AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS OF YOUTH LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IN ZAMBIA: A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT

By

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Declaration

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Acknowledgements

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my Father, Dr Geoffrey Tambulukani, and my mother Constance Douglas Chitambo who have both over the years strived to help me realize the importance of learning and laying the educational foundation for me to attain this level of education.

Abstract

After gaining independence in 1964, Zambia had taken charge of its affairs and this called for a new leadership to take over. This transition for most African countries including Zambia came with a set of challenges among leaders like corruption, bureaucracy, incompetence and lack of expertise. Coupled with this are high expectations from the public directed at government institutions, which need to respond to the basic needs of citizens, and private business institutions, which need to create and sustain economic activity in an often uncertain environment. These transitional challenges call for outstanding leadership in both the public and private institutions.

However, one can make a justified and evidence-based argument that the state of leadership in Zambia, particularly in the public sector, is not living up to these expectations. A number of interventions by the government have been attempted, including the incorporation of the education sector. The interventions include the creation of the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Child Development, the formulation of the "*Educating our Future*" policy document, and periodic revisions of the school curriculum. The effectiveness of these interventions has not been satisfactory and they do not include the intentional development of emerging Zambian leaders.

The goal of this research was to conduct an exploratory analysis of this Zambian youth leadership development practice at upper secondary level in public schools based on an analysis of two case studies. A qualitative approach was adopted and the two case studies were Olympia Secondary school and Northmead Secondary school.

From the findings of the study, it seemed that school activities which require participation from pupils had a significant influence in building leadership skills compared to the theoretical learning which happens in the classroom. The study also established that the curriculum is cross-cutting and does not have a focus on leadership development, it has a life skills framework, and this makes it inadequate in effectively facilitating youth leadership development (YLD), though it does so indirectly. The main barriers to YLD are; the lack of willingness from pupils to develop their leadership skills; the school environment does not facilitate effective leadership training; and the school teachers, instructors and society themselves lack the appreciation for leadership development and the training to develop leadership skills in pupils. I further established that the model for YLD in Zambian public schools appears to be a mixture or combination of the models discussed in this study. The models looked at in this study are the conceptual model which focused

on formal teaching of leadership; Leadership identity development model with a relational and ethical process of people attempting positive change; Heifetz's adaptive leadership model; and the social change model.

The study concludes that more specific investments and intervention with a focus on leadership development in public schools would result in the development of effective leadership which will lead to social change and national development.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

CDC- Curriculum Development Centre

ICT- Intentional Change Theory

YDF- Youth Development Fund

YLD- Youth Leadership Development

FGDs- Focus Group Discussions

FFA- Future Farmers of America Club

LID- Leadership Identity Development

NCWD- National Collaboration on Workforce and Disability for Youth

NYDA- National Youth Development Agency

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1.0 CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

In this chapter I begin by laying the background to the study, it also includes the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, significance of the study, research objectives and questions, and definition of terms.

1.2 Background

There are two schools of thought that will help to set the background for this study; these are the Afrocentric and Decolonisation school. The Afrocentric School holds that pre-colonial Africa was a near perfect society; a significant factor attributed to this was great leadership. The Decolonisation school on the other hand holds the view that pre-colonial Africa was not so perfect, with the nature of leadership playing a key role in the argument. The views from both schools show the role of leadership in shaping society and they will also help to establish a clearer picture of the extent the past has influenced leadership today.

According to the Afrocentric School, unlike more individualistic societies where there is a greater emphasis on self-interest (Erez & Early, 1993), the African cultural paradigm considers the needs of the group first, believing that in so doing, individual needs and desires will be met. As a result, team rewards would take precedence over individual rewards. The consequences of rewarding individuals in this collectivist society could result in social punishment and sabotage of performance (Mbigi, 2002; Theimann & April, 2006).

Customs and traditions establish the governance procedures and the leaders are the custodians of culture and as such, have a high sense of personal destiny and self-awareness. The leader must personify the unity of the tribe and live the values of the community in an exemplary way (Thiemann, 2003: 15). Nussbaum (2003: 2) lists these values as "the expression of compassion, caring, sharing and responsiveness to the community as a whole." Sharing is based on a commitment to help others, as well as the network of social obligations inherent in the community (Thiemann & April, 2006). Openness is central to building the community, and open retribution is avoided (Thiemann, 2003).

Sensitivity to inclusiveness, transparency and tolerance also form part of the leadership repertoire, as does the ability to listen for shared understanding (Nussbaum, 2003). According to Nussbaum

(2003), the chief is only a chief, as defined by his or her followers, and essentially amounts to nothing without them. This interconnected identity is one in which the power of leadership is ascribed to the leader by choice (but may equally be takien away when the followers no longer feel that the leader embodies their collective vision). Rather than impose rule, the leader would therefore truly lead by listening and assessing the collective opinions of the council. Typically, issues are discussed and debated relentlessly until there is a shared understanding and consensus is reached that accommodates the minority positions to ensure justice. Like Nussbaum, Mbigi (2002: 21) stresses that "compromise, persuasion, discussion and accommodation, listening and freedom of speech are the key elements of the African leadership paradigm."

Mbigi (2002) outlines some of the key values of African leadership as follows: respect for the dignity of others; group solidarity (an injury to one is an injury to all); teamwork (none of us is greater than all of us); services to others in the spirit of harmony; and interdependence (each one of us needs all of us).

On the other hand, the decolonization school holds the view that pre-colonial Africa had its own fair share of ills, even in terms of leadership. It is argued that Africa had elements of corruption, bribery and autocratic leadership among other negative elements that still have an effect on post-colonial Africa. According to Antwin (2005), what could have been considered as generosity by a leader in pre-colonial Africa, would be considered as bribery or corruption in modern Africa. There also exists an extreme respect and loyalty to authority which, when viewed through Western lenses could be viewed as creating an autocratic environment. However, this view is justified considering that the aim of the leader's actions is for the common good despite showing dictatorial tendencies.

Youth leadership development in Zambia can be understood by taking an examination of how the African continent has evolved; for example Africa today hopes to have a new breed of young leaders who will move the continent forward by leading selflessly and realizing that they are servants of the people rather than ones ruling with greed and corruption, who take advantage of their position at the expense of others. Tackling the numerous and complex challenges faced on the continent requires good leadership, and as stated by the African Union Youth Charter, African youth should play a pivotal role in this process (African Union, 2006).

The continent needs to take the good from the past and leave out the negatives. For this to be achieved, deliberate steps need to be taken by the current leadership to empower the youth to play their role in fostering development and be able to influence the direction of society.

Mentorship of emerging young leaders has always been a part of African practices. Values and beliefs would be passed on to new generations to sustain the good and criticize the bad through methods that included myths and parables. In today's modern society, mentorship and leadership development needs to be done to ensure continued growth in the quality of leadership.

One prominent way to achieve this is through youth leadership programmes and initiatives. These programmes and initiatives help the youth to develop leadership skills that are essential for them to contribute to their communities. Such programs help youth to become empowered problem solvers and determined future leaders. Such civic engagement builds and fosters community capacity and resiliency (Brennan, 2008).

1.2.1 Youth Empowerment in Zambia

In Zambia, the government implemented the National Youth Policy and created the Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development to empower the youth in various ways including leadership development. The government through the Ministry of Sport, Youth and Child Development aims to empower youths to be significant and effective contributors to the development of the country. Part of this empowerment is through leadership training and the development of other skills that may not be directly related to leadership but will enable the youth to be leaders in various sectors of the country.

A number of programmes have been setup to achieve this. For example in 2006, the Youth Development Fund was re-introduced in the budget to provide grants and loans for starting and scaling youth enterprises. The objectives of the fund are to promote active participation of youth in socio-economic development of the country; encourage the out of school, marginalized and unemployed youth to venture into sustainable and viable income generating projects.; promote the development of competitive sustainable and growth oriented citizen owned youth enterprises; promote rural development; provide business support services for sustainable youth enterprise development; and create sustainable employment for young people through the development of sustainable projects (Audit Report, 2015).

The fund which the government set up to enhance youth leadership development was meant to be a revolving fund, which demands efficient utilization and growth of the resources in order to be paid back and given to another recipient.

Another initiative set up by the government was the skills and entrepreneurship training programme which is designed for all school drop outs, those who have never been to school and to those who have passed but because of inadequate access to colleges and the universities are unable to proceed with their education. The above shows that the ministry has been running a Leadership Training programme which is tailored to specifically equip the youth with leadership skills for them to become responsible citizens and future leaders of Zambia. Furthermore, the Ministry has embarked on such activities as entrepreneurship training, provision of tools like the technical know-how to create jobs and starting capital. With the belief that if such activities are sustained, the youth will not only be empowered with the necessary equipment, but also the leadership qualities needed to manage resources for the benefit of society. (ibid).

1.2.2 The Zambian Education System

In addition to the above initiatives, the government recognized the fact that reforming the school system can help to enhance youth development. Hence the school system in Zambia has experienced a number of reforms and adaptations to ensure youth development. Education has been recognized as a human right in Zambia, which means all should have access to it, including the youth. This right is entrenched at the international and regional level as a 'fundamental human right'. The importance of entrenching the right to education is based on certain premises (Pierre du Plessi et al, 2007).

Firstly, it is a precondition for the exercise and understanding of other human rights. The government further recognizes the fact that the enjoyment of many civil and political rights, such as freedom of information and expression as well as the right to vote requires a minimal level of education which includes literacy. Secondly, many economic, social and cultural rights, such as the right to choose work, to receive equal pay for equal work and the right to have equal access to public representation, can only be exercised in a meaningful way once a basic education has been achieved. The government categorized education as an 'empowerment right' which gives individuals control over their lives and enables them to positively contribute to their communities.

(Statement by Hon. Kenneth Chipungu, MP, Minister of Sport, Youth and Child Development on Youth Empowerment and Job Creation, 2010).

Among the initiatives the government adopted in the education system is the concept of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE). This is an approach to learning that moves away from the Behavioural Approach and seeks to link education to real life experiences as it gives learners skills to access, criticize, analyze and practically apply knowledge. Learners are given practical experiences during the teaching and learning processes that help them gain life skills. This was introduced because there has been a concern that teaching was not responding to the needs of the society. Hence, the shift of focus to Outcomes-Based Education would help enhance youth leadership development (Zambia Education Curriculum Framework, 2013).

Another initiative by the government was Dynamism of the Curriculum. From time to time, individual, community, national and global needs change, knowledge expands and new technologies emerge (Vince Casarez, 2009). Considering that an effective curriculum should meet these changes, the Ministry of General Education will revise the curriculum periodically. It will also review other documents that go with the curriculum such as the syllabuses, teachers' and teacher-educators' materials (Zambia Education Curriculum Framework, 2013).

Learning is another initiative and is a tool for society in the social, economic and political development. Therefore, every individual should be given an opportunity to access it. One gains knowledge, skills, values and positive attitudes that enable them to function in any given environment. Therefore, the curriculum is designed to meet the individual and societal needs through learning. (Ibid).

The government also saw the need to adopt an initiative called Reflective Education. Education involves the passing on of cultural heritage, values, traditions, language, knowledge and skills from generation to generation. In the past, traditional education was provided by adults and peers in an informal setting. With the introduction of formal education, learning institutions share the responsibility with the home and local communities of passing on to learners that part of the cultural heritage which is meaningful and useful in today's society. (Ibid). The curriculum should, therefore, respect and retain elements of the past and also be able to develop and assess competences needed for Zambia's tomorrow.

The concept of Life-Long Learning is another initiative which entails that learning takes place not only in classrooms but in all kinds of contexts, including personal experiences and being in contact with other people. It starts before the child is born and continues throughout their lifetime. It should respond to personal and societal needs. The curriculum, therefore, should take into account the fact that formal learning is, among other things, meant to function as a starting point for continued Life-Long Learning. (Ibid). And to prepare the students for further learning and participation in the society, Civic education is included in the Zambian Education curriculum. Civic education has the ability to make learners think critically and creatively and becoming informed and get involved in the societal needs (Muleya, 2015).

In 2002, a study commissioned by the Governance Portfolio of the Irish Aid was embarked upon to see the feasibility of introducing Civic Education in High Schools. The findings pointed clearly to the fact that Civic Education needed to be extended to the high school level as opposed to the junior level of the school system where it was confined partially for many years under the guise of civics. It was identified that there was an urgent need for the introduction of Civic Education at high school level to mitigate the gap arising from the confinement of the subject to the junior level of our school system (Irish Aid Report, 2002).

These initiatives were created to ensure that the youth who go through the Zambian education system adopt certain life skills that are essential for the development of the country. Leadership is one such a skill that is vital and is to be passed on to the emerging youth leaders from the older generation, more of the good elements and less of the bad is the goal. Government efforts to enhance the well-being of the youth are also supplemented by other institutions like Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Trade schools that offer life skills to the youth. But despite of the existence of these institutions, there has been little success in achieving meaningful youth development in Zambia, even more specifically in terms of leadership development. This has to a large extent been due to the lack of institutional capacity that decreases their operational capability (National Youth Policy, 1994:9).

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The mandate of promoting youth leadership development in Zambia is a consented effort from various stakeholders in society, including the education sector which is a significant contributor.

To develop leadership competencies among the youth, the government through the ministry of education introduced civic education in the school syllabus to prepare the pupils to be relevant citizens in society who will drive various sectors of the state. Among the initiatives to promote leadership development include competence building through sports and clubs in schools. Despite of these initiatives, there seems to be a crisis of leadership in society. And society is comprised of the majority of individuals who pass through the public school system.

The society is characterized by a number of social ills at various levels. These include exam malpractice, low innovation levels by citizens to solve the nation's problems, HIV/Aids and poverty. The rest of the world views Africa as a place plagued by corruption, dictatorship, military coups, rebellious leaders, greediness, misuse of power, incompetent leadership, politically as well as economically ineffective and suspicious leaders who undermine their own democracies. (Masango 2002). Zambia is no exception. Most government institutions are plagued by corruption, greediness and incompetence. And even at high levels of political leadership, it is generally believed that "politics is a dirty game. However, the truth is that politics is not dirty but rather the people who engage in it. Politics is to be an instrument of justice, fair play and good behavior towards fellow human beings (Zambia Daily Mail Limited, 2018).

Youth leadership development is a significant part of the answer to reverse this negative trend and re-build a society where leadership is once more viewed as an opportunity to serve and foster unity at all levels of society (Kasonde, 2015). It is however not clear what leadership development entails at secondary level to prepare the pupils to contribute positively to society. With this lack of clarity, there is need to explore the practice of youth leadership development in Zambia, specifically at two secondary public schools which are Northmead and Olympia secondary school. This will give a clearer picture of what can be done to ensure a better quality of leadership in the nation.

1.4 Goal of the Research
The goal of this research is to explore the practice of youth leadership development in upper secondary public schools in Zambia. The study will conduct a case study of two public secondary schools.

1.5 Justification of the Study
The findings and recommendations of this study will inform the design, development and facilitation of programmes for leadership development at upper secondary school level among the

youth who are interested in influencing social, economic, political and developmental agendas through the embodiment of balanced, value-driven leadership in their respective fields of interest. The necessary skills, actions, competencies and knowledge needed for youth leadership development and the creation of an environment conducive to learning and practicing these will become evident in this study. The finding will also influence policy on youth leadership development by the Ministry of Youth, Sports and Child Development.

1.6 Research Objectives
The study was guided by the following objectives:

(a) To investigate what youth leadership development entails in Zambia.

(b) To determine whether or not the contents of the curriculum of public high schools in Zambia depict youth leadership development programmes.

(c) To investigate whether or not there are barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia.

(d) To recommend a model necessary for youth leadership development in Zambia.

