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Leadership in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria: A Study of the Perceptions of Its
Impact on the Acquired Leadership Skills of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates

A dissertation
presented to
the faculty of the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis
East Tennessee State University

In partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Education

by
Gerald I. Akata
May 2008

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Keywords: Leadership, Educational Leadership Theories, Contingency and Situational Leadership Theories, Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theories, Educational Leaders, West Africa, Nigeria, Niger Delta Region, Acquired Leadership Skills, Expatriate, Postgraduates, Impact, and Barrier

ABSTRACT

Leadership in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria: A Study of the Perceptions of Its Impact on the Acquired Leadership Skills of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates

by

Gerald I. Akata

The primary trouble befalling Nigeria and its Niger Delta has been described as a failure of leadership. At various periods during the late 20th and early 21st centuries, Nigeria endured a bloody civil war and years of repressive military rule. Violence in the Niger Delta region, widespread brain drain, and frequent strikes that disrupted academic calendars at universities had serious ramifications for the region's educational system.

This study explores former students' perceptions of perceived leadership qualities seen in educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta and how those qualities impact the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. Participants were Nigerian postgraduates living in Africa, Europe, and North America. Twenty-three men and 4 women took part in the study. Purposeful snowballing sampling procedures was used to select the sample. A mixed method design was used to collect data through structured electronic-mail surveys, and data were analyzed using constant comparative analysis procedures.

Fifteen areas of influence emerged from expatriates' perceptions of these educational leaders. Areas of influence were categorized into 4 major constructs: Leading qualities, Perceived produced impacts, Perceived barriers, and Responses. Expatriates perceived few negative leading qualities but perceived too many real negative impacts that posed barriers to their acquired leadership skills. They are aware that these perceived barriers could be social, economic, environmental, and ethnic. These perceived impacts and barriers have generated fear in respondents. Anger appeared to be postgraduates' most common response to negative

leadership qualities of educational leaders, while restlessness, associated with desire for effective leadership in the region appeared to be a common attitude among respondents.

Because educational leadership has tremendous impact on the lives of the country's postgraduates, and in light of increasing reports of "brain drain" from the region, Nigeria's educational leadership should be researched from every possible angle. A new theoretical model of perceptions of leadership qualities should be the focus of future research as Nigerian expatriates examine their own leadership qualities and, eventually, put them to use.

DEDICATION

We who lived in concentration camps can remember the men who walked through the huts comforting others, giving away their last piece of bread. They may have been few in number, but they offer sufficient proof that everything can be taken from a man but one thing: the last of the human freedoms – to choose one's attitude in any given set of circumstances, to choose one's own way.

Viktor E. Frankl, *Man's Search for Meaning*, 4th Edition,
1992, p. 75.

This study is passionately dedicated to the people of Ika Local Government area of Akwa Ibom State, Nigeria. They have not chosen to be victims of poor leadership at three consecutive times, in 1995, 2002, and 2005. However, they have chosen to be victors with their positive attitudes in their given set of leadership circumstances. Those awful experiences at the hands of various leaders lasted only for a little while.

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

The trouble with the present Federal Republic of Nigeria – known until 1914 as “The Royal Niger Company’s Territories (Geary, 1965, p. 125) – has been described as “simply and squarely a failure of leadership” (Achebe, 1984, p. 1). Britain occupied and took permanent possession of Nigeria during the 1900s, the 20th century A.D. In 1960, Nigeria became independent and has been a republic since 1963. However, leadership in the country was not at its best during the 20th and the first six years of the 21st centuries. The country had fought a bloody civil war from 1967 to 1970 (Sesay, Ukeje, Aina, & Odebiyi, 2003). Leadership was represented by repressive military rule for over the next 29 years (National Bureau of Statistics, 2005)

From an economic standpoint, Nigeria, as a whole, is a country rich in oil reserves and other mineral and natural resources. In particular, the Niger Delta region of Nigeria produces crude oil whose reserves account for nearly 90% of Nigeria’s foreign earnings (Ile & Akukwe, 2001). A November 2007 report from the U.S. Energy Information Administration indicated that 74% of United States crude oil imports came from several countries (EIA, 2008). Table 1 shows Nigeria occupying the fifth position among the top 15 countries exporting crude oil to the United States.

Table 1

Crude Oil Imports (Top 15 Countries) (Thousand Barrels per Day)

Country	Nov '07	Oct '07	YTD 2007	Nov '06	Jan-Nov 2006
Canada	1,919	1,889	1,872	2,093	1,800
Saudi Arabia	1,530	1,370	1,432	1,460	1,418
Mexico	1,484	1,322	1,426	1,459	1,608

Table 1 (continued)

Country	Nov '07	Oct '07	YTD 2007	Nov '06	Jan-Nov 2006
Venezuela	1,227	1,221	1,141	1,088	1,152
Nigeria	1,215	1,184	1,067	917	1,040
Iraq	508	490	495	573	566
Angola	408	342	502	505	504
Colombia	197	164	139	42	148
Algeria	184	213	452	253	357
Ecuador	154	222	198	246	275
Kuwait	154	150	178	253	180
Chad	107	93	75	118	93
Argentina	86	26	32	0	30
Russia	81	118	120	16	105
Brazil	78	172	167	156	134

Note. The data excludes oil imports into U.S. territories. Adapted from Energy Information Administration, Crude Oil and Total Petroleum Imports Top 15 Countries (2008)

From the developmental standpoint, the Niger Delta region has steadily experienced disproportionately high levels of violence and strikes in universities (Edukugho, 2003; Ekop, 2000; Uchendu, 1995) as compared to the rest of Nigeria. The United Nations Development Program attributed the increase in violence in the region to reasons that include (a) administrative neglect, (b) crumbling social infrastructure and services, (c) high unemployment, (d) social deprivation, (e) abject poverty, (f) filth and squalor, and (g) endemic conflict (UNDP, 2006). Bassey (2006) noted how the region suffered from exploitation and underdevelopment. Ekpu (2007) analyzed the region's troubles this way:

As expected, the oil industry grew in relevance and revenue but this growth came with a price: the waters of the region, the Niger Delta region, were polluted, the farmlands were destroyed, the air fouled and the people impoverished. No noticeable improvement took place in the region and the people commenced a regime of agitation led by Isaac Adaka Boro in the 60s, followed by the playwright, Ken Saro-Wiwa, in the 90s and Asari Dokubo in this century. (p. 1)

There are categories of leadership in a variety of contexts in Nigeria in general and in the Niger Delta region in particular. Community leaders whom Nigerians may know, religious and business leaders whom they may see and observe, political leaders, union leaders, age-group rural leaders, tribal leaders, educational leaders, and family leaders in the country exhibit examples of leadership. These categories have also been exposed to the acquisition of leadership skills, which have been defined as, “. . . a process by which a relatively lasting change in potential behavior occurs as a result of practice or experience” (Chernow & Vallasi, 1993, p. 1546). Leaders in these areas may have acquired leadership skills through their experiences, studying and learning. According to Chernow and Vallasi, learning applies to motor skills, such as driving a car, to intellectual skills, such as reading, and to attitudes and values, such as prejudice” (p. 1546). Boyatzis and Kolb (1995) defined learning skills as a “generic heuristic[s] that enables mastery of a specific domain having two components: a domain of application and a knowledge transformation process” (p. 5).

During the last 30 years, scholars have addressed some of the prevailing theories of leadership (Bass, 1985, Bennis, 1984; Burns, 1978; Greenleaf, 1977, 1996; Hickman, 1999; Luke, 1991; Northouse, 2001; Ramey, 1991). Some of their studies provided some of the data in narrative form through stories provided by individuals (Creswell, 2003). Bennis and Nanus (1985) described a number of theories of leadership and the effects their practices had on organizations. It seemed in these prevailing leadership theories that there was no empirical evidence that could be identified as African in character. House and Aditya (1997) reviewed the development of leadership theories and noted this:

Almost all of the prevailing theories of leadership and about 98% of empirical evidence at hand are distinctly American in character: individualistic rather than collectivistic, stressing follower responsibilities rather than rights, assuming hedonism rather than commitment to duty or altruistic motivation, assuming centrality of work and democratic value orientation and emphasizing assumptions of rationality rather than asceticism, religion, or superstition. (pp. 409-474)

This is not to say that no theory can be applied to African leadership practices. According to Malunga (2006), “leadership development from an African cultural perspective is often conspicuous by its absence in most discourses and initiatives” (p. 2).

When Achebe (1984), the Nigerian social critic and novelist, referred to Nigeria’s primary trouble as a failure of leadership, it was evident that much could be learned from exploring Nigerians’ perceptions of leadership qualities and that these perceptions could prove useful to understanding the country’s social climate. However, it was not possible to explore all groups of Nigerians and all levels of leadership in the country. The central phenomenon of choice to explore was “leadership qualities” within Nigerian universities. The group of Nigerians of choice to talk to who have attended these Nigerian universities was a group now outside Nigeria: the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. These postgraduates who continue their studies, and who now live and work abroad, have seen the other side of leadership. They are in a position to give an assessment of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta region from their perception of other leadership qualities in their continents of residence. Additionally, exploring the perceptions of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates on leadership qualities of educational leaders was lacking in literature. All this motivated the current study to understand the perceptions that Nigerian educational leaders’ former students encountered. By exploring the perceptions of expatriate postgraduates, the researcher seeks to contribute to understanding how, where, and why the trouble with Nigeria in general and the Niger Delta in particular can be described as a failure of leadership.

Statement of the Problem

One of the aims for nationalism in Nigeria in the 1940s was to win freedom from British rule (Okoro, 1966), while the aim for the introduction of formal education in the country, dating back to the mission schools in the mid 19th century, was to provide literacy and religious instruction initially in the coastal areas (Francis, Agi, Alubo, Biu, Daramola, Nzewi, et al.,

1998). With the arrival of nationalism and its devotion to nation and traditional culture came a formal Nigerian educational system. At the time of independence in 1960, there were only 280 low-level teacher-training colleges and 443 secondary schools (Fafunwa, 1974). In 1997, Nwagwu indicated that Nigerian educational expansion statistics for the 1993-94 academic year showed 38,254 primary schools, 5,959 secondary schools, 55 colleges of education, 45 polytechnic and colleges of technology, and 35 universities.

First-generation Nigerian universities were established under colonial rule before the country's independence and were under the standards of the 1960s. First-generation universities were those institutions that were established when Nigeria was under the British rule. The process, the constitutions, the educational system, and guidelines for the establishment of these universities were controlled by Britain. Colonization ended when Nigeria got its independence in 1960. Since then, second- and third-generation universities have been established (Akomas, 2006). The process, the constitutions, the educational system, and guidelines for the establishment of these universities were controlled by Nigeria. Table 2 shows the classification of those universities.

Table 2
Classification of Universities in Nigeria

First Generation Established in the 1960s	Second Generation Established in the 1970s	Third Generation Established in the 1980s
University of Ibadan	University of Benin	University of Abuja
University of Nigeria	University of Jos	Federal University of Owerri
Ahmadu Bello University	University of Calabar	Federal University of Yola
University of Lagos	Bayero University	Federal University of Akure
Obafemi Awolowo University	Danfodiyo University	Lagos State University
	University of Ilorin	University of Ado-Ekiti
	University of Port-Harcourt	Ambrose Ali University

Note. Secondary source: Akomas, C. (2006). Examining the brain drain issues in Nigeria: A strategic management approach for higher education. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Capella University, p. 10. Primary source: Gboyega & Atoyebi, 2003. Table created with permission.

Even though the 1990s saw the number of institutions of higher learning grow to 35, Nwagwu noted that the Nigerian educational expansion occurred with poor funding, inadequate facilities, admission and certificate racketeering, examination malpractices, general indiscipline, and the emergence of secret cults, while “personal management problems resulted in frequent strikes and closures and the abandonment of academic standards” (p. 87). This, combined with the competitive and demanding nature of the Nigerian institutions (Teferra, 1997), led to an inability of universities to produce enough professors and teachers to function as educational leaders (Oji, 2005). In addition, the brain drain syndrome that occurred in Nigeria in the 1980s showed a marked increase in the 2000s (Akomas, 2006; Oji, 2005). Nigerian intellectuals moved either within or outside the academy and migrated to other African, European, and North American countries to function in various professions as lecturers and professors. By way of experience, in 1978, when the author began his secondary school education in a private Nigerian institution, there was no indication that by the 1990s public secondary and postsecondary educational institutions would be closing and that educational leaders would be going on strikes with students roaming the streets for 10 months or more. Nwagwu (1997) called these crises in the educational system a result of “unplanned and uncontrolled educational expansion” (p. 87). One would expect that, as a result, universities would seek ways to rectify the situation.

Despite the problem with the expansion of the Nigerian educational system, educational leadership research in university settings in the Niger Delta is especially scarce. Little exploratory research has been conducted on the impact of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta. Of special importance to the author was the impact of university leaders on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. Therefore, the problem with the current study was the almost total lack of specific data to explore this phenomenon.

The purpose of this study was to ascertain the perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities

impacted the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. In an effort to ascertain these leadership qualities, the researcher collected both qualitative and quantitative data at the same time and integrated the data during the analysis and interpretative phases of the study. An understanding of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta could assist in expanding the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

Research Questions

Based upon the problem statement, four research questions were formulated to address the purpose of this study.

1. What do the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceive to be the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
2. To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that their acquired leadership skills have been negatively impacted by the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta?
3. To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta have posed a barrier to their own leadership skills?
4. How have these postgraduates responded to their perceptions of effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta?

Significance of the Study

Zagorsek, Jaklic, and Stough (2004) wrote that in the Sub-Saharan region “Nigerian men reported engaging in all leadership practices much more than Nigerian women” (p. 24). Many cross-cultural studies suggest that culture can influence leadership concepts, styles, and practices (Gerstner & Day, 1994; Hofstede, 2001; House & Aditya, 1997). The findings of the current study should prove to be useful in helping to understand the current perceptions of leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta by both male and female expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. By identifying the perceived leadership qualities that motivate expatriate Nigerian postgraduates to return to Nigeria to seek appointments as leaders, some contexts in the Nigerian environment could be changed: gender and economic contexts; disproportionately high levels of violence and strikes; the function among ethnic and cultural groups of a particular region; and leadership in business, industry, or higher education. Once these contexts have been evaluated, efficient and effective strategic plans for change can be developed as part of the contributions to leadership in the Niger Delta region. Understanding the root cause of a problem is often the basis to solving the problem or rectifying the situation. Without a clear understanding of the perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders, it is difficult to promote a positive perception of the leadership that could be offered by universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

The findings of this study could help educational institutions enhance their leadership performance (Fisher & Koch, 1996; O’Banion, 1997; Senge, 1990). Careful consideration of the voices of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates could be beneficial in future development of effective leadership qualities for educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The results of this study may be beneficial in actively assisting youths, students, graduates, educators, government officeholders, and local, national, and international communities in their educational leadership decision-making processes. It could eventually help Nigerians resolve major issues like poverty in the Niger Delta region.

Scope of the Study

A strategy of inquiry was developed using both qualitative and quantitative research designs at the same time of the interviews; however, a greater priority was given to the qualitative approach from a grounded theory perspective and tradition about perceived leadership of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. This strategy included collecting the stories of 27 expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. The participants were selected through purposeful snowballing sampling. In-depth online interviews made use of 28 open- and closed- ended questions. These questions focused on the respondents' views of the leadership qualities of the educational leaders they encountered in the universities in the Niger Delta and the impacts or barriers they presented to the acquired leadership skills of the respondents. Using the inductive approach of constant comparative analysis, certain concepts emerged from the data.

Statement of the Researcher's Perspective

The principle investigator was studying in the United States at the time of the study and is from one of the states in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The researcher's family and hometown in Nigeria were directly affected in 2002 and 2005 by the political leadership crises while he lived and studied in the United States. The researcher's uncle was gruesomely killed in the crisis and primary and secondary schools in his hometown completely closed. His parents and people from his hometown fled their homes and villages and lived in neighboring towns and schools as refugees for 10 months. They faced hunger, scorn, health problems, death, and had property worth millions of dollars destroyed. Having been directly affected by these factors, this researcher has developed a strong urge to support positive leadership qualities in both educational and political leaders and their institutions. This support may have influenced the collection, analysis, and interpretative phases of the study in that the researcher may have heard

and read the data in such a way as to place more emphasis on comments that blame poor leadership and attest to the need for good leadership.

Definitions of Terms

The specific terms used in this study are defined as follows:

Autocratic leadership – a kind of leadership in which leaders “. . . are status and power oriented, demanding blind obedience and personal loyalty from their subordinates: (Shankar, Ansari, & Saxena, 1994, p. 641).

Construct – “to build, form, or devise by fitting parts or elements together systematically” (Agnes, 1999, p. 313). In this study, “constructs” include concepts created by expatriates and leadership concepts devised during research.

Educational leader – a person who promotes the success of all students and stakeholders by facilitating the development, articulation, implementation and stewardship of a vision of learning that is shared and supported by a larger political, social, economic, legal and cultural community (Cutts, 2008).

Educational leadership – a concept, which has at its core the responsibility for policy formulation and, where appropriate, organizational transformation (Bush, 2003).

Educational leadership organizations in Nigerian universities – the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU), the Senior Staff Association of Nigerian Universities (SSANU), and the Non-Academic Staff Union (NASU) (Edukugho, 2003; Uchendu, 1995).

Educational leaders in the Niger Delta – teachers, headmistresses, headmasters, principals, policymakers, chancellors, and various academic and non-academic unions in universities.

Expatriate Niger Delta Nigerian postgraduates – individuals whose native land is the Niger Delta region of Nigeria but who currently reside in any country within three selected continents: Africa, Europe, and North America.

Expatriate perceptions – expatriates’ own views about leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta of Nigeria.

Failure of leadership – “The problem with Nigeria is simply and squarely a failure of leadership. There is nothing basically wrong with the Nigerian character. There is nothing wrong with the Nigerian land or climate or water or air or anything else. The Nigerian problem is the unwillingness or inability of its leaders to rise to the responsibility, to the challenge of personal example which are the hallmarks of true leadership” (Achebe, 1984, p. 1).

Leadership – “. . . the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation” (Hersey & Blanchard, 1984, p. 83).

Leadership behavior – specific acts of a leader in directing and coordinating the work of the membership (Owens, 1970). This is when the leader is trying to influence the performance of another or others; a combination of directive and supportive behaviors (Zigarmi, Zigarmi, & Blanchard, 1984).

Leadership styles – are different approaches to leadership. Lewin and colleagues identified autocratic [authoritarian], democratic [participative], and laissez-faire [delegative] as three different styles of leadership (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). Likert (1967) identified four leadership styles to include exploitative authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative, and participative.

