality in representation including civil service appointments, and (d) the possibility of a minority veto power (Dahl, 1989; Diamond, 1994a; Kimari & Rasmussen, 2010; Kanyinga & Long, 2012; Lijphart, 1977, 1999). Dahl (1989) and Lijphart (1999) provide many examples of this latter form of democracy and governance.

In past public service reform efforts, researchers focused on negatives to be eliminated including the lack of dialogue and consensus building in the public service (Nafukho, 2008), patronage and the politicization of the civil service (Brown & Kaiser, 2007; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003), lack of integrity and competence (Shivji, 2009), absence of accountability (Ayittey, 2010), and a leadership mindset that has impeded the development progress of countries throughout Africa (Kanyinga & Long, 2012).

Other researchers focused on positive general public service reform (Hope, 2012; Mhone, 2003; Olowu, 1999; Wescott, 1999), performance measurement (Hope, 2013; Marwa & Zairi, 2009), performance contracting and results based management (Bruijn, 2002; Hope, 2013; Kobia & Mohammed, 2006; Majeed, 2012; Nyamweya, 2010), a better merit system (Brown & Kaiser, 2007; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003), greater integrity and skill of workers (Shivji, 2009), higher ethical standards (Walumbwa et al., 2008), the need for more communication (Nafukho, 2008), and better pay (Oluwo, 2010).

Oluwo (2010) summarized several waves of civil service reform throughout Africa and stated that most did more harm than good as the problem was inadequately assessed. He argued that previous attempts at civil service reform have not solved the problem but have exacerbated it because of inaccurate diagnoses leading to wrong and ineffective solutions. He suggested that the way out of the deficient state of the civil service is to integrate reform plans in all areas, and focus on human resource capacity building and higher quality recruits (Oluwo, 2010). He was partially correct in the call for integrated reform plans and the need for quality leadership, but does not provide guidance as to how to develop or recruit higher quality leadership at senior levels of the civil service. Training in transformational leadership has the promise of developing higher quality recruits as well as improving existing leaders.

In this study, I have focused on literature that is focused on the development of the leader himself to take on characteristics that will produce the desired results. This specific leadership style was presented in the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan as transformative leadership within the public service. Public service reform was one of

the 10 foundations articulated in the *Kenya Vision 2030* document to anchor its economic, social, and political pillars. The specific focus of that public service reform was the development of transformative leaders. Therefore, I sought literature that connected transformative leadership development with personnel in the public service. I identified 21 studies that connect transformative leadership to public service. These studies will be reviewed later in this chapter.

Relationship of Theory to Present Study

I focused this study upon the theory of transformational leadership and its potential transforming impact upon individuals to turn from corruption to ethical conduct, and to engender higher worker performance within public service systems to improve economic and social progress of the nation.

Mittal and Dorfman (2012) reported on the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research program that was initiated in 1991 at the Wharton School of Business at the University of Pennsylvania. GLOBE is a project analyzing leadership across cultures with subsequent regular publishing of findings. Findings reinforced the efficacy of the transformational leadership approach proposed in *Kenya Vision 2030*. Findings of GLOBE were that characteristics of transformational leadership—high ethical standards, values, integrity, vision, and inspiration with the result of purposeful follower loyalty, motivation, and high performance—rank the highest of any leadership style in cross cultural acceptance around the world (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012; Center for Creative Leadership, 2014).

Conceptual Framework

The conceptual framework was that leadership development of a new generation of Kenyan leaders in a transformative leadership model had the potential to break the cycle of corruption, greed, and overall stagnation of social and economic growth in Kenya. It was built upon a case study approach of investigating and describing the concept found in Kenya Vision 2030 to develop transformative leadership training for the civil service system in Kenya. Process and progress of this effort was elicited by employing an open ended interview protocol (see Appendix A) to obtain and describe the process and the progress.

The Concept

The inclusion in *Kenya Vision 2030* of a call for development of transformative leadership training for public service reform in Kenya has the potential to break the cycle of corruption, greed, and overall stagnation of growth through development of a new generation of Kenyan leaders.

Researchers have acknowledged that the primary barrier to progress in the developing world is not the deficiency of money or natural resources, but it is suggested to be the lack of leadership (Ayittey, 2011; Caillier, 2016; Costantinos, 2012, 2016; Cruz & Keefer, 2015; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016; Wamwere, 2012). This has led scholars to recommend strengthening leadership within the context of the developing world and its institutions (Costantinos, 2012, 2016; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016).

Burns (1978) popularized transformational leadership as a concept and theory of leadership operating with a new paradigm related to followers. Transformational leadership is more than an exchange of commands and rewards, but includes inspirational vision and sense of purpose that is transformative for the followers (Burns, 1978). It is a leadership model that is ethical, exhibits core values of integrity and service, demonstrates concern for the welfare of the people rather than the enrichment of political elites, emphasizes statesmanship in attitude and purpose, and “stimulates and inspires followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 3).

The contextual lens was transformational leadership within a civil service system in a developing country. The contextual lens was applied to leadership development itself and to the civil service system as an indispensable institution in building a progressive nation (Bratton & van de Walle, 1997; Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Cetin, 2012). Nations make progress or do not make progress for specific reasons, and visionary ethical leadership is critical to that progress. Therefore, the conceptual lens of transformative leadership in the public service—its development, progress, and potential impact—is critical to the development of a path forward for Kenya and for African nations.

Synthesis of Literature Related to the Concept

I provided the following synthesis of the key studies discovered relative to the concept of transformational leadership.

Trottier et al. (2008) studied transformational leadership and found that it had an “enormous effect” (p. 329) on followers in terms of satisfaction with the job. This

satisfaction focused particularly on individual meaning, but also included other issues within the leaders' purview of wages, advancement, colleagues, and workplace setting (Trottier et al., 2008). The conclusion of the study was that transformational leadership was significant in a public sector organization, and it recommended that public agencies increase their use of this model in training of civil service leaders (Trottier et al., 2008).

Walumbwa et al. (2008) proposed that transformational leadership theory is different than authentic leadership theory and distinct in its ethical core and self-awareness. The authentic leadership measure (the ALQ) instrument was developed to measure leadership behavior and predict follower and organizational outcomes (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Data was collected from private sector multinational employees in several locations including Kenya. It showed that authentic leadership could be distinguished from transformational leadership in its ethical component (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Their argument that authentic leadership is different than transformational leadership holds some sway, but is not persuasive, as transformational leaders are also characterized by ethical conduct that raises followers' expectations and willingness to act ethically (Felix et al., 2016). However, this instrument may be useful to researchers in Kenya to survey leaders in the civil service to measure impact of transformational leadership training.

Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) provided a framework in which organizational leaders can communicate and model transformational leadership behavior in the public service arena. The focus was on how leaders can create shared value. They suggested it happens through certain kinds of communication, through how workers are brought into

the organization, through clear goal-setting, and through making work congruent with set goals (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). The study particularly applied these concepts to capitalizing on the public service motivation of those who come into public service, and focusing that motivation toward effectiveness and satisfaction.

Wright and Pandey (2010) performed a study to determine whether public sector organizations actually inhibit the practice of transformative leadership due to its structural bureaucratic nature and rational-legal approach. Their research found this to be an erroneous assumption nurtured by the general association of transformative leadership with a more open leadership style than is usually found in government (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Research was conducted with data from local governments and supports the growing knowledge of transformational leadership in public organizations. It showed that local governments were not as bureaucratic as assumed, had a high degree of communication at all levels, and had a higher degree of the use of performance measures than had been previously assumed—all of which improves and increases transformational leadership behavior (Wright & Pandey, 2010). Finally, the study found that the normal structural constraints associated with the public sector need not be a barrier to transformational leadership and the higher motivation and performance that it engenders (Wright and Pandey, 2010).

Gang Wang et al. (2011) performed a review of transformational leadership research over a 25-year period. This analysis of 113 studies indicated that the performance of followers was positively affected when the leadership was transformational, and this was for performance both at the group or team level as well as

in the entirety of the organization (Wang, et al., 2011). This increased level of performance was seen in followers linking day to day tasks to an overall organizational vision, and led to increased motivation and significance (Wang, et al, 2011). The researchers also found that transformational leaders provided care and tools to enable their workers to achieve goals that were set and bringing increased satisfaction (Wang et al., 2011). Finally, transformational leadership was shown to affect and improve individual worker performance across different leadership levels, organizations, and even cultural borders (Wang et al., 2011).

Cetin (2012) studied transformational leadership in the country of Turkey and focused on a local municipal government entity. He proposed a leadership triangle of support and trustworthiness leading to impact, or “accepted leadership and accountable leadership leading to consequential leadership” (Cetin, 2012, p. 81). He stated that good governance is the institutionalization of the values of a nation from its constitution, and it is only through its leaders adopting these values that the same can be infused into institutions (Cetin, 2012). Therefore, a nation cannot reach good governance unless it has public leaders that carry national values into the implementation process within the civil service (Cetin, 2012),

Costantinos (2012) provided a stark analysis of African leadership as rife with corruption and living to depose the opposition, suppress the masses, and gain personal fortune. His analysis placed the responsibility for this on the lack of freedom within civil society to object and to oppose, and the fact that the political systems are not familiar with democratic discourse with the opposition (Costantinos, 2012). Findings of the

research included the paucity of systems to develop leadership with integrity and vision, limited access to information for civil servants, lack of proper systems for communication within the bureaucracy, and lack of transformative leadership principles such as team-building and social relationships within civil service departments that would allow collaboration and cross functioning (Costantinos, 2012). He concluded that the African state is a hollow institution with political leaders projecting an image of competency but without the civil service leadership or knowledge to sustain a functioning government (Costantinos, 2012).

Hope (2012) provided a study and analysis of transformative efforts in Kenya public service reform and emphasized the critical nature of public sector reform in any effort at sustainable development. He outlined the goals of the Civil Service Reform Plan I begun in 1993 with a follow up Plan II covering 1999-2002 (Hope, 2012). These efforts were focused on general civil service reform of pay, structures and functions, performance, and to some extent training through a strengthened Kenya Institute of Administration (KIA), the forerunner of the KSG (Hope, 2012). He detailed a third public service reform effort for 2003-2007, the *Economic Recovery Strategy for Wealth and Employment Creation* (ERS) that was built around improved governance as a path to economic growth (Hope, 2012). Shortly after this effort *Kenya Vision 2030* was developed and initiated, and Hope (2012) provided a summary of the goals of this effort as well as insight into the follow-up strategy that is beyond the scope of this study, the *Public Sector Transformation Strategy: From Reform to Transformation 2010-2014*.

Kellis and Ran (2012, 2013) proposed a new public leadership that combines characteristics of transformational leadership, authentic values leadership, and distributive leadership. They found that there was high desire among workers for this style of leadership. Workers perceived transformational leadership as bringing both high ethical standard and shared collaborative working methods leading to higher performance and job satisfaction (Kellis & Ran, 2012, 2013). They found that employees associated transformational leadership with their own job satisfaction, happiness with the organization with which they worked, and effectiveness of their supervisors (Kellis & Ran, 2012, 2013).

Mittal & Dorfman (2012) studied the characteristics of servant leadership across cultures to determine its acceptance and effectiveness. They found that the characteristic of moral integrity was a universal expectation that followers had for their leaders (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012). The researchers contrast two leadership styles by highlighting that transformational leaders served and motivated followers for the good of the organization while servant leaders showed more interest in individual and personal growth of followers (Mittal & Dorfman, 2012).

Moynihan et al. (2012, 2014) provided evidence of the effect of transformational leadership within the public sector through their research as well as a meta-analysis of other literature. The primary finding of the research was that transformational leadership had a great effect upon both the followers in a public sector setting and overall reform within the setting (Moynihan et al., 2012, 2014). The meta-analysis showed that the development of transformational leadership led to an increase in shared vision,

motivation, change, and innovation—thus leading to higher performance (Moynihan et al., 2012, 2014).

Wright, Moynihan and Pandey (2012) studied transformational leadership in a public sector setting and showed that it had a positive effect upon goal clarity and public service motivation to accomplish the mission of the agency. They found that it actually can increase these factors within the organization (Wright et al., 2012).

Van Wart (2013) provided a study of five leadership theories: 1) Classical management and role theory, 2) transactional leadership theory, 3) transformational leadership theory, 4) horizontal or collaborative leadership theory, and 5) ethical and critical leadership theory. He related the theoretical constructs to public administration civil service leadership and not to appointees or elected policy makers (Van Wart, 2013). He then looked at each theory and analyzed the practice and trends to ferret out principles and recommendations. His treatment of transformational leadership as one of the leadership theories was most relevant to my study, and the key finding was that all civil service workers can be transformational as it does not just apply to the person who is most charismatic (Van Wart, 2013). This was particularly applicable, as my study focused on the effort to train Kenyan workers in transformational leadership to cope with change and to lead it.

Dartey-Baah (2014) utilized transformational leadership theory to show that it is critical to development of sustainable solutions within Africa. His research revealed a large gap between present leadership effectiveness in Africa and the goal of sustainable development (Dartey-Baah, 2014). He confirmed a link between the application of

research-based effective leadership approaches—and the transformational leadership approach was specifically cited—and the goal of sustainable development (Dartey-Baah, 2014). Because of these findings, he recommended that African nations place a priority on the development of transformational leaders in the civil service who can lead with integrity, vision, and creativity in order to reach goals of development that will be long-term and sustainable (Dartey-Baah, 2014).

Moynihan, Pandey, and Wright (2014) showed that transformational leadership has a significant effect upon creativity and performance of public sector workers. They found that transformational leaders are more likely to increase the use of performance metrics and measurements within public organizations to guide decision-making (Moynihan et al., 2014). Their conclusion was that transformational leadership is directly connected to positive and improved performance in the civil service (Moynihan, et al., 2014).