1.7 Research Questions
The following research questions guided the study:

(a) What does youth leadership development entail in Zambia?

(b) Do the contents of the curriculum in public high schools depict youth leadership development programmes?

(c) What are the barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia?

(d) What is the model for youth leadership development in Zambia?

1.8 Definition of Terms

Youth: The African Union defines the youth as people aged 15-35 years, whereas a range of international organizations define and publish statistics on the youth as people aged 15-24 years (African Union, 2011).

Leadership Development: According to Jobson (2011), leadership development, especially as it pertains to the youth, is a complex field to define and that programmes that define themselves as promoting leadership development often do little to distinguish between life skills and leadership training.

Youth Development: Definitions of youth development typically characterize it as a process or approach in which young people become competent or develop competencies necessary to be successful and meet challenges (Center for Youth Development and Policy Research, 1996; National Collaboration for Youth, 2003; Pittman, 1991; Youth Development Institute, n.d.; Youth Development Block Grant, 1995).

Curriculum: The term curriculum refers to the lessons and academic content taught in a school or in a specific course or programme. Depending on how broadly educators define or employ the term, curriculum typically refers to the knowledge and skills students are expected to learn, which includes the learning standards or learning objectives they are expected to meet; the units and lessons that teachers teach; the assignments and projects given to the students; the books, materials, videos, presentations, and readings used in a course; and tests and assessments and other methods used to evaluate student learning (The Glossary of Education Reform, 2015).

1.9 Summary

This chapter gave the background to the study and put in into context. It also described the research problem, goal of the research, justification, research objectives and questions and definition of terms.

2.0 CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

A vast body of literature on leadership theory and practice exists. A plethora of leadership styles, theories, conceptualizations and models is found in the literature and it would be too exhaustive to discuss all of these here. The first section conducts a review of academic inquiry into broad definitions of leadership and the guiding principles of good leadership; thereafter theoretical definitions of youth leadership development and the roles of schools; additionally, it also looks at barriers to YLD and a number of YLD models. The last section presents the theoretical framework that is based on the social-learning theory and intentional change theory.

2.2 Broad Definitions of Leadership

In this section, broad theoretical definitions of leadership will be given. Early research on leadership focused on the traits and qualities of individual leaders. In the early 1900s so-called "great-man theories" were most popular and attempted to qualify leadership in terms of the innate characteristics and qualities of individuals (DuBrin, 2010). Intelligence and appearance would be some of the personality traits considered, as well as the social position of the individual. Trait theories therefore differentiated leaders from "other" individuals on the basis of observational studies of the individual's unique characteristics (Bass in MacNeil, 2006).

According to MacNeil (2006), the mid-twentieth century brought a shift from the individual's traits to organizations or groups. Behavioural approaches to leadership make a distinction between relationship-related behaviour and task-related behaviour; the former referring to leaders acting in ways that ensure that team roles and relationships among team members ensure productivity, whereas the latter refers to leadership success achieved by paying attention to the technical work that needs to be done (DuBrin, 2010).

Building on the behavioural approaches, the situational leadership theory and model developed by Hersey and Blanchard does not focus on a specific style, but suggests that successful leaders adjust their style based on the level of maturity of their followers (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). This type of leadership is about adjusting to the requirements of the task at hand, with consideration of the nature or quality of the followers the leader has to achieve that task. This is achieved by the leader having influence over the followers.

The notion of influence led to the conceptualization of charismatic and transformational leadership. House (1977) argues that charismatic leaders could be distinguished from others by their tendency to dominate, a strong conviction in their own beliefs and ideals, a need to influence others, and high self-confidence. Weber (1978) defined charisma as "a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional powers or qualities" (DuBrin, 2010: 83-91). There are a range of commonalities between transformational leadership and charismatic leadership, and in the literature the two terms are often used interchangeably. However, Bass & Riggio (2006) see charisma as only a part of transformational leadership, found in its subcomponent of idealized influence and inspirational motivation.

Transformational leadership is one that inspires and stimulates followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and to develop their own leadership capacity in the process (Bass & Riggio, 2006). They are able to motivate followers to go beyond their own immediate self-interest, and it is from their capacity to exemplify this kind of leadership that referent power is bestowed upon followers (Grint, 1997).

Another type of leadership is transactional leadership. It involves the exchange of incentives by leaders for support from followers. The object of such leadership would be agreement on a course of action that satisfies the immediate and separate purposes of both leaders and followers (Keely, 2004:149). Transactional leadership, with its emphasis on the transactional exchanges between leaders and followers, is thus more technocratic and does not focus on the articulation of vision or shared goals in order to foster followers' commitment.

Klau (2006) conducted a grounded-theory exploration on leadership education theory and practice and synthesized theoretical conceptions of leadership. He defined various concepts of leadership; some will be included in this section. Civic Leadership involves interest in and engagement with issues of broad public interest. Leadership as formal authority is the attainment of a position of formal authority in an organization. Service leadership is another type of leadership which involves a commitment to engaging in activities dedicated to helping underserved or needy populations. Intellectual leadership is the ability to reason clearly and persuasively in a manner that influences others. And lastly, moral and spiritual leadership is the commitment to the cause of promoting social justice (Ibid).

2.3 The Heifetz Framework

With the above broad definitions of leadership, Heifetz developed a framework to give clarity and contextualize the definitions. Ronald Heifetz's model of "adaptive leadership" holds particular value for academics and practitioners interested in working with youth. This is of relevance to the study of youth leadership development. The Heifetz framework presents theoretical distinctions that bring considerable clarity to the question of what is meant by the term leadership. After reviewing the major movements in leadership theory (the trait approach, the situational approach, and the transactional approach), Heifetz highlights a conceptual problem that runs through much of this work: These general approaches attempt to define leadership objectively, without making value judgments. When defining leadership in terms of prominence, authority, and influence, these theories introduce value biases implicitly without declaring in their introduction and without arguing for the necessity of the values introduced (Heifetz, n.d).

While he recognizes that these approaches have provided some useful insights, Heifetz makes a strong case that this lack of clarity is problematic. He notes that leadership has been exercised in the past by figures such as Rosa Parks and Mohandas Gandhi, who made an impact from a societal position that initially lacked formal prominence, authority, or influence. On the basis of this insight, Heifetz argues for making a distinction between authority and leadership. While the two concepts are related and frequently confused, one need not possess authority to exercise leadership. Authority involves holding a formal position, such as student council president, teacher, principal, or CEO. However, as the examples of Parks and Gandhi demonstrate, individuals without authority may still attempt to exercise leadership. Davis (2003) agrees with Heifetz and added that leadership has been recognized as an activity that can "bubble up" in various places within institutions and no longer is only focused on formal leadership roles.

Because young people rarely wield formal authority in society, this critique of the literature on adult leadership is particularly salient for scholars interested in exploring the practice of youth leadership. The majority of students who graduate from high school in most or arguably all parts of the world including Zambia do not hold a formal leadership position in the common sense. These may be political positions or high social or economic positions. It is still however expected of them to have developed leadership skills that will make them relevant citizens. It is therefore vital to view leadership beyond formal positions.

Macie Hall (2013) added that the practice of leadership usually happens in an authority structure, however when an adaptive challenge occurs, the people in the authority structure contribute but others must participate as well. All people involved are affected by the problem, and that shared ownership of the problems makes them part of the solution. The youth are affected by a lot of ills in Zambia, they are therefore vital participants in solving the problems. The solution involves leadership demands that pop up at various levels from various individuals including the youth.

2.4 Six Guiding Principles of Good Leadership

There are guiding principles that help identify good leadership, and in the context of this study, it will be relevant to get this understanding. These conceptual precepts are: Linked to all of these is the notion of good versus bad, or ineffective, leadership. One can argue that these notions of leadership are important for studying the process of leadership and youth leadership development. Below is the expansion of each of the guiding principles.

2.4.1 Servant Leadership

While the concept of servant leadership dates back to 2000 years ago, the modern servant leadership campaign was launched by Robert K. Greenleaf in 1970 in his publication "The servant as leader". He defined a servant leader as one who wants to serve first. It starts with the natural desire to serve then follows the inspiration to lead. This is the opposite of a leader who wants to lead first and then serve later. (Kent Keith, 2012). A person who embodies servant leadership may also be defined as "a leader whose primary purpose for leading is his or her commitment to serve others by investing in their development for the benefit of accomplishing tasks and goals for the common good" (Page & Wong, 2000:70). For example, a servant leader might question how their efforts uplift those who are underrepresented or are from a lower economic standing before seeking to attain a position of control. This is quite evident in the healthcare world, for instance, as medical practitioners work to benefit their patients and assist their peers and teammates in providing that care. In the business world, it can mean seeing that employees, customers, and all other stakeholders can prosper through their service. In the school environment, the students in leadership positions need to have the same mentality where the needs of the rest of the students are met before theirs.

Even upon attaining a position of power, a servant leader typically encourages their subordinates to serve others other than focusing of personal gain. And they also aim to share power with others

and encourage the development and growth of others. (Investopedia, 2018). One of the ways to observe this kind of leadership is power sharing, which is the opposite of autocratic or dictatorial leadership. In practice of youth leadership development in Zambia, power sharing is supposed to be a deliberate practice to teach the young leaders.

Sendjaya, Sarros & Santora (2008:406) identified six characteristics of a servant leader. The first one is voluntary subordination to principles of service or a good cause that improves the lives of fellow human beings; secondly authentic self, referring to leaders being true to a set of values and beliefs; responsible morality in a person's actions is the third – are they good or bad?; covenantal relationship with a higher power or being which influences work ethic and a person's relationship with followers is the other characteristic; the fifth is transcendental spirituality, referring to a focus on values, organizational goals and a connectedness to others; and lastly; transforming influence, which refers to the influential impact that the leader's actions have on followers. These characteristics help to give a clearer picture of what a servant leader looks and acts like. They are not comprehensive and the characteristic's use as a gauge of good leadership may be culturally sensitive. For example in more circular societies like the United States, covenantal relationship with a higher power may not be as influential as compared to the African society to influence a person's relationship with others.

To further add clarity to servant leadership, Liden, Wayne, Zhao and Henderson (2008:162) identified and validated the following nine dimensions of servant leadership; these show some similarities, but also make important additions to the characteristics of Sendjaya et al. The nine dimensions include emotional healing, referring to the act of showing sensitivity to the personal concerns of other people; creating value for the community is said to constitute a conscious, genuine concern for helping the community; conceptual skills, referring to the possession of knowledge of the organization and tasks at hand so as to be in a position to effectively support and assist others, in particular immediate followers; empowering, which includes encouraging and facilitating others in identifying and solving work-related problems; helping subordinates grow and succeed, by providing support and mentoring for the career growth and development of followers; putting subordinates first by using actions and words to make it clear to others that satisfying their work needs is a priority; behaving ethically by interacting fairly, transparently and honestly with others; focusing on relationships by making a genuine effort to know, understand,

and support others in the organization, especially immediate followers; and embodying servant hood, referring to a desire to be characterized by others as someone who serves others first, even when self-sacrifice is required.

It is also argued that leaders need to lead in thought as well, to bring up new ideas and inspire their followers to do the same. The next guiding principle is "Thought Leadership."

2.4.2 Thought Leadership
According to McCrimmon (2005), thought leadership is based on the power of ideas to transform the way one thinks. Thought leaders champion new ideas laterally to peers or upward to superiors. It is said that because new knowledge often has a life of its own, thought leadership is not dependent on influencing skills, the power of personality or the authority of position.

Thought leadership may then lead to the development of a network of new ideas that do not belong to a specific leader; ideas that have evolved through a range of innovative thinkers. This example illustrates the multi-faceted nature of leadership and its complementary theoretical constructs. With numerous problems Africa is facing, new ideas on how to solve them and create the desired society are needed. The youth need to be encouraged and guided to think and also share their thoughts about what affects them in society and what they feel should be done. A democratic system of governance coupled with a relevant education system that inspires innovation can promote this type of leadership. The school system in Zambia has a critical role to play in the promotion of this kind of leadership.

2.4.3 Ethical Leadership
DuBrin (2006) argues that ethics are central to leadership as the role of a rational leader is to synthesize the interests of all parties so that maximum benefits are gained from individual and institutional decisions. Morality, ethical behaviour and integrity are values that most followers expect of their leaders.

According to DuBrin (2006:142) "Integrity refers to loyalty to rational principles; it means practicing what one preaches regardless of emotional or social pressure." The ethical standards and levels of integrity of leaders differ, and it is said that a number of factors explain the possible reasons for this. These are: The level of greed, gluttony, and avarice, referring to leaders who seek to maximize their personal returns, even if at the negative expense of others (followers); the

level of moral development of leaders, which is said to pass through a pre- conventional, conventional and post-conventional level. The latter level is where a leader seeks to do the most good for the majority of people through an internalized set of beliefs and a value system that does not seek personal recognition; sense of entitlement which is an acquired behavioural trait that certain leaders develop that makes them think they are entitled to whatever they desire; situational factors such as an organizational culture that either tolerates unethical behaviour or does not tolerate it; personal character, referring to the quality of an individual's character; and motivated blindness, referring to leaders who only see what they want to see and choose to ignore contradictory information that may, for example, lead to a conflict of interest in organizational actions (DuBrin, 2010).

The above factors show that ethical leadership can be developed by educating the youth and creating environmental conditions that promote ethical leadership and are intolerant to unethical behaviours. Ethical behaviour can be a learnt and developed both as an individual and group trait.

Katarina et al. (2010) argue that ethical leaders think about long-term consequences, drawbacks and benefits of the decisions they make in the organization. They are humble, concerned for the greater good, strive for fairness, take responsibility and show respect for each individual. Ethical leaders set high ethical standards and act in accordance with them. They influence ethical values in people around them through their behaviour. Leaders serve as role models for their followers and show them the behavioural boundaries set. They are perceived as honest, trustworthy, courageous and demonstrating integrity. The more the leader "walks the talk", by translating internalized values into action, the higher level of trust and respect he generates from followers.

According to educational psychologists, for a leader to be ethical, they need to develop an ethical mind. Developing an ethical mind is said to begin with a belief that an ethical compass is essential to the health of institutions. The leader must do rigorous self-tests on his or her own beliefs and reflect on the ethical nature of the decisions that he or she makes in order to develop the ethical mind. (DuBrin, 2010).

The questions that ethical leaders would ask are: Is it right? Is it fair? Who gets hurt? Would you be comfortable if the details of your decision or actions were made public in the media or through

e-mail? What would you tell your child, sibling, or young relative to do? And how does it smell? (Ibid).

According to Trevino & Nelson (2011), havening the ethics internalized results in leadership actions that strive towards collective good, whilst placing personal reward as a secondary objective. This notion of leading for the "greater good" is termed as the consequential theory of ethics by Slabbert and Mnyongani (2009), emanating from the works of the philosopher Jeremy Bentham.

2.4.4 Effective Leadership

Kellerman who argues that one needs to make the distinction between good leadership and bad or "toxic" leadership. And in terms of performance and consequences, leadership action is not neutral (Kellerman, 2004). This distinction can be clarified by considering the effects of leadership and leadership effectiveness. Leadership effectiveness is referred to as the extent to which the process of leadership brings about institutional or group success (Bass, 1995:469).

According to DuBrin (2013: 515) effective leadership may be defined as "attaining desirable outcomes such as productivity, quality, and satisfaction in a given situation". This clarification is vital because there are instances where a leader achieves a goal that brings devastation. An example given by Kellerman (2004) is that of Adolf Hitler who managed to have a lot of followers and lead a successful genocide against the Jews. This does not qualify as effective leadership.

Linked to effective and ineffective leadership are the concepts of resonance and dissonance in a leadership context.