Leadership qualities – are what make a good leader. From the perspective of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region (organizations), leadership qualities are profiles, characters, skills, and potentials of these universities as they use them in leadership selections. From the perspective of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates (individuals), leadership qualities are profiles, characters, skills, attributes, and potentials of these postgraduates as they use them to seek where they will be needed.

Mixed methods research designs – is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study to understand a research problem. It is a “legitimate inquiry approach” (Brewer & Hunter, 1989, p.28).

Participatory leadership – a kind of leadership in which leaders “. . . encourage group decision making, team spirit, supportive relationships, and high goals” (Shankar, Ansari, & Saxena, 1994, p. 641).

Perceived barriers – determinants or “any educational leadership quality” that prevents or hinders effective educational leadership in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria (e.g., racial leadership barriers, social leadership barriers, ethnic leadership barriers, economic leadership barriers, environmental leadership barriers).

Perceived impacts – powers or “outcomes” of educational leadership qualities that produce changes or move the feelings of students/others in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

Postgraduates – individuals who have completed a bachelor’s degree and are pursuing further higher education with the goal of achieving a master’s degree, a doctoral degree, or other postgraduate qualification.

Responses – something done or said, word or words used in replying to or affirming the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta by expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. Could be either positive or negative responses.

Servant leadership theory – refers to the term coined by Greenleaf (1977) urging leaders to act like servants. It is modeled after the Christian Biblical message in which the founder of Christian religion, Jesus Christ, told his disciples “. . . whoever wishes to be great among you will be your servant; whoever wishes to be first among you will be the slave of all” (Mark 10:43-44, *New American Bible*, 1991, p. 85). A servant means being a servant means being authentic, being vulnerable, being accepting, being present, and being useful (Autry, 2001, p. 10).

Transformational leadership – refers to the theory whose primary author is Burns (1978), a theory in which both leaders and followers are involved in working together to raise motivation toward idealistic goals in such a way that the aims and aspirations of both leader and follower are combined into one.

Violence – a “physical force used so as to injure, damage, or destroy; extreme roughness of action . . . unjust or callous use of force or power, as in violating another’s rights, sensibilities, etc.” (Agnes, 1999, p. 1595).

Limitations to Internal and External Validity

Because mixed method procedures were employed in the study, qualitative and quantitative data were collected at the same time, and procedures were implemented for validating both of these methods. Because the qualitative method was the predominant method used from a grounded theory perspective, the goal of the researcher was to develop a theory explaining the phenomenon. Therefore, the researcher’s focus on “limitations” considered internal and external validity issues related to the qualitative design first.

Merriam (1998) wrote, “Internal validity deals with the question of how research findings match reality. How congruent are the findings with reality? Do the findings capture what is really there? Are investigators observing or measuring what they think they are measuring? Internal validity in all research thus hinges on the meaning of reality” (p.201). In qualitative research “What is being observed are people’s constructions of reality – how they understand the world” (p.203). The researcher was the primary instrument for data collection, and was also the interpreter of the data during the analysis in the study. Merriam noted that most researchers “agree that when reality is viewed in this manner, internal validity is a definite strength of qualitative research” (p.203). The internal validity is high for this present study because the conclusions of the research are grounded in and emanate directly from the data (Richie et al.). The findings or results provide face validity because the data generated the results directly and,

therefore, created results that are credible to both the participants and the consumers of the research (Patton, 1990). The external validity of this study; that is, whether this sample is representative of the population it was intended to exemplify, is more questionable than its internal validity; but this, of course, can be a problem in quantitative research as well (Neimeyer & Resnikoff, 1982). The strategies the researcher used to enhance internal validity of the qualitative data of the study were *member checks, peer examination, participatory or collaborative modes of research, and researcher's biases*.

The researcher in this study used member checks by “taking data and tentative interpretations back to the people from whom they were derived and asking them if the results were plausible” (Merriam, 1998, p.204). In “asking colleagues to comment on the findings as they emerge” (p.204), the researcher used peer examination. The participatory or collaborative modes of research were used as the researcher involved “participants in all phases of research from conceptualizing the study to writing up the findings” (p.205). The statement of the researcher’s perspective included in the study addressed the researcher’s biases. Merriam explained researcher’s biases as “clarifying the researcher’s assumptions, worldview, and theoretical orientation at the outset of the study” (p.205).

Merriam (1998) stated that reliability refers to the extent to which research findings can be replicated. In other words, “logic relies on repetition for the establishment of truth...” (p.205). Because qualitative research takes on an emergent design approach, which “...precludes a priori controls, achieving reliability in the traditional sense is not only fanciful but impossible” (p.206). Therefore, in qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested thinking about the “dependability” or “consistency” of the results obtained from the data. Merriam explained this to mean that rather than researchers demanding that outsiders get the same results, outsiders should concur that, given the data collected, the results make sense – they are consistent and dependable. The strategies the researcher used to ensure that results of the qualitative study were dependable were the researcher’s position and audit trail. The investigator’s position was used in

the study when the researcher explained his position vis-à-vis the group being studied, the basis for selecting them, a description of the participants, and the social context within which the data were collected (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993). The researcher used the audit trail by describing in “detail how data were collected, how categories were derived, and how decisions were made throughout the inquiry” (Merriam, 1998, p.207).

Merriam wrote, “External validity is concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations. That is, how generalizable are the results of a research study?” (p.201). In qualitative research, “a single or small nonrandom sample is selected precisely *because* the researcher wishes to understand the particular in depth, not to find out what is generally true of the many” (p.208). The author also stated, “When ...the phenomenon of interest is unique, the question of external validity remains,” and then asked, “Is generalization from a small, nonrandom sample possible?” (p. 208). Referencing several writers, Merriam (1998) maintained that it was possible in qualitative research only if “generalization” was reframed or reconceptualized to reflect the assumptions underlying qualitative inquiry. Developing ways of viewing external validity in qualitative research Merriam’s referred writers thought in terms of working hypotheses (Cronbach, 1975; Donmoyer, 1990), concrete universals (Erickson, 1986), naturalistic generalization (Stake, 1978), and user or reader generalizability (Walker, 1980; Wilson, 1979). The researcher in this study used naturalistic generalization and user generalizability. Merriam explained that Stake’s naturalistic generalization occurred when people, drawing on tacit knowledge, intuition, and personal experience, look for patterns that explain their own experience as well as events in the world around them. In explaining a writers’ user generalizability, Merriam observed that this reconceptualization involves leaving the extent to which a study’s findings apply to other situations up to the people in those situations. The strategies the researcher used to enhance external validity in the senses of naturalistic generalization and user generalizability were *rich, thick description, typicality or modal categories, and multisite design*.

The researcher in this study used rich, thick description by “providing enough description so that readers will be able to determine how closely their situations match the research situation, and hence, whether findings can be transferred” (Merriam, 1998, p.211). In describing how typical the program, event, or individual is compared with others in the same class so that users can make comparisons with their own situations (LeCompte & Preissle, 1993), the researcher used typicality or modal categories. This strategy was obvious in the study as the researcher described how the Niger Delta region was a typically rich region in Nigeria, how leadership qualities of educational leaders in this region typically created impacts and posed barriers in the region, how strikes and violence in the universities were major events in the region, and how expatriate Nigerian postgraduates were selected as appropriate individuals from whom to elicit perceptions of leadership qualities. Multisite designs “using several sites, cases, situations, especially those that maximize diversity in the phenomenon of interest; this will allow the results to be applied by readers to a greater range of other situations. This variation can be achieved through purposeful or random sampling” (Merriam, 1998, p.212). By using participants residing in Africa, Europe, and North America, the researcher achieved a multisite designs strategy to enhance external validity.

Overview of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 contains an introduction, the background of the problem, the statement of the problem, research questions, significance of the study, scope of the study, definitions of terms, limitations, and an overview of the study. Chapter 2 provides a review of related literature. Chapter 3 contains a description of the research methodology and procedures, focusing on the qualitative research design, discussion of the purpose of qualitative quality, ethical considerations and informed consent, outline of the research questions, identification of the demographic characteristics of participants, description of instrumentation, provision of an overview of data collection procedures, and description of the

data analysis procedures. Chapter 4 provides data presentation and analysis. It presents the participants' perceptions in their own words, including a review of their responses and a summary of the findings. Chapter 5 contains a discussion of the findings, validity issues, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

The purpose of this literature review is to examine the current knowledge on leadership in general and educational leadership in particular. In it I sought to summarize, synthesize, describe, and critique research studies and other conceptual articles and directly link the study's qualitative research method to the grounded theory strategy of inquiry. In order to make this pertinent to the problem of perceptions about educational leaders from the Niger Delta, information about Nigeria had to be explored. Thus, this chapter presents a review of literature related to (a) the history of Nigeria as a nation, (b) peoples and populations of Nigeria, (c) a brief history of the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, (d) a general overview of leadership, (e) an overview of leadership theories, and, finally, (f) an overview of acquired leadership skills.

The History of Nigeria as a Nation

Nigeria is the most populous country in Africa, and with its 923,768 square kilometers, the country is twice the territorial size of California in the United States. It is surrounded by the Gulf of Guinea to the south, Cameroon to the east, Chad to the northeast, Niger to the north, and Benin to the west. The country's climate is tropical.

The peace that reigned in Europe in the 15th -century resulted in countries financing voyages of exploration. The Portuguese came in contact with the coast of West Africa as far back as Bartholomew Diaz's voyage of 1487 (Okoro, 1966). Around the 16th century, other Europeans, including the Dutch, the French, and the English fighting the Portuguese, came in contact with West Africa through commerce that included the slave trade. By 1805, the Fulanis succeeded in conquering most of Hausaland (Last, 1974). According to Ayayi (1974), "the real nation-building in Nigeria started with the Fulani conquest of Northern Nigeria" (p. 428). In the 1830s, the British made their contact with West Africa through Mungo Park, Hugh Clapperton,

and the Lander brothers. The area of contact was called “Oil Rivers Protectorate,” which came to be known as Nigeria in the 1840s (Okoro, p. 19). The British settlement on the coast began with the deposition of Oba Kosobo of Lagos in 1851 and the subsequent annexation of Lagos in 1861 (Afigobo, 1974). With the deposition taking place on the coast, the Fulanis, under Ottoman Dan Fodio, began a Jihad (holy war) in Hausaland in Northern Nigeria (Arinze, 1985).

The Fulani conquest might have been part of the reason why the British adopted and relied on the system of “indirect rule” as a form of government, which became known as “native administration” (Okoro, 1966, p. 6). Indirect rule was a system of ruling people through the chiefs and emirs and was already in Northern Nigeria with its system of local government through emirs imposed on them during the Fulani conquest of Hausaland (Arinze, 1985; Okoro, 1966). The British did not have difficulty using indirect rule in Northern Nigeria, but this was not the case in Southern Nigeria. There, town chiefs in Yorubaland, clan or district chiefs known as obas, and many others did not accept rule by a native administration (Okoro). In eastern Nigeria, there were no chiefs because a committee of elected leaders ruled each village (Okoro). The British encountered a series of rebellions when they arrived in the east, picked certain men, made them chiefs, and imposed them on the villages or towns.

In 1900, the British divided the geographical entity known as Nigeria into three territories and named them the Protectorate of Lagos, the Northern Protectorate, and the Southern Protectorate (Okoro, 1966). In 1903, Britain ended the sovereignty of the Fulani Empire (Afigobo, 1974). The names of the first British governor and his wife are significant in Nigerian history and in how the name of the country came to be known. As Arinze (1985) stated:

The first Governor General was Lord Frederick Lugard, who was, at that time, married to Miss Flora Shaw (p. 11). The name was first suggested by Miss Flora Shaw in an article for *The Times*. She suggested that the several British protectorates on the Niger be known as Nigeria (p. 9). He called the area Nigeria. Presumably he was influenced by his wife’s earlier proposal. (p. 11)

In 1912, the three territories became two and Frederick Lugard was made the governor of the protectorates of Northern and Southern Nigeria (Okoro, 1966). By January 1, 1914, the British amalgamated the northern and southern protectorates of Nigeria under the authority of a governor-general (Kirk-Greene, 1968). Metz (2002) noted that during the period extending from amalgamation in 1914 to independence from colonial rule in 1960, Nigeria had four major constitutions, each named after the colonial governor who formulated it: the Clifford Constitution (1922), Richards Constitution (1946), Macpherson Constitution (1951), and Lyttleton Constitution (1954).

The pre-Independence Clifford's Constitution of 1922 introduced the elective principle for legislative houses and encouraged the formation of political organizations in the country. This was how the Nigerian National Democratic Party (NNDP) was established in 1923, and it was under this constitution that the Lagos Youth Movement (LYM) was founded in 1934 (James, 2008). The movement was later transformed in 1936 into the Nigerian Youth Movement (NYM) by national leaders such as H. O. Davies, J. C. Vaughan, Kofo Abayomi, Ernest Ikoli, Nnamdi Azikiwe, and Obafemi Awolowo who played significant roles (James, 2008). The major weakness of this constitution was that it excluded Nigerians from membership of the Executive Council.

Richard's Constitution of 1946 was to promote the unity of Nigeria – provide for the diversity that made up the country and secure greater participation by Africans in the discussion of their own affairs (Citizens, 2008). The constitution established a legislative council, introduced regionalism, and paved the way for further constitutional developments in the country. However, it was introduced without full consultation with nationalist leaders (Citizens). This explained the reason why the constitution met with much hostility in the southern part of the country (Afigbo & Uya, 2008). Macpherson's Constitution of 1951 established central legislative and executive councils, introducing much participation from the citizens, and divided the country into three uneven regions – Northern, Western, and Eastern. While it made

provision for Houses of Chiefs and Houses of Assembly in the Northern and Western Regions, it made provision for only one House of Assembly in the Eastern Region (Citizens). Lyttleton's Constitution of 1954 established the Federal House of Representatives; and, while it provided the Northern Region with 92 seats, the Western Region and the Eastern Region had 42 each. Its weaknesses included lack of provision for a uniform countrywide electoral system (Citizens).

Metz indicated that the Clifford and Richards' constitutions were virtually imposed on the country. These constitutions set up the "legislative council for Nigeria in the North, East and West" (Okoro, 1966, p. 6). Metz referred to the Macpherson and Lyttleton's constitutions as involving some consultation with representatives of the people through constitutional conferences. These were the constitutions that "divided Nigeria into Regions, the Northern, Eastern and Western Regions" (p. 6). Nigeria had evolved as a country with the establishment of various constitutions. The significant things about the 1954 Constitution, which remained in force until Independence in 1960, were that it replaced Lugard's centralization with decentralization, made the establishment of the federation unique because one region, the North, was larger than the other two regions, East and West, combined (Afigbo & Uya, 2008). On October 1, 1960, Nigeria attained independence as a country but one composed of numerous protectorates, colonies, regions, cultures, tongues, tribes, ideas, and peoples. According to Afigbo and Uya, at independence the main features of the Nigerian state that had evolved since 1900 were: weak constitutional and institutional basis for development politics, an unbalanced federation, regionalism that engendered mutual jealousy and fear, and regionally based political constituencies. Even though the Niger Delta region was within the eastern region, the country's leadership was under a constitutional system in the 1950s, a parliamentary system in the 1960s, and, once again, constitutional systems in the 1970s and 1980s.

Peoples and Populations of Nigeria

The Nigerian National Bureau of Statistics described Nigeria as “the most populous country in Africa and the 10th most populous in the world” (2005, p. 1). In 2002, Mwakikagile referred to Nigeria as the most populous, the richest, and most powerful on the continent and the largest black nation in the world. In 1995, Mwakikagile, recording data from the World’s 20 Most Populous Countries, estimated that Nigeria is unique from any other country in the African continent “with a population of more than 120 million people, Nigeria is also one of the fastest growing nations in the world. It is estimated that in 2025 Nigeria will have a population of 246 million people” (p. 17). Recorded data from the World’s 10 Largest Countries in Population, estimated Nigeria to have a population of 144 million people. It is estimated that in 2050 Nigeria will have a population of 282 million people (Population, 2007). The emerging major groups among the peoples of Nigeria also make it unique. Predominant ethnic communities in Nigeria have been well outlined:

The people of Nigeria are divided into more than 250 ethnic groups, the largest of which are the Hausa-Fulani in the north; the Yoruba in the southwest, and the Ibo in the southeast. Other large groups include the Ijaw in the Niger Delta who are the fourth largest; the Ibibio-Efik in the southeast; the Kanuri, Nupe, and Tiv in the north; the Edo in the southwest; and several other smaller ones, but no less important, which constitute the other half of the population. (Mwakikagile, 1995, pp. 17-18)

A summary of the different peoples of Nigeria by region is shown in Table 3.

Table 3

States and Peoples of Nigeria

Northern States	Peoples
Bauchi	Fulani, Hausa
Benue	Igala, Idoma, Tiv, Jukur
Borno	Kanuri, Kenemba, Shaw Arabs
Gongola	Madala, Fulani, Kerekere
Kaduna	Hausa, Fulani
Kano	Hausa, Fulani
Kwara	Yoruba, Igbirra
Niger	Nupe, Gwari, Kemuku, Bassa, Kemberi
Plateau	Biom, Jarawa, Rububa, Katabkagoro, Angas, Ankwekaram
Eastern States	Peoples
Anambra	Ibo
Imo	Ibo
Cross Rivers	Ibibio, Efik, Ekoi
Rivers	Ibo, Ijaws, Ogonnis
Western States	Peoples
Bendel	Edo, Ibo, Urhobo, Itsekiri, Ijaws
Lagos	Yoruba
Ogun	Yoruba
Ondo	Yoruba
Oyo	Yoruba

Source: Compiled from Kenneth Post and Michael Vickers, *Structure and Conflict in Nigeria*. Madison: University of Wisconsin Press, 1973.

Although this compilation was completed when Nigeria was divided into 19 states, the author compiled data on only 18 states, omitting the state of Sokoto. The earliest census in Nigeria, as noted in colonial reports in 1931, reported a population of 19.5 million (Buchanan & Pugh, 1955). When Nigeria conducted its first census as an independent nation in 1962, the

figures were disputed, which prompted another census in 1963. Again, questions arose about the census. Even though the numbers were subsequently rejected by Eastern Nigeria, according to Arinze, the 1963 census put the country's population at 56.1 million as shown in Table 4 (Legum, 1976).

Table 4

States and Population of Nigeria

States	Population
Anambra	3,122,340
Bauchi	2,193,674
Bendel	2,435,839
Benue	3,041,194
Borno	2,990,526
Cross Rivers	3,002,808
Gongola	=====
Imo	3,208,340
Kaduna	4,098,305
Kano	5,774,842
Kwara	2,309,338
Lagos	1,443,567
Niger	1,271,767
Ogun	1,551,936
Ondo	2,727,675
Oyo	5,158,884
Plateau	2,026,657
Rivers	1,800,000
Sokoto	4,538,808
Total	56,117,653

Source: Compiled from the 1963 census figures published in African Contemporary Record, 1976.