Bronkhorst and Steijn (2015) studied work motivation and goal setting within the public sector setting and found that it was directly and positively related to transformational leadership. Transformational leadership style was associated with less red tape and less goal confusion and led to higher vision and goals because transformational leaders overcame bureaucratic barriers usually associated with government—and this led to higher motivation and higher satisfaction for civil servants (Bronkhorst & Steijn, 2015).

Jacobsen and Salomonsen (2015) showed that transformational leadership and successful communication within the organization were positively related. The

researchers confirmed that clarity of vision led to higher performance, and that vision setting and communication of vision were hallmark characteristics of transformational leaders (Jacobsen & Salomonsen, 2015). Transformational leaders were found to be effective in internally communicating vision in both large and small organizations because they creatively found ways to do so (Jacobsen & Salomonsen, 2015).

Caillier (2016) studied how transformational leadership and goal clarity worked together to accomplish better outcomes, and found that these leaders fostered more clarity of goals within their workers. He confirmed that performance is enhanced when there is goal clarity, and linked less ambiguity of purpose and goals to less turnover (Caillier, 2016). This is promising for public service organization. Finally, Caillier (2016) recommended training programs to produce transformational leaders.

Felix et al. (2015, 2016) studied transformational leadership among public service workers in Nigeria using Kohlberg's theory of moral reasoning as contextual lens for how persons respond to doing what is right. They reviewed the stages of moral development. In the first stage of moral development persons exhibit integrity of action because of fear of being punished, while in the second stage they will involve themselves in a transaction of giving and taking (Felix et al., 2016). In the third stage persons will do the right thing in order to meet expectation of the leader, and in the fourth stage they will act with integrity and do the right thing based on internal principle (Felix et al., 2016). They found that leaders with stage four moral reasoning were perceived as transformational leaders, and that followers raised their ethical behavior as a result (Felix et al., 2016).

Key Definitions and Benefits of the Framework

The framework utilizes the definitions of transformational leadership, the civil service, and *Kenya Vision 2030* all of which are defined elsewhere in this proposal. The development of transformational leaders is potentially a path to higher quality and skilled senior civil service leaders with a changed mindset from one of privilege or superiority to one of serving. This leads to providing services justly and fairly to citizens of the country rather than demanding that citizens serve the civil servant. This style of leadership can produce a system based on merit rather than patronage thus having the potential to provide stability and accountability through transparency and competence. It will be an institutional system that provides checks and balances to the political leadership of the country rather than being the puppet of such leaders.

Literature Review Related to Key Concepts

The following provides the literature reviewed relative to key concepts:

Description of Related Studies

A major issue in the developing world is that government jobs are sometimes the best job available, and there is great pressure on political leaders to provide these jobs to constituents regardless of merit. Charles Goodsell (1965) analyzed the Puerto Rico civil service system during a time of early development from 1941 to 1946, and this analysis is applicable to the developing world of Africa and specifically Kenya. He described the battle between developing a merit system civil service and the patronage system that was already in place (Goodsell, 1965). Political leaders blocked any change in the patronage practices in the poor country of Puerto Rico where there are few corporate jobs, and a

government job was the pinnacle of success and advancement (Goodsell, 1965). Since government was the most sought after job, it followed that patronage was the path to secure such a job, and the merit system proposed would alter that fact and put many serving in government out of a job (Goodsell, 1965). This mindset of “looking after one’s own” (Taylor, 1992, p. 202) was echoed by the majority of literature reviewed, and provided one explanation for why civil service leaders are given positions when they may or may not be qualified in both skill and leadership.

Kjaer (2004) proposed the thesis over a decade ago that new leaders tend to implement reform by getting rid of everything old and bringing in everything new (Kjaer, 2004). His case study of Uganda, Tanzania, and Kenya showed that impediments to progress continued to be large cabinets in government with high salaries, leaders vying for control, and the inevitable blocking of reforms in the interest of protecting personal position (Kjaer, 2004). He documented the role of the IMF and other government donor agencies in directing and controlling reform in African countries by attaching strings to aid (Kjaer, 2004) leading to an imperialism of a second level (Shivji, 2009). Mueller (2014) argued that western demands have led to an increase in the alternative informal governance system where leaders say one thing to please donors while actually doing something different.

Kimari and Rasmussen (2010) described a renegade and independent non-organization in Nairobi known as *Bunge la Mwananchi*. This organization met under a tree in a park regularly for 15 years to highlight that the interests of the common man are not being represented by the politicians, and to advocate for change to include the masses

in the results of government (Kimari & Rasmussen, 2010). The setting of the people's parliament meeting under a tree was meant to conjure up the image of the village elders gathered to make decisions for the village, and in doing so to set an agenda for political leaders of the country to be inclusive and bring real change to the people (Kimari & Rasmussen, 2010). Its mission was to foster free association and open opportunity for all citizens from an accountable leadership (Kimari & Rasmussen, 2010, p. 142). This highlights the necessity of a vibrant civil society to collaborating with transformational leaders within the public service sector to foster real change within Kenya.

Description of Previous Approaches to the Problem

Previous approaches to the problem have primarily focused on actions of leaders and avenues to change those actions rather than on the style of leadership practiced by the leader (Felix et al., 2016). This was discussed earlier in this chapter and is summarized here as well. Approaches to civil service reform have been on performance based management (Bruijn, 2002; Hope, 2013; Kobia & Mohammed, 2006; Nyamweya, 2010), systems of accountability to curtail corruption (Ayittey, 2010), the need for communication and consensus building (Nafukho, 2008), a merit system to counter patronage and incompetency (Brown & Kaiser, 2007; Chazan et al., 1999; Chweya, 2003), skill training (Shivji, 2009), ethical standards (Felix et al., 2015, 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2008), and increased wages (Oluwo, 2010).

Hope (2012) highlighted the strengths and weaknesses of these attempts at reform through his review of the different stages of civil service reform in Kenya. He concluded that most efforts failed, but struck a note of optimism that performance contracting had

obtained traction within the system (Hope, 2012). However, he cautioned against continued game playing in performance contracting by setting low targets so that goals can be reached (Hope, 2013).

The overall weakness of these attempts was that none have focused on the character of the leader, and without that focus one still has the same people who are being asked to try different approaches. Researchers have shown that transformational leadership development has the potential to make an impact on the leader which then leads to impact on the followers, the reform efforts, and overall implementation and production (Trottier et al., 2008; Moynihan et al., 2014).

Justification From Literature for Selection of Concept

Recent research of transformational leadership in the public arena revealed several promising studies that suggested it elicits higher levels of performance with increased effectiveness of workers and higher employee satisfaction (Felix et al., 2015, 2016; Kest, 2007; Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002; Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001). This is justification for this study in Kenya.

Justification also comes from research on leadership in public service in the developing world that has generally focused on reviewing the history of self-serving and corrupt practices, but without provision of a positive path forward. There is an underlying post-colonial mindset that reform of public service systems in the developing world is near impossible which has led to a fatalistic view that nothing can change (Gifford, 1999), although Ayittey (2011) would add that it is not from a traditional African historical mindset.

It is further justified because there have been few past models of public service reform on the African scene (Costantinos, 2016; Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). Nyamweya (2010), a Kenyan, used the term *transformative leadership* relative to her results based management model, but does not take the additional step to address what it is or how it can be accomplished. However, the results based management approach that Nyamweya instituted while in senior leadership in the Kenya government (Majeed, 2012) still provides the solid foundation of performance contracting upon which a transformative leader can build.

Finally, it is justified because of the inclusion in *Kenya Vision 2030* of the strategy to develop transformational leadership training for the public service (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007), but with neither a definition of the term or a blueprint for its implementation.

Review and Synthesis of Related Studies of Concept

Ayittey (2010) provided a unique approach to the problems experienced today in Africa as he suggested that the concepts of rule of law, accountability, and transparency are not foreign to Africans but are embedded in the African culture, albeit in different forms than Westerners recognize. He contended African leaders have forgotten democratic principles in their history and consequently have tried to understand and implement similar, but different, western values (Ayittey, 2010). This conundrum led to neopatrimonialism and corruption as learned behavior (Ayittey, 2010).

I had difficulty in taking this view seriously since African leaders have for many years repeatedly treated their own people as subjects and slaves in the historic manner of

the *big man*, and in similar manner behaved like colonial masters (Mueller, 2014). It was certainly believable that the traditional values of consensus and accountability have been forgotten, but this still does not explain the origin of the ongoing problem of corruption, greed, quashing of civil liberties, and silencing of opponents.

Regardless, present leadership has not produced economic growth or success in most developing countries. The business and private sector is nascent and rising but not yet the primary economic engine. This means that government and its institutions have been the primary vehicle for economic growth, and public sector leaders have become the sought after saviors to deliver economic and social progress. Dartey-Baah (2014) revealed a large gap between present leadership effectiveness in Africa and the goal of sustainable development when his findings confirmed a link between the application of research-based effective leadership approaches—and the transformational leadership approach was specifically cited—and the goal of sustainable development. Based on these findings, he recommended African nations place a priority on the development of transformational leaders in the civil service, so that leaders with integrity, vision, and creativity will again produce results that are long-term and sustainable (Dartey-Baah, 2014).

Olowu (2010) added that the civil service was an essential component of sustainable development. Thus, as evidence mounts concerning the efficacy of developing transformational leaders as a strategy towards the goal of sustainable development outcomes, it follows that Dartey-Baah's (2014) recommendation should be

made a priority within the public service as stated in the goals set by the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan.

Review and Synthesis of Related Studies to Research Question

I found 3 studies that related to the Kenya civil service reform effort in a manner close to my research question. These studies referred to *Kenya Vision 2030* but did not mention or focus on transformational leadership. Kobia & Mohammed (2006) reviewed performance management reforms which were a precursor to *Kenya Vision 2030*. Majeed (2012) of Princeton University did a case study on performance management and the rapid results initiative in the years prior to this studies bounded timeframe. Hope (2012) provided insight into public service reform in general resulting from *Kenya Vision 2030*, but did not analyze it. None of these studies focused on the development process of *Kenya Vision 2030* and its role in creating the goal of development of transformative leaders for the public service. Nor did any studies focus on the actual development of the transformative leadership aspect of public service reform in Kenya.

Kest (2007) linked transformational leadership practice to a local government in the State of Florida and found an increase in follower satisfaction and effectiveness that led to perceived higher level of effort. It was not mentioned in the major section of literature review relative to transformational leadership as it is a doctoral dissertation and not a peer reviewed study.

Summary and Conclusions

In this chapter I presented theories of governance, civil service, and leadership. I showed the connection between each and how they are interconnected in any reform

effort. I explained transformational leadership as the concept and theory that was used to undergird this research, and presented evidence of its potential to impact and change leaders and their environments and government systems.

Major Themes in the Literature Summarized

The major themes in the literature were neopatrimonialism and its impact on civil service leadership through patronage, the struggles in Africa to develop a merit based civil service system that is ethical and effective, and the lack of ethical leadership in the public service due to both lack of training and the ongoing patronage system. Finally, the major theme of developing transformational leadership in the public service emerged as one potential antidote to Africa's continued lack of economic and social progress.

Known and Unknown in the Discipline Related to the Topic of Study

One of the knowns in the discipline of leadership within the public service was the use of performance contracting and management to elicit results. Hope (2013) reports on recent performance management review in the government of Kenya. The finding was that it was being practiced widely and had some effect on performance, but this finding differed substantially from public perception of public service performance (Hope, 2013). The reason for this credibility gap was the high marks given to civil servants did not match citizen perceived view as recipients of the services (Hope, 2013). Performance contracting and performance management did form a basis for additional reforms proposed in *Kenya Vision 2030*.

Unknowns in the discipline included the impact of transformational leadership in the public sector. Some literature linked civil service reform with transformational

leadership (Felix, et al. 2016) but the impact of transformational leadership within the public service remains a relatively unknown arena of the discipline.

Gaps in Literature Filled by This Study

Scholars have suggested transformational leadership as a path to government effectiveness, improved worker motivation, and sustained high performance (Felix et al., 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2008). In addition, transformative leadership facilitated economic and social progress (Dartey-Baah, 2014) and a learning organizational culture whereby performance was improved through shared vision and goals (Moynihan et al., 2012, 2014). This was discussed previously in this chapter.

In this study, I filled a gap in the literature relative to the process and progress of development of transformational leadership training for the civil service within the country of Kenya as part of *Kenya Vision 2030*. Previous researchers have not investigated the development of transformative leadership training as a foundation for public service reform in Kenya or in any developing country. In this study, I have provided a foundation for potential future research as proposed by Marwa and Zairi (2009) to connect both the training of leaders and the subsequent tracking of results of that training for implementation of policies in the civil service. The following chapter will detail the methodology that was used in this study to fill this gap in the literature.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate, understand, and describe the process and progress of the Kenya strategy to develop transformative leadership training for public service reform as presented in the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan. Public service reform was one of the 10 foundations articulated in the plan to anchor its economic, social, and political pillars (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007), and in this study, I described how the strategy for transformational leadership development in the public service was begun and implemented.

In this chapter, I explained and discussed the research design, including the central concept and framework of the study. I identified the participant selection logic including the sampling strategy, criterion for participant selection, rationale for the number of participants, and specific procedures for selection. The data collection method and strategy was discussed, including procedures followed for recruitment, participation, data collection, and analysis of the data. Finally, biases and ethical issues are identified with a discussion of ethical procedures and trustworthiness.

Research Design and Rationale

The research question for this study was as follows: What was the process and the progress of development of transformative leadership as a part of public service reform in the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan?

Central Concepts

The central concept was the *Kenya Vision 2030* inclusion of the strategy to develop transformative leadership training for the public service, and whether the concept of leadership development of a new generation of Kenyan leaders in a transformative leadership model had the potential to break the past cycle of corruption, greed, and overall stagnation of social and economic growth.