2.4.5 Resonant and Dissonant Leadership

Linked to the emotional aspects of leaders and the people they are leading is Resonant Leadership. According to Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee (2002), resonance is created when leaders drive emotions positively. In contrast to creating resonance, when leaders drive emotions negatively dissonance is created, which destabilizes the emotional foundations "that let people shine".

United Nations Public Administration Network (UNPAN) published a presentation based on the work by Daniel Goleman, resonant leaders are said to exert the following action and leadership competencies (UNPAN, 2002): tune into their own values, priorities, sense of meaning, and goals – this creates harmony in a team context and assists people to connect to each other; lead

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authentically; tune into other people's sense of values, priority, meaning, and goals – this enables greater buy-in and a sense of meaning from team members; when they tune into others, it helps followers tune into the aspirations and desired change leaders envision; and lastly create a climate where you can articulate a mission that moves people.

The latter point addresses the objective of achieving team motivation, or in this instance, team resonance. The grand thesis of resonant leadership theory is that performance of teams will increase and people will be more "happy" in executing tasks in both the individual and collaborative or institutional sense. UNPAN (2002) further describes the characteristics of a resonant team as: releasing energy in people that puts them in a state where they can work at their best; the members "vibrate" together with positive emotional energy that adds value to creativity and efficiency in work; and when a team resonates, or shows team emotional intelligence, it enhances performance (UNPAN, 2002).

Boyatzis and McKee (2005) identify three elements that are central to sustaining resonant leadership. These are: mindfulness, hope and compassion. These need to be intentionally strived for. It involved focused identification of our personal vision and our current reality, and conscious creation and engagement in a learning agenda (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005).

It is clear that leadership is beyond action and thought, but also involves emotions and heart that influence action and thought. This brings to light the need for emotional intelligence in leadership development.

2.4.6 Emotionally Intelligent Leadership
Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill, or self-perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one's self, of others, and of groups. People who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves very well and are also able to sense the emotions of others. They are affable, resilient, and optimistic. Surprisingly, emotional intelligence is a relatively recent behavioral model: it was not until the publication of Emotional Intelligence: Why It Can Matter More Than IQ by Daniel Goleman that the term became popular.

The three facets of emotionally intelligent leadership (EIL), according to Allen, Facca, Shankman & Haber (2012), include a person's levels of consciousness of self, consciousness of others, and consciousness of context. The EIL framework asserts that awareness and regulation of emotions

in the self and others is critical to developing and sustaining good leadership (Allen et al., 2012). By maintaining an internal focus on self, context and others, emotionally intelligent leaders are said to be better at navigating leadership complexities.

Consciousness of context simply means that the leader is aware of the larger environment in which leadership action takes place and is a combination of the setting and the situation, and the variables impacting on the dynamics within these.

Consciousness of self focuses on the personal development of the leader, including intrapersonal dynamics and recognizing one's own strengths, limitations, goals and ambitions. In order to nurture effective leadership, the importance of reflection and increasing one's self-knowledge is emphasized here (Ibid).

Finally, consciousness of others stresses the importance of acknowledging the critical role that team members play in the leadership process. Leaders need to "read" group dynamics carefully so as to judge when to delegate more and when to apply more control.

2.5 Learning from Bad Leadership
When the above guiding principles of good leadership are done to extremes or the opposite is done, it leads to bad leadership. The characteristics of bad leadership are useful to study in order to better understand what constitutes leadership development that results in positive rather than negative future states.

Kellerman (2004) classifies bad leadership into seven groups: incompetent, rigid, intemperate, callous, corrupt, insular and evil. In the study of leadership development, it is important to understand what good leadership is so that those attributes can be developed in emerging leaders. And Kellerman's negative approach helps to clarify further what good leadership looks like.

This section explained six guiding leadership precepts relevant to the context of this study. The following section looks at the concept of youth leadership development.

2.6 Youth Leadership Development

2.6.1 Theoretical definitions of Youth Leadership development
There are major differences between youth leadership and adult leadership. However, most of the leadership literature is focused on adult leadership (Mortensen et al., 2014; MacNeil, 2006).

However, before one can consider the concept of youth leadership, the qualification of "youths" needs to be clarified. The African Union defines the youth as people aged 15-35 years, whereas a range of international organizations define and publish statistics on the youth as people aged 15-24 years (African Union, 2011). These are basically individuals who are young but old enough to make meaningful change in society. A significant number of the productive citizens in a country fall under this age bracket, this is also true for Zambia.

According to Jobson (2011), leadership development, especially as it pertains to the youth, is a complex field to define and that programmes that define themselves as promoting leadership development often do little to distinguish between life skills and leadership training. The youth leadership literature highlighted the development of youth leadership skills, knowledge, and activities (MacNeil, 2006). Its classification as a "field" or practice can even be questioned due to its lack of clarity.

According to Klau (2006), the multitude of activities classified as youth leadership development often lead to a lack of conceptual clarity. Youth leadership development is said to include almost anything, and its content is often a projection of the practitioners' own beliefs about what youths need.

The terms "youth development" and "youth leadership" are often and mistakenly used interchangeably. Clearly defining them will help to give a clear perspective of the process of youth leadership development. In order to differentiate between these two concepts clearly, the National Collaborative on Workforce and Disability for Youth (NCWD)/Youth reviewed a range of sources on youth development and youth leadership, including current literature, curricula, and program models, and examined different definitions and descriptions of program components of each. Definitions of youth development typically characterize it as a process or approach in which young people become competent or develop competencies necessary to be successful and meet challenges (Center for Youth Development and Policy Research, 1996; National Collaboration for Youth, 2003; Pittman, 1991; Youth Development Institute, n.d.; Youth Development Block Grant, 1995). Most definitions also identify either specific desired outcomes that young people need to achieve or critical tasks they must accomplish in order to achieve these positive outcomes (Astroth, Brown, Poore, & Timm, 2002; US Department of Health and Human Services, 1996; Center for Youth

Development and Policy Research, 1996; Youth Development Institute, n.d.; Youth Development Block Grant, 1995; Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989).

The Search Institute's definition differs slightly in its focus on assets, defined as factors – both internal and external – that promote positive development; however, its explanation of youth development covers similar developmental needs and challenges as other definitions (Search Institute, 1996). Most sources identify similar and overlapping competencies and outcomes that young people need to develop or achieve. In each instance, these competencies or outcomes encompass a wide range of areas such as cognitive, social, civic, cultural, spiritual, vocational, physical, emotional, mental, personal, moral, or intellectual development.

The concept of youth leadership was also examined with the goal of identifying a working definition. Some definitions of youth leadership describe it as the ability to lead others or get others to work together toward a common goal or vision (Rutgers Cooperative Extension, 2003; US Department of Health and Human Services, 1996; National Order of the Arrow, 1992; Wing Span Youth Empowerment Services, n.d.). More often than not, definitions of youth leadership focused on the ability to lead oneself and work with others, while not necessarily influencing others to act (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education, 1990; Youth Leadership Support Network, n.d.; Urban Think Tank Institute, 2002;. Karnes & Bean, 1997). Definitions frequently characterize youth leadership as the ability to envision a goal or needed change, to take initiative or action to achieve the goal, to take responsibility for outcomes, and to work well with, relate to, and communicate effectively with others. In the review of definitions, it has become apparent that youth leadership can be defined as both an internal and external capability.

One significant challenge with these concepts is their measurability. Because the youth leadership development initiatives seek to address a broad range of developmental needs among the youth that they serve, and because the desired outcomes typically take a long time to achieve, youth development programs frequently struggle to measure the impact that their programmes have on young people. At the same time, tracking and measuring the outcomes of youth participants is important in making the case that a program is effective in meeting its goals. Therefore, a variety of initiatives have begun the challenging yet vital work of researching and developing strategies for measuring the outcomes of youth development strategies in various settings. (Andrea et al. 2004).

MacNeil (2006) observes a noticeable absence of mention of the youth in the literature focused on leadership theory, leadership development, and leadership practice. This gap in the research is confirmed by a comprehensive review conducted by Bass of more than five thousand leadership studies, which found no mention made of youths as leaders or about leadership development for youths (Bass, 1981). General leadership and youth leadership are viewed differently. There is a major discrepancy between the definition of leadership as a process that builds collective capacity, and the youth leadership literature that focuses on skills acquisition.

Some definitions of youth leadership development include Haugen and Becky (2010:6) who defined leadership as, "the involvement of youth responsible, a challenging action that meets genuine needs with opportunities for planning and decision-making". Redmond (2012) considered leadership the ability to mobilize youth to address the problem encountered by their communities. However, there is a "lack of a youth-informed framework to guide leadership and development programs" (Mortensen et al., 2014:451).

2.6.2 Role of Schools in the Context of Youth Leadership Development
Schools are uniquely positioned in society for promoting development. Schafft and Harmon (2011) argued that, "of all local institutions, schools may be the best place to catalyze community development because of their capacity to mobilize community members and create new linkages between educators, parents, community members, and community based developers" (Schafft & Harmon, 2011:246). Additionally, they argued that schools have the capacity to bring diverse community members together to reach common goals (Schafft & Harmon, 2011).

According to Ekpoh et al. (2013), a continuous process of education and training produces effective leaders who are able to move their communities and nations forward. Many leadership and engagement activities are offered within the school settings. For example, Hormster and Nall (2007) found that students participating in the future farmers of America club (FFA) indicated that most of activities focused on building their personal leadership skills, but there was no emphasis on community development Nevertheless, students admitted that FFA helped them to build their leadership skills, and provided them variety of personal development opportunities.

In addition, youth particularly need to develop leadership skills, have access to mentoring, develop community identity, and be able to make sustainable changes in their communities (Redmond,

2012; Van Linden and Fertman, 1998; Wheeler & Thomas, 2011). Schools make it possible to add practicality to the knowledge and skills that the youth acquire by giving them the opportunity to apply them in that environment as well as the community through school programmes (Barnett & Brennan, 2006). Additionally, schools play a major role in motivating students to get other students involved (Barnett & Brennan, 2008).

A review and analysis of student leadership focused research studies by Dempster et al (2011) shows that there is 'churn' in the research agenda rather than a 'smooth' output of verifiable and replicable themes, including the roles of schools in youth leadership development and the student's views on leadership. Recent studies illustrate these conclusions.

Sacks (2009) studied leadership amongst primary school aged children and early adolescents using grounded theory methods to uncover implicit theories of leadership'. Her findings resulted in the use of the term 'stories', rather than 'stages', to describe the development of leadership activity amongst children from approximately 6 to 15 years of age. Across these years, she says, children told stories about themselves and others which suggested movement along a continuum from helpers at younger ages to ambassadors when older. These stories about being a helper, deputy, agent or ambassador in a set sequence as youngsters grow, hide a stage theory of student leadership with 'stories' acting as de facto stages. The links to 'good works' as the circumstances in which the children in this study 'saw' leadership is self-evident in the stories. Sacks' work leaves unspoken the meanings students attach to the concept of leadership, preferring to centre her data collection and analysis on the kinds of activities children and young people engage in at school and to which they attach the term 'leader'. For example, I am being a leader when I help the teacher or when the teacher asks me for help and I do something for her; I am being a leader when I say things on behalf of my classmates or I say things about particular issues. What leadership actually is or how it is viewed as a social concept by young people remains unclear.

Whitehead (2009) picks up this concern arguing that views of student leadership lack empirical support. His work emphasises that leadership is authentic when it results in pro-social outcomes. Pro-social leaders, he theorises, are inclusive and build affiliation while anti-social leaders are exclusivist and rely on power. There is some evidence emerging in the work of Lizzio et al. (2010) to suggest that young people themselves would agree with Whitehead's view. They say themselves that leadership can be exercised in youth environments for 'good' and 'bad'. Coercive processes,

they report, are seen by adolescents as more likely when 'bad' outcomes are sought. Whitehead's view and the views of Lizzio et al. point the way forward to research which needs to get underneath' the surface activity of children and adolescents, their good or bad works, to uncover the assumptions, beliefs and understandings they have about leaders and leadership amongst their own age groups.

The concern by Whitehead (2009) about the lack of deep empirical research into youth understandings of leadership is reprised by McGregor (2007). In a focus on leadership in classrooms, she highlights the generally low levels of discourse about student leadership in schools. From her point of view, she describes a perception of leadership as a 'relational process of influence' which results in individuals facilitating their own and group activity in classroom lessons in particular ways. She goes on to say that there is no hierarchy of power in operation when students use their influence with others.

The work of Lizzio et al. (2010) tends to reinforce this conclusion. Students in their study showed more often than not, that the leadership actions described by adolescents were taken from the cues of the moment, not from positional cues. In other words, student positions of power, such as class captains, were not automatically implicated in spontaneous actions to which leadership was attributed. The needs of the moment with the people involved were more likely motivators for leadership to emerge in pro-social or anti-social ways from amongst anyone in the group. Notwithstanding this finding, McGregor (2007) laments a key finding from her study that little attention is paid by teachers to discussing student influence on their school and classroom activity in leadership terms. Students themselves may not be surprised by this finding. Indeed, recognising leadership in classrooms may be a matter teachers feel is missing rather than adolescents.

However, colleges, and Universities should step up beyond the limits defined by our experiences and imagination, of efficient and qualitative schools that meet children's immediate needs and survival. Most Zambian schools were based on ideas that were appropriate for a different time.

In Zambia, schools, colleges and universities are generally viewed as places where children learn to pass examinations by memorizing what the teacher wrote on the chalkboard. However, a qualitative school according to Mbobola (2013) should aim at helping children learn by learning

to do and addressing the holistic developmental needs of the child. Nurturing the cognitive, social and ethical development of the children should be a key task of quality schools of the 21st century.

Cognitive learning should be based on learner-centred methodologies, skill building, entrepreneurships and ability to analyze and process rather than memorizing information. On social development, an efficient school develops children's self-confidence and ability to trust their own judgment and thought through respectful relationships. Ethical developmental in schools should be seen through democratic and accountable structures, role modelling values and children's ability to uphold certain norms and core values of the community in which they live. A good school cultivates clear ethical, moral standards and values that help students internalize as a lifelong value system (Ibid).

In order to achieve this, certain initiatives have been introduced in Zambian schools to build leadership skills in students. It would be relevant at this point to note the inclusion of civic education in the curriculum and more recently in 2002 at upper high school level as well. Civic Education is based on different aspects whose focus though is meant to bring in the learners the kind of attitudes, dispositions, virtues and values that are required in building up strong and transformed communities. This can also be seen for instance in what has been described by Osborne (2001:42) that, "the notion of education for democratic citizenship should meet the "twelve C's" and these are reflected under the following short statements or concepts: "A focus on the cosmopolitan nature of the world as a whole, thinking critically and creatively, and becoming informed and involved in one's communities, locally, nationally, and globally."

The Eurydice Report of 2012 observes however, that there is usually no clear explanation of how Civic Education does contribute to the development of the well-being of society. This therefore demands that more should be done to deliberately develop the required skills that young people need in order to become competent contributors to society. It is not enough to assert that Civic Education prepares students to become knowledgeable, skillful and have good values when the process leading to the attainment of such virtues, knowledge and good values is not clearly spelt out.

Another example of an initiative towards the promotion of leadership development in Zambian schools is The Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa (OSISA) Education programme in

collaboration with Comic Relief that has been supporting the Lubuto Library Project (LLP) that offers opportunities for both in and out-of-school vulnerable children and youth an opportunity to combine learning and acquisition of leadership skills through the Lubuto Library concept. This library model was developed to create opportunities for equitable, high quality education through open-access libraries and holistic educational, cultural and community programmes. The initiative however is limited in its scope and influence. Initially, LLP operated two programmes at Fountain of Hope and Ngwerere Basic School. The project intended to expand the services to rural communities. In Southern Province, LLP worked with Matantala Rural Integrated Development Enterprise to establish a Lubuto Library in Nabukuyu in Monze District and with St Francis Community School in Itimpi, Kitwe to monitor how the concept can work at the community level.