The controversies that surrounded the census were unique. Though Arinze noted that the figures became official after the federal government accepted them, the compiler omitted the population for Gongola state, once again including 18 states instead of the 19 states.

Under Britain's colonization, the federal structure in 1954 was separated into three regions: the Northern Region, Western Region, and Eastern Region, as shown in Figure 1.

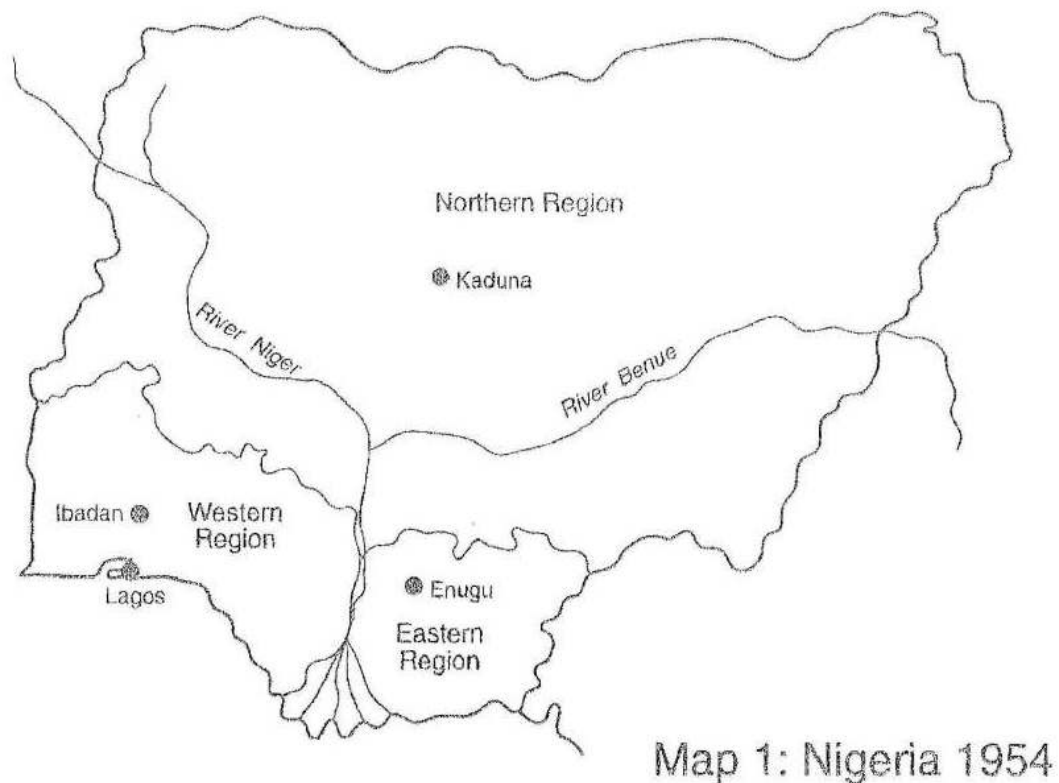


Figure 1. A 1954 map of Nigeria showing three federal regions created by British colonial rule.

Note. Adapted from Wilberforce Conference on Nigerian Federalism (1997), edited by Peter Ekeh. Retrieved from http://www.waado.org/nigerian_scholars/archive/pubs/wilber1_map2.html on January 11, 2008. Copyright ©1997 by the Association of Nigerian Scholars for Dialogue. Used with permission.

Kaduna was the capital of the Northern Region. Ibadan was the capital of the Western Region, Enugu was the capital of the Eastern Region. Minority ethnic groups soon began

lobbying for their own regions. These agitations in the Western Region were ongoing. Although the colonial period ended with Nigeria's independence in 1960, agitations for more regions continued. In 1963, one region was created for ethnic minorities as the Midwestern Region, with Benin as its capital as shown in Table 5.

Table 5

Names of the Four Former Regions in Nigeria by 1963

Northern Region • Kaduna	Western Region • Ibadan	Mid-Western Region • Benin	Eastern Region • Enugu
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However, this did not bring the agitations to an end. The four regions as of 1963 became 12 states by 1967 as shown in Figure 2.

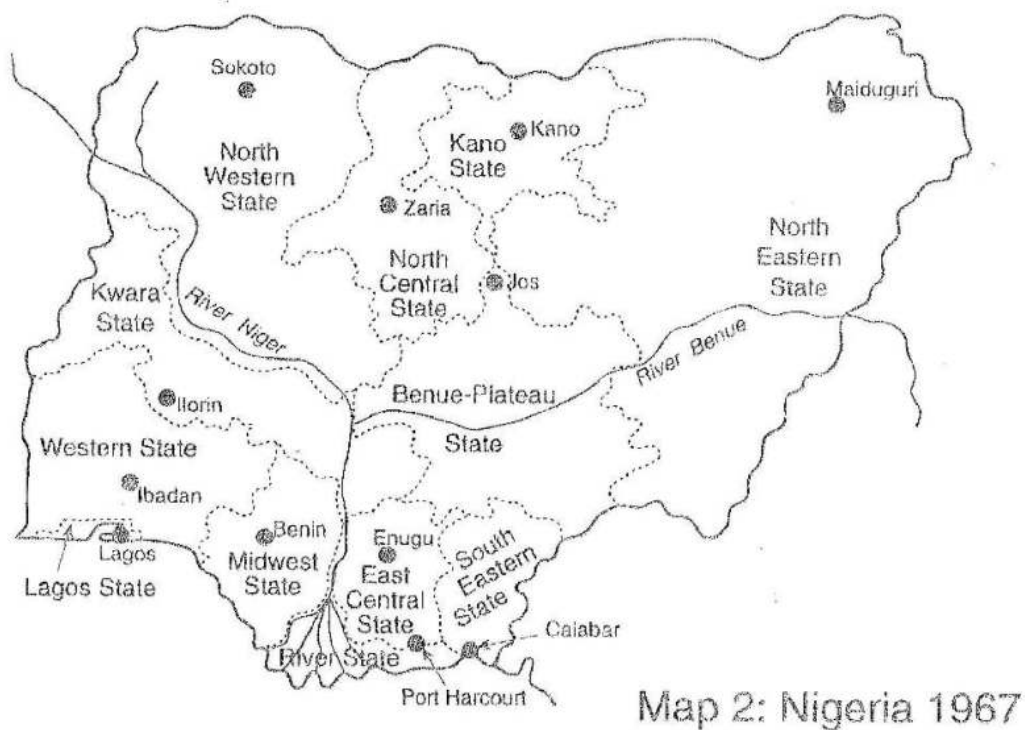


Figure 2. A historical map of Nigeria showing 12 federal states created by federal military government on the eve of civil war (1967).

Note: Adapted from Wilberforce Conference on Nigerian Federalism (1997), edited by Peter Ekeh. Retrieved from http://www.waado.org/nigerian_scholars/archive/pubs/wilber_1_map2.html on January 11, 2008. Copyright © 1997 by the Association of Nigerian Scholars for Dialogue. Used with permission

The total number of states in each of the four regions by 1967, as shown in Figure 3, indicated that the Northern Region had six, Western Region had two, Mid-Western Region had one, and Eastern Region had three.

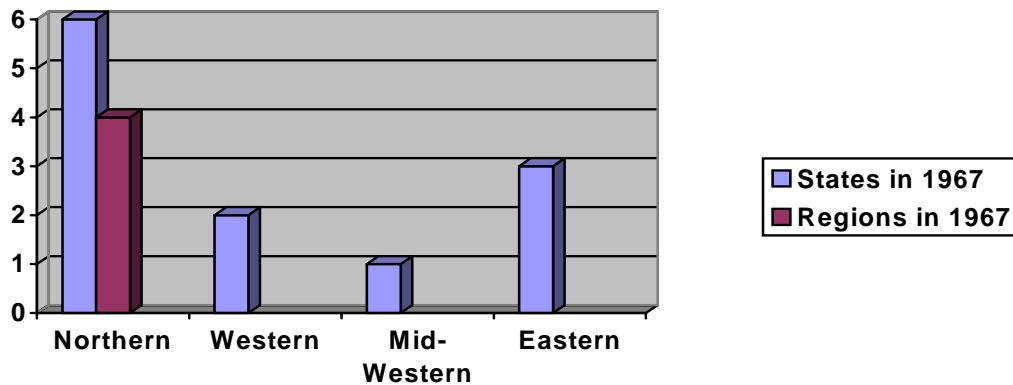


Figure 3. Number of states in each of the four regions of Nigeria by 1967.

The Northern Region was comprised of Kwara, North Western, Kano, North Central, Benue-Plateau, and North Eastern states. Western Region was comprised of Western and Lagos states. Mid-Western Region was comprised of Midwest state, while Eastern Region was comprised of East Central, Rivers, and South Eastern states. Table 6 shows the 1967 division.

Table 6

Names of the 12 States in Nigeria by 1967 Located in Each of the Four Former Regions

States in Northern Region	States in Western Region	States in Mid-Western Region	States in Eastern Region
Kwara	Western	Midwest	East Central
North Western	Lagos	= = =	Rivers
Kano	= = =	= = =	South Eastern
North Central	= = =	= = =	= = =
Benue-Plateau	= = =	= = =	= = =
North Eastern	= = =	= = =	= = =
Total = 6	Total = 2	Total = 1	Total = 3

The federal structure changed from 12 states in 1967 to 19 states in 1976, and then 36 states in 1997 (Arinze). Figure 4 shows the current Nigerian 36 federal states.



Map 3: Nigeria 1997

Figure 4. A historical map of Nigeria showing 36 federal states created by a series of federal military governments through military decrees (1976-1991).

Note: Adapted from Wilberforce Conference on Nigerian Federalism (1997), edited by Peter Ekeh. Retrieved from http://www.waado.org/nigerian_scholars/archive/pubs/wilber_1_map3.html on January 11, 2008. Copyright © 1997 by the Association of Nigerian Scholars for Dialogue. Used with permission

By 1997, when Nigeria was organized into 36 federal states and one federal capital territory, the total number of states in each of the four regions as shown in Figure 5 and Table 7 indicated that Northern Region had 19. Western Region had six, Mid-Western Region had two, and Eastern Region had nine.

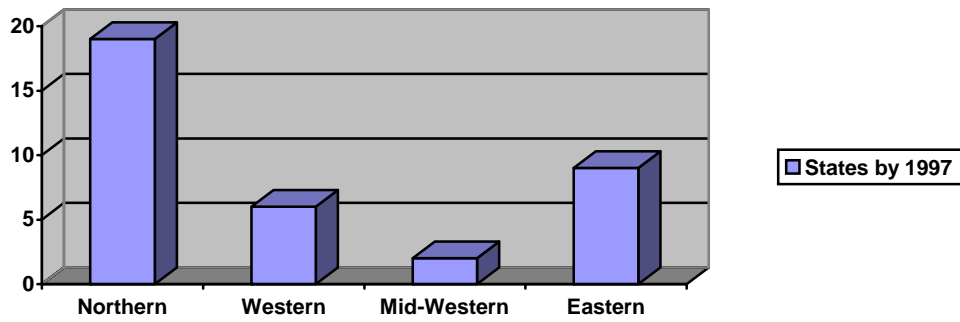


Figure 5. Number of States in Each of the Four Regions of Nigeria by 1997.

Table 7

Names of the 36 States in Nigeria by 2008 Located in Each of the Four Former Regions

States in Northern Region	States in Western Region	States in Mid-Western Region	States in Eastern Region
Adamawa	Oyo	Edo	Anambra
Benue	Osun	Delta	Enugu
Bauchi	Ogun		Imo
Borno	Ondo		Abia
Gombe	Ekiti		Ebonyi
Jigawa	Lagos		Rivers
Kaduna			Bayelsa
Kano			Cross River
Katsina			Akwa Ibom
Kebbi			
Kogi			
Kwara			
Niger			
Nassarawa			

Table 7 (continued)

States in Northern Region	States in Western Region	States in Mid-Western Region	States in Eastern Region
Plateau			
Sokoto			
Taraba			
Yobe			
Zamfara			
Total = 19	Total = 6	Total = 2	Total = 9

The political leadership that came with the development in creating the new states was motivated by regionalism and sectionalism. In the North, Fulanis dominated and, while Igbos dominated in the East, the Yorubas dominated in the West. Metz (2002) said:

Nigeria had no fully national leaders at independence. Nnamdi Azikiwe, an Igbo, who had the greatest potential for becoming a national leader, was forced by regionalist pressures to become a sectional leader. The other leaders during the postindependence period – Ahmadu Bello, Abubakar Tafawa Balewa, Obafemi Awolowo, Michael Okpara, Samuel Akintola, and Aminu Kano –are best remembered as sectional leaders, even though they are usually called nationalists. (p. 157)

Table 8 shows Nigerian leaders from 1960 to 2007.

Table 8

Nigerian Leaders, 1960 - Present

Name	Title	Cause of Departure	Dates
Tafawa Balewa	Prime Minister	Coup (killed)	1960 – Jan. 1966
Nnamdi Azikiwe	President	Coup (removed)	1963 – Jan. 1966
Aguyi Ironsi	Military Head of State	Coup (killed)	Jan. – July 1966
Yakubu Gowon	Military Head of State	Coup (removed)	1966 – 1975
Murtala Muhammed	Military Head of State	Coup (killed)	1975 – 1976
Olusegun Obasanjo	Military Head of State	Handed power to civilian government	1976 – 1979
Shehu Shagari	President	Coup (removed)	1979 – 1983
Muhammed Buhari	Military Head of State	Coup (removed)	1983 – 1985
Ibrahim Babangida	Military Head of State	Forced out of office	1985 – 1993
Ernest Shonekan	Interim Head of State	Forced out of office	Aug. – Nov. 1993
Sani Abacha	Military Head of State	Died in office	Nov. 1993 – 1998
Abdulsalami Abubakar	Military Head of State	Handed power to civilian government	1998 – 1999
Olusegun Obasanjo	President	Handed power to civilian government	1999 – 2007
Umaru Yar' Adua	President		2007

Note. Adapted from *Stabilizing Nigeria: Sanctions, Incentives, and Support for Civil Society* (p. 35) by P. M. Lewis, P. T. Robinson, and B. R. Rubin, 1998, New York: Century Foundation Press. Copyright 1998 by the Council on Foreign Relations, Inc.

Northern leadership has dominated Nigeria. Since the assassination of Ironsi, the only leader who was not from the North was Olusegun Obasanjo. He was a Yoruba man from the southwest. According to Mwakikagile (2002), the Northern domination in Nigerian leadership has been aligned to the failure of the former colonial power. Britain did not take into account in forming Nigeria as a federation the interests and diversity of the 250 different ethnic groups that make up Nigeria.

Arinze (1985) referred to Nigeria as “The country . . . created by the British without regard to the differences in the peoples that inhabited the area” (p. 19). It seemed that education and politics were inseparable in Nigeria. According to Uchendu (1995),

In recent times, it is generally accepted also that the success or failure of any educational system depends on the political system of the area concerned. Education cannot possibly be separated from politics because it is an aspect of the political needs of the society. (p. 5)

Whether educational leadership in the country was affected by the Northern domination was unknown. Asking expatriate Nigerian postgraduates about leadership qualities can also provide useful insight into how peoples and populations of Nigeria in general and the Niger Delta in particular have evolved in the post-colonial era.

A Brief History of the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria

To set the stage for this study, the Niger Delta region of Nigeria needs to be placed in an historical context. A brief history of the region shows how educational leadership could have an impact on the acquisition of leadership skills by expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. A study of the past events, in many ways, provided the foundation for understanding the Niger Delta region in its present state.

In 1487, the Portuguese Bartholomew Diaz sailed south along the west coast of Africa (Okoro, 1966). By the 16th century, the Dutch, the French, and the English were fighting the Portuguese (Okoro). European countries took over most of the Portuguese trade on the west coast of Africa, including the slave trade. When the slave trade was stopped in the 19th century, normal trade went on and European traders, particularly the British, came to the Oil Rivers to get palm oil in and around the Niger Delta.

The British intrusion along the West African coast had widespread implications for Nigerians, affecting changes in the agricultural economy, the discovery of oil, the construction of the Nigerian state, and the colonial experience (Ighodaro, 2005).

The region has been part of the international slave trade from the fifteenth century through the seventeenth century when it was a significant portion of what was termed the Slave Coast of West Africa. From the late eighteenth through the nineteenth century it came to be better known as the Oil Rivers, supplying a great deal of the palm oil and kernel. (Alagoa, 2004, p. 66)

The Niger Delta region's activities, historically, were centered on trade. Crowder (1978) noted that it was clear that inter-regional trade was widespread long before contact with Europeans. Ighodaro (2005) described the Niger Delta as comprised predominantly of farmers, fishermen, and traders.

The major foodstuffs cultivated in the Niger Delta include (1) Root and tuber crops (like cassava, yam, cocoa yam, and sweet potato); (2) cereal grain types of foodstuff (including maize and rice, legumes such as cowpeas, and groundnuts); (3) fruit and vegetables (including plantain, bananas, oranges, melon, pineapples, mango, guava, cashew, paw-paw, local pear, pumpkin, bitter leaf, etc.); (4) edible oils (such as palm oils and groundnut oils); and (5) seafood like fish, shrimp, crayfish, periwinkles, oysters, and crabs. (p. 77)

By 1963, when Nigeria had four regions, the Niger Delta region was located within the Eastern and Mid-Western Regions showing the peoples and cultures of the region as seen in Appendix H. By 1967, with 12 states, the region comprised Midwest and Rivers states. By 1997, with the current 36 federal states, the Niger Delta region covered,

An area of 70,000 kilometers, consists of the nine states of Rivers, Delta, Abia, Bayelsa, Cross-River, Akwa-Ibom, Ondo, Imo, and Edo and has an estimated population of about nine million. The region consists of the majority of the southern ethnic minorities (such as the Ijaw, Urhobo, Ogoni, Ilajae and Itsekiri) and it is where Nigeria derives the crude petroleum oil that is the country's economic lifeline. (Adetoun, 2005, p. 47)

Given the relationships between the European countries and the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, it would seem that things had gone smoothly; however, this was not the case. The European influence in the Niger Delta did not penetrate far inland, for the trade in slaves gave rise to the emergence of new chiefdoms and kingdoms with middlemen as heads (Ighodaro, 2005). These middlemen prevented direct contact between the people of the interior and

European traders who came from the sea. As Ighodaro (2005) pointed out, the position of the middlemen was diminishing by the end of the 17th century.