The conceptual framework was built around the fact that the concept of leadership development within the public service system is a key to reform and progress. Previous researchers have acknowledged that the primary barrier to progress is not the absence of natural resource, as it exists in Africa and in Kenya in abundance (Chazan et al., 1999; Costantinos, 2016); but it is suggested to be leadership, and specifically transformative leadership, that will foster sustainable development (Dartey-Baah, 2014). Sustainable development is stymied due to an ongoing authoritarian leadership model rife with corruption and the resulting loss of resources for development, a situation that is fed and exacerbated by the lack of a trained and skilled public administration workforce. Thus, the underlying theoretical concept of this study was that leadership development of a new generation of leaders in a different model of transformative leadership has the potential to break the cycle of corruption, greed, and overall stagnation of growth.

Other concepts from research on governance, civil service reform, and leadership within the civil service were important to my study and were detailed earlier. However, this research did not alter my design of focusing on the process and progress of the stated goal of *Kenya Vision 2030* to develop transformative leadership.

Research Tradition and Approach

The research tradition was qualitative, using a case study approach to understand and describe the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan and its public service reform goal of establishing transformative leadership development training for the civil service system.

Rationale

This case study approach allowed for describing an event, process, problem, or specific issue (Creswell, 2013) plus the context and conditions in order to get an in-depth picture of the problem and how it has been addressed (Yin, 2013). It was chosen in order to maximize the opportunity for delving deeply into the processes and progress around development of transformative leadership within the *Kenya Vision 2030* framework. In-depth interviews were conducted with persons who were involved in the effort as opposed to a structured survey approach, thus allowing for involvement and interaction within the culture and nation being studied.

The research tradition and method was also chosen because it fits the type of research question that the research is addressing. Rover (2005) divided research questions into descriptive, cause related, or process related. If the question is descriptive, it focuses on what is happening or has happened; a cause question focuses on the effect of a phenomenon; and a process question focuses on the why, or the reason, of the phenomenon (Rover, 2005). When a research question is descriptive, as in this study, then it calls for a case study approach (Yin, 2013) in order to provide a rich description of

the different facets of the inquiry. When searching for explanation or effectiveness in producing a specific result (Yin, 2013), a researcher would choose a different method.

Role of the Researcher

My role as the researcher was multifaceted. First, I have traveled and consulted regularly in Kenya for the past 6 years. This provided an opportunity to learn about the culture and to talk informally and formally with a variety of leaders in the public policy from parliamentarians to senior civil servants, to governors, to staff in the Office of the President. As a result of this involvement, I already had a fairly high understanding of the *Kenya Vision 2030* process and document as well as the key players in the process.

Second, in this consulting role, I had the privilege of working directly with the Kenyan Transitional Authority to assist in the implementation of the transition to a devolved government after the enactment of the new constitution in 2013, including being the only *Mzungu* (person with white skin) invited to address 200 candidates vying for 47 governor positions in that election cycle.

Third, I lectured on several occasions as a visiting professor of public policy at Strathmore University and at the KSG in Nairobi. KSG is the entity that was tasked in *Kenya Vision 2030* with developing and training transformative leaders for the civil service system of Kenya (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007). In these opportunities, I taught on transformative leadership to senior civil servants, providing firsthand experience interacting with persons in the Kenyan culture, particularly through question and answer time and informal discussion after class.

Personal and Professional Relationships

Considering this former experience in Kenya, I created a professional and personal rapport with many of the leaders in Kenya. These professional relationships enhanced the depth of information obtained. I did not interview persons who sat under my teaching and did not have a formal relationship with any of the participants. I was cognizant of barriers to overcome, not the least of which is that I am a white Anglo-Saxon raised in the conservative Midwest of the United States who did not have a cultural history in Africa. I did not have the lived experience of white colonialism or the effects thereof. I only read about the experience and listened to my friends and colleagues in Kenya. However, this is the essence of qualitative case study research, that of listening to the participants (Creswell, 2009, 2013; Maxwell, 2013; Patton, 2002; Yin, 2013) and communicating their perception and reality. Therefore, I was observer-participant but with no power relationships that had to be managed.

Researcher Bias

I am American and not African, and therefore view governance and public administration from a Western perspective. I have taught transformational leadership and public policy in the developing world and am a proponent of providing this training as a key and necessary ingredient for the developing world AND the developed world, but this was not a problem as the study is about Kenya's call for transformational leadership in *Kenya Vision 2030*, and its process and progress. Therefore, it was already recognized as a need in Kenya and this study focused on progress it has made in this goal.

Ethical Issues

Ethical issues addressed included whether interviewees would be referred to in the study by name or in confidence. Due to the sensitivities that occur within the political framework in Kenya (as in all countries), I masked the identity of the interviewees by actual name and referred to them in the third person, as senior civil servant, or former government official, and so on. This was done in order to encourage participation, enhance the quality of responses, assure participants that they will not receive repercussions from political leaders or others in their power hierarchy, and promote honesty and transparency in responses and discussions.

Methodology

The site for this study was the country of Kenya and its capital city of Nairobi. I traveled to Kenya to gather data personally through interviewing relevant persons involved in the development of transformative leadership as part of *Kenya Vision 2030*. This followed the protocol of qualitative research as it requires the researcher to be immersed in the data gathering process for clear understanding (Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2013).

Participant Selection Logic

Purposeful sampling and criterion sampling (Creswell, 2013; Maxwell, 2013; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Patton, 2002) were used to identify participants based on their role in the development and implementation of the *Kenya Vision 2030* call to develop transformative leadership training to produce an “attitudinal change in public service that values transparency and accountability to the citizens of Kenya” and to establish KSG “to

provide research and training for transformative leadership to the highest international standards” (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007, p. ix). Their role was known to me through existing relationships borne out of 6 years of working and traveling in Kenya, thus assuring me that they met the participation criterion.

The intent of the study was to conduct five to seven in-depth interviews. A listing of 10 potential participants had been developed prior to the trip to Africa. Once Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was received, these potential participants were contacted. Seven agreed to be interviewed. Six were men, and one was a woman. Those who agreed to participate were the highest priority persons on the original list. Of the three who did not participate, one declined while the other two were not able to be contacted and thus did not participate. Each participant was requested to sign a consent form and signed the form when given the opportunity.

Seven persons were selected from those identified. This number was purposefully small in order to have deep discussion with persons closest to the process in order to come to know the reality of the case from the participant’s point of view and experience. This small sample size was intentionally not looking for saturation, although due to the quality of persons identified for the study, saturation of the subject was still accomplished. Each participant signed a consent form for the interview. Participants were asked to be available for follow up by email or Skype for up to 3 months. After this, participants were told they were free to exit the study.

Instrumentation

The interview instrument was not developed by another researcher, nor was it a structured survey approach. Rather, the interviews were conducted using an open-ended nonstructured interview approach (Yin, 2013). This is an approach that is well-accepted in the literature and drove my case study methodology. It does so because it is flexible enough to follow the thinking of the participants, while on the other hand it begins with a predetermined question framework. A case study protocol (Yin, 2013) was developed with a set of questions (see Appendix A) used as the mental framework upon which I built the verbal conversation with the interviewee. This allowed for obtaining answers to questions, but with the additional opportunity to observe and note the process of thinking that the interviewee underwent, thus providing a rich and deep narrative around the research question.

Additionally, I developed a listing of characteristics of transformational leadership that are essential for success in a training curriculum (see Appendix B). This was developed from my experience teaching transformational leadership internationally, and also from my knowledge of the literature. This listing was intended to be used as a checklist against the curriculum developed by KSG in Kenya.

Data Collection Procedures

A key aspect of data collection through interviews is to get clean and clear recordings. Thus, it was important to try out several recording Apps before deciding on the Rode Recording App for an iPad. This App was downloaded from the App Store for free. The recording application was tested both in the United States and in Kenya prior to

the interviews in order to ensure it produced excellent quality recordings. It was very easy to control during the interview in order to ensure volume and clarity were maintained. A lapel microphone was used to increase clarity of the recording, and this provided clear recorded transcripts of the interviews. Six of the seven interviews were recorded using this method, and notes were taken in journal format during the unrecorded interview.

Appointments were made with the selected participants, and the duration planned and requested for each interview was 1 to 3 hours. Of the seven participants in the study, four chose to meet in their office, two chose to meet in a restaurant setting, and one chose to meet in a personal residence. The restaurant settings were in a secluded section of the restaurant that afforded privacy and open communication. Since the locations chosen were all over Nairobi, this necessitated careful planning and considerable amount of time driving to the different locations.

The interviews were conducted in an open-ended discussion format that was analogous to elite interviews (Yin, 2013), as they were conducted with persons highly knowledgeable about the issue being discussed. The case study protocol questions (Appendix A) were used as the starting point for the interview with each of the seven participants and consistently applied to each interviewee. This framework allowed clear direction in the interviews including the ability to follow the discussion with additional questions as it progressed.

Once the interviewee began to answer initial questions, I made follow up comments or asked clarifying questions to continue the discussion and evoke additional

depth to the conversation. I then asked additional relevant questions from the protocol and followed the same procedure. Thus, all case study protocol questions were not asked of each interviewee, but only those questions most relevant to that particular person's specific expertise and involvement in the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan and the specific implementation of transformative leadership.

This was effective and produced a stimulating interview with each participant that in turn led to in-depth discussion. Some follow up email communication was conducted following the initial personal interview to clarify and further illuminate discussion; however, it was difficult to follow up as persons in Kenya are more used to personal interaction face to face rather than through electronic means; thus, the face to face interview was the primary source of the data.

A listing of characteristics of a transformative leader (Appendix B) was intended to be used as the instrumentation to analyze and measure the curriculum itself as to whether it had the necessary ingredients within it to develop transformational leadership. However, the curriculum being used at the KSG could not be accessed so measurement of the progress of that part of the implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030* goal was not successful.

Data Analysis

The unit of analysis is the case itself (Yin, 2013) noted in the process and the degree of progress in the *Kenya Vision 2030* goal of developing transformative leadership. The data obtained was organized, analyzed, and interpreted around themes

that emerged from the data protocol framework (see Appendix A). This protocol is analogous to the pre-code system which Creswell (2013) terms “lean coding” (p. 184).

Data from the archival documents obtained, the interview recordings and note writings, and other literature review note taking in an ongoing manner was grouped according to the case study protocol. This allowed for adaptation and learning as the process moved forward and getting a sense of the whole (Patton, 2002, Maxwell, 2013; Creswell, 2013). A software system was not used in this process. Rather the data were analyzed manually. At the completion of data gathering and document review, data was organized according to emergent themes and patterns and its meaning and interpretation developed (Miles & Huberman, 1994).

Issues of Trustworthiness

The issue of trustworthiness is critical to a qualitative research study where the researcher’s involvement through interviews and the gathering of qualitative data is open to interpretation and bias. Methods employed must be shown to be rigorous for findings and conclusions to be deemed trustworthy (Roberts, Priest, & Traynor, 2006). Reliability and validity are defined in differing manners by researchers but for this study were based on the definitions provided by Creswell (2009) stating that reliability is focused on consistency of research approach while validity is focused on “accuracy of the findings” (p. 190). To demonstrate trustworthiness, four tests appropriate for qualitative research in identifying threats were applied: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

Credibility

Threats to credibility included limited background of the researcher in the international setting being researched, bias of the researcher as the singular person who obtained the interview data, potential of selective analysis of the data to meet expected outcomes, and credibility of interviewees to provide accurate information. My extensive background of work in Kenya, which I detailed earlier, successfully muted this threat.

I was the sole person gathering the data. However, my potential bias was muted by the choice of methodology. The case study approach tells the story of the event or process under investigation from the point of view of the participants, not from the point of view of the researcher. Participants were interviewed and they provided information specifically about transformative leadership and its development in the Kenyan context. Transformative leadership was not a new term to them. Since it was a term used by them in their strategic plan for the nation—*Kenya Vision 2030*—it was one they readily talked about in a knowledgeable manner. It was also a practical term with which they were familiar as they spoke of working daily to see it become a reality.

Selective analysis of data was not necessary as there was no particular expected outcome other than to present the facts relative to the process and progress of the development of transformative leadership as set forth in the *Kenya Vision 2030* document. I gathered the facts and have presented them. Triangulation of data sources was undertaken to corroborate the story of the interviewees with archival data. When an interviewee responded that the process of developing *Kenya Vision 2030* took place in a certain manner, this information was checked against what was heard from other

interviewees. It also was cross referenced with other documentation as available.

Participants provided multiple viewpoints on the same basic framework of questions.

This was a process of confirming or disconfirming information. The final result was that the interviewees provided consistent stories about the background of *Kenya Vision 2030* and about the progress of training programs on transformative leadership. This consistency was true relative to the facts contained in *Kenya Vision 2030* even though the interviewee told the story from their unique perspective, and did so years after the fact.

Transferability

Threats to transferability included the possibility of participants giving less than the full picture due to reluctance to be forthcoming, or due to lack of knowledge leading to an inadequate description of the information gathered. I adequately addressed this threat by the purposeful sampling strategy of choosing participants who Yin (2013) referred to as elite participants. These persons were senior actors in the process of Kenya's reform and were highly knowledgeable of the process and progress of *Kenya Vision 2030*. They had been intimately involved in public service reform in Kenya and all were first-person eyewitnesses. None of the interviewees were removed from the process or the implementation information sought by the research question. They were not detached persons, but were Kenyan's who are presently, or have been in senior positions in the government and are immersed in the public service milieu. They are experienced Kenya public service insiders who grew up in the culture and know its whims, its nuances, and its impact on people and institutions.

Dependability

This is the counterpart to reliability and is threatened by lack of consistency by the researcher in interviewing protocol, and by mistakes made in transcription of interview information. I addressed this threat by using case study protocol questions (Appendix A) as the starting point for the interview to provide consistency of approach. The same procedure was used with each interviewee. All interviews were recorded to ensure accuracy of transcription and usage leading to dependability of findings.

Confirmability

This threat was addressed through several avenues. First through the selection process of participants. Each person was known to me and this was key in getting the appointment as well as the establishment of credibility as a colleague and one who has shown interest in the culture and politics of Kenya. This led to openness in communication during the interview. Having rapport and access was important, but the critical piece was the respect I had garnered over six years with my ten trips to Kenya. Kenyans expect persons to come for one trip only, and are most gracious when meeting or hosting visitors; however, respect grows when a person returns multiple times as I did for consulting and personal reasons. This enhanced both objectivity and quality of the interviews.