The fact that the programme is not compulsory, just like many others, and its reach is limited reduces its effectiveness in promoting leadership development in public secondary schools (Mkhosib, 2012). The attempt to explore YLD in public secondary schools was therefore relevant to learn the broad compulsory initiatives and practices done across the country from the two case studies in Lusaka district. This could be done because public secondary schools operate under the same general framework across the country.

2.7 Barriers to Youth Leadership Development

A study done by Osmane (2015) titled "Community Leadership Development Youth Leadership Development in Pennsylvanian High Schools with Agriculture Programs" was conducted in the United States. This descriptive correlational study was conducted using a mixed method approach. It included quantitative (surveys) and qualitative (interviews) methods. Several barriers to youth engagement and leadership development emerged in different contexts. These barriers included funding, access to programs, lack of parental support, safety, parental support, timing, the lack of interest, community detachment, school districts' rules, political issues, lack of mentoring, focus on academics, and others. This study highlighted the barriers to YLD but it was specific to Agricultural programmes and in the context of the United States, which makes this study relevant.

According to an article written by Restless Development (2012), while every Global South country is different, there are some challenges to the planning and design of youth leadership programmes that are common to many or even all country contexts, and which need to be taken into account. These include cultural barriers to leadership (particularly for girls). In many parts of the world,

there are long standing traditions of rule by elders and exclusion of youth from any decision-making or leadership roles. This is especially true for girls who are often excluded for their gender as well as their age. There also exists structural barriers to leadership. Democratic space in many parts of the world is hampered by corruption, cronyism and political infighting, and the opportunities for genuine roles in governance are often narrow and hard to penetrate by any group let alone youth. (Ibid).

Inadequate mentors/implementers delivering youth programmes is another barrier. Many of the youth leadership programmes outlined rely heavily on the guidance, training and mentoring of experienced adult supporters. Such supporters have an important role to play in nurturing the leadership skills of young people and it is essential that they are equipped adequately to do so. There also lacks the means to measure the impact of leadership development initiatives. This is a challenge facing all implementers. More broadly in youth development, there is a dearth of universally agreed indicators for measuring progress in different areas of youth development (Ibid).

This however had a broader focus on the global south. The barriers where a broad assumption of the possible common barriers in a region. This study will focus specifically on Zambia and public secondary schools.

A similar study to this one was also conducted in South Africa by Petrus van Niekerk (2014) titled "An Exploratory Analysis of Youth Leadership Development in South Africa: Theoretical and Programmatic Perspectives". The research had a qualitative framework and was that of a mixed-method approach which included elements of an exploratory, grounded-theory and case study analysis approach. In terms of youth leadership development practice and context in South Africa the researcher concludes that the institutional and curricular context of youth leadership development in South Africa is not well documented, despite the existence of numerous youth leadership development programmes. The research showed that the concept of youth leadership development is theoretically underdeveloped, and limited information could be derived from the American literature on college student development

The research also indicated that the scale of youth leadership development in South Africa is relatively small. However, programmes developed and implemented by non-governmental

organizations and tertiary-based institutions suggest an emerging practice of youth leadership development in the country. This emerging practice is also not well researched in the South African context. It was shown that youth development policy interventions by government rarely have specific programmes that focus on rigorous leadership development actions. However, this may change as youth development actors, such as the National Youth Development Agency (NYDA), realize the importance and value of quality leadership development programmes. It was argued that youth leadership development is a crucial investment in human capital and is essentially linked to the successful implementation of, for example, the National Development Plan (NDP).

Despite being in the African context, the focus of this study was the theoretical and programmatic perspective in South Africa. This study will focus on the practice of YLD in public secondary schools.

2.8 Models of Youth Leadership Development

In looking at the topic of youth leadership development, it is essential to also look at the various models of youth leadership development as part of the literature of this study. The models give a clearer picture of the ways leadership skills can be developed in the youth.

2.8.1 A Conceptual Model for Developing Leadership in Youths

Ricketts & Rudd (2002) conducted a meta-analysis of the youth leadership development literature and constructed a conceptual model for teaching, training, and developing leadership in youths. These authors cite the need for leadership education, and identify the lack of information regarding leadership development for young people in career and technical education in a given context.

The model developed by these researchers is proposed as a curriculum framework for teaching leadership to youths in formal career and technical education programmes. This specific model consists of five dimensions and three stages of development. The five dimensions of the conceptual model are: (1) leadership knowledge and information, (2) leadership attitude, will, and desire, (3) decision making, reasoning, and critical thinking, (4) oral and written communication skills, and (5) intra- and interpersonal relations. According to the researchers these dimensions are explained as follows:

Leadership knowledge and information refers to what emerging leaders need to know about leadership before they can develop and apply leadership skills. This dimension translates what

may, at first seem, complicated and abstract leadership tasks into attainable aspirations through behavioural change. Leadership attitude, will, and desire emphasize the importance of self-realization and motivation in young leaders whilst developing their leadership capacity. It also argues that mental and physical health are interconnected with the development of leadership attitudes.

Decision making, reasoning, and critical thinking are identified as crucial in developing a model for facilitating the teaching and learning of leadership for young people. This component is based on evidence that a well-developed young person who is intellectually reflective develops new solutions to existing challenges.

Oral and written communication skills are described as an "all-purpose instrument of leadership" as they are the media used to influence and lead other people. The development of these skills in emerging leaders is thus instrumental in the leadership learning process. Intra- and interpersonal relations, in the context of the curricular model discussed here, include conflict resolution, stress management, knowledge of a diversity of cultures, teamwork, and ethics in dealing with other people.

The curricular model developed by Ricketts & Rudd (2002) includes three stages in each of the five dimensions discussed above. Participants proceed through these whilst receiving formal leadership training. These stages are: a) awareness, b) interaction, and c) integration. The awareness stage serves as the orientation to the curriculum. The interaction stage involves student exploration of leadership, whereas the integration stage involves student practice and mastery of leadership development activities and concepts. These stages seek to build on the experience and perception of the students in order to enhance their cognition and behaviour in leadership development.

The final recommendation of this study was to allow the model to serve as the first step in developing a curriculum designed to teach leadership to youths in a formal setting (Ibid).

2.8.2 Leadership Identity Development (Lid) Model
Komives et al. (2006) describe a stage-based model called the Leadership Identity Development model (LID) resulting from a grounded-theory study on developing a leadership identity. In the context of student leadership development, and similar to the observation of MacNeil (2006),

Komives et al. (2006) identify a gap in research focusing on the application of leadership development perspectives in student development.

This relational leadership model presented in *Exploring Leadership* (Komives, Lucas, & McMahon, 1998, 2007) focused on leadership being purposeful, inclusive, empowering, ethical, and process-oriented. Designed as a post- industrial, collaborative model to teach and develop leadership in college students, this approach emphasized leadership as "a relational and ethical process of people together attempting to accomplish positive change" (Komives, et al., 2007:74).

The grounded theory of leadership identity included the key category which has 6 stages and 6 related categories. The first stage is Awareness, becoming aware that there are leaders "out there" who are external to self like the President of the United States, one's mother, or a teacher. Stage two is exploration/engagement, a period of immersion in group experiences usually to make friends; a time of learning to engage with others (e.g., swim team, boy scouts, church choir). The leader being identified is the third stage. Viewing leadership as the actions of the positional leader of a group; an awareness of the hierarchical nature of relationships in groups. Leadership Differentiation is stage four, this refers to viewing leadership also as non- positional and as a shared group process. Stage five is Generativity, a commitment to developing leadership in others and having a passion for issues or group objectives that the person wants to influence. And the last stage is Integration/Synthesis acknowledging the personal capacity for leadership in diverse contexts and claiming the identity as a leader without having to hold a positional role (Komives, et al., 2005).

Two families of developmental theory inform the development of a leadership identity: cognitive and psycho-social (Komives et al., 2006). Cognitive development theory focuses on how thought processes are involved in identity development; whereas, according to Chickering's psychosocial theory, the development of mature interpersonal relationships, purpose, and personal integrity are central to establishing a leadership identity (Chickering & Reisser in Komives et al., 2006).

Komives et al also discuss the concept of "self-authorship" in student leadership development, referring to a situation in which students take responsibility for constructing their own reality in the world (Baxter-Magolda in Komives et al., 2006). Self-authorship is characterized by realizing one's autonomy and recognizing one's interdependence with others in a pluralistic world – the

broad context within which leadership is practised. This demands for the changing of leadership styles to fit the changing circumstances and the need for "adaptive leadership" to be developed in the youths.

2.8.3 Heifetz's Adaptive Leadership and its Application in Youth Leadership
In addition to these models, Klau (2006) argues that Ronald Heifetz's model of adaptive leadership holds particular value for practitioners and academics interested in youth leadership development. In this model, Heifetz makes a distinction between technical and adaptive challenges (Heifetz & Laurie, 1997). The latter challenges have less predictable solutions than the former, and often require adaptations in the values and behaviours of groups and those leading them. Klau (2006) also notes that the Heifetz framework for leadership development provides a range of pedagogical tools in teaching leadership theory and practice, which is directly applicable when working with youths.

These include case-in-point learning which involves students discussing the real-time dynamics of the class itself, where students have a chance to observe who is being given informal authority, who is being marginalized, and how important dynamics such as cultural difference or gender affect the group. The other tool is below-the-neck learning which recognizes that practicing or exercising leadership is far more intense an experience than talking or theorizing about it. Practicing leadership involves, for example, courage, self-confidence and emotional intelligence and endurance. By simulating the challenges of leadership practice, such as emotional discomfort, one can demonstrate that leadership is about emotions and intellect. Reflective practice is another tool which involves students being provided with opportunities to reflect on why they made particular choices or responded in particular ways when given a specific problem to solve. "The result is a uniquely personal and deep educational experience" (Klau, 2006:62).

The three techniques can be used in leadership education and training together with other techniques from other models to help in curricular design processes for youth leadership development programmes. This would be ideal because they have an open-age range for engagement in leadership learning processes. Further to the adaptive leadership model the literature provides insight into youth leadership development in post-school youths from a social change perspective.

2.8.4 The Social Change Model of Leadership Development in College Students

Dugan & Komives (2007:9) adapted a social change model (SCM) for leadership development for the college student environment. This model views leadership as "a purposeful, collaborative, values-based process that results in positive social change". Applied in the emerging leader context, the critical values or themes of this model are divided into individual, group and community values which include: Consciousness of self; congruence/consistency in expression of own values; commitment to the development of ideas and/or people; collaboration with others; common purpose; controversy with civility; citizenship, being socially responsible and connected to one's context; collaborative change.

A range of data-gathering scales were developed to test the dynamics of each of the above leadership outcomes. Over 63 000 tertiary students completed the surveys and a range of findings was produced (Dugan & Komives 2007). Some of the key findings include: (1) openness to change is greater for marginalized groups of students, (2) discussions about socio-cultural issues matter a great deal, (3) mentoring of students matters, (4) campus involvement matters, (5) community service matters, (6) positional leadership roles develop leaders, and (7) formal leadership programmes matter.

Models that serve as basis for designing programme content for formal youth leadership development, such as the ones discussed in this section, are paramount for informing the key objectives of this study. The ways in which social capital is formed in the leadership development of youths, how they generate social capital themselves, and the dynamics of community engagement in this process, remain key questions to be explored in this study.

2.9 Theoretical Framework

2.9.1 Social-Learning Theory

The Social Learning Theory was born in the 1930s at Yale University, when Clark Hull taught a seminar on relating learning theory to psychoanalysis (Wilbon, 2001). From then on a number of theoretical changes were made and the guiding belief was that personality is a learned function. In 1977 Bandura advocated that people learn through observing the behaviour, attitudes and outcomes of others and the outcomes of that behaviour. Bandura observed that individuals are capable of learning through observation and practical application, usually by virtue of a mentor.

The Social Learning Theory of Bandura emphasises the importance of observing and modelling the behaviour, attitudes and emotional reactions of others. Bandura states that learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do.

Furthermore the Social Learning Theory explains human behaviour in terms of continuous reciprocal interaction between cognitive, behavioural and environmental influences. Bandura (1977) also states that individuals observe a particular action and repeat this action so that frequency of the action increases the individual's capacity to cognitively perform the action or process without assistance. In his theory he refers to five main functions in the process of learning from modelling; paying attention; coding for memory; retaining in memory; carrying out motor actions; and motivation.

According to Turner and Shepherd (1999), the extent to which individuals are influenced by modelled behaviour depends on the characteristics of models, the attributes of observers and the perceived consequences of adopting similar behaviour. They also claim that in terms of peer education, the Social Learning Theory seems to be relevant in terms of both credibility and role-modelling. Under credibility, the mentor or the person acting as a model should be credible with the others in order for him/her to be influential. The Social Learning Theory asserts that to be a credible role model, one would need to have high status within the peer group (Bandura 1977). It is the concept of role-modelling which seems most central to social learning. Turner and Shepherd argue that "the role of the peer educator is to serve as a positive role model and to provide social information rather than merely providing facts ... peer leaders enhance the programs applicability by modelling appropriate behaviours".

The Conditions Necessary for Effective Modelling to Occur

The first condition necessary for effective modeling is Attention**.** The person must first pay attention to the model. This means intentionally directing attention to observe how the role model is behaving. The other condition is Retention**,** the observer must be able to remember the behaviour that has been observed. One way of ensuring this is by using the technique of rehearsal. The third condition is the ability to replicate the behaviour that the model has just demonstrated. The behavior needs to be attainable and doable for the observer. This makes the last condition possible,

which is motivation. The final necessary ingredient for modelling to occur is motivation; learners must want to demonstrate what they have learned. This occurs because it is admirable behavior and also in their capability to do as well (Bandura 1977, cited by Ormond 1999).

From the above discussion on the nature and purpose of leadership development, there is a link between leadership development and social learning. This link is evident in the fact that leadership development is an intentional process designed to support the process of self-learning and learning through self-actualisation, making it a social learning process as explained by Bandura's Social Learning Theory. The theory also highlights that the learned behaviour of emerging leaders is not only determined by learning materials they are exposed to, but also to a larger degree what they observe from role models. This analysis is however too simplistic and does not explain certain variables that influence the process of leadership development in various contexts. Social learning theory is not a full explanation for all behavior. This is particularly the case when there is no apparent role model in the person's life to imitate for a given behavior.

2.9.2 Intentional Change Theory

The other theory that will help to explain the phenomenon of leadership development is the Intentional change theory (ICT). The theory explains sustainable leadership development in terms of the essential components of behavior, thoughts, feelings, and perceptions related to leadership effectiveness as a complex system (Boyatzis, 2001, 2006a, 2006b). Sustained, desired change represents a metamorphosis in actions, habits, or competencies associated with leadership effectiveness. It may be in dreams or aspirations. It may be in the way someone acts in certain situations. A person may refine his/her sensitivity to others, become more optimistic (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000), or learn how to articulate a shared vision for those in his/her organization (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). These changes are desired in that the person thinks, feels, or acts in a specified manner. They are sustainable in that they endure. A sustained, desired change may also include the wish to maintain a current state, relationship, or habit, but maintaining the current state appears to require an investment of energy. In either situation, it requires intentional effort. This theory will help to explain how effective leadership development can take place and how the state of the one being developed influences the process, and in the case of this study, the youth.