The Niger Delta middlemen did not simply give in, however, they resisted the Europeans into the 19th century, which (Alagoa, 2004) attributed to the region being “fiercely independent of spirit” (p. 68). In many cases of Niger Delta rulers – for example, King William Dappa Pepple of Bonny, King Jaja of Opobo, Nana of the Itsekiri – were either exiled or deposed in the 19th century by the Europeans (Alagoa). Okonta and Douglas (2001) explained that the sole purpose of displacing local middlemen was to appropriate enormous profits for themselves. Several methods employed to displace the middlemen included terming those who resisted “pirates by the parties attacked” (Alagoa, pp. 68-69), giving warnings and “threatening bombardment” (Ighodaro, 2005, p. 80), blackmailing them as supporters of “the slave trade” (p. 80), and sending them on exile “to the Atlantic Ocean Prison of Ascension and finally to London” (p. 80). In the late 19th century, terms of trade between the European powers and the people of the Niger Delta became more and more unequal (Alagoa, 2004). According to Alagoa, in the 20th and 21st centuries, the region has become the center of a Nigerian crude oil supply exploited by several international oil companies. The history of resistance in the region has continued in the persons of Isaac Adaka Boro, “who led Niger Delta Revolution just prior to the onset of the Nigerian Civil War in 1967” (p. 69), and Ken Saro Wiwa, who “. . . focused on environmental and human rights issues” (p. 69). More than 20 ethnic groups in 2007 comprise the population of the Niger Delta region. As Ighodaro (2005) noted, “what constitutes the ethnic make-up of the region has become controversial over the years, due to the discovery of oil in the region” (p. 76). Such controversy has implications for educational leaders in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

A General Overview on Leadership

For thousands of years, leadership examples have been recorded, even as far back as the Christian Bible. Saint Paul's letter to the Romans, chapter 12, verses 6-8, included a comprehensive assessment of leaders, who they are, and their responsibilities.

We have gifts that differ according to the grace given to us: prophecy, in proportion to faith; ministry, in ministering; the teacher, in teaching; the exhorter, in exhortation; the giver, in generosity; the leader, in diligence; the compassionate, in cheerfulness. (cited in Metzger & Murphy, 1991, p. 223)

Bass (1990) referred to leadership as evident throughout classical Western and Eastern writings. Black (2006) noted that the seriousness of leadership as a topic among social scientists did not reach a noticeable stage until the 20th century. During that time, leadership became one of the most examined phenomena in the social sciences because of the common belief that leadership was vital for effective organizational and societal functioning (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004; Fairholm, 1998; Nave, 2005). Several leadership theories were developed during the 20th century. These are shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Significant Motivation and Leadership Theories and Models

Contributors	Theory or model	Publication year of significant research
Taylor	Scientific management	1911
Mayo	Hawthorne studies	1933
Barnard	Executive function	1938
Coch-French	Michigan studies	1948
Stogdill	Ohio State studies	1948
Herzberg	Contingency model	1967
Likert	Maturity-immaturity	1964
Fiedler	Contingency model	1967
Argyris	Maturity-immaturity	1964
Reddin	3-D management style	1967
Hersey-Blanchard	Situational leadership	1969
Vroom-Yetten	Contingency model	1973
House-Mitchell	Path-goal	1974
Vroom	Expectancy theory	1976
House	Charismatic leadership	1977
Burns	Transformational leadership	1978
Kerr-Jermier	Substitutes for leadership	1978
McCall-Lombardo	Fatal leadership flaws	1983
Bennis-Nanus	Leadership competencies	1985
Tichy-Devanna	Transformational leadership	1986
Manz	Super leadership	1989
Yukl	Integrating Model	1989

Table 9 (continued)

Contributors	Theory or model	Publication year of significant research
Covey	Principle-centered leadership	1991
Johnson	SOAR model	1994
Pansegrouw	Transformational model	1995
Gyllenpalm	Organizational cone	1995

Note. Adapted from an Empirical Test of Leadership Effectiveness and Match/Mismatch in Leadership Style (pp. 18-19), by C. Jui-Chen, 2004. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Nova Southern University.

Berlew (1974) divided the leadership theories into three stages of development: (a) the “custodial” stage, (b) the “managerial” stage, and (c) the “charismatic” stage. Van Eron (1991), explaining the stages, stated that stage one leadership models were based on task efficiency and arose from Frederick Taylor’s “scientific management” (1911). Stage two was based on the initial work of Mayo (1927) and the “human relations” movement that emphasized the importance of interpersonal relations within the workplace. Stage three examined leaders and their attributes as they provide meaning to work and generated organizational excitement through vision, empowerment, articulating a mission, showing confidence and respect for followers, and emphasizing values of excellence (Berlew). The exploration of “leadership qualities,” or attributes, is the central phenomenon of the current study. Defining these qualities or attributes according to the perceptions of Nigerian expatriate postgraduates can have an impact on leadership studies in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

An Overview of Leadership Theories

Ideas and practices surrounding the concept of leadership have changed over the years (Creswell, 2005). Fleishman et al. (1991) noted that since the early 1900s as many as 65 different classification systems had been developed to define dimensions of leadership. Some writers characterized leadership as the focus of group processes (Bass, 1990), while others,

defined leadership as playing “. . . a major role in helping us shape our life. Leaders define business and practice. They determine the character of society. They define our teams, groups and communities” (Fairholm, 1998, p. xiii). Drucker (2001) looked at leadership and noted that the only definition of a leader is someone who has followers (p. 271). Maxwell (2001) noted that leadership is “. . .all about understanding players, bringing them together, and getting them to work together as a team to reach their potential” (p.212). Defining leadership as influence, Maxwell outlined 21 laws of leadership that impact the team. Good leaders,

1. Do not limit an organization as others do. (The Law of the Lid).
2. Have greater influence than others do. (The Law of Influence).
3. Value the process of developing people more than others do. (The Law of Process).
4. Prepare the team for the journey better than others do. (The Law of Navigation).
5. Communicate more effectively than others do. (The Law of E. F. Hutton).
6. Create momentum and lift the team to a higher level than others do. (The Law of the Big Mo).
7. Stand on a foundation of trust that is more solid than others' is. (The Law of Solid Ground).
8. Command greater respect than others do. (The Law of Respect)
9. Work on leadership issues earlier than others do. (The Law of Intuition).
10. Draw more leaders to themselves than others do. (The Law of Magnetism).
11. Connect with people better than others do. (The Law of Connection)
12. Bring stronger key people around them than others do. (The Law of the Inner Circle)
13. Reproduce more leaders than others do. (The Law of Reproduction)
14. Empower team members more than others do. (The Law of Empowerment)
15. Win with teams more than others do. (The Law of Victory)
16. Sell themselves and their vision to a greater degree than others do. (The Law of Buy-In)
17. Establish priorities more effectively than others do. (The Law of Priorities)
18. Understand and use timing more effectively than others do. (The Law of Priorities)
19. Give up their personal agendas more than others do. (The Law of Sacrifice)
20. Grow leaders and organizations faster than others do. (The Law of Explosive Growth)
21. Leave a legacy that lasts longer than others do (The Law of Legacy) (Maxwell, 2001, pp.214-216).

Bush (2003) noted that a process of influence has been a central element in many definitions of leadership. Yukl (2002) said:

Most definitions of leadership reflect the assumption that it involves a social influence process whereby intentional influence is exerted by one person [or group] over other people [or groups] to structure the activities and relationships in a group or organization (p. 3).

Bush referred to Yukl's use of 'person' or 'group' as serving to emphasize that leadership may be exercised by teams as well as individuals. For Cuban (1988), "leadership refers to people who bend the motivations and actions of others to achieving certain goals; it implies taking initiatives and risks" (p.193). Bush referred to Cuban's definition as showing that the influence process is purposeful in that it is intended to lead to specific outcomes. Bush described the notion of leadership as influence to be a definition that was neutral. "Leadership may be understood as 'influence' but this notion is neutral in that it does not explain or recommend what goals or actions should be sought through this process" (Bush, 2003, p.5). Alternatively, Bush indicated that there have been constructs of leadership that focus on the need for leadership to be grounded in firm personal and professional values.

Northouse (2007) looked at the many leadership definitions and compared leadership to concepts such as democracy, love, and peace and stating that just as these concepts meant different things to different people so does the concept of leadership. As broad as the concept of leadership might be, and although it means different things to different people, it must take into consideration various contexts in which it is practiced. In the Nigerian political environment and context, Ekeanyawu, Loremikan, and Ikubaje (2004) noted that when corruption in a country is endemic and pervades every facet of life, it leads to a de-emphasis on leadership accountability.

Trait Leadership Approach

Researchers and scholars during the last century described traits that distinguished leaders. Trait theory, beginning in the early 1900s through 1950s (Black, 2006), described

behaviors to exist on two opposite values: flexibility-control and internal-external focus (Zola, 2006). Bennis and Nanus (1985) referred to trait theory as the “Great Man” theory, that assumed that leaders were born, not made, and that their characteristics were inherent, heroic, mythic, and destined. Chernow and Vallasi (1993) identified trait theory in one of the Old Testament’s historical books. I Samuel 16:6-7 stated:

As they came, he looked at Eliab and thought, “Surely the LORD’s anointed is here before him.” But the LORD said to Samuel: “Do not judge from his appearance or from his lofty stature, because I have rejected him. Not as man sees does God see, because man sees the appearance but the LORD looks into the heart.” (*New American Bible*, 1991, p. 280)

The work of Chinua Achebe (1959), an African novelist and social critic of the 20th century, outlined traits involving personal characteristics:

. . . Ikonkwo’s fame had grown like a bush-fire in the harmattan. He was tall and huge, and his bushy eyebrows and wide nose gave him a very severe look. He breathed heavily. . . . When he walked, his heels hardly touched the ground. . . . He had a slight stammer. . . . He had no patience with unsuccessful men. (pp. 3-4)

In contrast was Alagoa’s (2004) description of the 20th century leaders.

In Nigerian mini-state systems, a common criterion for leadership was age. . . . In the mega-states of Nigeria in general, the rulers came into office by hereditary right, primogeniture or through rotation between royal lineages or contest of individuals belonging to such lineages. (p. 106)

Covey (1989), reviewing years of literature for *The 7 Habits of Highly Effective People*, reported “that much of the success literature of the past 50 years was superficial. It was filled with social image consciousness, techniques and quick fixes” (p. 18). He noted a stark contrast to the first 150 years of the literature of success, which “focused on what could be called the *Character Ethic* as the foundation of success – things like integrity, humility, fidelity, temperance, courage, justice, patience, industry, simplicity, modesty, and the Golden Rule” (p. 18). Bryman (1986), using physical, abilities, and personality traits as the three broad types of trait leadership theory, described physical traits as including height, weight, age, and general

appearance of individuals; abilities as including intelligence, speech, scholarship, and general knowledge; and personality as including conservatism, introversion-extroversion, dominance, and self-confidence. These descriptive works indicated that leadership traits derived from historical, cultural, and societal values were based on the assumption that traits played “a central role in differentiating between leaders and non-leaders or in predicting leader or organizational outcomes” (Livingston, 2003, p. 9).

After reviewing more than 25 years of trait research, Stogdill (1948) concluded that leadership traits alone were inadequate to predict leader emergence or effectiveness. Van Eron (1991) advocated the study of personality traits in interaction with contextual factors. A study of the impact of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates will help to identify some of the trait and contextual characteristics of Nigerian leadership today.

Skills Leadership Approach

The skills theory of leadership, arising in the period between the late 1940s through 1960s, outlined three basic personal skills: technical, human, and conceptual. Technical skill was described as dealing with things; human skill as dealing with people; and conceptual skill as involving the ability to work with ideas (Katz, 1955). Mumford and Connely (1991), continuing research on the skills approach theory, reported their findings from the 2000 study of U.S. Army leaders, suggesting that findings on skills approaches could be generalized to other groups. In contrast, Northouse (2007) indicated that more research was needed before the theory could be generalized to other populations or organizational settings.

Style Leadership Approach

After the trait and skills leadership theories of 1940 to 1960, researchers moved toward the style theory of leadership. Placing emphasis on a leader's behavior, style leadership theory focused “. . . exclusively on what leaders do and how they act” (Northouse, 2007, p. 69). Leadership studies at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan were the first to report on the style approach (Northouse, 2007). Stogdill's Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ-X11) used a 100-item instrument representing 12 subscales into which leadership behaviors were grouped. Using a variety of settings – military, industry, and education – to measure the behavior of leaders, Stogdill's instrument studied supervisor-subordinate relationships and described changes in a leader's own behavior (Stogdill, 1963). Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perceptions of leadership behaviors of educational leaders in the Niger Delta environment might focus exclusively on the behaviors exhibited by a leader, thus indicating that style leadership dominates the educational situation in the region.

Contingency Leadership Theory

Berlew (1974) outlined three stages in the historical development of leadership theories. Stage one focused on personal characteristics. Stage two was the model stage, which arose with the initial work of Mayo (1927) and the “human relations” movement, emphasizing the importance of interpersonal relations within the workplace. Van Eron (1991) noted that, while various terms described stage-two leadership models, the term *contingency model* was developed somewhat later. Contingency leadership theory, proposed in 1967, explained the concept of adaptive leadership behavior, replacing a *best* style with the concept of an *effective* style for a particular situation (Fiedler, 1967). Developing the Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) scale to measure leadership styles, Fiedler described three major situational variables: (a) personal relations of the members, (b) degree of structure in the task that a group has been assigned to perform (task structure), and (c) power and authority that a position provides (position power).

Fiedler's theory suggested that leadership style is contingent on conditions and situations in the organization. Antoine (2003) explained that a high LPC score suggested the leader was oriented toward human relations, whereas a low score indicated task orientation. The theory was called contingency because a leader's effectiveness depended on how well the leader's style fit the context. Where task-motivated leaders were concerned with reaching a goal, relationship-motivated leaders were concerned with developing close interpersonal relationships (Northouse, 2007). In measuring situations within an organization, contingency theory focused on the dependent variable of satisfaction and overlooked the emotional tone of excitement. It is possible that expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perceptions of leadership qualities of educational leaders could be contingent upon the situations they or the leaders were undergoing at the time and this may or may not have had an impact on their acquired leadership skills.

Situational Leadership

At the early stages of understanding the concept of leadership, an adequate way to predict an effective leader was centered on the personal characteristics of those leaders. In stage one, trait, skills, and style leadership theories focused on these. In stage two, contingency theory saw leadership style as contingent upon conditions within the organization. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) furthered that theme with the development of situational leadership theory. This arose when these researchers introduced the "Life Cycle Theory" of leadership in their 1969 article in *Management and Training*. They began with the question, "What is the best leadership style to apply in a given situation?" The Life Cycle Theory was later renamed the "Situational Leadership Theory" (Nave, 2005). Yazzie noted that Hersey and Blanchard described the theory as "a means of explaining conflicting research findings" (Yazzie, 1992, p. 22), and that it was based on the assumption that conditions determine who emerges as the leader (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

Like contingency leadership theory, situational theory measured the situations in the organization and focused on the dependent variables of satisfaction, overlooking the emotional tone of excitement. As stated above, expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perceptions of leadership qualities of educational leaders could be based on the political, economic, and cultural situations Nigeria was undergoing at the time of their exposure to the educational leaders.

Transformational Leadership Theory

To create worthwhile products and services while motivating their coworkers to contribute to society and the economy in a meaningful way, several researchers and scholars migrated to a theory called transformational leadership (Avolio & Bass, 1987; Bass, 1985; Bass, Avolio, & Goodheim, 1987; Burke, 1986; Burns, 1978; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Tichy & Ulrich, 1984; Waldman, Bass, & Einstein, 1987). Van Eron (1991), referring to Berlew's (1974) three stages of leadership, pointed out that this stage represented a significant shift by scholars from research on managers to actual research on leaders. Early researchers had developed theories that relied on custodial and managerial models. Typically, in the past, the terms *leader* and *manager* were used interchangeably (Bass, 1981; Drucker, 1974; Mintzberg, 1973). It is not known whether the third-stage leadership styles would be recognized by expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

Transformational and transactional leadership styles do not necessarily apply to educational leadership in universities in the Niger Delta region. Transformational and transactional leadership theories were developed by Western scholars through the use of political and business settings in workplaces and businesses in the West.

The concept of transformational leadership dates back to the 1970s when the term was first coined by Downton (1973). An emergence of the concept as an important approach to leadership was conceptualized by an American political sociologist and historian James MacGregor Burns in his influential 1978 work, *Leadership*. Burns was primarily concerned with

distinguishing transformational from transactional leaders. The analysis of Burns was “to compare and contrast traditional ‘transactional’ leadership with the newer idea of transforming leadership” (Owens, 2004, p. 269).

Zaleznik (1977) considered transformational leadership and transactional leadership as similar to the differences between leaders and managers. Burns (1978) also considered this as the distinction between transformational and transactional leadership. However, whether the transformational and transactional leadership qualities are appropriate in the educational leadership settings in universities in the Niger Delta or whether other leadership qualities prove more useful is unknown. A qualitative study asking expatriate Nigerian postgraduates about the leadership qualities that impacted acquired leadership skills could help determine the leadership theory that best fits their developing nation. Compared to transactional leadership, transformational leadership is the more powerful form, integrating the needs of both the leader and followers. Moral commitment is at the heart of its description. According to Burns (1978):

The transformational leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower. The result of transforming leadership is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. (p. 4)

In describing transformational leaders, Johnson (2001) indicated that they speak to “higher-level needs such as esteem, competency, self-fulfillment, and self-actualization. In so doing, they have a major impact on the people and groups that they lead” (p. 122). Furthermore, these leaders “focus on terminal values such as liberty, equality, and justice” (p. 123).

Northouse (2007), speaking of transformational leadership, describes it as a process that changes and transforms people. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals and includes assessing followers’ motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. Speaking of leadership as not what leaders do but rather what leaders and followers do together for the collective good, Rost (1993) stated that the essence of leadership is not the leader but the relationship. Other researchers indicated that

transformational leaders engage with others through collective action to bring about fundamental changes in direction, development, productivity, and perceptions (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Burns, 1978). Burns pointed to Mahatma Gandhi, Martin Luther King, Jr., and John F. Kennedy as classic examples of transformational leaders.

The moral theory of Lawrence Kohlberg (1981) identified six stages of moral development: (a) punishment and obedience, (b) instrumental exchange, (c) interpersonal conformity, (d) social system and conscience maintenance, (e) prior rights and social contract, and (f) universal ethical principles. The humanistic theory of Abraham Maslow described as “hierarchy of needs” has identified five basic needs: (a) physiological needs, (b) safety needs, (c) needs of love, affection, and belongingness, (d) needs for esteem, and (e) needs for self-actualization. According to Koppang (1996), the theories of Kohlberg and Maslow are linked in Burns’ theory of transformational leadership.

Burns (1978) indicated that transformational leadership theory was different from transactional leadership. Burns was of the opinion that leaders display either transactional or transformational characteristics. In response, Bass (1985) argued that, while these two concepts are distinct, transformational and transactional leadership were likely to be displayed by the same individuals in varying amounts and intensities. Yammarino (1993), noting that Bass extended and expanded Burns’ work on transformational leadership, saw Bass as doing this by giving more attention to followers’ needs rather than to leaders’ needs. In more specific terms, Bass and his associates (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1993) identified four factors known as the “Four I’s” and stated that a leader is described as transformational if he or she exhibits any combination of these behaviors: (a) idealized influence, (b) inspirational motivation, (c) intellectual stimulation, and (d) individualized consideration.