Another threat was that I was the researcher, and I had also been involved in teaching on transformational leadership to Kenyan government officials. However, this was a positive attribute and not a negative one. My credibility and relationship with the participants was key to both accessing the information that best answered the research

question, and to ensuring that the complete story was discovered. The goal was to interact with meaningful reflexivity to obtain information to answer the research question (Maxwell, 2013) and that was accomplished.

Ethical Procedures

The IRB approval number for this dissertation is 08-23-16-0300234. I presented consent agreements to each participant, and each participant signed the agreement.

Treatment of participants. The participants were selected through the criteria of prior involvement in the process of public service reform in Kenya, and specifically in the development of transformative leadership as presented in *Kenya Vision 2030*. All participants were experienced government officials or academic research practitioners who understood the research process and ethical concerns. My prior acquaintance with proposed participants kept dropout at zero, and facilitated access and communication. As part of the consent process, participants were told their involvement would be anonymous and confidential.

Treatment of data. Recorded data was protected through backup procedures to prevent loss of data. I backed up the data each day to protect against loss during the stay in Kenya as well as during the travel back to the United States. Access to the data was limited to this researcher and it was protected in my home. The data will be kept five years past final dissertation approval.

Summary

I conducted the research in Nairobi, Kenya in the late summer of 2016. The lens of the research was the stated goal of *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan that

transformative leadership training was to be developed as part of the public service reform. I investigated the process and progress of this specific goal of the reform plan through a qualitative case study. I chose this approach because it provided the best opportunity to answer the research question, and it also provided a full, deep, and rich description.

My role as researcher was as participant observer due to my extensive experience in the country, and my ongoing professional relationship with the majority of participants. I selected participants purposefully because of their deep knowledge of the subject of civil service reform in Kenya and specifically the implementation of the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan. I collected data through open-ended interviewing with recorded transcripts, and analyzed it for emergent themes to answer the research question for the bounded time. I addressed threats to credibility of the research as well as ethical concerns.

Chapter 4: Results

Introduction

The purpose of this qualitative case study was to investigate, understand, and describe the process and progress of the Kenya strategy to develop transformative leadership training for public service reform as presented in the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan. Public service reform was one of the 10 foundations articulated in the plan to anchor its economic, social, and political pillars (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007), and in this study, I described how the strategy for transformational leadership development in the public service was begun and implemented.

Desired characteristics of a reformed public service that are stated in *Kenya Vision 2030* and can be directly linked to the development of transformative leaders are as follows:

1. Increasing access and quality of services available to the public and reducing barriers to service availability and access to justice,
2. Creating a people-centered and politically-engaged open society,
3. Promoting results-based management within the public service,
4. Encouraging public access to information and data,
5. Strengthening the legal framework for reducing corruption and enhancing ethics and integrity,
6. Placing citizen satisfaction at the heart of policy making and service delivery,

7. Basing all reforms on a strong core of public service values and ethics that aim at improving the welfare of all Kenyans,
8. Reducing inefficient and unethical use of public funds,
9. Changing attitudes from one of dictating to citizens to one of serving citizens, and
10. Creating transparent, accountable, ethical, and results-oriented government institutions. (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007, pp. xi-xii, 24-26)

The developers of the reform agenda recognized that training public service leaders and personnel in transformative leadership principles—investing in people to build knowledge, skills, and character—will lead to these desired characteristics. Thus, the development of transformative leadership curricula and training was placed at the center of the public service reform plan, and the KSG was charged with its implementation.

The research question for this study was as follows: What was the process and the progress of the development of transformative leadership as a part of public service reform in the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan?

In this chapter, I describe the conduct of the research study including the setting and conditions for participants. I provide the demographics and number of participants and describe the type of data collected. I also describe the location, frequency, and duration of the data collection, including how data were recorded. Finally, I provide analysis of the data, confirm trustworthiness, and present the findings.

The Setting

Nairobi, Kenya in East Africa was the site where the personal interviews were conducted in late August of 2016. Nairobi is the capital city of the nation of Kenya and is a metropolitan area of 6.5 million persons. It is located on a plateau that provides moderate temperatures year round with a dry season and a rainy season. It is a teeming metropolis that is fast becoming modernized with many new tall skyscraper buildings and wide interstate type highways with modern interchanges. Much of this infrastructure has been developed as part of the *Kenya Vision 2030* plan over the past 9 years. It is also the political center of Kenya with modern buildings, including the Kenyatta Convention Center and Harambee House at the center of the government operations.

Demographics

Of the seven participants, six were male and one was female. All participants in the study met the criteria for participation and were persons who had been involved in the development and/or implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030*, and specifically in its development of transformative leadership within the public service reform agenda. Persons involved at this level in development and implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030* were either previous senior government officials or were presently serving in government.

Data Collection

Appointments were made with the selected participants and the planned duration requested for each interview was 1 to 3 hours. Of the seven participants in the study, four chose to meet in their office, two chose to meet in a restaurant setting, and one chose to

meet in a personal residence. The restaurant settings were in a secluded area that afforded privacy and open communication.

I used the case study protocol questions (Appendix A) as the starting point for the interview with each of the seven participants and consistently applied the protocol to each interviewee. Once the interviewee began to answer initial questions, I followed up with additional relevant questions from the protocol to continue the discussion and evoke depth to the conversation. Thus, all case study protocol questions were not asked to each interviewee, but only those questions most relevant to that particular person's involvement in the development of the *Kenya Vision 2030* plan and implementation of its call for transformative leadership.

The data were gathered and preserved in audio recordings of the interviews according to the methodological plan. The only unusual circumstance encountered in the data collection was that one senior government official declined to be recorded but was most willing to be interviewed. In this exception, I proceeded with the interview with an insightful discussion, and wrote handwritten notes.

I transcribed the recordings. Four were transcribed by handwriting during the plane trip home while still fresh in my mind, and three were later transcribed directly into Word documents via the computer. All interviews were printed on paper so additional notes could be made and compiled. All data remained in recorded media and were available for listening opportunity multiple times to increase familiarity.

Data Analysis

The analysis of the data proceeded following the approach of “data analysis spiral” (Creswell, 2013, p. 183). Creswell (2013) described this approach as a continual moving in and out of the data to include organizing, reading, reflecting on topics, writing notes and raising questions, creating categories, classifying and interpreting, describing as themes, and finally prioritizing and discarding. I listened to the recordings multiple times and read through the transcripts. While listening and reading, I compiled a listing of thoughts that the interviewee’s discussed. It was helpful to hear the interview and see the transcript of the interview on paper at the same time.

The initial note taking was of disparate thoughts within each interview. These thoughts were noted and numbered for each interview. Counting the thoughts for each interview and summing them produced 126 separate thoughts expressed by the combined seven interviewees. These thoughts were sorted into the two major categories generated from the research question, process and progress. It was expected that the thoughts expressed in the interview would naturally group under these categories as this was the focus of the case protocol questions. Thus, 66 thoughts were grouped under the process of development of transformational leadership in the *Kenya Vision 2030* reform agenda, and 58 were listed as thoughts around the progress of development of transformational leadership in the *Kenya Vision 2030* reform agenda. Two were discarded as irrelevant and unrelated to this study.

These individual thoughts were then compared to see if they might fall into natural groupings. They did, as many of these individual thoughts by each interviewee

were similar or exactly the same as other interviewees. This next level of groupings was to sort the 126 thoughts and group them into topics. This analysis step was informed by likening thoughts to paragraphs in a discourse while topics were likened more to sustained subjects within a discourse. Thus, an interviewee would answer a question by discussing a specific topic for several paragraphs in the transcript. This analysis produced 22 topics.

The 22 topics were transferred to a chart with topics listed on the y axis and a column for each interviewer on the x axis (See Table 1). I entered a number count for each interviewee into the chart to show where the 126 thoughts fell in terms of topic repetition. Through this exercise I visualized the frequency that a topic was discussed and used the chart to begin to think about subsequent groupings (see Table 1).

Table 1.

Analysis of Interview Thoughts to Topics

Topics from interviews	Intv 1	Intv 2	Intv 3	Intv 4	Intv 5	Intv 6	Intv 7
Need for leadership development	1			2	6		1
Previous CSR efforts in Kenya		1	1				
Background of Kenya Vision 2030			1	5		3	4
Overall goal of transformation	2	1	1	1	1	1	1
Leadership is key to transformation	1			4		1	1
Importance of citizens seeing visible progress	1						
Expectations of citizens raised	2						
Kind of leadership needed (T.L)	1	3	5	7	5	4	2
Public service leadership key to transformation	1						
Implementation of transformative leadership courses				6	3		
Need for place to train leaders	2	1		2		1	
Expectations of leaders raised	2				1		
Transformative leader for Kenya Vision 2030 critical to its success	5						1
Seeing models in other countries	1	1	1				
Impact of Singapore model	1						
Projects seen in other countries and implemented in Kenya	2						
Seeing transformational leadership modeled by other leaders	1				4		1
Implementation progress	1				1		
Barriers to transformational leadership progress						5	
Progress of reform in general		1	1	1			
The demand for transformative leadership training							
Future research needed				1	4	4	

Note. From manual analysis of 126 thoughts in interview transcripts.

The 22 topics divided into five groupings which I titled major topics. These major topics were (a) contextual background of *Kenya Vision 2030* and its overall goal of transformation, (b) leadership, (c) modeling of transformational leadership, (d) implementation, and (e) progress of efforts.

Once the major topics were identified, I began listing possible themes from the 22 topics and 5 major topics. Since my intent was that these themes become the findings, it took some time to relate the topics to themes that faithfully captured the interview data. I also confirmed or disconfirmed the relationship to the previously discussed literature. As themes emerged, time was spent with wording and phrasing to best capture the theme for maximum understanding.

Furthermore, themes were not brought to the forefront as findings based only on volume or counts, but significance and importance was also considered. An example is instructive and explanatory. Several interviewees involved directly in the genesis of the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan talked considerably about the decision of NESC that a transformative leader was needed to lead the effort. This discussion took place within the NESC during the same time that a first listing of senior civil service managers was brought forward to be considered for the position. In the midst of this process, NESC members began thinking seriously that perhaps someone from outside government should be hired instead of a traditional civil service leader. The result was a final decision to hire a government outsider who was seen as transformative in leadership style. In retrospect this turned out to be a momentous decision. Therefore, even though a theme may have

not been discussed by all interviewees, it may have rose to the top based on its significance and importance both to the Kenya effort as well as future efforts.

The process culminated in 13 potential themes. However, after reflection, similar themes were combined, and others were discarded as being minor and not rising to the finding level. This left a final number of nine themes that were based upon the amount of data given to it in the interviews as well as the significance of the discovered information.

Wording of themes was finalized, and once this was accomplished, themes were connected to the categories of process and progress in order to clearly answer the research question. This was discussed previously, but to summarize again, process refers to how the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic reform plan came to include the term *transformative leadership* when it included the development of transformative leadership as part of public service reform. Progress refers to how the concept of transformational leadership was developed and implemented by KSG in terms of a training curriculum.

Thus, the thematic findings that emerged from the interviews concerning process are (a) the need for leaders that transform, (b) the impact of the modeling of transformative leadership, (c) hiring of a transformative leader to lead *Kenya Vision 2030*, and (d) the impact of seeing transformation in other countries the team visited.

Themes that emerged from the interviews concerning progress are (a) the creation of the KSG, (b) the development of the training curricula at KSG, (c) the implementation of the curricula at KSG, (d) the curriculum itself and how it measures up to characteristics of a transformed leader, and (e) the anecdotal impact of the transformative leadership training.

Evidence of Trustworthiness

No adjustment was necessary to strategies for credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability as described earlier in Chapter 3. As planned, I gathered the data from first person eyewitness Kenyans who were highly involved in the process and/or the implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030*. All are presently, or have been, in senior positions in the government and are immersed in the public service milieu. They grew up in the culture and know its whims, its nuances, and its impact on people and institutions. They provided information as public service insiders. This high personal involvement was necessary and required in order to capture data to answer the research question. In addition, each interviewee except one was audio recorded. The recordings were available for review of the data to ensure that accuracy of information was maintained.

Research Results

I indicated in the methodology and to participants that their involvement would be anonymous and confidential. Therefore, the names of interview participants are not included in the results. Given this confidentiality, separately discovered information was not attributed to Interviewee #1, or Interviewee #2, and so on, except when a quote was necessary. Rather, the findings are presented as a complete and integrated compilation of all of the interview information without distinction of individuals. Thus, the reader can know that all of the information presented in the results section was garnered from the interviews. This allowed the story to flow by including different perspectives without dividing it into specific interviewees.

I organized the findings and presented them as two major sections: 1) the process of the development of transformational leadership as a key component of *Kenya Vision 2030*, and 2) the progress of the development of the transformational leadership component of public service reform within *Kenya Vision 2030*.

Process of the Development of Transformational Leadership

The first section of results was related to the process of how the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic reform plan came to include transformative leadership as a key component of its proposed public service reform plan. Persons interviewed were designers and participants within this process and provided rich insight. This chronicles how the vision was begun. The insertion into the plan of the need to develop transformative leadership was purposeful and fortuitous, reiterating that the words of policy documents matter.

Findings concerning the process were as follows:

- (1) The need for leaders that transform
- (2) The impact of the modeling of transformative leadership
- (3) The hiring of a transformative leader to lead *Kenya Vision 2030*
- (4) The impact of seeing transformation in other countries the team visited

The need for leaders that transform. The theme of the continued need to find, train, and develop leaders for the public service was constant across interviews. The public service of Kenya has a history related to its predecessor colonial British civil service system. Independence for Kenya was obtained on December 12, 1963. Early in 1964 the civil service officially became the Kenya civil service and it rapidly became Africanized and Kenyanized. It now has a long history and a culture that has been

developed through many years. It has its own way of doing things. There is the strong sense in the Kenya civil service that politicians come and go, but persons in the civil service stay permanently. This attitude produces an unresponsiveness to leadership and a lack of urgency. This in turn fosters ineffectiveness.