The theory highlights the relationship between sustained desire and discontinuity. Sustained, desired change often appears discontinuous over time, which can hinder empirical testing of behavior, feelings, or perceptions (Boyatzis, 2006a, 2006b). Although, to an observer, it appears as emergent or catastrophic change (Casti, 1994), it is more likely experienced as an epiphany or discovery (Boyatzis, 1982). In team development, Gersick (1991) labeled such change occurrences punctuated equilibrium. In complexity theory terms, they are moments of phase transition, like the sudden conversion of liquid water into gas when it hits a specific temperature. Golembiewski (1986) contended that bifurcations in organizational development will not be experienced or viewed by the participants with the same worldview nor necessarily with concepts with which they had viewed the organization previously. Fredrickson and Losada (2005) and Gottman et al. (2002) suggested that a surge of positive emotion often accompanies a desired change in team activities and marriages, respectively. Being conscious of such shifts, however, is often not observed until the shift is quite dramatic. Awareness of the social world around us seems inversely proportionate to the degree of discovery (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005). That is, for the self-aware person, change occurs as a set of smooth transitions. To a person who is less self-aware, the changes will seem surprising. Similarly, a lack of sensitivity may result in not noticing small changes in someone else's behavior. Leaders face heavy demands that may smother their ability to sense subtle alterations in themselves and others (Sapolsky, 2004).

As a result, many leaders do not recognize changes as they are happening. When finally noticed, they often appear discontinuous. The same forces may result in the changes being nonlinear, which presents the first feature of ICT as a complex system. The leadership development process often appears nonlinear and discontinuous, being experienced as a set of discoveries. They are emergent phenomena. Leadership development research often uses statistical procedures that assume continuity. There are exceptions, such as the graphical analysis available from polynomial regression. The top journals not only expect multivariate analysis but also favor those studies that reveal interesting interactions. These interactions are a way to begin to address the discontinuity of the phenomena being studied.

ICT has Five Discoveries which will be explained in this study. Leadership development involves emergence of nonlinear and often discontinuous experiences in an iterative cycle: Boyatzis (2006a, 2006b) observed that the moments of emergence are (a) the ideal self; (b) the real self; (c) a

learning agenda; (d) practice; and (e) trusting relationships that facilitate openness to the moments of emergence, as shown in Figure 2.

(a) First Emergence: Seeing His/Her Desired Future

The starting point in leadership development is the discovery of who the person wants to be. This occurs through a moment of emergence of a new awareness into the person's consciousness. Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) reported that a person's vision appears in many forms in practice. Theoretically, they contend that it needs three major components to emerge from a person's ideal self. Like other strength-based approaches (Roberts, Dutton, Spreitzer, Heaphy, & Quinn, 2006), it needs an awareness of the person's strengths. Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) call this a person's core identity. They further add that a person also needs an image of the desired future and a sense of hope that it is attainable.

Positive visioning is an important technique for creating new neural circuits that help to guide future behavior, as shown in sports psychology (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Carter et al., 2000; Le Duff, 2002; Loehr & Schwartz, 2003; Meister et al., 2004; Roffe, Schmidt, & Ernst, 2005). Creating a positive visioning seems to arouse hope (Curry, Snyder, Cook, Ruby, & Rehm, 1997; Groopman, 2004), which in turn stimulates the parasympathetic nervous system (PSNS) with a resultant increase in openness, cognitive power, and flexibility. In this state, a person can grow new neural tissue, a process called neurogenesis (Erikson et al., 1998), and benefit from the healing powers of an engaged immune system (Manniz, Chadukar, Rybicki, Tusek, & Solomon, 1999). Ironically, teachers, coaches, and trainers know the importance of the ideal self, yet they often do not take the time to articulate its formulation. When parents, spouses, or bosses tell a person something should be different, they are describing the person they want. This is called the ought self and often causes conflict with the ideal self (Higgins, 1987). As a result of these factors, people often get anesthetized to their dreams and lose sight of their deeply felt ideal self. It is also clear from this framework that strengths-based approaches to development, such as those described by Roberts et al. (2006), will probably work better than current methods but fall short of what the person can achieve (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006). In focusing on established strengths, such approaches develop the core identity component of the ideal self as a driver of change but fail to capture the energy inherent in new possibilities, as well as the emotional driver of hope. With awareness of this component of ICT, a faculty member, coach, trainer, or consultant should ensure

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that the prospective leaders in question have a well-articulated ideal self and personal vision. Exercises in this area are not new, but the insistence that a person use them to craft a personal vision is often overlooked. In such a case, the client or student may feel that certain changes are expected, thus contributing to the "ought self". Each client or student should write his or her vision for the future and then talk about it with trusted others.

(b) Second Emergence: How Does the Person Act With Others?

Awareness of the current self—the person others see—is elusive. The human psyche protects itself from the automatic intake of information, but this ego defense mechanism can confuse us into an image of who we are. This can feed on itself and become dysfunctional (Goleman, 1985). The greatest challenge to an accurate self-image is for the person to see himself or herself as others do. Several factors contribute to false positives. First, others around the person may not let him or her see a change. They may not give him or her accurate feedback, and they also may be unaware of their own behavior. Second, those who forgive the change, are frightened of it, or do not care may allow it to pass unnoticed. Before a person can change, he or she must know what he or she wants to maintain. Acknowledging discrepancies between the real self and the ideal self can be a powerful motivator for change. However, as Higgins (1987) shows, the distinction between the person's ideal self and his ought self can become an important additional discovery. People often explore growth by focusing on deficiencies or are encouraged to do so. Organization-based leadership training programs and managers conducting annual re- views often make this mistake. They "leave well enough alone" and focus on the areas that need work. It is no wonder that many of the procedures intended to help a person result in his or her feeling defensive under stress, with the resulting decrease in cognitive ability. The second discovery can be achieved by using multiple sources for feedback about the "real self" (Taylor, 2006). One method is 360-degree feedback, which is fashionable in organizations today. Insight also may come from behavioral feedback (i.e., videotaped or audiotaped interactions, such as those collected in assessment centers). Psychological tests can help determine explicit aspects of the real self, such as values, philosophy, traits, and motives.

(c) Third Emergence: Developing a Learning Agenda

The third emergence is the articulation of a way to get to the desired self, using strengths and building on some weaknesses. The most critical element of this emergence is that it is a type of plan for things the person wants to try and explore. The openness to new activities and experiences

is in contrast to the often felt obligatory nature of fulfilling to-do lists or complying with an agenda for the future that a person's boss, spouse, or others want for him or her. A learning agenda focuses on development. The stream of literature in industrial and organizational psychology on learning and performance goal orientations helps to clarify this difference. As Chen, Gully, Whaiteman, and Kilcullen (2000) showed and Seijts, Latham, Tasa, and Latham (2004) clarified, a learning orientation seems to arouse a positive belief in one's capability and the hope of improvement, with the result that people set personal standards of performance, rather than normative standards that merely mimic what others have done. Meanwhile, a performance orientation can evoke anxiety about whether we really can change. In the longitudinal studies cited earlier, Leonard (2008) showed that MBAs who set goals for change on certain competencies improved more than on those competencies than did other MBAs. His work extended the orientation literature into the development arena**.**

(d) Fourth Emergence: Experimenting With New Habits

The next emergent awareness in leadership development comes in the form of experimenting and practicing behavior characteristics of effective leaders. This may be reinforcing some behavioral habits that have been effective in the past or trying new ones. The experimentation and testing of the new behavior must be followed by a period of practicing them until they become second nature or unconsciously enacted. Barlow (1988) described how cognitive–behavior therapy has shown dramatic results by encouraging people to practice first in a safe setting and then in actual work and home settings. The practice period can complement work settings, but a person may have to find activities outside of work in which they can be in leadership roles. Dreyfus (2008) studied managers of scientists and engineers who were considered superior performers. She showed that the effective ones had tried their team-building skills in sports and clubs in high school and college. When they were "bench scientists," they worked in relative isolation. To keep their new talent alive and refine it, they volunteered for leadership positions in community organizations and professional associations. Both of these examples illustrate an important feature of the experimentation and practice phase of leadership development. Kolb and Boyatzis (1970) showed that the person needs flexibility to experiment, possibly fail, and then succeed with the new behavior. Eventually, he needs to have the emergent awareness of his own ability to use the new behavior well. He needs to see himself using it in real settings. For this sequence to occur and for the person to have the time and space to have the emergence occur, Kolb and Boyatzis (1970)

showed why he needs safe settings. The consultant, coach, or faculty member should help the person find safe settings in which to practice the characteristics of an effective leader.

(e) Fifth Emergence: Others Helping Us

Boyatzis (2006a, 2006b) explained how sustained, desired change for individuals needs others to help, guide, support, and sometimes coax us along the process and through the emergent moments. Such relationships provide a sense of identity. He explained how they "create a context within which people interpret progress on desired changes, the utility of new learning, and even contribute significant input to formulation of the Ideal Self" (Boyatzis, 2006a: 617; see also Kram, 1996). Helping relationships work through the trust a person experiences and the safety from that trust. Coaches, teachers, consultants, and even friends can be mediators; moderators; interpreters; and sources of feedback, support, and permission for change and learning. Through their observations and feedback, but mostly through their support, a person develops sensitivity to cues that signal a possible relapse.

As mentioned earlier, Wheeler (2008) showed that MBA graduates who worked on their goals in multiple "life spheres" (e.g., work, family, recreational groups) improved the most on the leadership competencies. Ballou et al. (1999) showed that a similar series of emergent changes occurred and were sustained in a leadership development program for people in their 40s and 50s. In a year-long executive development program for doctors, lawyers, professors, and engineers mentioned earlier, Ballou et al. (1999) found that participants gained self-confidence. Even at the beginning of the program, others found the participants high in self-confidence. In follow-up questions, the graduates attributed the increase in self-confidence to an increase in the confidence to change. Their existing reference groups (i.e., family, colleagues, and community groups) had a desire for them to stay the same. The professional fellows program enabled them to develop a new reference group that encouraged change. (Ballou et al.1999:346).

ICT shows how the process of leadership development can take place by having certain conditions present and sustained. The students have to be intentional about developing leadership competencies and must be able to be more self-aware to be able to notice the changes as they occur over time. This also applies for the school leaders who are to inspire the students to be more self-motivated in becoming effective leaders. The effectiveness of leadership development programmes in schools depends on understanding the dynamics highlighted in this theory. Leaders

can be developed, or more accurately, they can learn behavioral habits of effective leaders. They can change in desired ways but not without effort and intent. By extension, teams, organizations, communities, and even countries can change in desired ways, but again, without purposeful desire, the changes may be slow or result in unwanted consequences.

The theoretical framework and models discussed above mainly seek to bring about some sort of behavioural change in young emerging leaders through the acquisition of competencies through a structured learning process, or leadership curriculum and also an unstructured process through observation. This former notion forms the basis of any programmatic or institutional intervention to develop leadership in young people. Young people develop perceptions about leadership both unintentionally and intentionally. Both however will need to be considered in the process of leadership development and ensure that the most effective learning takes place from both angles. The good leadership displayed by people in leadership in society and in institutions when observed, will inspire the learners to practice what is taught in the programmes. The opposite is true as well. The effectiveness of programmes will be affected by observation of bad leadership especially from those teaching good leadership.

2.10 Summary

This chapter conducted a review of academic inquiry into broad definitions of leadership and the guiding principles of good leadership; thereafter theoretical definitions of youth leadership development and the roles of schools was looked at; additionally, it also looked at barriers to YLD from previous studies and a number of YLD models. The last section presented the theoretical framework that is based on the social-learning theory and intentional change theory.

3.0 CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

This chapter presents an overview of the systematic methods by which the study was conducted, data gathered, and analysis methods. It presents the different steps that were taken for the exploration of youth leadership development in Zambia. It includes the research design, site of study, the population, study sample and sampling procedures, data collection tools, method of data analysis, delimitation and limitation, and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

There are two main research designs that can be employed; the qualitative and quantitative design. In qualitative research, emphasis is placed on peoples' feelings, perceptions, and experiences in order to explore and understand the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Qualitative research often involves fieldwork, during which the researcher observes and records events related to the research participants as they normally and naturally occur or behave. Qualitative research provides the researcher with the flexibility to interact and engage with research participants, and is useful in discovering their opinions and perspectives (Creswell, 2014).

Some limitations of qualitative research methodology include its personal focus. This means that different conclusions can be made from different researchers from the same data. The risk of encountering ethical dilemmas while interacting with research participants is also high, it is time-consuming and potentially costly, and it can be difficult to validate and probe the data (Ibid).

In quantitative research, statistical means are used to objectively measure things. Therefore, quantitative methodology is mainly interested in numbers that can be illustrated with graphs or charts. Quantitative research is often described as generating more accurate results than qualitative research, and allowing for more objectivity (the researcher usually keeps a distance from research participants). It is also regarded as a field of research that employs prescribed procedures to ensure validity and reliability. Often, results from quantitative research can be replicated, and then analyzed and compared with similar studies, which is almost impossible with the results of a qualitative study.

However, quantitative methodologies do have their limitations. For example, statistical data can miss important contextual details and information on human attitudes, feelings, and perceptions.

Also, the static and rigid approach taken in quantitative research can result in an inflexible process of discovery.

Although the two methods can complement each other, in executing an exploratory inquiry into youth leadership development in the Zambian context, a qualitative research framework is used. This is because of the need for new insights and ideas about youth leadership development in Zambia considering the limited knowledge on the subject. Cronholm and Hjalmarsson (2011) also argue that qualitative research is best used when little is known or if there is uncertainty about a phenomenon.

This included data collection of both a secondary and primary nature. The classification of the research is that of an exploratory case study.

3.2.1 Case Study

Yin (2009:18) defines a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries or relationship between a phenomenon and a particular context are not clearly evident. Thus, case studies rely on and produce a variety of sources of evidence that may help to answer certain research questions. Case studies provide for context-dependent knowledge, and in the case of this research, two public high schools provided a sample of analysis of youth leadership development practice in Zambia.

3.2.2 Exploratory Study

The type of case study was an exploratory one. This type is used to explore those situations in which the intervention being evaluated has no clear, single set of outcomes. (Yin, 2003). Kothari (2004:35-36), argues that, "major emphasis in such studies is on the discovery of ideas and insights". In the context of the study at hand this approach is appropriate in that it stands to provide validated data on the theory and practice of youth leadership development in Zambia, and more specifically in the public education system at high school level. Chand (2010:26-27) contends that "the basic purpose of the exploratory research studies is to achieve new insights for further studies". He further argues that these studies are more important in cases where very little information is available. The last part of Chand's statement resonates very well with the study at hand especially that there has been no previous investigation that has been conducted in Zambia exploring youth leadership development at high school level.

3.3 Site of the Study

The study was conducted in Lusaka district in Lusaka province of Zambia. The study sample was obtained from 2 government secondary schools and the Curriculum Development Council (CDC). This was based on the availability of resources and the time constraint for the course of study.

3.4 The Population

The target populations for the study were pupils, teachers and head teachers in government secondary school as they were the key informants in the study. According to Babbie (2007:186), "an informant is someone who is well versed in the social phenomenon that you wish to study and who is willing to tell you what he or she knows about it". In addition to subjects from a school set-up, officials from CDC were part of the population. These were necessary to complement data from the two schools because of their knowledge on the curriculum.

3.5 Study Sample

The sample included 12 pupils through 2 focus groups consisting of 6 pupils each. A total of 10 teachers are included in the target population, 10 in-depth questionnaires were administered to the 10 teachers. 2 head teachers (1 from each school) had in-depth interviews administered to them. 2 CDC officials also had in-depth interviews administered to them. All the targets were drawn from 2 government secondary schools (Olympia and Northmead Secondary School). And the pupils were selected from upper secondary levels (grades 10, 11 and 12).