Idealized Influence (Attributions). According to Bass (1990), a transformational leader exhibits *idealized influence* (attributions) when subordinates or followers “share complete faith

in him or her” (p. 218). Johnson (2001), describing *idealized influence* along with *inspirational motivation* factors, referred to them as factors in which leaders “become role models for followers, set high standards and goals, create shared visions, provide meaning, and make emotional appeals” (p. 124).

Inspirational Motivation. According to Bass (1990), *inspirational motivation* is exhibited when a leader “communicates high performance expectations” (p. 218).

Intellectual Stimulation. According to Bass (1990), a transformational leader exhibits *intellectual consideration* when he or she “enables me (subordinates or followers) to think about old problems in new ways” (p. 218). Johnson (2001), describing *intellectual stimulation* along with *individualized consideration* factors, referred to them as factors by which leaders “stimulate creativity by helping followers question their assumptions and develop new approaches to problems. They provide learning opportunities tailored to the needs of each individual” (p. 124).

Individualized Consideration. According to Bass (1990), a transformational leader exhibits *individualized consideration* when he or she “gives personal attention to members who seem neglected” (p. 218).

Researchers have conducted many leadership studies since the development of transformational leadership in 1978 by Burns. One such study stated that becoming a transformational leader requires vision, initiative, patience, respect, persistence, courage, and faith (Covey, 1990). Bass carried out the major revisions of transformational leadership theory in the 1980s and 1990s. On the whole, transformational leaders change their organizations, or even societies, by meeting the mutual goals of both leaders and followers whether the latter are completely clear about their goals or not, by articulating values to followers, and by providing meaningful direction based on a common purpose (Van Eron, 1991). Though transformational leadership and its revisions are applied to business executives, army officers, or political leaders,

its principles can be extended to schools (Liontois, 1992). Thus, extending the theory to encompass educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta is worthwhile.

Transactional Leadership Theory

In contrast with transformational leadership, transactional leadership is the traditional form of leadership that tends to keep organizations moving along historical lines, more concerned with managing than leading, working to maintain the existing order in a system, and supporting the current culture (Burns, 1978; Schein, 1985). Johnson (2001), in describing transactional leaders, indicated that they appeal to “lower-level needs of followers, that is, the need for food, shelter, and acceptance. They exchange money, benefits, recognition, and other rewards in return for the obedience and labor of followers” (p. 122). Furthermore, transactional leaders “emphasize instrumental values, such as responsibility, fairness, and honesty, that make routine interactions go smoothly” (p. 123).

Bennis and Nanus (1985) explained transactional leaders as operating from the physical resources of the organization on its capital, human skills, raw materials, and technology. According to Antonakis, Cianciolo, and Sternberg (2004), “[t]he transactional approach is based on economic or quasi-economic transactions between a leader and followers” (p. 173). Burns held that leaders display either transactional or transformational characteristics. Bass (1985) accepted that the two concepts were distinct, but they were likely to be displayed by the same individual. Bass expanded Burns’ work on transactional leadership. He identified contingent reward, and or management-by-exception as factors that characterize transactional leaders.

Contingency Reward. A transactional leader engages in contingency reward when the leader provides reward and punishment based on subordinate output (Bass & Avolio, 1993). In this context, leaders motivate subordinates by exchanging rewards for services provided.

Management-by-Exception. A transactional leader engages in management-by-exception when the leader may only intervene when he or she observes deviation from standard procedure (Bass & Avolio, 1993). In this context, leaders motivate subordinates by intervening only when something goes wrong.

Bass (1985), building on Burns' work, distinguished transformational and transactional leadership concepts based on how leaders motivated subordinates. In specific terms, Bass and other scholars noted that transactional leaders motivated subordinates by exchanging rewards for services provided, maintaining what clearly works rather than taking risks, considering time constraints, focusing on efficiency, and relying on their power to reward or punish to maintain organizational arrangements. Some of those scholars explained that transactional leaders "were fine for an era of expanding markets and non-existent competition. In return for compliance, they issued rewards. These managers changed little; they managed what they found and left things pretty much as they found them when they moved on" (Ticky & Devanna, 1986, p. 27). Transactional leadership focuses more on managing rather than on leading. It is implied that transformational leadership focuses more on leading; however, it is unknown which of these qualities applies to educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

An Overview of Acquired Leadership Skills

A limited number of studies can be applied to how leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria impact the use of acquired leadership skills. Some descriptive works on the use of learned leadership skills (Conroy, 2001; Hopping, 2006) are based on information derived from the leadership training of U.S. Navy officers (Hammond, 2006). Educators have written texts focusing on the management of higher education (Akomas, 2006). According to Ovwigho (2007) and Osuoha (2000), effective leadership practices are related to the five leadership practices of Kouzes and Posner. They are related to the two-factor

theory of leadership from the Ohio State University Leadership Studies, narrowing it to two dimensions, *Initiating Structure* and *Consideration*.

Quantitative studies addressed leadership qualities of educational leaders in postsecondary institutions, usually using postgraduates rating leadership practices and styles. These studies depended upon the researchers' understanding and assumptions about the measured leadership qualities. The quantitative study of leadership outlined four phases in the process of learning, namely (a) concept experience, (b) reflective observation, (c) abstract conceptualization, and (d) active experimentation (Kolb, 1984). According to Kolb, this model identified skills such as: (a) relationship skills, (b) leadership skills, (c) helping and understanding skills, (d) sense-making skills, (e) information gathering skills, (f) information analysis skills, (g) theory building skills, (h) quantitative analysis skills, (i) technology skills, (j) goal setting skills, (k) action skills, and (l) initiative skills. The few other quantitative studies in literature looking at learning skills (Boyatzis & Kolb, 1995; Kretovics, 1998) and cross-cultural leadership styles (Osuoha, 2000) are limited in scope and contribute little to the one central research question of the current study: "How do leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria impact the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates?"

Osuoha (2000), looking at cross-cultural leadership styles in a "comparative" manner, showed that Nigerian respondents could recognize significant differences in *Initiating Structure* and *Consideration* leadership styles between managers from the United States and Nigeria; however, the audience's perception of leadership style was not included in the study. In response, Conroy (2001) concluded that in "comparative" studies, attempts to use command climate skills are somewhat problematic because of sub-units studied, such as *Leadership Models*, *Situational Communication*, and *Delegation*.

Offiah-Igah (1996) surveyed 300 randomly selected students for the effects that the Senior Secondary School Exit Examination had on the students who took that examination, but

the leadership qualities of educational leaders and their effect on the students were not investigated. Hopping (2006) looked at middle-school administrators and mentors and their acquisition of leadership powers. He found that the esteem in which a protégé held his or her mentor or direct supervisor positively or negatively affected the level of perceived acquisition of the legitimate, referent, expert, and connection leadership powers. The reasons for this effect were not explored.

Conroy (2001) indicated that the barrier most frequently identified by Intermediate Officer Leadership Course graduates that hindered their use of acquired leadership skills on the job was resistance to change from subordinates and peers. Whether this resistance to change was related to leadership style was not a part of the study.

No one has asked expatriate Nigerian postgraduates about the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region that constitute barriers or portals to their acquired leadership skills. Quantitative studies obviously depend on the researchers' understanding as opposed to the participants or respondents' perceptions. For this reason, the current study uses qualitative methods to determine how leadership qualities of educational leaders have impacted the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, a grounded approach that may help to generate a leadership theory that conceptualizes the situation in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

A Brief History of Universities in Nigeria

The history of education in Nigeria cannot be discussed without reference to the influences of the Islamic and Christian religions. Neither can the importance of traditional or indigenous educational systems be overlooked because these existed before the arrival of Islam and Christianity in Nigeria (Chukwu, 1980). The traditional education in Nigeria focused on social, physical, emotional, moral, and mental development. Moumouni (1968) summarized early education by:

1) The great importance attached to it, and its collective and social nature. 2) Its intimate tie with social life, both in a material and a spiritual sense. 3) Its multivalent character, both in terms of its goals and the means employed. And 4) its gradual and progressive achievements, in conformity with the successive stages of physical, emotional and mental development of the child (p.15)

Cohen (1967) indicated that the objectives of the traditional education in Nigeria included seven aspects, which were identified as:

1. To develop the child's latent physical skills.
2. To develop character.
3. To inculcate respect for elders and those in position of authority.
4. To develop intellectual skills.
5. To acquire specific vocational training and to develop a healthy attitude toward honest labor.
6. To develop a sense of belonging and to participate actively in family and community affairs.
7. To understand, appreciate and promote the cultural heritage of the community at large.

Because this study does not focus on all aspects of education in Nigeria, rather on its university education, a brief history of universities in Nigeria becomes important. For a history of universities in Nigeria in its present state, one must understand what happened before and after the country's independence in 1960. This history shows how leadership qualities of educational leaders in the current universities could have an impact on the acquisition of leadership skills by expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

Beckett and O'Connell (1978) stated that as early as the 1860s the small but articulate highly educated elite in British West Africa had established some form of university system to serve West Africans. In particular, J. Horton, in his *West African Countries and Peoples* published in 1868, called for a University for Western Africa, using the Church Missionary Society's Fourah Bay College as the nucleus (Beckett & O'Connell, 1978). The period between the 1920s and 1930s followed this system. Chukwu (1980) referred to the period from 1930 to

the 1950s as a period when higher education was being initiated elsewhere while there was a continuation of educational expansion in Nigeria, especially the expansion of primary and secondary (commercial and technical) schools. Furthermore, Chukwu described the late fifties and early sixties as the period that could be coined as the “Era of Self-Determination in Nigerian Education.” Within that era, Nigerians intensified their political activities and worked to gain independence from Britain. The activities led the colonial administration to begin to groom Nigerians under the leadership of Europeans through Departmental Training Programmes (Fafunwa, 1974).

The Elliot Commission was appointed in 1930. This commission reported on the organization and facilities of the existing centers of higher education in British West Africa and made recommendations regarding future university development in that area (Chukwu, 1980). Increasing numbers of students who were trained abroad came from the western, mid-western, and eastern regions of Nigeria. Beckett and O’Connell (1978) said:

During the 1930’s and 1940’s increasing numbers of students – first from the Yoruba areas of western Nigeria and later from Iboland and other areas of the mid-west and east – were finding their way overseas for university education. University education within Nigeria itself was a post-war phenomenon, reflecting the changing rhythm of British colonialism and incipient decolonization (p.10).

In 1948 the first University in Nigeria, University College, Ibadan, offered a program culminating in university degrees from the University of London (Beckett & O’Connell, 1978). It was located in the Western region. At the time of Nigeria’s independence in 1960, in the Northern Region, the number of graduates annually totaled not more than a few dozen (Beckett & O’Connell, 1978). Chukwu (1980) stated that with respect to the development of the Nigerian education system, the most essential document was the Report of The Commission on Post-Secondary Certificate and Higher Education in Nigeria published by the Ashby Commission in 1960. Beckett and O’Connell (1978) described studies of Nigeria’s manpower resources and

needs and of the country's system of higher education that were made by F. Harbison prior to independence. In his analysis, maintained these authors, Nigeria's annual need for graduates was at least twice as large as all overseas and internal graduates put together.

The report of the Ashby Commission on higher education gave a sense of urgency to the development of university institutions in Nigeria. Chukwu indicated that the commission's objective was to forecast educational needs up to 1980. By the 1980s Nigerian universities were classified into first, second, and third generations (Akomas, 2006) as shown in Table 2. Akomas explained the five Nigerian institutions classified as first generation universities were established in the 1960s. According to Akomas, the first generation universities were well staffed and were charged with producing scholars. These universities were mandated to produce people who were equipped with various skills and competencies required for: (a) national development, (b) promotion of the advancement of learning, and (c) transmission of cultural and moral values. Aina (1995) referred to the 1960s as the period where there were no brain drain issues.

To ensure quality control and standardization in the universities, the Federal Government of Nigeria established the National Universities Commission under Decree No. 1, 1974. The Commission acted as a clearing house and a coordinating agency on matters related to all aspects of development, finance, and conditions of service in the universities (Aminu, 1986). The seven institutions classified as second generation universities were established in the 1970s (Akomas, 2006). By 1974 each of these universities was conducting its own examinations and was admitting its own students. There was no federal government control. These resulted in several limitations including waste of resources and a radical departure from the British system.

Nwagwu (1997) said:

The National Policy on Education (NPE) popularly referred to as the 6-3-3-4 system, was introduced in 1977 and then revised in 1981 (Federal Republic of Nigeria, 1981). It marked a radical departure from the British system of education, which Nigeria inherited at independence in 1960. Basically it adopted the American system of 6 years of primary education, 3 years of junior secondary school, 3 years of senior secondary school, and 4 years of university education (p.87).

As part of the Federal Government's effort at ensuring democratization of educational opportunities, especially at the university level, it established the Joint Admissions and Matriculations Board to conduct university Matriculation Examinations and to control admissions into the universities (Aminu, 1986). Finally, the seven institutions classified as third generation universities were established in the 1980s (Akomas, 2006).

By 2005 expansion of the universities in Nigeria was extremely rapid. An indication of this rapid growth is provided in Appendix A where the NUC gives the total number of universities in Nigeria as 75 under six classifications. Dividing the universities according to each of the four regions of the country, shown in Appendix B, the Northern region had 26 universities, the Western region had 23, the Mid-Western region had 6, while the Eastern region had 19. The federal capital territory had one. The number of universities was not distributed evenly throughout Nigeria, Beckett and O'Connell, 1978 said:

It is important to note, however, that production of graduates is not distributed evenly throughout the country. The colonial heritage of differential development, particularly between the north and the south, remains acute in education at every level (p.12).
"University education is a highly politicized issue because its significance in determining a access to society's most strategic posts is universally recognized" (p.13).

According to Olutola (1983) the establishment of universities in Nigeria and the expansion of programs in these universities are based on social and political pressures. Nwagwu (1997) had this to say:

Moreover, the social demand approach to educational planning was emphasized by various governments in Nigeria, both civilian and military, for political and propaganda reasons. Thus, for example, the refusal to charge tuition fees in the universities and the policy of establishing a federal university and a polytechnic or college of education in every state in Nigeria were politically popular but educationally and economically irrational decisions (p.89)

Over 70 universities exist in Nigeria today, both federal and private, with various reasons, political or educational, regional or tribal, for their establishment. Those reasons have implications for educational leaders in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

Summary of the Chapter

Little was known about the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perceptions of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Significant to the exploration of the phenomenon was the historical understanding of Nigeria as a country and the Niger Delta as a region. With the increasing focus on leaders and leadership, several leadership theories about what makes leaders effective were developed over the centuries. This chapter presented a literature review that built a justification for the study; namely, that these leadership theories had very little reference to expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. Therefore, the evolving theory took into consideration an explanation as to how and why the exhibited leadership qualities of educational leaders were exhibited in the universities in the Niger Delta and why and how these postgraduates perceived them.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The purpose of the current study was to ascertain the perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impact the acquired leadership skills of 27 expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. The defining constructs to be acquired were leadership qualities of educational leaders that expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceived to critically impact their professional skills and thus form a theoretical model. This research did not investigate variables associated with postgraduates' methods of acquiring highly effective leadership skills. Because of this, the method of "acquiring leadership skills" was not used as the defining construct in the stated phenomenon.

The perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders, perceived barrier to acquiring leadership skills, perceived impact on acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, as well as how expatriate Nigerian postgraduates responded to those perceptions (or lack thereof) were examined. The purpose of this chapter is to (a) describe the research design used for this study, (b) discuss the purpose of qualitative study, (c) note ethical considerations and informed consent, (d) outline the research questions, (e) identify and describe the demographic characteristics of the participants, (f) describe the instruments used in the study, (g) provide an overview of the data collection procedures used, and (h) describe the data analysis procedures employed in the study.

Mixed Method Designs

Research designs, according to Creswell (2005), ". . . are procedures for collecting, analyzing, and reporting research in quantitative and qualitative research" (p. 597). Guba (1990) explained that the decision to use a qualitative approach or quantitative research method is often determined by the research questions, purposes of the study, and interest of the researcher.

McMillan and Schumacher (1993) noted that in quantitative research the researcher undertakes to report “what is” whereas, during qualitative research, what the investigator does is attempt to answer the question, “What is happening here?” (LeCompte & Priessle, 1994). Because the researcher did not know if “leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria” were having critical impacts on acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, the central research question became, “What is the impact of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates?” To study this question, the researcher needed to understand how expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta. First and foremost, because the individuals’ unique perceptions were sought, the best method seemed to be a qualitative research approach. According to Richie et al., qualitative methods of inquiry, which often rely on interviews or other means of direct observation to contextualize phenomena, allow for the exploration of the full experiences of participants from their own points of view and in their own words.

As a verification measure, a quantitative method was also used. Participants were asked six Likert-type closed-ended questions about leadership qualities of educational leaders that they might have already perceived. This allowed them to provide simple information about these qualities they perceived in their educational leaders in Nigeria. This was a quantitative descriptive post hoc research approach. According to McMillan (2004), in quantitative research, a major distinction is made between nonexperimental and experimental designs. In quantitative nonexperimental research, the investigator has no direct influence on what has been selected to be studied, either because it has already occurred or because it cannot be influenced. The study can only describe something or uncover relationships between two or more factors. Asking the closed-ended questions in addition to the qualitative questions classified the study as a “mixed method designs” (Creswell, 2005, p.509).

Qualitative Research Methodology

Qualitative research methodology is not an easy alternative for researchers who do not like statistics; rather, it is a time-tested and effective legitimate method that results in valid findings (Creswell, 1998). Hoshmand and Patton (1989, 1990) gave this explanation of qualitative research methodology:

Qualitative methods of inquiry, which often rely on interviews or other means of direct observation to contextualize phenomena, allow for the exploration of the full experiences of participants from their own points of view and in their own words. Such approaches thus have the potential to produce conceptual models and theories that maximize proximity to the actual lived experiences of participants, a form of internal validity that is a strength of the qualitative approach to research.

Qualitative research methodology offered those personal reflective moments to expatriate Nigerian postgraduates because this method is “a reflexive process operating through every stage” (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995, p. 24) and reflected an “ongoing process” (Maxwell, 2005, p. 3). Merriam (1988) advocated the use of a qualitative methodology when the researcher desired to investigate a subjective phenomenon in need of interpretation rather than measurement. The researcher would necessarily become familiar with the population under study in an ongoing manner during the interview process.