Some in Kenya are skeptical of civil service effectiveness and contend that more money is needed to be effective. But, the civil service already has the best trained personnel in Kenya who are the *crème de la crème* of Kenyan citizens. In spite of it having educated and trained persons, the biggest problem that still persists is lack of leadership. Without good leadership a whole agency of well trained persons is still dissipated and ineffective.

Members of NESC were tasked with developing the national strategic plan. They knew that unless they developed leadership that is transformative, the country has no chance to reach the aspirations and goals articulated in *Kenya Vision 2030*. It was not surprising that the designers of the present public service reform specifically used the term *transformative leadership* to describe the type of leader that Kenya needs if it is to move forward with reform. This was a purposeful choice by the framers of *Kenya Vision 2030* in order to have a major impact on the civil service of Kenya and to ensure that the totality of implementing *Kenya Vision 2030* would be transformative.

To these persons who designed the program, the term *transformative leader* meant leaders who move away from glorying in their position and demanding followership with an *I am the boss* mentality. It meant leaders who listen, foster teamwork, recognize achievement, spread the credit, say thank you, and motivate

workers toward a shared vision and goal. It also meant leaders who practice justice, fairness, and ethical behavior. These characteristics correspond to the literature on transformational leadership (see Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978).

People tend to follow the style of leadership that is modeled for them, and this applied to the Kenyan situation. Persons in the civil service look at leadership to see what it does, and then they do the same thing. Actions that are modeled by leaders produce similar actions in followers. The framers of *Kenya Vision 2030* wanted emphasis to be placed on the ethics of leaders in the entire public sector, including training of elected officials.

They were fully aware that when persons are appointed to senior government positions in Kenya, they must go through a vetting for suitability. But the elected person in Kenya does not get vetted, and it is the elected leaders who select and appoint the public service senior leaders. Many members of NESC at first expressed they did not care about the quality of the elected leaders. However, it began to be understood that elected leaders who set the tone through their actions. They are also responsible for appointment of the top 3 levels of the public service—ministers, permanent secretaries, directors! Therefore, the theme of the need for leaders that transform was on top of the mind in the early process of *Kenya Vision 2030*.

This was also a theme at the highest levels of Kenya government as there were discussions with the President about how to get transformative leadership training to the persons in the public service as well as to elected officials. The legacy government system in Kenya is one of patrimonialism. This is imbedded in the culture; however,

President Kibaki wanted to this changed and understood that as a leader he would only go as far as the persons he assembled around him. He knew the quality of leaders around the leader makes the difference. However, the quality of public leadership appointees depends first upon the quality of whom is elected.

In this context the civil service system was likened to the example of a race driver and what makes the driver successful. There is an entire team around a race car driver so that success cannot just be isolated to the engine or the crew or management. It is everything and everyone. The driver just gets into the car and drives while the other members of the team think of the details and the management—persons who change the tires, run the engines, and get the sponsors. But what has been done in the civil service of Kenya is to focus on the famous driver and not on the entire team. This must change because it takes an entire team with a first class leader / manager to be successful.

The senior advisors to President Kibaki were also cognizant of the need for leaders in order to carry forward the performance management and performance contract system for the public sector that had been put into place as early as 2004 (see Kobia & Mohammed, 2006; Majeed, 2012; Nyamweya, 2010). Progress on goals and measurement was seen as foundational to the success of *Kenya Vision 2030*. They realized to change a public service system it was not enough to have a vision but there also must be goals and measurement.

Impact of the modeling of transformative leadership. Another finding was that NESC members seeing transformative leadership modeled had significant impact on its inclusion as a concept in *Kenya Vision 2030*. Teaching and training concerning

transformative leadership is important, but persons usually must see it in action to be captivated by it and choose to make it their own style. Had the framers of the strategic plan not been exposed to transformative leadership, they would not have known it is possible. They saw it in Kenya and in trips abroad.

The role model for transformative leadership that interviewees referenced most was the national Kenyan leader at the time, President Mwai Kibaki, and his character and demeanor. This part of the story is not a commentary on all of President Kibaki's term in office or all of his actions, but is a commentary on him as a leader from interviewees that worked with him closely. He was described as a person who led by example and not by fiat, a key characteristic of a transformative leader (Paarlberg & Lavigna, 2010). He created the atmosphere in which new ideas could be put on the table, discussed, and be crafted into a vision and strategic plan. Persons who knew and worked with him closely said that he was extremely confident in himself and this made him free to be confident in those around him.

Kibaki never needed to take all the credit and would look for the right person and let them do the job. In this way, he allowed persons around him to shine and become a star in their own right. His confidence in the staff and his ability to let others take credit motivated them to work diligently for him and strive for excellence in their work. His staff had freedom within the confines of the position to succeed, and this was critical in developing the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan. So, persons designing the strategic plan learned about the transformational leadership approach by watching the way their leader, President Kibaki, operated. And this taught them a lot.

Transformational leaders do not need to take the credit, but are willing to give credit to their followers. The example was given that the corporate world can be a very political. If a person does not garner enough credit it may bring some monetary demotion for not being productive. As a result, this engenders an attitude in the corporate world in Kenya for leaders to continually remind others that they are the ones who got the job done. This is the path of most leaders in business as well as politics and government. But it is the opposite model of a transformative leader.

Thus it was an effective lesson in leadership for the framers of the *Kenya Vision 2030* to see transformational leadership demonstrated in the political world of their own developing country. President Kibaki was a leader who was self-actualized enough that he understood he did not need to spend time to gather credit for himself. In contrast, he actively deflected the credit and gave it to the persons who were doing the job. This had a major impact on the persons who were tasked with designing *Kenya Vision 2030* and its call for development of transformative leadership training.

This was demonstrated in a personal way to several interviewees. The Director General of *Kenya Vision 2030* was the public face of the strategic reform effort and became very visible throughout the country. This could have been seen as taking the spotlight away from the President. Many of President Kibaki's advisors told him that this was not good, and he should put a stop to it and take the credit himself. But he said no, let him do the work. The person who is doing the work should receive the credit. So the President not only allowed it, but encouraged it. This happened in many of the projects of *Kenya Vision 2030*. For instance, the Minister of Transportation took credit for all the

roads and highways being built as that was a very visible project. A number permanent secretaries in charge of reform efforts in the strategic plan were given much credit by the people and the press.

But when *Kenya Vision 2030* projects are discussed—the Thicca highway construction, the digital infrastructure revolution, the Lamu port, the KSG, public service reform efforts, or transformative leadership development—all are seen as the legacy of President Kibaki. And he understood that. He was confident in who he was and did not see the need to be validated in the moment. He was validated and fulfilled in seeing benefit for all the people of the nation of Kenya. That was the legacy he sought.

So this was the setting that spurred the NESC leaders to choose the term *transformative leader* when writing the *Kenya Vision 2030* document, and it led to the desire to find a transformative leader to lead the reform effort.

Hiring a transformative leader to lead *Kenya Vision 2030*. This finding had not been discussed in the literature nor during previous conversations. The original thinking of NESC members was to compile a lengthy list of traditional civil servants to lead the effort. However, persons at NESC quickly realized that if the goal was truly to have a transformative strategic plan for the nation then it must be led by a transformative leader. They had seen characteristics of a transformative leader modeled by their own national leader, President Kibaki. This led them to want a similar attitude and demeanor in whomever was picked to head *Kenya Vision 2030*.

A search outside government was launched and a young dynamic entrepreneur, Mugo Kibati, was asked to lead the effort. He had worked in the private sector and had

spent 10 years working as an aide in the federal government in the United States. During this time abroad he was exposed a larger vision of the world and what is possible in terms of quality of life, fairness and justice, social mobility, children growing up to fulfill their wildest dreams, and parental expectations for their children. He saw good government modeled and made a vow to himself that he did not want his future to be something small but wanted to be part of changing the story of his country. His experience in the United States motivated him to think big in terms of reforming the judicial, political, and public service systems in Kenya.

Choosing this leader proved to be one of the most critical decisions made in the process of development of *Kenya Vision 2030*. Mr. Kibati was transformational in his leadership style and in his approach. He infused a new optimism into the national psyche as the program began to develop. The brand of *Kenya Vision 2030* penetrated into all sectors of Kenya and impacted social and economic progress. This impact carried on even beyond his 5-year tenure. This corroborates research showing the nexus between trained leadership and economic and social progress within a country (see Dartey-Baah, 2014). So not only did members of NESC originally focus on transformative leadership as a key segment of *Kenya Vision 2030*, but the person they hired to lead the effort was a transformational leader.

Impact of seeing transformation in other countries the team visited. NESC had been created in 2004, and after a year of its existence the members began discussion about actions that would be transformative and leave a lasting impact on Kenya. There were many discussions and the conclusion was that they needed to see what leaders were

doing in other nation in order to learn could learn from their experience. The consensus was that Kenya needed a plan that would take a long-term view of development.

The decision was made to visit other countries and see how transformation had been created. This included the United Kingdom, Canada, and Malaysia. In 2005, a small group of Kenyan's went for a week to Malaysia to hear about its reform progress. They were introduced to Vision 2020, the 30-year national strategic plan for Malaysia. This plan became a model for Kenya Vision 2030. This exposure to leadership and plans in Malaysia expanded their vision beyond Kenya.

After this trip Michael Chege and Sam Mwale wrote a report and presented it to President Kibaki with the request to develop a similar long-term vision for Kenya. The President approved the idea and said its term should be enough years in length that it will never be seen as just a Kibaki vision. Rather it must be a vision for all of Kenya that will transcend different Presidential administrations. It must be a vision for Kenya to become economically prosperous nation, a clean environment, and a socially just society.

NESC was then tasked by President Kibaki to develop this long-term vision into a national strategic plan that would serve his administration, but more importantly would last through succeeding administrations. There was no name for it at the time, but after lengthy discussion in the NESC it was decided to be a 25-year vision. Since the year was 2005, the name then became *Kenya Vision 2030* and the direction was set for its development.

In the midst of this planning process, a trip to Singapore was arranged for NESC members by Victor Koh, a Singapore resident who was an advisor to the NESC. During

this trip member's minds were opened to future possibilities that economic zones and single window tracking systems for imports to eliminate the opportunity for graft.

Leaders forged formal agreements between the two countries for the development of these projects in Kenya that had been implemented successfully in Singapore. (For a detailed discussion of the vision and leadership of Lee Kuan Yew and the Singapore miracle, see Rotberg, 2012, p. 91-118).

Progress of the Development of Transformational Leadership

This second section of the results was related to the progress of transformative leadership development in Kenya. Findings concerning the progress were as follows:

- (1) The creation of the KSG
- (2) The development of the training curricula at the KSG
- (3) The implementation of the curricula at the KSG
- (4) The curriculum itself and how it measures up to characteristics of a transformed leader
- (5) The anecdotal impact of the transformative leadership training

The creation of the KSG. When the NESC process began create a long-term strategic plan, all public service training was under the auspices of the KIA. NESC members knew that success of *Kenya Vision 2030* would require creating a place of training at the college and university level. Members presented this idea to then Permanent Secretary of the Public Service, Titus Ndambuke, and to his director of KIA, Margaret Kobia. They received the idea of transforming the KIA into the KSG favorably and began to implement it.

The KSG was established as the successor institution to the former KIA and the Kenya Development Learning Centre effective on July 1, 2012 as enacted through the KSG Act No. 9 of 2012 (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2013b, 2014). This Act also brought under KSG the four Government Training Institute campuses located in Mombasa, Matuga, Embu and Baringo. In addition, a sixth campus was established, the eLearning & Development Institute. The charge of KSG from *Kenya Vision 2030* was to “provide research and training for transformative leadership to the highest international standards” (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2007, p. ix).

The mission of the KSG is to provide programs to build core competencies and inculcate public service values and ethics for the public sector within the framework of a devolved system of government. Usage of the term *public sector*, rather than *public service* indicated a desire for elected officials to be included in its education and training mandate to promote a long-term view of national projects. Training programs were envisioned for Members of Parliament to help them understand the workings of government departments and agencies and how public service workers implement their edicts and laws, and that decisions of legislator’s have consequences for citizens. Executive seminars were also envisioned for business persons in the private sector to help them understand the role of government as it relates to their company and enterprise.

The establishment of a center for interfacing business and government was critical as Kenyan bureaucrats sometimes have not understood the private sector. For instance, the treasury may hold up a tax refund for up to a year without understanding that business cannot survive without capital. This action may require a business to go to a bank and

borrow money at an interest rate of ten percent because of the slow response of the government. This has consequence for the company and for the economy.

So the goal for KSG was for it to be the catalyst institution to create enlightened leadership to affect all sectors of Kenya. Leaders must know the impact of their decisions in order to implement *Kenya Vision 2030* projects successfully. This goal raised the expectation by the public for educated, enlightened, and exposed leadership for Kenya to reach its goals by the year 2030. Thus, the KSG was envisaged as a programmatic and systematic approach for the development of enlightened transformative leaders, a path endorsed by the research of Caillier (2016).

The development of the training curricula at KSG. The foundation for transformative leadership training development was earlier training on performance contracting and performance management. Nyamweya (2010) championed the results based management approach in the 1990s and the early 2000s at the KIA. This led to performance based contracting and management training in the early 2000s (Kobia & Mohammed (2006). When *Kenya Vision 2030* was begun and the KSG was established, the training was upgraded to transformative leadership training. It was concretized as a distinct and separate concept from performance contracting and management. Persons began desiring to be trained specifically on transformative leadership.

Many stakeholders including faculty, county leaders, public servants, and other educators were involved in the development of the transformative leadership curriculum. A 2-week course was developed on transformative leadership, and a 6-week course on strategic leadership in which transformative leadership was incorporated (discussed

later). It operationalizes the idea that competencies can be learned to move from transactional leadership to transformational leadership as Mincu (2016) showed.