The whole sample population is broken as follows:

a. 10 secondary school teachers drawn from the 2 sampled schools.

b. 12 pupils drawn from Grades 10, 11 and 12 from the sampled schools.

c. 2 school head teachers, one from each school.

d. 2 officials from CDC.

Therefore, the sample for the study was 26 respondents and informants.

3.6 Sampling Procedure

In determining the sample design Bell (2005) states that, "all items under consideration in any field of inquiry constitute what is described as a universe or population". A complete enumeration of all the items in the 'population' is known as a census inquiry. It can be presumed that in such an inquiry when all the items are covered no element of chance is left and highest accuracy is obtained. However, Bell (2005) still puts a caution that, "in practice this may not be true". Even the slightest element of bias in such an inquiry will get larger and larger as the number of observations increases. Moreover, there is no way of checking the element of bias or its extent except through a resurvey or use of sample checks. Besides, this type of inquiry is too wide that would involve a great deal of time, money and energy. Apart from that Bell observes that census inquiry is not possible in practice under many circumstances. For instance, Bell added that blood testing is done only on sample basis. Hence, quite often people select only a few items from the universe for study purposes. The items so selected constitute what is technically called a sample.

Babbie (2007: 205-208) states that, "purposive also known as judgmental sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researcher's judgement about which ones will be the most useful or representative". The logic and power behind purposive sampling is that it relies in selecting information-rich cases. Babbie (2007) states that, "information rich-cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research thus the term purposeful sampling. For this reason CDC officials were included in the sample because of their knowledge and unique position concerning the curriculum. The head teachers were also purposefully chosen because of their unique position to give an oversight perspective of the practice of YLD at the selected schools. The pupils were purposefully chosen from grade 10 to 12 with a relatively balanced representation from both genders. This was done to get information from pupils who were being prepared to transition into society to possibly lead in various spheres of life and to also get views from both genders. This though important does not allow some kind of generalizability and this can be a weakness.

For this reason the use of simple random sampling for teachers in upper secondary was important in this study in order to fill the gap created by purposive sampling. In simple random sampling subjects in the population are sampled by a random process, using either a random number

generator or a random number table, so that each person remaining in the population has the same probability of being selected for the sample. It has a higher representation of the population and eliminates sampling bias, but at times depending on the number of subjects in a study it can be difficult to achieve due to factors like time, money and effort (Saul McLeod 2014).

Becker (1998:67) states that, "sampling can be a major problem for any kind of research since not all cases can be studied and so every scientific enterprise will try to find out something that will apply to everything of a certain kind by studying a few examples so that the results could be generalized to all members of that class of stuff". In other words, the sampled population in the study can be used to make some generalization on the practice of youth leadership development in Zambia.

3.7 Data Collection Tools

3.7.1 Secondary data
The researcher consulted a variety of academic articles, governmental research publications, books, dissertations, programmatic content of case studies, written media articles and internet sources.

3.7.2 Primary data
Gill and Johnson (2002) argued that there is no ideal, sole method of collecting data. In qualitative research, in-depth interview, focus groups, document review and observation are some of the major methods of data collection. Their application and limitations in the research into youth leadership development are examined in the following section.

(a) In-Depth Interview
Interviews are used to gather information from individuals 1-on-1, using a series of predetermined questions or a set of interest areas. Interviews are often recorded and transcribed. They can be structured or unstructured; they can either follow a tightly written script that mimics a survey or be inspired by a loose set of questions that invite interviewees to express themselves more freely (In-depth Interviews). Interviewers need to actively listen and question, probe, and prompt further to collect richer data. Interviews are ideal when used to document participants' accounts, perceptions of, or stories about attitudes toward and responses to certain situations or phenomena. Interview data are often used to generate themes, theories, and models.

In discussing with the respondents in charge of youth leadership development in schools, in-depth interviews will be relatively easy to arrange due to the flexible nature of government schools in terms of time. The procedures will also be relatively easier to control due to the maturity and level of understanding of the subject matter that the respondents have. Face-to-face communication may also probe into respondent's perceptions of youth leadership development.

(b) In-Depth Questionnaire

A questionnaire is a data collection instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. The questionnaire was invented by Sir Francis Galton. Questionnaires allow collection of both subjective and objective data in a large sample of the study population in order to obtain results that are statistically significant, especially when resources are limited. It is a good tool for the protection of the privacy of the participants. However, the validity of data and information depends on the honesty of the respondent. And the questionnaires can measure both qualitative and quantitative data, but is it more appropriate for quantitative data collection (Wai-Ching Leung, 2001).

For this study, an in-depth questionnaire was be used to allow the collection of more detailed information from the teachers. In-depth interviews would have been quite difficult to arrange and conduct, hence a questionnaire which allowed for more expression and some open ended questions was used.

(c) Focus Groups

Focus group discussions (FGD's) are used to gather information in a group setting, either through predetermined interview questions that the moderator asks of participants in turn or through a script to stimulate group conversations. Ideally, FGD's are used when the sum of a group of people's experiences may offer more than a single individual's experiences in understanding social phenomena. Focus groups also allow researchers to capture participants' reactions to the comments and perspectives shared by other participants and are thus a way to capture similarities and differences in viewpoints (Wright et al. 2016).

In youth leadership development research, using a focus group, students may compare their perception on the subject matter that they have received. However, some people may also be easily swayed by group responses. At the same time, it would be difficult to set a convenient schedule

for 8-10 students, due to their school work and time schedules. Focus groups are difficult to moderate and the unstructured nature of the responses makes coding, analysis and interpretation difficult. However, considering the value of the information that can be gathered using this method, it was used.

(d) Document Review

Document review is a way of collecting data by reviewing existing documents. The documents may be internal to a program or organization (such as records of what components of a leadership development program were implemented in schools) or may be external (such as records of organizations visited by students served by a school leadership development program). Documents may be hard copy or electronic and may include reports, program logs, performance ratings, funding proposals, meeting minutes, newsletters, and marketing materials found in a given case study or sampled institution.

Document review has a number of advantages in the study of youth leadership development. It is relatively inexpensive, it is a good source of background information, unobtrusive, provides a behind-the-scenes look at a program that may not be directly observable, and may bring up issues not noted by other means. It can be utilized in the analysis of youth leadership development curriculums in high schools. The disadvantages however is that information may be inapplicable, disorganized, unavailable, or out of date. It could also be biased because of selective survival of information, information may be incomplete or inaccurate, and it can be time consuming to collect, review, and analyze many documents (Journal of Graduate Medical Education, 2016). With these limitations, this tool was used as a supplementary one to the other tools used.

(e) Observation

According to Boote and Mathews (1999), observation is an appropriate methodology for conducting research when at least one of the following four criteria is met: the phenomenon under investigation is easily observable; the phenomenon under investigation is a social process or a mass activity; the phenomenon under investigation occurs at a subconscious level, and the people under investigation are either unable or unwilling to communicate directly with the researcher. Observation yields obvious and valuable information. However, the most serious disadvantage of observation is that little is known about the underlying motives, beliefs, attitudes and preferences for the observed behaviour (Malhotra and Birks 2000). Observation can only uncover patterns of,

not motives for behaviour. In exploring YLD programmes, this method has not been found to be appropriate; hence other methods of data collection have been adopted.

Considering the strengths and weaknesses of all the methods discussed above in-depth interviews, focus groups and document analysis were used in this study.

3.8 Method of Data Analysis
Thematic analysis will be explained and its use in this study will be justified in this section.

(a) THEMATIC ANALYSIS

Thematic Analysis is a type of qualitative analysis. It is used to analyse classifications and present themes (patterns) that relate to the data. It illustrates the data in great detail and deals with diverse subjects via interpretations (Boyatzis 1998).

Thematic Analysis is considered the most appropriate for any study that seeks to discover using interpretations. It provides a systematic element to data analysis. It allows the researcher to associate an analysis of the frequency of a theme with one of the whole content. This will confer accuracy and intricacy and enhance the research's whole meaning. Qualitative research requires understanding and collecting diverse aspects and data. Thematic Analysis gives an opportunity to understand the potential of any issue more widely (Marks and Yardley 2004).

Good qualitative research needs to be able to draw interpretations and be consistent with the data that is collected. With this in mind, Thematic Analysis is capable to detect and identify for example, factors or variables that influence any issue generated by the participants. Therefore, the participants' interpretations are significant in terms of giving the most appropriate explanations for their behaviours, actions and thoughts. In the exploration of youth leadership development, the key perceptions of pupils and youth leadership facilitators will be clearer and easier to categorize with this type of analysis, considering how wide the topic of leadership is. This fits in well with the features that are involved in the process of Thematic Analysis (Hatch 2002; Creswell 2003).

3.9 Delimitation
The study was conducted in Lusaka district of Lusaka province of Zambia. It covered only two selected public secondary schools in order to capture a picture of how YLD is practiced in public

schools and the CDC office. This means that the findings of the study could not be generalized to a wider population to other districts of Lusaka province which have rural secondary schools.

3.10 Limitations

Subsequence research is needed due to the fact that the exploratory nature of this study does not provide conclusive evidence. The study would have been more representative if more schools and CDC Officials were included in the sample. And the findings may not represent all the schools in the country, hence the findings may not be generalized. Chand (2010) supported this by arguing that the basic purpose of exploratory research studies is to achieve new insights for further studies.

3.11 Ethical Consideration

Research can be a difficult process without the consideration of ethical issues that may arise as its being conducted. Because respondents are human beings, social researchers have to ensure that the respondents are treated with respect. Polit et al. (2001) describe research ethics as a system of moral values that is concerned with the degree to which research procedures adhere to professional, legal and social obligations to study participants. To Cooper and Schindler (2003:120), ethics are norms or standards of behaviour that guide moral choices about our behaviour and our relationships with others. Cooper and Schindler (2003:121) state that when ethics are discussed in research design, researchers think of protecting the rights of the participants through the whole process. When the issues of research ethics have been respected, validity and reliability are enhanced.

Therefore, the ethics statement of this research was as follows: the nature of the research and the name of the researcher will be given in the research; the interviewees will be contacted at reasonable times, and if the time is inconvenient, another time which is convenient to the interviewees will be reset; interviewees will be informed in advance of the recording of the interviews and the intended use of the recording; interviewees are allowed to freely express their views in the research; the interviewees' decision to participate in the study, answer specific questions, or discontinue the participation will be respected without question; interviewees' names, addresses, phone numbers, or any other personal information won't be disclosed to anyone outside the research without their permission and the privacy of interviewees' responses will be respected and maintained. For the respondents below the age of 18, consent will be sought from the parents or guardians.

3.12 Summary

This chapter presented an overview of the systematic methods by which the study was conducted, data gathered, and analysis methods. It included the research design, site of study, the population, study sample and sampling procedures, data collection tools, method of data analysis, delimitation and limitation, and ethical considerations. The next chapter presents and discusses the findings of the study. It will be arranged in categories based on the research questions with themes under each category.

4.0 CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Overview

In this chapter I present and discuss the research findings of the study. The findings are based on key themes that emerged from the study. This study aimed to answer the following questions; what does youth leadership development entail in Zambia? Do the contents of the curriculum in public high schools depict youth leadership development programmes? What are the barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia? And what is the model for youth leadership development in Zambia? The chapter will be arranged in various categories based on the questions, with themes and sub-themes from each group of respondents under each category.

4.2 Demographics of respondents

4.2.1 Pupils

Figure 1- Distribution of Learner Participants by Gender
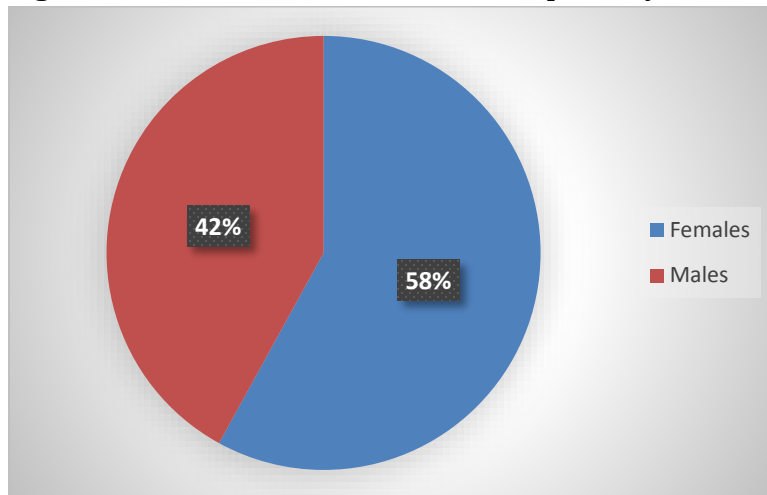
As seen in the figure above, there were more females than male pupils who participated in the focus group discussion. There were 7 (58%) females and 5 (42%) males.

Figure 2-Distribution of Participants by Age

Frequency of Ages
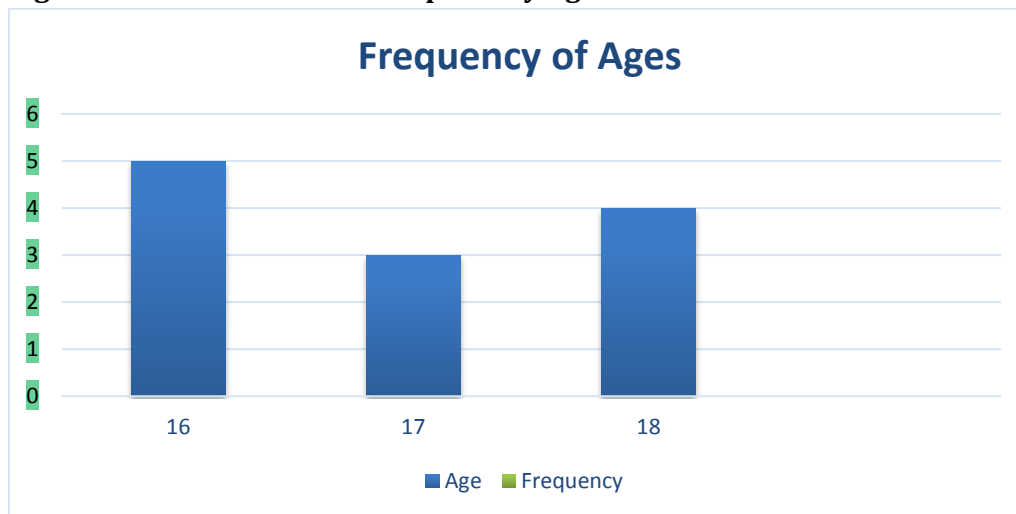
From the figure above, 5 (42%) learners were aged 16, 3 (25%) were aged 17 and 4 (33%) were aged 18. It shows that 8 (66%) out of 12 were minors below the age of 18. This meant that consent had to be gotten from their parents or guardians for them to participate in the study.

Figure 3-Distribution of Learner Participants who were in Leadership Positions
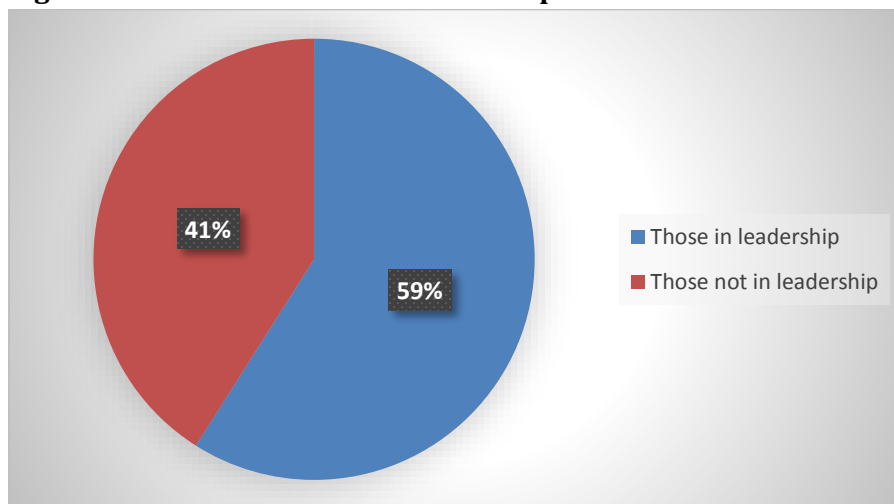
From the above figure, 5 (41%) of the learners were not in leadership positions while 7 (59%) were.