According to Taylor and Bogdan (1998), a qualitative research approach is useful when the researcher wishes to observe people in their everyday lives, listen to them talk about what is on their minds, and look at the documents they produce. Issues in educational leadership in the Niger Delta region are multi-dimensional, complex, and interrelated. Understanding how and why particular leadership qualities were perceived would require understanding of the Niger Delta regional context. Choosing qualitative research methods to study expatriate Nigerian postgraduates could help generate a theory that was grounded in the data that these postgraduates would provide. Therefore, the method used was grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This is a theory that describes an attempt “to derive a general, abstract theory of a process, action, or

interaction grounded in the views of participants in a study” (Creswell, 2003, p. 14). Because of this theory, an already-developed conceptual framework was not applicable. Furthermore, “assumptions or suppositions about the phenomenon, or intent of study, a priori (Perry & Franklin, 2006), were not made because qualitative study seeks “what common understandings have emerged to give meaning to participants’ interactions” (Gay & Airasian, 2003, p. 165). According to Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996), qualitative research is:

. . . inquiry that is grounded in the assumption that individuals construct social reality in the form of meanings and interpretations, and that these constructions tend to be transitory and situational. The dominant methodology is to discover these meanings and interpretations by studying cases intensively in naturally settings and by subjecting the resulting data to analytic induction. (p. 767)

The grounded theory enabled the researcher to capture personal stories of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates resident from three continents: Africa, Europe, and North America. With this approach the researcher attempted to ensure that, in addition to being grounded in the research literature, the study would reflect the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates’ experiences in their own words and from their own phenomenological perspectives (Richie et al., 1997). The framework was developed in the process. From analysis of the themes drawn from these stories, the framework could provide a rationale that universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria might use to identify educational leaders who may be prone to other effective or ineffective leadership styles. In this regard, the emergent theory would, therefore, be as close as possible to the voiced experiences of the research participants (Richie et al.)

Ethical Considerations and Informed Consent

The East Tennessee State University Institutional Review Board formally approved the study. The informed-consent process with potential participants was conducted through the Web. A letter of invitation and an informed consent letter advising participants of their rights as participants and freedom to refuse to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time were

sent to participants and placed on the study's website. If participants consented to the content of the letter, they participated in the study.

Contacting the participants through telephone revealed the error was unintentional. No harm from the research could come to the postgraduates who participated in the study because their identities were kept confidential. Participants personally known by the researcher might have been reluctant to make their feelings known, but those participants concerned about such a risk could easily have avoided participation.

Research Questions

Literature reviewed for this dissertation includes articles on educational expansion in Nigeria. Although this expansion was not planned for and was uncontrolled (Nwagwu, 1997) and there were disproportionately high levels of violence and strikes in universities (Edukugho, 2003; Ekop, 2000; Uchendu, 1995), very little was written on perceptions of leadership qualities of the educational leaders in the universities. Thus, the researcher used the literature reviewed for the present study to develop the interview questions, and related findings to research questions and to the literature. More specifically, one central question developed through the course of this study was: What is the impact of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates? The intent of the central question was to explore perceptions of leadership qualities in the context of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. To answer the central question, four sub-questions were formulated to address the purpose of this study.

1. What do the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceive to be the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?
2. To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that their acquired leadership skills have been negatively impacted by the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta?

3. To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta have posed a barrier to the respondents' acquisition of leadership skills?
4. How have these postgraduates responded to their perceptions of effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta?

The participants drawn to answer these research questions were expatriate Nigerian postgraduates from the Niger Delta region. Generally, in qualitative research, it is appropriate to intentionally draw a sample to address a particular research question (Miles & Huberman, 1984).

Participants

The researcher targeted 54 initial participants. An electronic link constructed through the university's College of Education survey tools was sent to each of the 40 expatriate Nigerian postgraduates who consented to participate, approximately 3 to 6 weeks before a scheduled holiday season began. Initial contact led to other contacts. This was snowballing sampling. The selection was an attempt to get a representative sample of the expatriate residents in the chosen three continents: Africa, Europe, and North America. It was a purposeful sampling, "a qualitative sampling procedure in which researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon" (Creswell, 2005, p. 596). The strategy of purposeful sampling is to provide theoretical or concept sampling (Strauss, 1987). In purposeful sampling, "...the researcher samples individuals or sites because they can help the researcher generate or discover a theory or specific concepts within the theory" (Creswell, 2005, p. 205)

By using a theoretical sampling procedure, the participants are selected for what they can contribute to the evolving theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). The selection of the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates from the three continents was based upon the degree to which the participants were active in various disciplines. Five expatriate Nigerian postgraduates declined to participate due to other commitments. Twenty-seven (67.5%) responded to the invitation and

consented to participate in the study. Efforts made through telephone calls and e-mail to contact those who did not respond were unsuccessful. Of the 27 who consented to participate, 2 were in Africa, 3 in Europe, and 22 in North America. 1 of the African expatriate Nigerian postgraduates and 3 North American expatriate Nigerian postgraduates were females, while 1 of the African expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, 3 of the European expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, and 19 of the North American expatriate Nigerian postgraduates were males. The Nigerian records of academic doctorates by discipline and gender listed the number of male graduates to be more than that of females from 2001-2005 (National Bureau of Statistics, 2005).

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection procedures used during the study were mixed methods of inquiry, that is both qualitative and quantitative descriptive data were collected. Creswell (2003) described implementation, priority, integration, and theoretical perspective as four decisions that go into selecting a mixed methods strategy of inquiry. "Implementation means either that the researchers collect both the quantitative and qualitative data in phases (sequentially) or that they gather it at the same time (concurrently)" (Creswell, 2003, p.211). There were six major strategies identified for both sequential and concurrent data collection Creswell (2003). According to Creswell the three designs identified for sequential strategies were sequential explanatory, sequential exploratory and sequential transformative designs. The three strategies identified for concurrent were concurrent triangulation, concurrent nested, and concurrent transformative strategies (Creswell, 2003).

The survey had closed ended and open-ended questions. The electronic e-mail interview was selected as the method for interviewing because the primary sources resided on three continents. E-mail interviews consist of "collecting open-ended data through interviews with individuals using computers and the Internet" (Creswell, 2005, p. 216). In addition, books, peer-reviewed articles, Internet articles, and other handouts produced by the participants were

collected as data. Appendix J contains the detailed information about the research study questionnaire. The researcher implementing the mixed method data collection procedures gathered the data at the same time (concurrently). Therefore, the implementation of the design produced triangulation (Creswell, 2003). The researcher's interests in the study included leadership qualities of educational leaders, their impacts, barriers they pose, and ascertaining expatriates' perceptions. In the study, the researcher gave priority to qualitative approach.

Creswell (2003) said:

The priority might be equal, or it might be skewed toward either qualitative or quantitative data. A priority for one type of data or the other depends on the interests of the researcher, the audience for the study (e.g., faculty committee, professional association), and what the investigator seeks to emphasize in the study. In practical terms, priority occurs in a mixed methods study through such strategies as whether quantitative or qualitative information is emphasized first in the study, the extent of treatment of one type of data or the other, and the use of a theory as an inductive or deductive framework for the study. (p.212)

Because of this priority, the researcher used concurrent nested strategy, "...a nested approach has a predominant method that guides the project" (Creswell, 2003, p.218). The researcher's mixed method designs were integrated in data collection and in the analysis of findings and interpretation. According to Creswell (2003),

Integration of the two types of data might occur at several stages in the process of research: the data collection, the data analysis, interpretation, or some combination of places. Integration means that the researcher "mixes" the data. For example, in data collection, this "mixing" might involve combining open-ended questions on a survey with closed-ended questions on the survey. Mixing at the stage of data analysis and interpretation might involve transforming qualitative themes or codes into quantitative numbers and comparing that information with quantitative results in an "interpretation" section of a study (p.212).

Through e-mails and over the phone when necessary, the researcher answered all questions asked by the participants during a 5 week period. Three to four questions were answered through e-mails, which stated in a written format exactly what the expatriates needed. Two to three questions about the questions came through telephone calls. Notes were taken

while listening on the phone, and then the notes were read to those expatriates to assure correct understanding of what they were asking.

A letter of informed consent (Appendix O) and an e-mailed letter of invitation (Appendix N) were sent to the participants 2 to 3 weeks before the survey questionnaires were sent. These letters included information about (a) the purpose of the research, (b) data collection method, (c) informed consent process, (d) protection of participant's confidentiality, (e) researcher's academic advisor's name and phone number, and (f) phone number of the chairman of the Institutional Review Board of the University. In these letters, participants were encouraged to be forthright in their responses and assured that the instruments were being used strictly for leadership developmental purposes. They were asked to write their responses to the issues on the online survey spaces provided and were given an approximate length of time (40 minutes). These data collection procedures were expected to maximize the participant's commitment to the study. Participants were assured that all responses would remain completely confidential. They were assured that, when compiling the data, no individual responses would be identifiable. All participants in the research who had replied to the researcher's e-mail expressing further interest in the study were sent the study questionnaire. All of the participants in this study lived, worked, or were visiting in the three selected continents (Africa, Europe, and North America) during the time of the data collection. After receiving the e-mail survey, participants answered each of the 28 questions by clicking and by writing about their experiences in the spaces provided. They sent the survey back using the "submit" feature of the East Tennessee State University College of Education survey tools. With this procedure, added to the help of follow-up telephone calls and email reminders, data were obtained from 27 participants.

Instrumentation

Each expatriate Nigerian postgraduate in the study completed one instrument comprised of eight sections:

1. Demographic Characteristics (DC)

2. Educational Background (ED)
3. Perceived Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders (PLQEL)
4. Impacts of Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders on Acquired Leadership Skills of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates (ILQELALSENP)
5. Barriers of Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders on Acquired Leadership Skills of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates (BLQELALSENP)
6. Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates' Responses to Perceived Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders (ENPRPLQEL)
7. Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates' Responses to Positive Impacts of Perceived Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders (ENPRPIPLQEL)
8. Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates' Responses to Perceived Barriers of Perceived Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders (ENPRPBPLQEL)

The demographic characteristics (DC) section contained three items: gender, residence, and age. The educational background (ED) section contained five items: highest level of education attained, current program if still enrolled, tertiary institution attended, whether school was public or private, and type of public or private school. The perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders (PLQEL) section contained seven items, expatriates' agreement or disagreement with statements related to leadership motivation, vision, inspiration, collaboration, trustworthiness, focus on problems, and other leadership qualities. The impacts of leadership qualities of educational leaders on acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates (ILQELALSENP) section contains four items: expatriates' university experience in the Niger Delta, experience outside Niger Delta, perception of impacts of leadership qualities of Nigerian education leaders, and perceived leadership qualities of their favorite Nigerian educational leaders.

The perceived barriers produced by educational leaders on acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates (BLQELALSENP) section contains two items focusing on expatriates' perceived barriers and personal perceived barriers to their acquisition of leadership skills. The ENPRPLQEL section contains three items focusing on expatriates' responses to perceived effective leadership qualities, responses to perceived non-effective leadership qualities, and the participants' motivations in making their responses. The ENPRPIPLQEL section contains two items focusing on expatriates' positive responses to perceived influences of leadership qualities on the acquisition of their leadership skills and their motivations to make their responses. The ENPRPBPLQEL section contains two items focusing on expatriates' responses to perceived barriers that Nigerian educators' leadership qualities presented to their acquisition of their leadership skills and the participants' motivations in making their responses. The eight sections provided context for interpreting the interview transcripts during analysis; thus, an additional source of information (triangulation for context) ensuring the trustworthiness of the data and analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Data Analysis

McMillan and Schumacher (1993) defined data analysis as the systematic process of selecting, categorizing, comparing, synthesizing, and interpreting to provide an explanation of the phenomena of interest. According to Creswell (2005), "analyzing and interpreting the data involves drawing conclusions about it; representing it in tables, figures, and pictures to summarize it; and explaining the conclusions in words to provide answers to your research questions" (p. 10). With the grounded theory method used in this study, Strauss and Corbin's (1998) constant comparative data analysis was used. It is an "inductive data analysis procedure in grounded theory of generating and connecting categories by comparing incidents in the data to other incidents, incidents to categories, and categories to other categories. The overall intent is to "ground" the categories in the data (Creswell, 2005, p. 406).

After all the electronic survey interviews were completed, the process of analyzing the qualitative data began. Because of the electronic survey procedure, the researcher could not make notations of interruptions, either laughter, tone of voice, or emphasis on particular words. Additionally, because of the procedure, the researcher could not send the final copies of any transcripts to the participants for their feedback on their accuracy. In other words, the electronic survey procedure ensured the process, which Lincoln and Guba (1985) referred to as “member checking.” In total, the researcher had the 63-page transcript resulted from printing all of the responses. First, microscopic examination (Franklin, 2006) was done through reading the printed copies without coding to get an overall sense of the stories shared by the postgraduates. Some notes were written in the margins. These notes recorded the researcher’s first impressions, which included observations that some educational leaders were “arrogant, conceited, and pompous” or “innovative and creative in the context of the Nigerian environment.” Then each transcript was read for specific incidents as the researcher kept in mind the question, *What are the postgraduates saying that answers the research questions?* The researcher coded the specific incidents into concepts, a process referred to as open coding. Open coding was done on each transcript. Reading the transcript again, the researcher wrote memo statements about the open codes in the research log (Perry & Franklin, 2006). Breaking the interview papers into parts, the researcher created the master list (Franklin, 2006), recording the open codes data (see Appendix K). The master list of concepts generated when all participants’ data had been coded, consisted of approximately 398 separate distinguishable concepts (e.g., myopic, inspiration, dedication, dynamic, great, generally good, not academically dynamic, and in-depth). These concepts were compared with one another for similarities and then were grouped into categories. This task was done by one expert in quantitative and qualitative research methods and resulted in verifying the coding process by open-coding 10 transcripts simultaneously, then comparing codes. According to Merriam (1998), this process ensured the internal validity of the final research reporting of the phenomenon.

From the master list, the researcher used axial codes “by linking categories based on the characteristics and range of the open codes to form a more precise phenomenon” (Perry & Franklin, 2006, p. 7). This process brought similar codes together with code labels and gave personal definitions and ideas of what the researcher thought the postgraduates meant and also determined relationships among categories generated in open coding (Richie, et al, 1997). Thus, this resulted in the researcher creating the first master code book (Franklin, 2006) recording certain response themes as data (see Appendix L).

The postgraduates’ responses were grouped into 15 themes about the perceptions of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria:

1. Perceived educational leadership qualities
2. Leading qualities of favorite teachers
3. Perceived barriers of leading qualities
4. Social, economic, ethnic, and environmental leadership barriers in the Niger Delta
5. Perceived impacts of leading qualities
6. Good and bad educational experiences in the Niger Delta
7. Leadership barriers outside the Niger Delta
8. Expatriates’ perception of leadership barriers
9. Expatriates’ responses to leading qualities
10. Good and bad educational experiences outside the Niger Delta
11. Effective and ineffective leading qualities
12. Impacts of leading qualities for Nigerian educators
13. Impacts of leading qualities for expatriates
14. Expatriates’ written or verbal responses to leading qualities
15. Expatriates’ responses in action to leading qualities

According to Strauss and Corbin (1998), axial codes create a theoretical framework. During the next step, selective coding, or “pattern-ing,” is necessary to develop a framework. By examining the properties and dimensions of the developed themes, the researcher moved from code categories to a grounded theory, merging themes around a central theoretical construct that explained an important component of the phenomenon (Franklin, 2006). In this step, the researcher determined whether key categories were considered saturated; that is, that continued reading of the data failed to provide new information and that the category was well represented among participants (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). According to Richie et al. (1997), when saturation is achieved, the key category is accepted as critical to the emerging theory, and this process also reveals where reorganization of key categories was necessary for existing data to make sense.

A coding for process was created to identify the dynamic relationships between the themes and patterns. These themes were compared to experiences reported by other researchers and conceptual articles in the literature. Finally, a matrix or the visual graphic of the theoretical framework was created (Franklin, 2006). According to Regan-Smith (1992), matrices are constructed from the data, are used to identify patterns, comparisons, trends, and paradoxes, and are constructed to check the validity of themes that emerge. Merging the 15 themes resulted in a reduction of these themes to four patterns or constructs. Thus, the researcher created the second Master Code Book (Franklin, 2006) as seen in Appendix M. The four patterns or constructs were:

1. Leading qualities
2. Perceived produced impacts
3. Perceived barriers
4. Response

These patterns or constructs became the prominent elements of the emergent theory. Then the researcher generated properties (various aspects of the construct) and dimensions

(aspects of each property placed on a continuum) for each construct (Richie et al., 1997). The researcher then wrote a narrative for each pattern or construct and, according to Richie et al., using the information from the properties and dimensions to describe the construct thoroughly. One construct was chosen by the researcher as the core narrative or story; that is, the story thought to be the most generally representative of, or core to, the experiences of the participants as a whole (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Returning to the original transcripts, the researcher noted and discussed confirming and disconfirming incidents in order to determine how accurately and comprehensively the core story fit the experiences of every participant (Richie et al.). Lincoln and Guba (1985) referred to such discussion of disconfirming incidents as “negative case analysis.”

With the core story serving as the central construct of the theory, the relationships among the remaining constructs and the core construct were discussed and determined by the researcher, who returned to the original transcripts to determine the fit of each of the constructs to the experiences of every participant (Richie et al., 1997). The researcher managed internal consistency in this study by using more than one judge or analyzer of the data set (Richie et al.) In addition, an analyzer or researcher who continually challenges assumptions and provides alternate explanations of the data is crucial (Marshall & Rossman, 1989).

One strategy the researcher used to enhance external validity of the results was to include multiple cases (Richie et al., 1997); and, in this present study, it was to include multiple perceptions of participants. This inclusion increases the utility of the study in more than one setting or context (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Lincoln and Guba (1985), using qualitative terminology, suggested that the “transferability” of a study largely depended not on the original researchers but on those who wish to use the study elsewhere. Therefore, according to Richie et al., what is required of the original researchers was to provide “thick description;” that is, enough descriptive data for others to determine whether the results of the original study transfer to their settings. The researcher attempted to include thick description throughout the study.

Using Lincoln and Guba (1985), qualitative terminology, the researcher referred to “trustworthiness” in the study as relatively high because the model generated is grounded in and emanated directly from the data. Several strategies for achieving trustworthiness according to Lincoln and Guba included peer debriefing, negative case analysis, and member checking.

Summary of the Chapter

Individual participants selected by a strategically theoretical purposeful sample model were interviewed. The electronic surveys data-collection technique to access participants in geographically dispersed places provided an easy, quick form of data collection. Strauss and Corbin’s six steps of inductive constant comparative data analysis were used to code and find themes and patterns. The presentation and analysis of data is presented in Chapter 4 of the study. To test the reliability of the study, two IRB-certified auditors reviewed the coding process of the interviews.

CHAPTER 4
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to ascertain what expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceived as leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted the acquired leadership skills of the 27 expatriates who participated in the study.