The implementation of the curricula at KSG. In 2007, leaders at the school started the strategic leadership class because of the demand by public service workers who realized they needed training to develop competencies in visioning, strategic thinking, managing change, and building capacity. This was begun for senior level civil service persons who were policy makers. However, it soon became apparent that senior management personnel not yet in policy positions needed and wanted the same training.

Administrative leaders at KSG then realized that to reach transformation of the nation as called for in *Kenya Vision 2030*, they needed to begin a focused leadership program. This led to implementation of a separate module on transformative leadership, plus the incorporation of transformative leadership principles into all courses at the school. The reasoning for this was (a) the need to change the attitude and mindset, (b) the need to move away from old management ways to new approaches, and (c) the need to structure processes and systems leading to effectiveness and transformation.

Initially, civil servants attended the courses because it was compulsory. However, their attitude soon changed to one of personal motivation to sharpen competencies and skills so that they could lead transformation in the public service. This was motivated by the public exposure generated by *Kenya Vision 2030* in the media as well as increased emphasis within the public service on competencies to receive promotions.

The two programs of strategic leadership and transformative leadership are taught at all campuses throughout Kenya. The curricula were decentralized due to high demand,

and this led to a program to build capacity on satellite campuses by training additional faculty to teach the courses. The training of trainers was followed by team teaching and guest lecturers so that transformative leadership was modeled as well as taught.

The curriculum is not provided at this time to county governors and other county or national elected and appointed officials. Some do attend personally, but not in an organized manner. Thus, administrators at KSG are exploring possible adaptation of the curriculum for this targeted audience to provide a training module on understanding the public service system, developing a shared vision, motivating and leading people, and teamwork.

The curriculum itself and how it measures up to characteristics of a transformed leader. A 2-week course was developed specifically on transformative leadership, and a 6-week course on strategic leadership in which transformative leadership is incorporated. Transformational leadership was at the center of this change in curricula for the purpose of building leaders in the civil service that lead with effectiveness, efficiency, and ethical values.

The shorter course begins with a questionnaire assessment tool to determine the entry point of the attendee on a transformational leadership scale. This tool provides a measurement of attitude, management skills, team building, capability for change, resiliency, and openness to change. It also assists in determining if the student captures the primary essence of the course: (a) to move from one form of leadership to a new transformative style of leadership, (b) to not keep doing things the way they used to be

done, and (c) to foster an overall view to improving outcomes and outputs for the citizen. This assessment tool was requested but was not obtained.

The method of teaching utilizes case studies from across Africa that are discussed in an action learning format. Principles are applied to problems faced in the workplace with proposed requisite solutions. Teaching is not theoretical but is focused on practice in the workplace. Case studies help students to see how others have created transformation through what they did and did not do. KSG hosts an annual retreat for faculty, alumni, practitioners, and other stakeholders to review and revise the curriculum. Emerging issues are discussed and addressed to strengthen the program.

The anecdotal impact of the transformative leadership training. I discovered anecdotal evidence that the training is widely accepted and effective. Attendees have communicated to professors that initially they came because it was required and therefore they must attend, but that focus and attitude has changed to an expressed desire to hone and sharpen competencies so that they can be transformational leaders.

Graduates expressed varying degrees of success. Some senior managers have transformed their own departments even under difficult circumstance. Supervisors of graduates have called the professors at KSG and inquired about the program because their subordinate has become an effective worker. Alumni have come back to the school to share their experiences with students about application of transformative leadership principles in the workplace. They talk about what works and what does not work in very practical terms. This has been a powerful experience for the students because it penetrates their skepticism that the concepts will not work in the workplace. However, when

students hear specific examples from alumni, it is effective in motivating them to apply the training. A professor has begun to document cases of graduates' success but this is not yet in a form to be shared.

Summary

I presented the findings of the research question, including both the process and the progress of development of the training for transformational leadership in the context of *Kenya Vision 2030* public service reform. These findings provided clear and robust insight previously not described. I analyzed the interview data and presented the information. In the following chapter, I discussed the interpretation of the findings.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate, understand, and describe the process and progress of the Kenya strategy to develop transformative leadership training for public service reform as presented in the *Kenya Vision 2030* national strategic plan. The nature of the study was a qualitative research case study designed around the framework of transformational leadership and its development in Kenya. Data were collected through informal interviews and interactive discussion with key public service leadership in Kenya. It was conducted in order to describe and illuminate the process of choosing to include transformative leadership in the national strategic plan and the progress of implementing that aspect of the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan.

Findings concerning the process were as follows: (a) the need for leaders who transform, (b) the impact of the modeling of transformative leadership, (c) hiring of a transformative leader to lead *Kenya Vision 2030*, and (d) the impact of seeing transformation in other countries the team visited.

Findings concerning the progress are (a) the creation of the KSG, (b) the development of the training curricula at KSG, (c) the implementation of the curricula at KSG, (d) the curriculum itself and how it measures up to characteristics of a transformed leader, and (e) the anecdotal impact of the transformative leadership training.

Interpretation of the Findings

These findings confirm knowledge in the literature that leadership is critical if developing nations are to move forward (Ayittey, 2011; Caillier, 2016; Costantinos,

2012, 2016; Cruz & Keefer, 2015; Dartey-Baah, 2014; Felix et al., 2016; Wamwere, 2012) and that transformational leadership has a decided effect on followers and organizations (Trottier et al., 2008). The full impact of the Kenya plan and model is yet to be determined, and this study did not address the result or impact of developing transformational leaders for the public service of Kenya. However, this study does extend knowledge in describing how a developing nation state included transformational leadership in its reform agenda, and how it implemented that aspect of its agenda.

Extension of Knowledge

I found no previous study of *Kenya Vision 2030* and its agenda to include and implement a goal of developing transformative leaders for the public service. There are several studies that mentioned the *Kenya Vision 2030* reform agenda including Kobia and Mohammed (2006), but the focus of their study was on performance management, which was a precursor to *Kenya Vision 2030*. Majeed (2012) also mentioned it being developed, but his case study was focused on performance management and the rapid results initiative in the years prior to this study. Hope (2012) provided insight into public service reform in general resulting from *Kenya Vision 2030* but did not analyze it. None of these researchers focused on the development process of *Kenya Vision 2030* in creating the goal of development of transformative leaders for the public service, nor on the actual development of the transformative leadership aspect of public service reform in Kenya.

Therefore, this study extends knowledge in several ways. First, it provides the background and process of how transformational leadership came to be a key strategy in the *Kenya Vision 2030* public service reform. This is instructive to researchers and to

practitioners who want to either study its impact or duplicate a similar strategy in another country. Second, it provides detailed observations concerning the implementation process of the transformative leadership training curriculum. This has not previously been studied and becomes a guideline for measuring such implementation processes. Third, it presents a synthesis of the small body of literature that connects transformative leadership within the public sector to public service outcomes.

This extension of knowledge is further elaborated in the following statements of the interpretation of the findings and its analysis and discussion that follows:

- The inclusion of transformative leadership in *Kenya Vision 2030* was the result of seeing it modeled by Kenya leadership and in other countries that NESC members visited.
- The *Kenya Vision 2030* call for training and development of transformative leadership was intentional and purposeful.
- The transformational leadership concept had a major impact on the leadership and implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030*.
- The KSG was established and is implementing the transformative leadership training program, and
- The transformative leadership training curricula is developed and operational.

Analysis

The findings are congruent with the theoretical and conceptual framework that was outlined earlier in this study concerning the transformational leadership style.

Transformational leadership is a term of art with specific meanings as articulated and popularized by Burns (1978) as a concept and theory of leadership operating with a new paradigm related to followers that is more than an exchange of commands and rewards, but includes inspirational vision and sense of purpose that is transformative for the followers. This was more than evident in the interviews with Kenyan leaders, as transformational leadership was a term that all were quite conversant in, and they were able to articulate its meaning clearly. It is a leadership model that is ethical, exhibits core values of integrity and service, demonstrates concern for the welfare of the people rather than the enrichment of political elites, and emphasizes statesmanship in attitude and purpose.

Researchers have called for the need to strengthen leadership in the context of the developing world and its institutions (Costantinos, 2012, 2016; Felix et al., 2016), and in this research study, I focused on the stated goal of *Kenya Vision 2030* to develop transformative leadership as a key component in building institutional capacity to reform the public service. The civil service is an indispensable institution in building a progressive nation (Acemoglu & Robinson, 2012; Bratton & van de Walle, 1997) and as such must have visionary and ethical leadership. Therefore, the conceptual lens of transformative leadership in the public service—its development, progress, and potential impact—is critical to the development of a path forward for developing nations. This case study provided an analysis of the process and progress of making transformational leadership a key foundation stone of national reform and of creating and implementing curricula to train transformative leaders for the future.

Interpretation of the data is as follows:

The Inclusion of Transformative Leadership in *Kenya Vision 2030* was the Result of Seeing It Modeled by Kenya Leadership and in Other Countries That NESC

Members Visited

It is confirmed in the literature that transformational leadership does have a great effect upon followers in a public sector setting as well as in bringing reform to that setting (Moynihan et al., 2012, 2014; Van Wart, 2013). Interviewees who worked on the *Kenya Vision 2030* document consistently cited the modeling of transformational leadership by President Kibaki, and the vision they received from visiting other countries where transformational leadership was practiced and results demonstrated as the impetus for them personally and for their vision for the nation. This was particularly true of the visit to Singapore. Rotberg (2012) outlined the transformation and nation building that took place in Singapore under the leadership of Lee Kuan Yew, and this is what became a model for Kenya.

The *Kenya Vision 2030* Call for Training and Development of Transformative Leadership Was Intentional and Purposeful

This interpretation of findings is an extension of knowledge in that one would not know how or why this terminology was included prior to this case study. The terms *transformative leadership* and *transformational leadership* are sometimes used by the public and the government without understanding the true import of their meaning in the research and academic world (see Bass & Riggio, 2006; Burns, 1978), it is seminal information to know that this term was understood in Kenya as a term of art and was

purposefully used in the *Kenya Vision 2030* document. It is most instructive to know that this happened within a developing world country in both promoting public service reform and in articulating a shared vision and motivation on change and innovation, with the goal of eliciting higher performance as Moynihan et al. (2012, 2014) have reported.

The Transformative Leadership Concept Had a Major Impact on the Leadership and Implementation of *Kenya Vision 2030*

This interpretation of findings is related to the leadership of *Kenya Vision 2030*. In linking the finding of transformational leadership being modeled and the finding of intentionality and purposefulness of including it in the national strategic plan, it did not come as a complete surprise that transformational leadership would so clearly impact the implementation of the plan. All of the interviewees used the terminology of transformational leadership readily and profusely, showing that it had permeated the national consciousness and dialogue.

Almost every political administration around the world puts forth a strategic plan of action for its tenure in office; however, in the developing world, it is unique to find a visionary strategic plan that influences the projects and activities of a nation in such a dramatic manner during its time bounded 5-year duration. It is even more instructive and even astounding to see that it continues to make a major impact on the nation spanning several administrations over a 10-year period as evidenced by participants interviewed and a personal observation in 2016, a statement that needs further research.

The KSG was Established and is Implementing the Transformative Leadership

Agenda

KSG was one of the first flagship projects of *Kenya Vision 2030* to be completed when it was established officially on May 9, 2012 (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2014). As the successor to the Kenya Institute of Administration, it began to function with a new mandate as early as 2009. Margaret Kobia was the director general who shepherded its transition. She is presently the chairman of the Public Service Commission that oversees all of the government civil service. KSG has become a large, beautiful campus on the outskirts of Nairobi in Lower Kabete and is presently led by Ludeki Chweya, who is an academic with deep government experience. It regularly hosts seminars and teaching modules for a variety of arenas and has had the Kenya president speak on occasion. It is infused with the idea of creating transformative leaders, and each year is making progress toward that goal. It has many teachers who teach in a transformative manner in order to model it for students. That is the goal, even though traditional academic lecturing is still also practiced.

The Transformative Leadership Training Curriculum is Developed and Operational

It is often that a goal is set forth in the developing world, but the implementation is not completed. It is a testament to transformational leadership within *Kenya Vision 2030* and within the government that the stated goal is being implemented. This was a critical piece of this research as it was first being discussed when I initially travelled to Kenya in 2010, and it was said to be operational by 2012. However, no researcher had

taken the initiative or the time to confirm this. Thus, this study confirms that during the bounded time of 2007 to 2013, the curricula became a reality. The interviews for this study took place in 2016, 5 years later, and the curricula was in full operation and thriving. Classrooms were observed with 50 to 75 civil service personnel studying transformative leadership and how it could change their trajectory and that of their nation.

The primary interpretation of the findings is that transformational leadership must be modeled to have an impact on followers, and once it is seen and experienced, it engenders a desire to practice it and extend that experience to others.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the study are that key data have not been forthcoming. Interviewees promised to send copies of the curriculum and the transformational leadership assessment that is used as an entry point for students into the courses. However, this has not been fulfilled. I am fully confident that this material exists and am working through other channels to obtain copies. Since they were not obtained for this study, the reader or future researcher should seek them out.

Other limitations that were anticipated did not materialize as the gathering of data through the interviews went according to plan and produced valuable information.

Recommendations

While interviewing at the KSG, one of the professors showed me a cabinet full of papers that students had written on transformative leadership examples in Kenya. There were approximately 150 papers that had been written as part of the transformational leadership curriculum. It was explained that some of the papers addressed key persons in

leadership of Kenya as to their style of leadership and whether it had transformative characteristics; other students used real life examples from their own work place in the public service to illustrate where transformative leadership was taking place and its impact; others used leaders from across Africa. Thus, my first recommendation is that these papers need to be read and analyzed relative to the transformative leadership goals of *Kenya Vision 2030*. They could provide a ready resource for further investigation and research.