4.3 What does youth leadership development entail in Zambia?

One of the objectives of the study was to find out what youth leadership development entails in Zambia. 2 officials from the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) participated in the study. Their responses were as follows:-

4.3.1 Vital Skills for Youth Leadership development

The study sought responses from the CDC officials on what skills are vital in leadership. The officials in the interviews shared what they think are the vital skills that are required when building effective leadership. These include listening to others, inspiring others to achieve, setting goals that are SMART (Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Time bound), being ready to be led, knowledgeable, humility, sharing knowledge, defending the people being led and ensuring their needs are met.

4.3.2 Participation in school Activities

The study also sought responses from Head Teachers on what they understood from the term Youth Leadership Development. The responses from the Head Teachers were as follows:-

Youth leadership development was understood as a deliberate efforts by adults to give the youth opportunities in governance. This is done in schools by involving pupils in a number of activities. Pupils are given opportunities to preach during the school assembly, head teacher A believed this helps the pupils build important skills like public speaking. Activities in clubs like the Debate Club also gives pupils opportunities to enhance their analytical and communication skills. Pupils are also allowed to attend board meetings held by teachers. The pupils from one of the schools attended and represented the school at the 2017 Indaba conference in collaboration with teachers. Head teacher B added that learning groups are also created in classes, a leader is selected for each group. This gives an opportunity to more pupils to exercise leadership other than the common leadership roles like prefects. When cleaning activities are happening, there is always a prefect to help to supervise fellow pupils. And various committees within the school like the sanitation committee has fewer teachers and the majority are pupils. Head teacher A believed and stated that "*such activities promote more democratic leadership where pupils are given a voice.*"

When asked the same question, the responses from the pupils were as follows:-

The pupils understood leadership to be responsibility over colleagues, having authority over others, reproducing yourself in others, and as a process where an individual is given power to change situations for the better. Youth leadership development was generally understood as the building up of the youth to take up leadership roles.

The pupils felt leadership skills are built through various school activities including the debate club through programmes like "Speech Power". At school A, this is done both in classes and in the debate club. All classes have class presentations for their pupils. And one of the pupils added that:

In the Jets club for example, pupils teach fellow pupils, which is good leadership skills development.

5 pupils from school B stated that Scripture Union, a Christian religious club gave them an opportunity to have practical leadership experience. They also felt that the club enhanced their public speaking skills. A lot of leadership qualities like humility, servant-hood and patience are taught at Scripture Union.

4.3.3 Democratic Leadership
Another question was raised seeking responses concerning what YLD entails. The responses from the teachers were as follows:-

5 (50%) of the teachers indicated that they are involved in activities that develop leadership skills in pupils. 9 (90%) of the teachers claimed that the leadership style being promoted is democratic or inclusive rather than autocratic. This was view was mainly because of the pupil's involvement in the running of the school through positions like prefects, monitors, and head boy/girls. The 1 (10%) who believed its autocratic claimed this because the work given to the pupils is directed and decided by the teachers. The Art and Design teacher who constituted the 1 (10%) wrote:

I direct and decide on the kind of artworks they should work on independently.

The CDC officials shared vital skills they feel are required to be built in young leaders. These are to be instilled through the curriculum. However, on the ground, from head teachers, teachers and pupils, it appears that school activities that facilitate participation from the pupils has a greater impact on building leadership competencies than the curriculum content.

This is supported by the Social Learning theory which argues that participation and observation facilitates effective learning. Bandura (1977) observed that individuals are capable of learning through observation and practical application, usually by virtue of a mentor. The Social Learning Theory of Bandura emphasizes the importance of observing and modelling the behaviour, attitudes

and emotional reactions of others. The theory also states that learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do.

Participation in activities with teachers and fellow pupils builds the pupil's leadership skills. The pupils in the focus group discussions had more confidence in clubs and extracurricular activities to build leadership skills than they did in what they learn in the various subjects. This observation is backed by Ekpoh et al. (2013) who argued that a continuous process of education and training produces effective leaders who are able to move their communities and nations forward. Many leadership and engagement activities are offered within the school settings. Schools make it possible to add practicality to the knowledge and skills that the youth acquire by giving them the opportunity to apply them in that environment as well as the community through school programmes (Barnett & Brennan, 2006).

Mbobola (2013) argued that the ethical development of pupils in schools should be seen through democratic and accountable structures, role modelling values and children's ability to uphold certain norms and core values of the community in which they live. The fact that democratic and inclusive leadership is promoted in Zambian public schools shows that ethical leadership is attempted to be developed.

4.4 Do the contents of the curriculum in public secondary schools depict YLD programmes?

The study sought the views of the respondent on whether or not the contents of the curriculum in public secondary schools depict youth leadership development programmes. The responses from the Head teacher respondents were as follows:

4.4.1 Deep learning
It was argued by the 2 head teachers that the curriculum generally is a "why curriculum" which promotes deep learning. It requires learners to ask and explain why something is, and deep learning in the sense that the pupils are encouraged to see multiple layers when analyzing issues. Head teacher A shared that subjects like Civic Education teaches learners to be responsible in society

and contribute to societal growth. The study further established that even a subject like English through its stories promotes critical thinking and comprehension. In other subjects, pupils are asked to explain issues, which strengthens critical thinking. Head teacher B termed this as "deep learning".

The views of the Head Teacher B from school A match with Alfred Mbobola (2013) who argued that schools should aim at helping children learn by learning to do and addressing the holistic developmental needs of the child. The cognitive aspect of learning should be based on learner-centred methodologies, skill building, entrepreneurships and ability to analyse and process rather than memorizing information.

4.4.2 Role models

When asked whether or not the contents of the curriculum in public secondary schools depict youth leadership development programmes, the learners and teachers brought out the significance of role models in comparison to the curriculum contents in building leadership skills.

10 (80%) of the pupil respondents mentioned Civic Education as the subject that directly teaches them about leadership. Another subject mentioned was Religious Education. The pupils however added that they receive direct motivation and inspiration more from their personal lives, mostly away from the school environment. Some are inspired by religious leaders from their church because of the sound advice they feel they receive. One pupil respondent was motivated by a teacher who advises and encourages her concerning education. One pupil respondent also shared how women in politics like Dora Siliya and Edith Nawakwi inspire her to also achieve great things as a female. Even more close relations have a significant impact. The 3 pupils who are in leadership positions at their schools are inspired by their fathers because of the good example portrayed over the years. I also established that significant learning and inspiration seems to come from personal contact with other individuals. Even in the school environment, it comes as a result of contact with a teacher.

Another lesson drawn from the study was that 6 (60%) of the teacher respondents felt that pupils are encouraged to have role models or mentors within the school environment. The role models are expected to be teachers and even fellow pupils. The teacher respondents felt that this would have a great impact in instilling vital leadership skills in the learners.

4.4.3 Strength of Curriculum in Building Leadership Skills

When asked to what degree the curriculum helps to promote leadership skills in learners, teachers responded as follows:

There were varied views on this question as shown in the Table below. 6 (60%) lean on the view that the curriculum does help to promote leadership skills. A number of subjects that teachers felt promote leadership skills were listed, but the subject which was on every list was Civic Education. 7 (70%) of the teachers included Religious Education as a subject that also significantly builds leadership skills.

Table 1: Degree to which curriculum builds leadership skills

Answer	Number of answers	Percentage
Strongly Disagree	0	0%
Lesser Degree	4	40%
Larger Degree	4	40%
Strongly Agree	2	20%

The Table above shows the distribution of views on the strength of the curriculum in building leadership skills in learners. No respondent felt that it completely does not help build leadership skills. 4 (40%) felt it does build leadership skills but to a lesser degree, another 4 (40%) felt it does to a larger degree, and 2 (20%) strongly agreed to the fact that it helps to build leadership skills in pupils.

4.4.4 Life Skills Framework

When asked if the contents of the curriculum depict youth leadership development, the two (2) CDC officials explained that the latest revised curriculum has specific leadership content. It was claimed by official A that it teaches cooperation, responsibility and hard work. The revising of the curriculum is now also open to private publishers who can have an input in the direction and goal of the curriculum. Official B pointed out that even a subject like History teaches leadership skills in that it gives examples of both bad and good leadership from the past which we can learn from.

It was also highlighted by official B that in practice, not enough concentration is given to training leadership skills. It is a difficult task. No subject specifically teachers leadership, subjects only teach it indirectly.

It seems that the curriculum builds leadership skills in more subtle ways which the pupils may not be aware of. One of the head teachers stressed how the whole curriculum is structured in a way that invokes critical thinking and analysis. The Intentional Change Theory (ICT) possibly explains why pupils and teachers may not clearly see the effects of the learning done in class to build certain vital skills. ICT argues that changes are sometimes difficult to observe. Changes can become observable over time and usually not easily attributed to a specific action(s).

10 (80%) of pupils mentioned civic education as the subject they feel teaches them about leadership and instills vital skills. The Eurydice Report (2012) observes however, that there is usually no clear explanation of how Civic Education does contribute to the development of the well-being of society. This therefore demands that more should be done to deliberately develop the required skills that young people need in order to become competent contributors to society. This reveals that Civic Education may be quite limited in preparing the pupils for leadership in spite of them thinking it is.

According to the Conceptual Model of leadership development explained earlier in this study, learning about leadership is vital before the practice of leadership skills. For example it is argued that decision making, reasoning, and critical thinking are identified as crucial in developing a model for facilitating the teaching and learning of leadership for young people. This component is based on evidence that a well-developed young person who is intellectually reflective develops new solutions to existing challenges.

To add to this argument, oral and written communication skills are described as an "all-purpose instrument of leadership" as they are the media used to influence and lead other people. The development of these skills in emerging leaders is thus instrumental in the leadership learning process.

These arguments therefore reveal that even less obvious subjects like English and Science which build critical thinking are vital for leadership development. Religious Education also exposes pupils to various cultures and religions which promotes cultural diversity and tolerance, which is also vital for leadership. This being indirect makes its contribution to leadership development more difficult to observe by both pupils and teachers.

However, most of the interviewed pupils felt that most of the influence is from role models who inspire them to be leaders as well. This allows them to model actions and behaviours. Most of the role models were from outside the school environment and appeared to be in the occupations the pupils aspire to be in. for example, those in leadership in Scripture Union mentioned more religious leaders than the others, and those interested in politics would mention political leaders.

Among the teachers, there were varied views on the degree to which the current curriculum helps to promote leadership skills in pupils. This may be because of the varied subjects they teach, perhaps some feel the subjects they teach do not address leadership issues. They may therefore generalize it to the whole curriculum.

CDC official's views were also valuable to understanding this phenomena. One explained that the curriculum has a life skills framework to equip pupils to thrive and lead in all spheres of life. In practice they both admitted that not enough concentration is given to leadership training in the curriculum, they observed. This possibly explains why pupils are more influenced through role models than the contents in the curriculum.

4.5 What are the barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia?

Another objective sought the views of the respondents on what the barriers were to youth leadership development. The responses from the pupil respondents were as follows:

4.5.1 Lack of willingness and motivation

Laziness, playfulness and disobedience from the youth makes leadership development difficult

This was the response from pupil A who was in a leadership position. The pupil respondent further argued that hence the views of the youth are not respected by society. The youth also seem to lack motivation to be great leaders. Pupil B who was also in a leadership position stated that:

There is lack of respect for leadership, and one cannot be what they disrespect.

Another pupil respondent added that:

The concept of the youth being the leaders of tomorrow makes them reluctant and have low expectations for themselves and build an attitude of procrastination.

There is also no wide range of activities to do which can help the youth discover their skills and talents. And there is also no proper medium to be used for leaders to be heard and inspire the youth. International leaders seem to have a greater reach to influence the youth in Zambia than the local leaders. This creates a gap because the youth can therefore find it difficult to believe that they can make a significant difference where they are with local inspiration.

4.5.2 Minimal chance to speak

One of the other barriers which emerged from the Focus Group Discussion is that pupils are given minimal chances to speak. 3 pupils from school B felt chances are given based on favoritism from teachers. One challenged the 3 and argued that chances are given to pupils but they do not know how to express themselves because of lack of training. Another pupil from school A further added that in Civic Education, speaking is compulsory for pupils, however in that subject and others the opportunities pupils are given depends on the teacher. Others give chances to speak while others do not. One pupil in leadership felt that airing views and complaints to the school management is restricted.

The responses from the teachers were as follows:

4 (40%) of the teachers felt that there are no barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia. 6 (60%) highlighted a number of themes, these were:

4.5.3 Limited time with pupils

One of the challenges highlighted by the teachers was that subject teachers have limited time with pupils due to the fact that they are only with the pupils during the specific subject they teach. There are limited role models within the school environment despite the majority of teachers claiming that pupils are encouraged to have role models within school.

4.5.4 Lack of facilities

The findings of the study revealed that there are no facilities in schools for hands on experience. Furthermore, recreation facilities which help to build skills like cooperation are also inadequate.

When asked what barriers YLD in Zambia faces, the interviews with the CDC officials brought out these responses:

4.5.5 Cross cutting Curriculum

According to the CDC officials, no one is held accountable to specifically look at leadership training in schools. This aspect is therefore usually neglected. It being done indirectly in subjects makes it difficult to improve it and assess its effectiveness.

4.5.6 Lack of mentorship

One CDC official observed that older people in leadership positions who have acquired experience fear becoming irrelevant. This can make them reluctant to give opportunities to the youth to lead and gain the necessary experience as well.

4.5.7 Teachers ill prepared

One CDC official gave a bold opinion that teachers are not leaders themselves. That they also require training in leadership. "*Most teachers are not aware of the contents of leadership training, except for guidance and counselling teachers*", he argued.

Other themes which emerged include:

➢ Limited leadership positions for pupils.
➢ Few academic books on leadership

All pupils in the sampled schools acknowledged that there are barriers to YLD, 40% of the teachers however felt there are no barriers. The barriers highlighted were character flaws from the youth and institutional and structural flaws in schools which do not facilitate leadership development. These included limited time spent with pupils and limited chances to speak for pupils.

Lizzio et al. (2010) showed in their study that the leadership actions described by adolescents were taken from the cues of the moment, not from positional cues. In other words, student positions of power, such as class captains, were not automatically implicated in spontaneous actions to which

leadership was attributed as earlier explained in this study. The needs of the moment with the people involved were more likely motivators for leadership to emerge in pro-social or anti-social ways from amongst anyone in the group. Pupils in leadership positions would be given the opportunities to lead by the school, but in various instances a lot of pupils may feel the urge to step up and contribute and may not be enabled to by the school leadership. This possibly explains the acknowledgement of barriers from all the pupils, both those in leadership positions and those that are not.

The female pupils appeared less confident compared to their male counterparts during the focus group discussions. The females who seemed more confident were those in leadership positions. This possibly reduces the female's chances to be involved or selected for leadership in schools. Which is a barrier in that most females might not acquire the experience which would help them lead in society after completing high school.

CDC officials on the other hand highlighted flaws from teachers and their lack of preparedness and training in leadership development. Some teacher respondents argued that most teachers are not leaders themselves. This might explain why a significant number are not aware of any barriers to YLD. It does not seem to be an area of concentration, hence knowledge about it might be limited and barriers may not be apparent.