Through the analysis of the data, four patterns of constructs were identified: (a) leading qualities, (b) perceived produced impacts, (c) perceived barriers, and (d) response.

Demographics

Table 10 shows the participants whose continent of residence is Africa, their highest degrees attained, and their disciplines.

Table 10

Profiles of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates from Africa Who Participated in the Study

S/N	Participants	Highest degree attained	Disciplines	Countries
1.	University professor	Ph.D.	Education	South Africa
2.	University professor	Ph.D.	Education	Botswana

Participants who came from Africa were from South Africa and Botswana. The two participants held Ph.D. degrees. Table 11 shows those participants whose continent of residence was Europe, their highest degrees attained, and their disciplines.

Table 11

Profiles of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates from Europe Who Participated in the Study

S/N	Participants	Highest degree attained	Disciplines	Countries
1.	Doctoral candidate	MA	Communication & international marketing	England
2.	Clergyman	Ph.D.	Biblical studies	Rome
3.	Doctoral candidate	MA	Education	Malta

Participants who came from Europe were from England, Rome, and Malta. Two participants held Master's degrees, one held a Ph.D. degree. Table 12 shows those participants in North America, their highest degrees attained, and their disciplines.

Table 12

Profiles of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates from North America Who Participated in the Study

S/N	Participants	Highest degree attained	Disciplines	Countries
1.	University professor	Ed.D.	Business	U.S.
2.	University researcher	Ph.D.	Education	U.S.
3.	Clergyman	MA	Canon law	U.S.
4.	Medical student	BA, medical school	Medicine	U.S.
5.	Doctoral candidate	MA	Law	U.S.
6.	Graduate student	BA, enrolled for MA	Education	U.S.
7.	University professor	Ph.D.	Mathematics	U.S.
8.	University professor	Ph.D.	Social science	U.S.
9.	Graduate intern	BA, HND* Certificate	Mass communication	U.S.
10.	Clergyman	MA	Biblical studies	U.S.
11.	University professor	Ph.D.	Computer science	U.S.

Table 12 (continued)

S/N	Participants	Highest degree attained	Disciplines	Countries
12.	Clergyman	MA	Medical ethics	U.S.
13.	College professor	MA	Philosophy	U.S.
14.	Clergyman	MA	Philosophy	U.S.
15.	Accountant	MBA	Accounting	U.S.
16.	Clergyman	MA	Mass communication	U.S.
17.	University professor	Ph.D.	Environmental science	U.S.
18.	Physician	MD	Internal medicine	U.S.
19.	University professor	Ph.D.	Business administration	U.S.
20.	Computer educator	BA, HND Certificate	Biology	Canada
21.	Marketing strategist	MBA	Marketing	Canada
22.	Graduate student	BA, enrolled for MA	Computer science	Canada

*HND: This stands for Higher National Diploma. A certificate a candidate receives after an OND, Ordinary National Diploma or any other certificate from any of the tertiary institutions.

Participants who came from North America were from Canada and the United States. 6 of 22 North American participants held Ph.D. degrees, 1 held an Ed.D., 1 held an M.D., 9 held Master's degrees, 2 held bachelor's degrees and were Master's degree candidates, while 2 held BA degrees with other associate degrees, and 1 held a BA degree and was a student in medical school. The ages of the participants ranged from 25 to 60 years. Forty percent of the participants were between 40 and 50 years of age. Twenty-nine percent of the participants were 39 years of age or less, and another 29% of the participants were over 50 years of age. The sample included a physician, a mathematician, a researcher, a lawyer, a computer scientist, and six clergymen. Because respondents came from a variety of disciplines, their responses reflect perspectives of people who encountered different situations and experiences. Following each transcription of the respondent data, the researcher met with Dr. Judith Wakim to discuss

findings. Her review confirmed that what the researcher reported in this chapter was evidenced in the transcripts.

Findings

The present study resulted in an emergent theoretical model for understanding how expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted their acquired leadership skills. The model is represented in Figure 6. As can be seen in the figure, the theory is conceptualized as an Olympic representation involving interpenetrating contextual “rings” of influence on a core self, which lead to particular responses. The emergent model proposes a core story consisting of participants’ leadership perceptions, attitudes toward Nigerian leaders, educational system and educational leaders, and relationships in both expatriate professional and personal career, considered within four constructs: leading qualities, perceived produced impacts, perceived barriers, and response. In this chapter, the researcher described in detail the four major components of the theoretical model, using direct quotations from the participants for illustration, as four research questions of the study were answered.

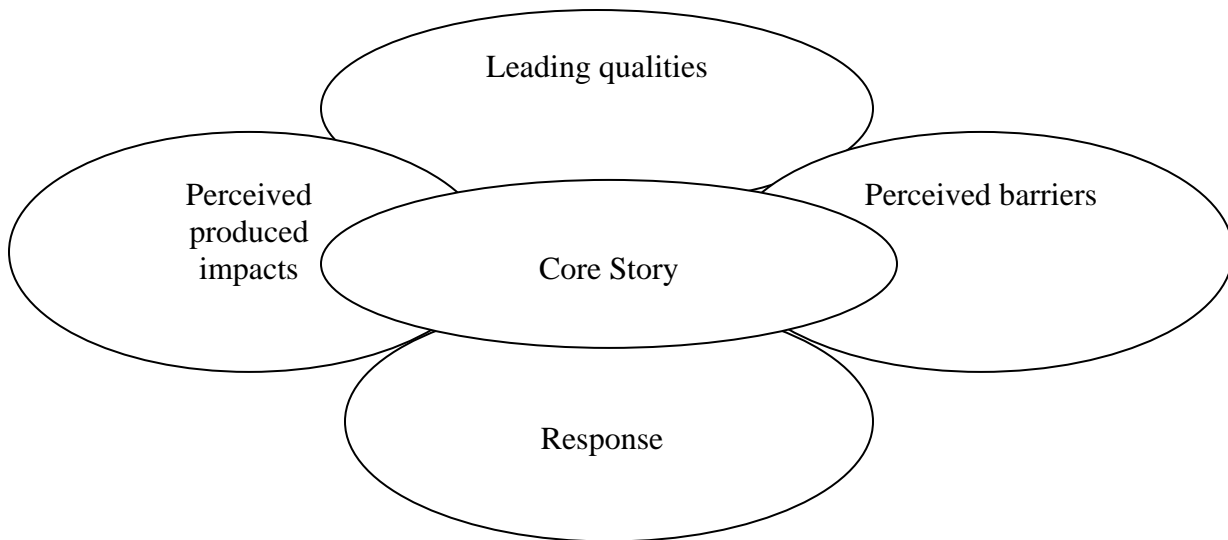


Figure 6. A theoretical model of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates’ perception of leadership qualities of educational leaders.

Figure 7 shows the contents of a theoretical model of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perception of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

Core Story
"Leadership Qualities"
Trust, Humility, Knowledge, Availability,
Patience, Open-mindedness, Love,
Listening

Leading Qualities
Positive: encouraging, supportive, inspirational, visionary, strong having integrity, learned, devoted, innovative, creative, resilient, motivated, dedicated and respectful.
Negative: myopic, autocratic, authoritative, self-centered, arrogant, conceited, pompous, self-imposing, greedy, dictatorial, and embezzling.

Perceived Produced Impacts
Positive: hard work, academic demand, approachability, accessibility, promoting learning, studying abroad
Negative: strikes, favoritism, corruption, lack of innovations, staleness, eroding value system, lacking foresight, scarce funding, disrespect for students' rights, deprivation, suppression, secret cult, extortion, under-qualified graduates, breeding self-centeredness, hopelessness, intimidation, disinterestedness, sending family abroad, half-baked graduates.

Figure 7 (continued on next page). Contents of a Theoretical Model of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates' Perception of Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders.

Figure 7 (continued)

Perceived Barriers
<i>Social leadership barriers:</i> repeated strikes, lacking care, diverting finances, poor remuneration, disinterestedness, lacking adherence to the rule of law, lacking to foster learning, family disenchantment, resisting change, mismanagement, and selfishness
<i>Economic leadership barriers:</i> corruption, inadequate infrastructure, materialism, poor pay, poor international exposure, poor funding, under funding, cost, poverty level, and government policies
<i>Environmental leadership barriers:</i> lack of innovation, falling quality, poor infrastructure, and greed
<i>Ethnic leadership barriers:</i> lack of creativity, dysfunctional technology labs, lacking foresight, political appointees, discouraging government, lack of periodicals, lack of personnel, neglect, admission format, and ethnicity

Response
<i>Verbal responses to effective leaders:</i> admiring, encouragement, believing, pity, open to advice, and recognition
<i>Verbal responses to non-effective leaders:</i> amazement, surprise, astonishment, disappointment, talking about the problem, finding ways for improvement
<i>Positive responses in action to effective leaders:</i> learning, supporting the cause, contributing money, welcoming, emulation, teaching, training others, donating books, making suggestion, complimenting, publication, and telling others
<i>Positive responses in action to non-effective leaders:</i> writing articles, publications, and writing newspaper articles, furnishing library, giving feedback, contribution, learning, consultation, and dialogue
<i>Negative responses in action to non-effective:</i> avoidance, feeling of demoralization, feeling overwhelmed, awful, resentment, defensive, regrets, feeling lost, sadness, and sickness

Figure 7. Contents of a Theoretical Model of Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates' Perception of Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders.

Core Story

The researcher used purposeful theory or concept sampling because participants could “help the researcher generate or discover a theory or specific concepts within the theory” (Creswell, 2005, p. 205). The study could help generate a theory of how the participants perceived the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta region. Focusing on

postgraduates restricted participants in the study to those with doctorate degrees, masters' degrees, and those with bachelors degrees who also had additional certificates or were pursuing them.

Twenty-three of the 27 respondents were male while there were 4 female respondents.

Although female education is growing, one of the historical reasons for the disparity in the number of participants between male and female was cultural. According to Ndahi (2002):

During the early period of the development of technical education in Nigeria, a technician was considered a male who could repair mechanical or electronic devices or products (turn screws, nuts, and bolts). It was not conceivable at that time to think of a female as a technician; therefore, enrollment in these technical institutions was strictly boys for industrial technical education courses and girls for the vocational home economics. The separation of industrial and home economics education for boys and girls respectively was by design for many obvious reasons. It, however, showed a pattern that conformed to the traditional education.

Western education continued to grow rapidly in southern and eastern Nigeria; however, one of the reasons why it was slower in the northern part of the country, was because school enrollment was predominantly boys (Falola, 1999). According to Falola girls were encouraged, or forced in some ethnic groups, to marry at an early age. This practice resulted in widening the gender gap in school enrollment. The expatriate sample did show some diversity in continents of residence: Europe (11%), Africa (7%), and North America (81%). More than 40.74% of the respondents were between the ages of 40-49, and over 40.74% had doctorate degrees as the highest degree attained.

In this theory, the core category consists of the stories describing the core values expressed by the participants in the study – the essence of how they perceive their favorite educational leaders, and which they hold as important to them in the world. They believe leaders should emulate the value in their positions in the world, and in their relationship to others. The prominent properties and dimensions of the core story discussed by these expatriates are trust,

humility, knowledge, availability, patience, open-mindedness, love, and listening that express the leadership qualities perceived in their favorite educational leaders.

The participants in this study generally showed a great deal of initiative in the face of impacts and barriers posed by educational leadership qualities. These impacts might be positive. Some of the positive impacts were hard work and academic demands made by educational leaders in the universities. A doctoral respondent stated,

Much is demanded of the students and the educational leaders leave the students with much reasons (sic) to work hard towards the desired success.

These impacts might also be negative. Some of the negative impacts were strikes and favoritism. A doctoral respondent said, “. . . strikes by staff and students, favouritism and gross inefficiency in administration” The barriers might be social, economic, environmental, and ethnic. Social barriers posed by the leadership qualities of educational leaders were those determinants or educational leadership qualities that hindered universities from having staff and students stay together. Some of these social barriers were repeated strikes and lack in fostering learning. A doctoral respondent mentioned, “Repeated strikes and counter strikes by staff and students.” A master’s degree respondent described “Individual agendas that do not foster learning.”

Economic leadership barriers posed by the leadership qualities of educational leaders were those determinants or educational leadership qualities that hindered what influences life in the universities, including atmospheric conditions, food chains, and the water cycle. Some of these environmental barriers were lack of innovation and poor infrastructure. A doctoral participant complained of, “Lack of innovation and creativity in leadership” A respondent with a master’s degree said, “Lack of appropriate role models. Poor infrastructure or lack of it. . . .” Finally, ethnic leadership barriers posed by the qualities of educational leaders included those determinants or any educational leadership qualities that hindered groups in universities that were distinguished by the institution’s cultural heritage, customs, language, and common history. Some of these ethnic barriers were lack of foresight and ethnicity. A master’s degree

respondent talked of, “. . . lack of foresight by educational leaders” A respondent with a bachelor’s degree and other certificates said there was only, “Partial justice due to one’s ethnicity in the region.”

Many of the expatriates welcomed the challenges that those impacts and barriers posed and were able to see them as experiences in the Niger Delta region that built a solid foundation for them. A master’s degree respondent stated,

The academic work had lots of contents and readings. My education in Niger Delta was more difficult, very abstract and not easily applicable to the cultural practices and daily existence. The experience made me strong and able to face any life situation. I acquired survival instincts and can face any academic situation.

Despite the various “high quality” experiences outside the Niger Delta region that have been gained by these expatriates – conscientious teachers, rewarding experiences, more resources, timely graduation, great and better in their professional disciplines – most of these expatriates described their own leadership qualities as closer to those of their favorite Niger Delta leaders. As noted by one of the bachelor’s respondents, “Punctuality, dedication, grades by merit, availability, compassion, and trustworthy” – were traits to emulate. Many of these expatriates described themselves as feeling drawn to respond verbally to the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region. A master’s respondent reacted, “By talking about the problem and finding ways for improvement.” A bachelors’ expatriate respondent responded by, “Writing newspaper articles. Personal consultations and dialogue with educational leaders.” The essence, then, of the core story is initiative in the face of perceived impacts and barriers, which was perhaps summarized best by a master’s degree respondent:

A renovation of library and supply of modern library equipments is in by a group of community leaders of which am the chair. Our goal to furnish a library and give access to but student and lectures with modern books to foster knowledge and improve the level of educational management in the region. This is a continuing project started three years ago.

Relatively detailed findings for each of the four research questions are presented as follows:

Research Question #1

What do the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceive to be the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

Leading Qualities (LQ). If one moves upward from the core story in the model, the next ring comprises the leading qualities that are affected by the core story and are the leadership qualities in the stories about the educational leaders in the universities as perceived by the respondents in the study. This first construct merged five themes related to overall leadership qualities of educational leaders. Prominent properties and dimensions of leading were the positive and negative leadership qualities of educational leaders. The positive leading qualities were seen as: encouragement and support from the educational leaders, their inspiration, vision, strength, integrity, 'learnedness,' devotion to their work, innovation, creativity, resilience, motivation, dedication, and respect.

For many of these expatriates, the positive leading qualities that they perceived in the educational leaders were those that led them to be positive about their own professional lives. The participants in the study described a variety of those positive qualities that they perceived, including encouragement and support, being strong, and showing integrity in their work. A doctoral respondent found them to be, "Very positive, encouraging and supportive." A master's degree respondent stated,

A good number of them are very strong on academic integrity of educational system in the region. One good example is . . . who pursues academic excellence by fighting any act of corruption including examination malpractices in the University. He does not waste time in bringing to book the staff or faculty members and students caught in such acts. This expresses the fact that a good educational leader must endeavor to protect educational integrity while encouraging and striving for excellence.

The participants described their educational leaders as having vision and being inspirational to them. A master's degree respondent stated,

They are highly educated with capacity for leadership. This education by itself serves as inspiration to both students and faculty to aspire for self development. However their capacity is perhaps encumbered by the dependence on government financial subsidies which affects their autonomy and independence of vision. Therefore though there is leadership capacity, now such capacity remains to be researched

Describing their educational leaders as being innovative, creative, and resilient in their work, a master's degree respondent stated,

Some educational leaders in Niger Delta Universities are innovative and creative in the context of the Nigerian environment. In spite of the sometimes-unfavourable academic environment, some initiate innovative teaching styles, demonstrate resilience and creativity that could inspire others (students).

A master's degree participant described his educational leader as being learned and devoted. As he stated, "They are learned, intelligent and devoted to their profession despite low salaries." Educational leaders were "motivators," said a master's degree respondent. A bachelor's degree respondent described the leaders as dedicated. He said, "Some are very dedicated and others do not just care about education but believe in bribery of varied forms to success." Another bachelor's respondent said, "They command respect."

The prominent negative properties of leading qualities were myopia, autocracy, authoritativeness, self-centeredness, arrogance, conceitedness, pomposity, self-imposition, greed, dictatorialism, and embezzlement. For many of these expatriates, the negative leading qualities that they perceived in the educational leaders were those that led them to feel negatively about the educational leadership in the universities in the region. A doctoral respondent describing a negative quality, stated,

They are myopic and refuse to learn from what is going on outside the country. Just like the politicians, many of them are corrupt and divert the small allocation made available to them for their personal use. They see too much [sic] of themselves which are not there and do not run the universities for public interest. Some of them try to gun for excellence but the funds are not available.

The doctoral and master's degree participants in the study described a variety of the negative qualities that they perceived, including autocracy, authoritative, self-imposition, greed, and dictatorialism in their educational leaders. A doctoral respondent said they were, "Autocratic." The master's degree respondent stated they were,

Not dedicated to modern teaching techniques. Exhibit little interest in their profession. Greedy. Authoritative. Dictatorial [sic]. Lack of moral conscience. Self-imposed image of importance. Driven by a culture of eldership.

The bachelor's and doctoral degree participants described a variety of other negative qualities that they perceived, including self-centeredness, arrogance, conceitedness, pomposity, and embezzlement. A doctoral expatriate exclaimed, "The educational quality of Nigeria is not what it used to be – so called leaders are self-centered." A bachelor's respondent found the leaders to be, "Not focused, always quick to embezzle public funds rather than use it in research." Another doctoral respondent said,

They are arrogant, conceited, and pompous. Being excessively driven by concern for money, they are devising a system of handouts production and distribution that forces students to, most of whom are from poor families to use their last kobo for purchasing exorbitant handouts or get a failing grade.

Research Question #2

To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that their acquired leadership skills have been negatively impacted by the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta?