Further research should be conducted concerning the impact of the transformative leadership training that I have described in this study. Whether or not civil service leaders who have attended the training have become transformational leaders was beyond the scope of this study. This is left for future researchers to interview alumni, survey a broad sample of civil service personnel, or survey alumni of the program. This could provide a next step in documenting the impact of *Kenya Vision 2030* on the broader goal of civil service reform.

Kenya Vision 2030 should also be researched as to its impact on a broader scale than just public service reform. It has already had a huge impact on the Kenyan society in terms of completed implemented projects such as roads, airports, and services (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2013b, 2014). However, this has not been researched.

Implications

The strategic and visionary plan detailed in *Kenya Vision 2030* has the potential to bring positive social change for the nation and its citizens. The potential impact for social

change is that the training of transformative leaders in Kenya can lead to improved services for the citizens of Kenya, can mitigate and eliminate corruption from the public service through building leaders of integrity, and can improve the economy of Kenya as suggested in the literature.

It can also model a process and progress for other African developing countries. Kenya has been looked to as a leader in Africa in terms of the growth of its economy that moved from an almost negative gross domestic product in 2002 to 7% growth by 2007 (Majeed, 2012). This study can potentially add to the mystique of Kenya so that other developing countries will come and study its strategic plan and its development process in the same manner that Kenyans went to Malaysia and Singapore. I have contributed to this possible scenario through this case study of the Kenya experience.

Conclusion

Kenya leaders issued *Kenya Vision 2030* in 2007 and called for the development of transformative leadership training as a path to reform in the public service. In this study, I provided a description of both process and progress of that effort as a key aspect of public service reform during 2007 to 2013. As this training program matures it will potentially produce transformative leadership for the future of Kenya. Future research can track and report on this progress and its impact.

President Uhuru Kenyatta issued *Transforming Kenya: The Second Medium Term Plan 2013-2017* (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2013c) to carry reform progress to the next level. This has continued to impact the country socially and economically. It has engendered optimism. Even amidst the backdrop of problems in Kenya, I share the

optimism of the former director of *Kenya Vision 2030* in his final letter to the nation (Kibati, 2013) for a bright future for Kenya and its people.

The progress and success of the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan (Government of the Republic of Kenya, 2013b, 2014) and its effort to develop a transformational leadership training program is an experiential roadmap for other countries in how to design and implement transformational leadership as a key building block in public service reform. Its impact is not yet determined in Kenya, but much can be learned from the process and progress so far. Mittal & Dorfman (2012) showed that the characteristics of transformational leadership transcend culture and thus have wide applicability.

Additionally, I provided evidence in this study that transformational leadership is a small but critical aspect of civil service reform with the potential to have a large impact in a developing country. An independent and transformative civil service is critical for the checks and balances that are needed in the developing world. This is also true in nations in the developed world. The civil service can be the source of stability in a burgeoning democracy of a developing country even when it stubbornly holds on to autocratic leadership. Transformational leadership can impact the public sector (Wright & Pandey, 2010) and be an engine for progress. It can motivate workers to higher productivity as well as to become service oriented toward citizens.

The development and training of transformational leaders within the developing world has potential returns far beyond the resources required for its implementation. Burns (1978) developed four pillars of his transformational leadership theory, and additional scholars continue to highlight these—(a) individualized consideration, (b)

idealized influence, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) inspirational motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Cetin, 2012; Trottier et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2011). The practice of this formula by leaders leads to characteristics of team building, motivation of workers to performance beyond expectations, shared vision, true public service for citizens, and integrity in lifestyle and operations (Bass & Riggio, 2006). My hope is that this style of leadership and Kenya's success in its development will engender future success of public service reform throughout the developing world.

References

- Abreo, R. P. (1986). Goan contribution to the civil service of British East Africa. *Overseas Pensioner Journal*, 52(2), 2-3. Retrieved from <http://www.britishempire.co.uk/article/goancontributiontocivilservice.htm>
- Acemoglu, D., & Robinson, J. (2012). *Why nations fail: The origins of power, prosperity, and poverty*. New York, NY: Crown Business.
- Adejumobi, S. (2013, May). Rekindling pan-africanism. *New African*, 176-177. Retrieved from <http://newafricanmagazine.com/rekindling-pan-africanism/>
- Ayittey, G. B. N. (1993). *Africa betrayed*. New York, NY: St. Martin's Press.
- Ayittey, G. B. N. (1998). *Africa in chaos*. New York, NY: St. Martin's Press.
- Ayittey, G. B. N. (2010). Traditional institutions and the state of accountability in Africa. *Social Research: An International Quarterly*, 77(4), 1183-1210. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/journal/socialresearch>
- Ayittey, G. B. N. (2011). *Defeating dictators: Fighting tyranny in Africa and around the world*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. (2006). The transformational model of leadership. In G. R. Hickman (Ed.), *Leading organizations* (pp. 76-86). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Boahen, A. A. (1987). *African perspectives on colonialism*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Bratton, M. (2007). Formal versus informal institutions in Africa. *Journal of Democracy*, 18(3), 96-110. Retrieved from

<http://www.journalofdemocracy.org/article/democracy-barometers-part-i-formal-versus-informal-institutions-africa>

- Bratton, M., & Chang, E. C. C. (2006). State building and democratization in sub-saharan Africa: Forwards, backwards, or together? *Comparative Political Studies*, 39(9), 1059-1083. doi:10.1177/0010414005280853
- Bratton, M., & Van de Walle, N. (1997). *Democratic experiments in Africa: Regime transitions in comparative perspective*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Bronkhorst, B., Steijn, B., & Vermeeren, B. (2015). Transformational leadership, goal setting, and work motivation: The case of a Dutch municipality. *Review of Public Personnel Administration* 2015, 35(2), 124-145. doi:10.1177/0734371X13515486
- Brown, S., & Kaiser, P. (2007). Democratizations in Africa: Attempts, hindrances and prospects. *Third World Quarterly*, 28(6), 1131-1149.
doi:10.1080/01436590701507552
- Bruijn, H. (2002). Performance measurement in the public sector: Strategies to cope with the risk of performance measurement. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 15(7), 578-594. doi:10.1108/09513550210448607
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row Publishers.
- Caillier, J. G. (2016). Linking transformational leadership to self-efficacy, extra-role behaviors, and turnover intentions in public agencies: The mediating role of goal clarity. *Administration & Society* 2016, 48(7), 883-906.
doi:10.1177/0095399713519093

- Center for Creative Leadership (2014). Leader effectiveness and culture: The GLOBE study. Retrieved from <http://www.ccl.org/leadership/pdf/assessments/globestudy.pdf>
- Cetin, S. (2012). Leadership in public sector: A brief appraisal. *Dumlupinar University Journal of Social Sciences*, 32(2), 75-85. Retrieved from https://www.thelibrarybook.net/view.php?res=https://birimler.dpu.edu.tr/app/view/s/panel/ckfinder/userfiles/17/files/DERG_/32/2.cilt/75-86.pdf&keyword=Dr.%2C+Deputy+Governor+of+Konya+Province%2C+Konya%2C+Turkey
- Chatteris, C. (2002). Africanism: Good for Africa? Will new leadership emerge? *Commonweal*, 129(13), 16-17. Retrieved from <https://www.highbeam.com/publications/commonweal-p4051/july-2002>
- Chazan, N. (1994). Between liberalism and statism: African political cultures and democracy. In L. Diamond (Ed.), *Political culture & democracy in developing countries* (pp. 59-97). Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Chazan, N., Lewis, P., Mortimer, R., Rothchild, D., & Stedman, S.J. (1999). *Politics and society in contemporary Africa*, (3rd ed). Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Chweya, L. (2003). *Democratization and public service reform in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database. (UMI No. 305288638)
- Costantinos, C. B. (2012). Addressing leadership and public policy impasse in African developmental states. *Journal of International Business and Leadership Studies*,

I(1), 1-14. Retrieved from

http://www.academia.edu/2539559/Addressing_Leadership_and_Public_Policy_in_passe_in_African_Developmental_States

Costantinos, C. B. (2016). *Structural transformation in Africa: Policy, strategy, process & structure, Ethiopia case study*. Public Lecture: Respublica Literaria CXXXIX, MMXVI

Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications

Creswell, J. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Cruz, C., & Keefer, P. (2015). Political parties, clientelism, and bureaucratic reform. *Comparative Political Studies*, 48(14). doi:10.1177/0010414015594627

Dahl, R. A. (1989). *Democracy and its critics*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Dahl, R. A., & Shapiro, I. (2015). *On democracy* (2nd ed.). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Dartey-Baah, K. (2014). Effective leadership and sustainable development in Africa: Is there "really" a link? *Journal of Global Responsibility*, 5(2), 203-218.
doi:10.1108/JGR-03-2014-0014

Diamond, L. (1994a). Introduction: Political culture and democracy. In L. Diamond (Ed.), *Political culture & democracy in developing countries* (pp. 1-27). Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers.

- Diamond, L. (1994b). Causes and effects. In L. Diamond (Ed.), *Political culture & democracy in developing countries* (pp. 229-249). Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Eisenstadt, S. N. (1973). *Traditional patrimonialism and modern neopatrimonialism*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Erdmann, G., & Engel, U. (2006). *Neopatrimonialism revisited - beyond a catch-all concept*. German Institute of Global and Area Studies Working Paper No. 16. Retrieved from <https://www.files.ethz.ch/isn/47014/wp16.pdf>
- Felix, C. O., Ahmad, A. H. B., & Arshad, R. B. (2015). Individualism and collectivism as moderators of moral reasoning and transformational leadership style in the Nigerian public sector. *Journal of US-China Public Administration*, 12(7), 568-577. doi:10.17265/1548-6591/2015.07.007
- Felix, C. O., Ahmad, A. H. B., & Arshad, R. B. (2016). Examining ethical reasoning and transformational leadership style in Nigeria public sector. *SAGE Open*, 6(2), 1-7. doi:2158244016635256
- Fourie, W., van der Merwe, S.C., & van der Merwe, B. (2015). Sixty years of research on leadership in Africa: A review of the literature. *Leadership*, 0(0), 1-30. doi:10.1177/1742715015580665
- Geier, M. T. (2016). Leadership in extreme contexts: Transformational leadership, performance beyond expectations? *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 23(3), 234-247. doi:10.1177/1548051815627359

- Gifford, P. (1999). *African Christianity: Its public role*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University Press.
- Goodsell, C. T. (1965). *Administration of a revolution*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Government of the Republic of Kenya. (2007). *Kenya vision 2030: A globally competitive and prosperous Kenya*. Nairobi, Kenya: Ministry of Planning and National Development, and the National Economic and Social Council, the Office of the President, Republic of Kenya.
- Government of the Republic of Kenya (2013a). *Sessional paper no.10 of 2012 on Kenya vision 2030*. Nairobi, Kenya: Ministry of State for Planning, National Development and Vision 2030. Retrieved from <http://www.vision2030.go.ke/vision-2030-publications/?page=2&com=vision-2030-publications>
- Government of the Republic of Kenya. (2013b). *Progress report on the implementation of the first medium-term plan (2008-2012) of Kenya vision 2030*. Nairobi, Kenya: Republic of Kenya. Retrieved from <http://www.vision2030.go.ke/vision-2030-publications/?page=2&com=vision-2030-publications>
- Government of the Republic of Kenya. (2013c). *Transforming Kenya: The second medium term plan 2013-2017*. Nairobi, Kenya: Republic of Kenya. Retrieved from <http://www.vision2030.go.ke/vision-2030-publications/?page=2&com=vision-2030-publications>

- Government of the Republic of Kenya. (2014). *Vision 2030 flagship projects: Progress report*. Nairobi, Kenya: Republic of Kenya. Retrieved from <http://www.vision2030.go.ke/vision-2030-publications/?page=2&com=vision-2030-publications>
- Greenleaf, R. (1977). Servant leadership. In G. R. Hickman (Ed.), *Leading organizations* (pp. 87-95). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Hope, K. R. (2012). Managing the public sector in Kenya: reform and transformation for improved performance. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance*, 2(4), 128-143. doi:10.5296/jpag.v2i4.2751
- Hope, K. R. (2013). Performance contracting as a performance management tool in the public sector in Kenya: Lessons of learning. *Teaching Public Administration*, 32(2), 204-217. doi:10.1177/0144739413488905
- Jacobsen, C.B., & Salomonsen, H.H. (2015, March). The relationship between transformational leadership and internal communication—performance in public and private organizations: Identifying contextual conditions. Paper presented at the meeting of International Research Society for Public Management, University of Birmingham.
- Kanyinga, K., & Long, J. D. (2012). The political economy of reforms in Kenya: The post-2007 election violence and a new constitution. *African Studies Review*, 55(1), 31–51. doi:10.1353/arw.2012.0002
- Kellis, D.S., & Ran, B. (2012, March). Three pillars of public leadership: Making a difference in public organizations. *Institute of Public Governance & Management*

- E-Bulletin*, 25. Retrieved from
<http://www.esade.edu/public/modules.php?name=news&idnew=754&idissue=62>
- Kellis, D. S. and Ran, B. (2013), Modern leadership principles for public administration: Time to move forward. *Journal of Public Affairs*, 13(1), 130–141.
 doi:10.1002/pa.1453
- Kest, R. T. (2007). *Transformational leadership and its outcomes in a local government* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database. (UMI No. 3253118).
- Kiai, M. (2008). The crisis in Kenya. *Journal of Democracy*, 19(3), 162–168.
 doi:10.1353/jod.0.0016
- Kibati, M. (2013). *Kenya Vision 2030 Open Letter of February 3, 2013*. Nairobi, Kenya: Government of the Republic of Kenya. Retrieved from
<http://www.vision2030.go.ke/vision-2030-publications/?page=2&com=vision-2030-publications>
- Kimari, W., & Rasmussen, J. (2010). Setting the agenda for our leaders from under a tree: The peoples parliament in Nairobi, Kenya. *Institute for African Studies Journal: Nokoko*, 1, 131-160. Retrieved from
<https://carleton.ca/africanstudies/research/nokoko/>
- Kjaer, A. M. (2004). Old brooms can sweep too! An overview of rulers and public sector reforms in Uganda, Tanzania, and Kenya. *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 42(3), 389-413. doi:10.1017/S0022278X04000242