One CDC official also argued that the adults in society are not willing to invest in young people, they refrain due to the fear of being made irrelevant and being replaced in their positions of authority in society. It was also added that in the school curriculum, no subject is specifically accountable to address leadership training. It might appear that the youth are left to discover and learn about leadership by themselves.

There appears to be unwillingness from both pupils, teachers and society in building leadership skills in the youth. The institutional structures in schools also poses challenges in facilitating the process, as well as the cross cutting curriculum which lacks focus on leadership training.

4.6 What is the model for youth leadership development in Zambia?

Another objective sought to get the views of the respondents on what model is used for youth leadership development in Zambia. The four models explained in this study were the conceptual model which focused on formal teaching of leadership; Leadership identity development model with a relational and ethical process of people attempting positive change; Heifetz's adaptive leadership model; and the social change model.

When asked what model they think is used in Zambian public secondary schools, the head teachers responded as follows:

4.6.1 Adapting to the environment
The head teachers observed that from the models explained in this study, the one adopted in the Zambian school system is Heifetz's model which has a focus on training pupils to be leaders who adapt to their environment. They both argued that the curriculum and the school activities enable the pupils to adapt to various environment after completing school. The main environments include the business and employment sector and in tertiary education as well.

4.6.2 Mixed model
The CDC officials were in agreement that if leadership development is done adequately, it will bring positive social change. It also aims to build a society of relations and ethics for positive change, a society without ethics is dead. The only model that appears absent according to CDC official A is formal learning in leadership. Leadership is not taught directly but indirectly in subjects and activities in schools. CDC official B on the other hand argued that the only model which is not adopted is teaching pupils to adapt to their environment.

4.6.3 Preparation for societal contribution
All except one of the pupil respondents felt that the school system is preparing them for positive societal change and they feel confident to lead in general society, in which ever sector they decide to contribute. These sectors included the religious, political, social and economic leadership spheres. The models highlighted by the pupil respondents were the social change model and the leadership identity development model.

Educating our Future (National Policy on Education) 1996

4.6.4 Integrated and Comprehensive Development

Building on the foundations of grade 8 and 9, the broad aim of high school education is the integrated and comprehensive development of each pupil's potential. They are to be adequately prepared for the furtherance of their education, through full time or part-time study, or for becoming self-supporting workers. They should also be capable of making a useful contribution to society and adequately qualified for the adoption of adult roles. The particular objectives of education at this level are to:

1. Develop desirable intellectual skills and qualities such as reflective reasoning, logical thinking, ability to concentrate, attentiveness to detail, and objectivity in appraisal of evidence;

2. Foster creativity, imagination, resourcefulness, and innovativeness, and provide occasions for their exercise;

3. Promote extensive knowledge, exact skills, and accurate understanding of chosen areas in languages, mathematics, science and technology, the social sciences, practical subjects, and the arts;

4. Provide educational experiences that will nurture skills that will enable pupils to take charge of their own learning;

5. Establish an environment that will cater for the psycho-social needs of pupils and that will facilitate their growth to maturity as moral and responsible individuals;

6. Instill a spirit of self-discipline, integrity, accuracy and hard work;

7. Awaken concern for the promotion of civil liberties and human rights for the consolidation of the democratic character of Zambian society, for the more equitable distribution of global and national wealth, and for sustainable human development in Zambia and elsewhere;

8. Develop desirable attitudes and qualities of personal, inter-personal, national and international peace and understanding.

The content, structure and processes of teaching in high schools, the range of extra-curricular activities undertaken, and the organization and ethos of the school should all be directed towards meeting these objectives.

4.6.5 Responsible Citizenship

The policy document also highlighted that the education of a young person in today's world would not be complete without preparing them for living responsibly within civil society. Those who leave schools should have knowledge and appreciation of the values that inspire society, knowledge and understanding of individual liberties and human rights, and awareness of their responsibilities to themselves, to others and society in general.

In achieving this, the formal curriculum should cater for some of the aspects highlighted above, while a school's extra-curricular activities will be an important supplementary channel for learning experiences in these and similar areas. Schools would error greatly if they only concentrated on the intellectual aspect of learning and neglected these other important dimensions of personal growth.

While schools cannot respond to every need, they play an important role in promoting the personal development that leads to responsibility in young adults. Much of this is effected through the activities that go on outside the classroom and through school structures that give increasing levels of personal responsibility to pupils in their later years.

From the models discussed in this study, it appears that from the responses from all respondents and the policy document that in Zambia it is generally a combination of models. The head teachers who oversee school activities have the view that there is an emphasis on adaptation to the environment and they believe the school environment aims to prepare pupils for that. The CDC officials on the other hand have the view that it is mixed. This is presumably because of the wide knowledge they have on the curriculum and what it aims to achieve. The only model left out by one official was the formal learning of leadership, which the other official believes happens, just indirectly.

For the pupil respondents, they seemed to lean more on the aim of leadership training to be positive societal change and with people cooperating to achieve that change. This is the case probably because of the emphasis from teachers that what is learnt is for the benefit of the society wherever the pupil goes after completing high school. The notion of young people being "future leaders" comes into play as the pupils anticipate the opportunity to contribute to society using the skills and knowledge acquired. The Educating our Future policy document explains that the aim of high

school education is the integrated and comprehensive development of a pupil. This supports the mixed model observation. High school learning encompasses the formal learning of skills and the expected roles for citizens in society; promotion of cooperation; developing intellectual skills like reflective reasoning to adapt to the environment; this then enables the pupils to be capable of contributing positively to society and adopt adult roles.

The development and future of Zambia requires well rounded training and development of leadership skills. This holistic approach to leadership development may seem broad and also arguably not focused and specific. It may therefore not necessarily be deliberately mixed but rather just lacking direction.

4.7 Summary

This chapter presented and discussed the main findings of the study. The results indicated that school activities have a significant impact on the promotion of YLD in Zambia. Democratic leadership is also promoted in the school environment including in the various activities pupils get involved in. It was also established that the curriculum depicts YLD in more subtle ways which are not easily observable. It has more of a life skills framework which focusses on the holistic development of the learner. The barriers to YLD highlighted were character flaws and lack of willingness from the pupils and institutional and structural flaws in schools which do not facilitate leadership development. And the study found that there is basically a mixture of models in the practice of YLD in Zambian public secondary schools. The various respondents had a focus on one or more of the models based on the institutions and role in the process of YLD.

5.0 CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This chapter contains the Summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. It summarizes the aim and structure of the study, it further shows the main findings and conclusions based on the data collected, and it finally makes recommendations based on the findings.

5.1 Summary and Conclusions

This research aimed to contribute to the body of knowledge about the practice of youth leadership development (YLD) at upper secondary school level in Zambia. This study focusses on public secondary schools and what YLD entails at that level. The study sought to find out the contents of the curriculum for the promotion of YLD, barriers to YLD, and to explore the models of YLD and find out which one is used in Zambian public secondary schools.

From the findings on what YLD entails, it was discovered that school activities through clubs, class tasks and school initiatives which involve pupils seem to have a greater impact on developing leadership skills in pupils compared to theoretical learning in the classroom. This is due to the fact that this type of learning has practical application by having the pupils involved in activities. The pupils involved in school activities appeared to be more confident and had acquired certain skills like effective communication and resource management.

The study established that the curriculum seems to be more subtle in building leadership skills in pupils. It does not seem to directly teach leadership but does so by teaching certain skills like planning, logical thinking and reflective reasoning which are vital for leadership. Civic Education appears a bit more direct in teaching leadership through elements like citizen's roles in contributing to society and preparing pupils to live and lead in the modern world. The secondary school curriculum however generally has a life skills framework, which makes it have a general objective of preparing pupils for general living and therefore lacks focus on leadership training.

The four main barriers to YLD in Zambia, and more specifically in public secondary school are the unwillingness from pupils to learn leadership skills and appreciate their importance; teachers and society in general appears not to appreciate the importance of building leadership skills in the

youth, hence do not actively do it; and the institutional structures in schools also poses challenges in facilitating the process; as well as the cross cutting curriculum which lacks focus on leadership training. The solution to these barriers is a multi-level concerted and coordinated effort from various stakeholders including the pupils, schools, the government and the community as well.

The 4 models explained in this study are the conceptual model for developing leadership in youths; leadership identity development model; Heifetz's adaptive leadership model; and the social change model. There is however a combination of all these models to varying degrees in Zambia. Perceptions from various respondents leaned on one or more of these models being used in the process of YLD in Zambian school from their observations. Pupils and teachers felt the social change model is more dominant, while head teachers felt the focus of YLD is Heifetz's adaptive leadership model. CDC officials said it is a combination of all of them, and the (*Educating our Future*) policy document (1996) confirmed it is more of a holistic, integrated and comprehensive model to produce well rounded individuals in society and seems to include all models.

Based on the summary and conclusions drawn above, it is possible to propose a set of practical recommendations that address the exploratory findings of this research.

5.2 Recommendations
Subsequence research in youth leadership development in Zambia is needed due to the fact that the exploratory nature of this study does not provide strong conclusive evidence.

All pupils should be encouraged to actively participate in school activities where they can discover and develop their leadership skills. Interaction with other pupils and teachers help them find their areas of strength.

School administrators should consider having a rotation system for certain leadership positions in schools so that all pupils would have had an opportunity to lead in some capacity by the time they complete their high school education.

The importance of leadership development should be more emphasized in teaching colleges and universities to students during their training for them to appreciate and fully utilize all initiatives put in place in schools by the government when they enter the teaching service.

Considering how vital leadership development is, the Ministry of Education should consider having the curriculum include a more specialized emphasis on leadership development which can be more easily tracked and evaluated. For example leadership training can possibly be attached to a subject like Civic Education.

A standardized leadership training programme can be attached to all public secondary schools in Zambia which can teach basics about leadership. This can be done at grade 8 and 10 levels and can be one week long programmes infused in the school time tables. The programme can be selected from the most relevant and suited leadership training programmes already running in Zambia like the Mandela Washington Fellowship.

Government policies and programmes in Zambia targeted at the youth should recognize the need for leadership development as a specialized form of youth development. At the moment it is more of a component of other wider frameworks like life skills and sports.

The Ministry of Youth, Sports and Child Development should use its allocated share of government revenue to provide for funding and support of independently operated youth leadership development interventions.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1

Consent for Participation in Interview Research

I volunteer to participate in a research project conducted by Anthony Tambulukani from the University of Zambia. I understand that the project is designed to gather information about youth leadership development. I will be one of approximately 26 people being interviewed for this research.

1. My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation. I may withdraw and discontinue participation at any time without penalty. If I decline to participate or withdraw from the study, no one in my school or institution will be told.

2. I understand that most interviewees will find the discussion interesting and thought-provoking. If, however, I feel uncomfortable in any way during the interview session, I have the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview.

3. Participation involves being interviewed by a researcher from the University of Zambia. The interview will last approximately 30-45 minutes. Notes will be written during the interview. An audio tape of the interview and subsequent dialogue will be made. If I don't want to be taped, I will not be able to participate in the study.

4. I understand that the researcher will not identify me by name in any reports using information obtained from this interview, and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

5. Faculty and administrators from my campus/institution will neither be present at the interview nor have access to raw notes or transcripts. This precaution will prevent my individual comments from having any negative repercussions.

6. I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

7. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

_____   _____

My Signature   Date

_____   _____

My Printed Name   Signature of the Investigator

For further information, please contact: Anthony Tambulukani on 0953760274

Appendix 2

Questionnaire for Teachers

1. Sex   Male ☐   Female   ☐

2. How old were you on your last birthday? ……….

3. What is your education level?

   Certificate ☐ Diploma   ☐ Degree ☐ Masters   ☐ Ph.D.   ☐

4. Which subject(s) do you teach?

   …………………………………………………………………………………………….

5. Are you involved in any activity(s) in school that develops leadership skills in pupils??

   Yes ☐   No ☐

6. If   answer   to   question   5   is   yes,   which   activity(s)?

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

7. Which leadership style is more promoted in your school among pupils?

   Autocratic (Dictatorial)   ☐ democratic (Inclusive)   ☐

8. What leadership activities do the pupils do which show the type of leadership style promoted?

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

   …………………………………………………………………………………………

9. To what degree do you agree that the upper secondary curriculum helps to promote leadership skills in pupils?

Strongly Disagree ☐ Lesser Degree ☐ Larger Degree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐

10. Which subject(s) do you feel develops leadership skills the most?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

11. Do you think the current curriculum is adequate to produce effective citizens who can solve our current national problems?

Yes ☐   No ☐

12. If the answer to 11 is 'No', what can be done to make the curriculum more effective?

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

………………………………………………………………………………………………

13. Are there any barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia?

Yes ☐   No ☐

14. If answer to 13 is 'Yes', mention a maximum of 4 barriers?

1…………………………………………………………………………………………

2…………………………………………………………………………………………

3…………………………………………………………………………………………

4…………………………………………………………………………………………

15. Are pupils encouraged to have mentors/role models within the school environment?

Yes ☐   No ☐

16. Does the gender of a pupil affect their confidence to be in leadership?

Yes ☐   No   ☐

17. If answer to 16 is 'Yes', how does it affect their confidence?

……

……

……..

18. What would you recommend to promote youth leadership development in schools?

……

……

……

Appendix 3

Interview Guide for Head Teachers

1. What do you understand from the term Youth Leadership Development?

2. In what ways are leadership skills developed in pupils at upper secondary level at your school?

3. What leadership style is more promoted? Autocratic or democratic?

4. What leadership activities do the pupils do which show the type of leadership style promoted?

5. To what degree do you feel the upper secondary curriculum helps to promote leadership skills in pupils?

6. To what degree are the pupils in leadership positions authorized to enforce discipline? Are there any legal, psychological or institutional restrictions?

7. How is the selection process of leaders in schools? Head boy/girl, prefects, monitors, club leaders?

8. How do the pupils respond to being selected?

9. Does the focus of leadership development in schools seem more on positive social change; relational and ethical process of cooperation for change; teaching of leadership skills in a formal setting; or/and leadership that adapts to the environment?

Appendix 4

CDC Official's Interview Guide

1. What do you understand from the term Youth Leadership Development?

2. What do you think are the vital skills that should be developed in the leadership development process?

3. To what degree does the upper secondary curriculum promote Youth Leadership Development?

4. In practice, is enough concentration given to the development of leadership skills?

5. What do you think are the barriers to Youth Leadership Development in Zambia?

6. What are the challenges you are aware of that teachers face in developing leadership skills in pupils?

7. Does the focus of leadership development in schools seem more on positive social change; relational and ethical process of cooperation for change; teaching of leadership skills in a formal setting; or/and leadership that adapts to the environment?

Appendix 5

Focus Group Discussion Guide for Pupils

1. What do you understand from the term Leadership?

2. What do you understand by development?

3. What do you understand by youth leadership development?

4. Which school activities do you think develop leadership skills?

5. Do you learn about leadership? If yes, what do you learn?

6. Do you have a role model?

7. What characteristics about them do you admire?

8. Are there any barriers to youth leadership development in Zambia?

9. Are you given chances to lead and speak?

10. How are leaders chosen in your school?

11. What leadership positions in school do you know?

12. Which leadership roles are easier to ascend to?

13. After completing high school, do you feel prepared to lead in general society?

Appendix 6

Demographic Questionnaire for Pupils

1. Sex   Male   ☐   Female   ☐

2. How old were you on your last birthday? ……….

3. What grade are you in? 10   ☐   11   ☐   12   ☐

4. Are you in any leadership position in school? Yes   ☐   No   ☐

5. If answer to question 4 is yes, which position? ……………………….