- Kobia, M., & Mohammed, N. (2006, December). *The Kenyan experience with performance contracting*. Paper presented at the meeting of African Association for Public Administration and Management, Arusha, Tanzania.
- Lijphart, A. (1977). *Democracy in plural societies: A comparative exploration*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Lijphart, A. (1999). *Patterns of democracy: Government forms & performance in thirty-six countries*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.
- Logan, C., & Mattes, R. (2010, October). Democratizing the measurement of democratic quality: Public attitude data and the evaluation of African political regimes. *Afrobarometer working paper No. 123*, M. Bratton, (Ed.). Retrieved from <http://afrobarometer.org/sites/default/files/publications/Working%20paper/AfropaperNo123.pdf>
- Majeed, R. (2012, October). Building a culture of results: Institutionalizing rapid results initiatives in Kenya, 2005-2009. *Innovations for Successful Societies*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University. Retrieved from <https://successfulsocieties.princeton.edu/publications/building-culture-results-institutionalizing-rapid-results-initiatives-kenya-2005-2009>
- Mhone, G. C. Z. (2003). The challenges of governance, public sector reform and public administration in Africa. *Governance and Public Administration in Africa*, 10(3), 1-22. Retrieved from <http://unpan1.un.org/intradoc/groups/public/documents/cafrad/unpan009772.pdf>

- Macharia, L.N. (2007). *Clientelism, competition and corruption: Informal institutions and telecommunications reform in Kenya* (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Full Text database. (UMI No. 304810904)
- Marwa, S. M., & Zairi, M. (2009). In pursuit of performance-oriented civil service reforms (CSRs): A Kenyan perspective. *Measuring Business Excellence*, 13(2), 34-43. doi:10.1108/13683040910961199
- Maxwell, J. A. (2013). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Mincu, C. (2016). Building transformational leadership competencies in the public sector to secure quality service. *Calitatea*, (17)S4, 29-41. Retrieved from http://www.srac.ro/calitatea/en/arhiva_supplements.html
- Mittal, R., & Dorfman, P. W. (2012). Servant leadership across cultures. *Journal of World Business* 47(4), Retrieved from <https://www.journals.elsevier.com/journal-of-world-business>
- Moynihan, D. P., Wright, B. E., & Pandey, S. K. (2012). Working within constraints: Can transformational leaders alter the experience of red tape? *International Public Management Journal* 15(3), 315–336. doi:10.1080/10967494.2012.725318
- Moynihan, D. P., Pandey, S. K., & Wright, B. E. (2012). Setting the table: How transformational leadership fosters performance information use. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory* 22(1), 143–164.

doi:10.1093/jopart/mur024

- Moynihan, D. P., Pandey, S. K., & Wright, B. E. (2014). Transformational leadership in the public sector: Empirical evidence of its effects. In Y. Dwivedi, M. Shareef, S. Pandey, and V. Kumar (Eds.), *Public administration reformation: Market demand from public organizations* (pp. 87-104). London, England: Routledge/Taylor and Francis.
- Mueller, S. D. (2011). Dying to win: Elections, political violence, and institutional decay in Kenya. *Journal of Contemporary African Studies* 29(1), 99–117.
doi:10.1080/02589001.2011.537056
- Mueller, S. D. (2014). The resilience of the past: Government and opposition in Kenya. *Conflict, Politics, and Human Rights in Africa No. 2*. Retrieved from <https://www.bu.edu/phpbin/ijahs/publications/?pid=551>
- Mwenda, A. M., & Tangri, R. (2005). Patronage politics, donor reforms, and regime consolidation in Uganda. *African Affairs*, 104(416), 449-467.
doi:10.1093/afraf/adi/030
- Mwangi, G. O. (2008). Political corruption, party financing and democracy in Kenya. *The Journal of Modern African Studies*, 46(2), 267-285.
doi:10.1017/S0022278X08003224
- Nafukho, F. M. (2008). Consensus building, dialogue and spirituality principles of the learning organization paradigm: Implications for Kenya's public service reform agenda. *Journal of Third World Studies*, 25(2), 153-175. Retrieved from <https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1G1-280558463/consensus-building->

dialogue-and-spirituality-principles

- Nasong'o, S. W. (2007). Political transition without transformation: The dialectic of liberalization without democratization in Kenya and Zambia. *African Studies Review*, 50(1), 83–107. doi:10.1353/arw.2005.0126
- Nyamweya, J. (2010). Improving public service delivery: Kenya's public service reform (2003-2007). In M. Claasen & C. Alpin-Lardiés (Eds.), *Social accountability in Africa: Practitioners' experiences and lessons* (pp. 108-122). Cape Town: Idasa.
- Nyong'o, P. A. (2012, February). Evolution of public service in Kenya: Success, challenges, and opportunities (Which way to the future)? Speech delivered at the Kenya Institute of Administration in Nairobi, Kenya on February 16, 2012.
Retrieved from
<https://www.google.com/search?client=safari&rls=en&q=www.nairobi.ksg.ac.ke/..../37-evolution-of-the-public-service-in-kenya-successes-challenges-opportunities&ie=UTF-8&oe=UTF-8>
- Obong'o, S. O. (2013). Particularistic exchanges and pacts of domination in Africa: Examining how patronage appointments may have increased resistance to public sector reforms in Kenya. *International Public Management Review*, 14(1), 27-46.
<http://journals.sfu.ca/ipmr/index.php/ipmr/article/view/121>
- Olowu, B. (1999). Redesigning African civil service reforms. *Journal of Modern African Studies*, 37(1), 1-23. Retrieved from
<https://www.cambridge.org/core/journals/journal-of-modern-african-studies/article/div-classtitleredesigning-african-civil-service->

reformsdiv/F8DF90CEC3C98F360017A51C577B1B53

- Olowu, D. (2010). Civil service pay reforms in Africa. *International Review of Administrative Services* 76(4), 632-652. doi:10.1177/00208523 10381203
- Otenyo, E.E. (1998). *Ethics and public service in Africa*. Nairobi: Quest & Insight in Association with Friends of the Book Foundation.
- Oyugi, W. O. (1988). Bureaucracy and democracy in Africa. In W. Oyugi, E. Odhiambo, M. Chege, & A. Gitonga (Eds.), *Democratic theory and practice in Africa* (pp. 99-110). London, England: James Currey.
- Paarlberg, L.E., & Lavigna, B. (2010): Transformational leadership and public service motivation: Driving individual and organizational performance. *Public Administration Review*, (70)5, 710-718. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6210.2010.02199.x
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Petithomme, M. (2010). The effects of leadership strategies on underdevelopment in sub-Saharan Africa: A comparative perspective. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*, 4(3), 83-95. doi:10.5897/AJPSIR
- Pressman, J. L., & Wildavsky, A. (1984). *Implementation*. Berkeley, CA: The University of California Press.
- Pyper, R., & Burnham, J. (2011). The British civil service: Perspectives on ‘decline’ and ‘modernisation’. *The British Journal of Politics & International Relations*, 13(2), 189-205. doi:10.1111/j.1467-856X.2010.00431.x
- Reynolds, P. D. (2007). *A primer in theory construction*. Boston, MA: Pearson.

- Roberts, P., Priest, H., & Traynor, M. (2006). Reliability and validity in research. *Nursing Standard (through 2013)*, 20(44), 41-5. Retrieved from <https://rcni.com/nursing-standard/evidence-and-practice/clinical/reliability-and-validity-research-12391>
- Rohr, J. (1978). *Ethics for bureaucrats: An essay on law and values*. New York, NY: Marcel Dekker.
- Rostow, W. W. (1971). *The stages of economic growth: A non-communist manifesto*. London, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Rotberg, R. I. (2012). *Transformative political leadership: Making a difference in the developing world*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Rover, D. T. (2005). Centered on education research. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 94(1), 195-197. doi: 10.1002/j.2168-9830.2005.tb00838.x
- Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (2007). *Surviving your dissertation: A comprehensive guide to content and process* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- Sharp, B. S., & Housel, S. W. (2004). Ghosts in the bureaucratic machine: Resurrecting the principles of administration in the Oklahoma health department. *American Review of Public Administration*, 34(1), 20-35. doi: 10.1177/0275074003259234
- Shivji, I. (2009). *Where is Uhuru? Reflections on the struggle for democracy in Africa*. Capetown, South Africa: Pambuzuka Press.
- Simiyu, V. G. (1988). The democratic myth in the African traditional societies. In W. Oyugi, E. Odhiambo, M. Chege, & A. Gitonga (Eds.), *Democratic theory and practice in Africa* (pp. 49-70). London, England: James Currey.

- Taylor, H. (1992). Public sector personnel management in three African countries: Current problems and possibilities. *Public Administration & Development*, 12(2), 193-207. doi: 10.1002/pad.4230120206
- Trottier, T., Van Wart, M., & Wang, X.H. (2008). Examining the nature and significance of leadership in government organizations. *Public Administration Review*, 68(2), 319-333. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6210.2007.00865.x
- van de Walle, N. (2003). Presidentialism and clientelism in Africa's emerging party systems. *Journal of Modern African Studies* 41(2), 297–321.
doi:10.1017/S0022278X03004269
- van de Walle, N. (2007). Meet the new boss, same as the old boss? The evolution of political clientelism in Africa. In H. Kitschelt & S. Wilkinson (Eds.), *Patrons, clients, and policies: Patterns of democratic accountability and political competition* (pp. 50–67). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Wart, M. (2003). Public sector leadership theory: An assessment. *Public Administration Review* 63(2), 214-228. doi:10.1111/1540-6210.00281
- Van Wart, M. (2009). An introduction to leadership and some of the challenges in the study and teaching of it. *The Foundations of Public Administration Series: Leadership*. doi:10.1.1.474.5844
- Van Wart, M. (2013). Lessons from leadership theory and the contemporary challenges of leaders: Theory to practice. *Public Administration Review* 73(4), 553–565. The American Society for Public Administration. doi:10.1111/puar.12069
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J.

- (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of Management*, 34(1), 89–126.
doi:10.1177/0149206307308913
- Wamwere, K. (2012, October 6). Voters are to blame for the leadership woes besetting Kenya. *AllAfrica.Com*. Retrieved from
<http://allafrica.com/stories/201210060584.html>
- Wang, G., Oh, I., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A.E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & Organizational Management*, 36(2), 223-270.
doi:10.1177/1059601111401017
- Weber, M. (2009). *The theory of social and economic organization*. New York, NY: Simon and Schuster.
- Wescott, C. (1999). Guiding principles on civil service reform in Africa: An empirical review. *The International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 12(2), 145-170.
doi:10.1108/09513559910263471
- Wilson, W. (1887). The Study of Administration. *Political Science Quarterly*, 2(2), 197-222. doi:10.2307/2139277
- Wofford, J. C., Whittington, J. L., & Goodwin, V. L. (2001). Follower motive patterns as situational moderators for transformational leadership effectiveness. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13(2), 196-211. Retrieved from
https://www.jstor.org/stable/40604344?seq=1#page_scan_tab_contents

- World Bank (2012). *Devolution without disruption*. Nairobi, Kenya: Poverty Reduction and Economic Unit Africa Region.
- Wright, B.E., & Pandey, S. K. (2010): Transformational Leadership in the Public Sector: Does Structure Matter? *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 20(1), 75-89. doi:10.1093/jopart/mup003
- Wright, B. E., Moynihan, D. P., & Pandey, S. K. (2012). Pulling the levers: Transformational leadership, public service motivation, and mission valence. *Public Administration Review*, 72(2), 206-215. doi:10.1111/j.1540-6210.2011.02496.x
- Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case study research: Design and methods*. Chapter 1: “A (very) brief refresher on the case study method”. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.

Appendix A: Case Study Protocol Questions

1. What was the genesis of *Kenya Vision 2030* as a strategic plan for Kenya?
2. What was the impetus and thinking for inserting *transformative leadership* as a modifier for the public service reform agenda in the *Kenya Vision 2030* strategic plan?
3. What was the meaning of *transformative leadership* in the minds of the framers and early adopters of *Kenya Vision 2030*? And has this meaning been translated into essential characteristics to be included in a curriculum?
4. What has been the process of transitioning from the internal government training organization to the new Kenya School of Government?
5. What has the Kenya School of Government specifically done to create and advance a training agenda around its call to produce transformative leaders?
6. Are there specific goals or incremental objectives in the goal of building transformative leaders within the Kenya public service (civil service)? And if so, what are they?
7. What in your opinion has been the success of this training?
8. Has there been any evidence within the civil service system that transformative leadership is valued as a concept and as a reality? And what is that evidence?
9. What is the progress of building transformative leaders within the public service?
10. What have been setbacks to hinder the progress?
11. What are the barriers to progress?
12. What is your view of the future to fulfill this particular pillar of reform articulated in *Kenya Vision 2030*

Appendix B: Characteristics of a Transformed Leader Curriculum

This list was planned to be used as a starting point to measure the curriculum, or to align to an existing listing should one exist (per question 3 in the Appendix A Protocol Questions). However, because the curriculum was not obtained this was not accomplished. It is left here as a guide for future research.

1. Teaches persons to see others they work with as people equal to themselves with the same needs, cares, and desires
2. Teaches persons to have an honest understanding of their own self and integrity
3. Teaches persons the importance of saying 'thank you' and giving credit to others
4. Teaches persons to understand vision and to develop a personal and professional vision
5. Teaches persons to understand how to develop a shared vision with subordinates
6. Teaches persons to motivate others to work together for a common purpose
7. Teaches persons the concepts of ethics applied personally and professionally
8. Teaches persons how to cope with change
9. Teaches persons how to lead change
10. Teaches persons to develop the potential of their subordinates
11. Teaches persons to understand and apply the term *public service* to their actions, particularly as it relates to serving citizens