Perceived Produced Impacts (PPI). Grounded theory presents as an assumption that there are "conditions" that affect the core story (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). In the emergent theory described here, the conditions of the impact fall into two categories that expressed the perceived produced impact of the Nigerian educational leaders. The first category contained positive impacts, specifically: approachability, accessibility, and promotion of learning. The positive

impacts that were perceived to be “outcomes” that produced changes or that had a positive impact on the feelings of expatriates about the educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region. The positive impacts described by the master’s degree respondents were very similar to the impacts described by the bachelor’s degree respondents. A master’s degree participant stated,

Some educational leaders are approachable and accessible to students. However, students are expected to look up to their leaders and contribute less so as not to disrespect their leaders. This cultural norm makes it difficult to truly express oneself and question certain activities

A bachelor’s degree participant describing promotion of learning said,

Some of the qualities do not promote good learning. They include some tardiness, grades determined for the most part by bribery in cash or kind, but some educators are great, sincere and dedicated to their work.

The second category consists of negative impacts, specifically corruption, lack of innovations, staleness, eroding value systems, lack of foresight, scarce funding, disrespect for students’ rights, deprivation, oppression, secret cults, extortion, under-qualified graduates, breeding self-centeredness, hopelessness, intimidation, disinterestedness, studying abroad, and half-baked graduates. The negative impacts described by the doctoral and master’s degree respondents were very similar to the negative impacts described by the bachelor’s degree respondents, and all the participants had similar perceptions of negative impacts of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the region. A doctoral degree participant, describing corruption, lack of innovations, and staleness, stated, “. . . Brings about corruption especially in the form of buying and selling of grades. Lack of innovation and staleness” A master’s degree participant, describing extortion and under-qualified graduates, said,

Considering the fact lecturers are also leaders, who are learned and intelligent people, they sometimes extort students by making extra money from the sales of handouts because of lack of textbooks. These handouts are made mandatory without which student may fail the particular course. Thus most of the students depend on the purchase of the

handout without studying. Hence students pass through the university without the required skills (knowledge).

A bachelor's degree respondent, describing disinterestedness and sending family abroad, stated, "Leaders are not interested in educational development of Nigerian schools. They spend government funds to send their kids to western world for education." Other negative properties and dimensions perceived by doctoral respondents were an eroding value system, lack of foresight, and scarce funding. A doctoral respondent stated

The educational leaders in the Niger Delta are significantly handicapped by the social upheaval in the society, which renders them ineffective, and less able to impact their students and their environment. The value system has been eroded creating impression that success does not necessarily result from hard work.

Another doctoral respondent describing lack of foresight said, "Lack of foresight on the type of programs that address the needs of the region. Programs are offered because they are offered in the US or Britain." On scarce funding, a doctoral respondent stated,

The Niger Delta environment is a challenging one. Funding is scarce while educational needs are very high. Such a combination may diminish any impact of leadership qualities. It will take a lot to make a significant impact given the structural constraints.

Many of the negative properties and dimensions that expatriates with master's degrees perceived to be produced by the impact of leading qualities were: disrespect for students' rights, deprivation, suppression, secret cults, breeding, self-centeredness, and hopelessness. A master's respondent, describing suppression and secret cults, said,

The impact is not significant since all of them are not singing in the same tune and choir. The number of those who lack or do not express the much needed leadership qualities overshadows and suppresses the few of them that do. The persistence of what should not be heard of in the Universities like secret cult activity that receive more attention from some faculty or staff members and students instead of activity like symposium on any subject of importance is a good example. For students to be involved in any unorthodox activities that yield no good benefits is an indication of poor or no impact of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities.

Describing breeding of self-centeredness and hopelessness, a master's degree respondent stated,

Breeding future leaders that are expected to be self-centered. Contributing to perpetual corruption and greed. Sense of hopelessness. Demoralized society in the future. No correctitude.

While another master's degree respondent said, ". . . There is power imbalance, and little respect to students' rights," and a third said, "The region is moving on after many years of deprivation." Three expatriates with bachelor's degrees outlined intimidation, corruption, and half-baked graduates as the negative properties and dimensions that they perceived to be produced by the impact of leading qualities. A bachelor's respondent, describing intimidation, stated,

It can be very intimidating when some educational leaders take it upon themselves to intimidate and punish their students without any justification.

While one bachelor's respondent describing corruption said, "Educational leaders do not impact positively enough because of the political corruption within the system," another describing half-baked graduates stated,

Educational policies will continue to go down the drain if drastic measures are not taken to reverse the trend. The universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria will continue to pass out half baked graduates. This will be a menace to the Nigerian society and subsequent collapse in the university system.

Research Question #3

To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta have posed a barrier to their own leadership skills?

Perceived Barriers (PB). The third construct of the core story in the model comprises perceived barriers – determinants or "any educational leadership quality" perceived by the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates to prevent or hinder an effective educational leadership approach in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Additionally, these could be

perceived as preventing or hindering expatriates' acquired leadership skills. In the emergent theory described here, the barriers fall into four categories posed by the qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region. The first category consists of social leadership barriers. These hindered universities from having staff and students stay together. They included lack of caring, diverting finances, poor remuneration, disinterestedness, failure to adhere to the rule of law, family disenchantment, resisting change, mismanagement, and selfishness. The social barriers described by the doctoral respondents were very similar to the barriers described by the bachelor's and master's degree respondents. Describing lack of care, a doctoral participant stated,

Most educators in Nigeria do not care about leadership quality, rather, they go for what our leaders care about which is "How Much Money in your Account." I will say that it is not their fault but that of our leaders: Governors, Senators, House members and Executive branch.

A master's degree respondent describing the properties and dimensions of family disenchantment, reported, ". . . Family general disenchantment and disenfranchisement . . ." while a bachelor's respondent, describing resistance to change and mismanagement, cited ". . . mismanagement of funds, and resistance to change." Three other doctoral respondents described diverting of finances, poor remuneration, and disinterestedness as other social barriers. One doctoral participant said,

. . . Money for equipment is often diverted to personal use and so labs that don't function, computer science students who don't know how to program or even use a spreadsheet program.

Another doctoral respondent, describing poor remuneration, stated, "Incessant strike actions and poor remuneration for the leaders slows down the learning process." And, while a third doctoral respondent describing, disinterestedness, noted, "Lack of interest in the general populace and adherence to the rule of law," a bachelor's respondent simply described a social barrier as "selfishness."

The second category consisted of economic leadership barriers that hindered universities' management of income and expenditures and failed to satisfy the material needs of these institutions. These were an inadequate infrastructure, materialism, poor pay, poor international exposure, under funding, costs, poverty levels, and government policies. The economic barriers described by the doctoral respondents were very similar to the barriers described by the master's degree respondents. Doctoral participants described the properties of inadequate infrastructure, materialism, and poor international exposure. While one doctoral respondent stated the, "Infrastructure is a barrier to leadership," another, described materialism, saying,

The society is becoming too materialistic, with more emphasis in getting rich quickly. This reduces the effectiveness of educational leaders. The educational leaders are caught up in the same drive and lose their vision.

Describing poor broad exposure, a doctoral respondent spoke of "Poor international exposure. Education is increasingly globalized and there is need for funding to increase the global elements to complement the local needs." Another simply cited, "Poor pay to university teachers." One master's degree respondent described under funding and said, "In Niger Delta, the barriers are funding" Another respondent stated,

Since I am presently registered in a doctoral program in educational leadership, there is no barrier except the high cost of paying for the education out of pocket or the loans that await me when the program is completed.

While one master's degree expatriate complained of, "Government policies and little incentive," another described the poverty level as an economic barrier.

Many students do not have enough motivation due to lack of role models. Again the poverty level of most families has also contributed to the limitation of those students who would have acquired such leadership skills. The scope of education in the Niger Delta in terms of educational materials and technological resources is limited. The lecturers are not well paid and sometimes they are owed for months, thus they lack the motivation to teach or lead.

The third category consisted of environmental barriers to leadership that interfered with life in the universities, such as atmospheric conditions, food chains, and the water cycle. These included falling quality, lack of properly equipped facilities, and greed. Doctoral and bachelor's degree respondents described the environmental barriers. A doctoral participant saw that, "Quality of educational is falling . . ." whereas a bachelor's respondent complained of, "Lack of properly equipped facilities, national greed . . ."

The fourth category consisted of ethnic leadership barriers that are distinguished by institutional cultural heritage, customs, language, and common history. These included dysfunctional technology labs, political appointee, discouraging government, lack of periodicals, lack of personnel, neglect, and the admission process. Using various participants' words: ". . . leaders are political appointees . . .", there is, "Lack of encouragement from the government," "Lack of periodicals . . .," "Lack of personnel necessary for motivation is a great barrier," and, "Neglect of educational institutions and poor wages to lecturers, selection of students or admission of students based on bribe instead of qualification . . ."

Research Question #4

How have these postgraduates responded to their perceptions of effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta?

Response (R). In the emergent model presented here, if one moves downward from the core story, the next ring is response, which is affected by the core story and comprises the perceived responses to the leading qualities of the Nigerian educational leaders in the universities. Verbal responses to effective leaders, verbal responses to non-effective leaders, positive action responses to effective leaders, and negative action responses to non-effective leaders made up the properties and dimensions of this fourth construct to the perceived leading qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta. Verbal responses were those concerned with words as distinguished from facts, ideas, or actions. These responses to

effective leaders were described as admiring, encouragement, belief, pity, open to advice, and recognition.

One doctoral respondent used the word, “Admire,” while another stated, “I have tried in the past to encourage good leadership – have also given group talk to faculty members.” A third stated, “I strongly believe that effective leadership quality is non-existence in Nigeria.” Master’s and bachelor’s degree respondents described the properties and dimensions of pity, being open to advice, and recognition. A master’s degree participant described,

Mixed feelings. First, with admiration for the courage they express in doing that in spite of the adverse forces to encourage them and try to emulate their good examples in my own context. Second, with pity for they do not get the support they need to make any significant impact

A bachelor’s degree respondent said, “I recognize the fact that they are struggling to achieve much in a system that is grossly under funded.” Verbal responses to non-effective leaders also included talking about the problem, finding ways for improvement, amazement, surprise, astonishment, and disappointment. One master’s degree responded, “By talking about the problem and finding ways for improvement,” and another stated,

I am amazed, surprised, astonished and disappointed. On the one hand, more needed to be done to eradicate the culture of eldership so that future leaders are free from bias, greed, corruption and self-glorification. On the other hand, leaders in Nigeria turn to condone little or no suggestion, as they feel superior to any opinion even if they are wrong.

Positive actions in response to effective leaders were shown by learning, supporting the cause, contributing money, welcoming, emulation, teaching, training others, donating books, suggestions, compliments, publication, and telling others. A doctoral respondent said: “. . . try to learn from educational leaders that effective.” Another doctoral respondent stated, “I have responded by supporting the cause of university teachers by contributing money to support them when they were fighting for salary increase.” Other respondents indicated that they were able to respond to effective leaders by welcoming and emulating them as well as teaching those qualities

to their students. Other actions came not only through training of others and being open to advice and suggestions and giving these leaders compliments, but also by donations of books. A master's respondent stated,

As a former . . . member and executive member of Niger Delta Diaspora organizations in the . . . I with others have organized summits to discuss leadership and to make recommendation to these leaders who were invited and did attend. In other instances resources have been made available in areas of technology and books to support positive effort in the Niger Delta.

For those expatriates who knew there had been ineffective educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region, recompense may have been made:

Within the last ten to fifteen years, individual, I have trained over two dozens students in post secondary education. Nearly half of these are still in the educational system.

In discussing ineffective educational leaders who might refuse training, one expatriate found:

In my interactions with leaders in Niger Delta, when and where there is commitment to the welfare of the school and students, positive results take place.

One expatriate wrote that he would respond to perceived effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta region "...by being open to advice and suggestions, and emulating those qualities perceived as effective in leadership." For these expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, complimentary attitudes were ways of recognizing and encouraging the unique effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region. The ability to draw compliments may be what is unique to effective educational leaders in the Niger Delta region.

The expatriates who participated in this study were also asked six Likert-type questions. Table 13 shows the leadership qualities of educational leaders and details of the participants' agreement and disagreement.

Table 13

Presence of Identified Leadership Qualities in Nigerian Educational Leaders

A = Agree

D = Disagree

SA = Strongly agree

SD = Strongly disagree

N/A = Not available

Participants	Motivation	Vision	Inspiration	Collaboration	Trust	Focus
Ed.D.	D	D	D	D	SD	A
Ph.D.	D	D	D	SD	D	SD
Ph.D.	D	A	D	D	D	D
Ph.D.	A	A	SA	D	A	D
Ph.D.	D	D	A	A	D	A
Ph.D.	D	D	D	D	D	A
Ph.D.	D	D	D	D	D	D
Ph.D.	D	D	D	D	SD	A
Ph.D.	D	D	D	A	D	D
MD	A	D	A	A	D	A
Ph.D.	D	D	D	A	A	A
MA	A	A	A	A	A	A
MA	D	D	D	SD	SD	SD
MA	A	D	A	D	A	A
MA	A	A	A	SA	D	SD
MA	A	A	A	D	A	SD
MA	A	A	A	A	A	A
MA	D	A	A	D	D	D
MA	D	D	A	SD	SD	SD
MA	A	A	A	A	A	A
MA	A	A	D	D	D	D
MA	D	D	SD	SD	D	SD
BA+	A	D	A	A	D	D

Table 13 (continued)

BA+	A	A	D	D	A	A
BA+	A	A	A	A	A	A
BA+	A	A	A	A	D	A
BA+	D	D	N/A	D	D	A

Table 14 shows the leadership qualities of educational leaders, and percentages of participants who agreed and those who disagreed.

Table 14

Presence of Perceived Positive Leadership Qualities of Educational Leaders.

S/N	Leadership qualities	% that agreed	% that disagreed
1.	Motivation	48	51
2.	Vision	55	44
3.	Inspiration	50	42
4.	Collaboration	37	44
5.	Trustworthy	33	51
6.	Focus	51	25

Only 48% strongly agreed that educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta were skilled motivators, whereas 51% strongly disagreed. Fifty-five percent of the respondents disagreed with the statement that educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta had a clear vision of where the university organization was headed. When considering inspiration as another leadership quality, respondents noted that 50% strongly agreed that educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta inspired others or influenced how they thought, acted, or accomplished goals, while 42% strongly disagreed.

Collaboration was also evaluated. Over 44% strongly disagreed that educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta felt comfortable asking their students' and assistants' opinions and

ideas about projects, but 37% felt positively about this quality in their educational leaders. Over 51% of the respondents disagreed that most educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta were trustworthy. Expatriates' responses concerning the term, "focus," were decidedly mixed. While 51% of the respondents agreed that educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta ask "what" rather than "who" went wrong when faced with an unexpected problem, over 25% disagreed that this was the case. An additional, 22% strongly disagreed that educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta were focused on the issue rather than on the person involved when faced with an unexpected problem.

Furthermore, expatriates talked about reasons for their action responses to effective leading qualities. One expatriate recalled that he began to think that ordinary contributions in any little way would add to a better future and adequate leadership. "I believe that the future could always be better, and, could begin even with my little contributions," he wrote. Another expatriate said that responding to leadership was such a life-transforming event that it was impossible to be silent. Because of it, he had, "The urge to speak out."

Positive responses in action to non-effective leaders included writing articles, publications, writing newspaper articles, furnishing a library with books, giving feedback, contributing, learning, consulting, and being involved in dialogue. Said a master's degree respondent

Through . . . discussions, both formal and informal and through use of the web (Internet forum) I and others have written and or pointed out non-effectiveness in leadership qualities, making such information public while making recommendations for change.

Several respondents also described their negative responses in action to non-effective leaders, the universities in the Niger Delta region. These responses were avoidance, feeling demoralized, feeling overwhelmed, feeling awful, expressing regret and resentment, being defensive, feeling lost, and being sad and sick. A doctoral degree expatriate responded, "With resentment and by being defensive and tuning out their messages," while a bachelor's degree respondent was, "Very sad but hoping for changes in the near future." A master's degree respondent stated,

I perceive it with regrets that in this 21st century, and given who we are and what we have, and looking at the future, Niger Delta still lacks adequate and effective educational leadership qualities. The absence of leadership qualities in education spells doom for the abundant resources we have and the entire community. It means a bleak or no future at all. I try my best to see how and what I can contribute to upset the non-effective leadership qualities. Two of such are learning/developing and translating into action within my context of the leadership qualities.

Like perceived impacts, perceived barriers to the leadership of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta were repeated mistakes, a difficult environment, political appointments, difficulty attracting qualified leaders, bad impressions, and difficulty in the region. One participant, a doctoral respondent, noted,

New leaders are following the missteps of their mentors, responsible leaders find it difficult to work in these environments and so the system is not attracting quality leaders. Educational leadership appointments are most of the time based on political or ethnic affiliation rather than ability.

Many of these expatriates were prompted to respond to the perceived impacts and barriers posed by the leadership qualities of their former educational leaders by different factors. A doctoral respondent described concern as a factor,

My concern for the deterioration of educational infrastructure in the Niger Delta as compared to other parts of Nigeria. In addition, rampant corruption and misappropriation of funds are cause for concern.

A master's degree respondent referring to family as a factor said,

Family upbringing and being a person who is self motivated. Having parental role model that is inspiring does help too.

A bachelor's degree respondent spoke of experience as a factor, specifically, "Personal experience." Despite the gains that these expatriates experienced outside the Niger Delta region – conscientiousness, innovativeness, improved quality, investment, more resources, timely graduation, support, and advancing in their professional disciplines – most of them described

their own experiences within the Niger Delta region as what cultivated their value for hard work.

Said a doctoral degree respondent,

My university experience was fairly good, we had very good devoted teachers. Although we lacked modern equipment like computers online courses because they were very few at that time but were trained to value hard work. As a result we can cope anywhere.

Evidence was provided to suggest that expatriates who agreed to participate in this study were attentive to the barriers created by leaders in the Niger Delta region. However, because they were willing to discuss the barriers both positively and negatively, they left a significant impression of the Niger Delta region. The barriers that expatriate Nigerian postgraduates faced were also the barriers that Nigerian educational leaders faced in the region.

Summary of Chapter Findings

This chapter described the different perceptions 27 expatriate Nigerian postgraduates had of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted on their own acquired leadership skills. How they perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders, how they perceived the impact of these qualities on their acquired leadership skills, how they perceived the barriers these qualities presented for their acquired leadership skills, and how they responded to these qualities, impacts, and barriers, were analyzed and presented as four identified patterns or constructs. Discussion, conclusions, and recommendations are presented in Chapter 5 of the study.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The use of inductive qualitative and quantitative descriptive closed-ended questions for this study allowed the researcher to explore the perceptions seen in the individual responses of the participants in the study. Through this inductive process, the core story “Leadership Qualities” emerged from the relationship among constructs evident in the data.

The return rate of Nigerians who studied and obtained Ph.D.s in foreign countries was critically disappointing in 1999 (Pires, Kassimir, & Brhane). In 2005, David-West maintained that of all the foreign groups in the U.S., Nigeria had the highest number of Ph.D.s. Furthermore, there was no critical mass of scholars left in Nigeria, and because of this “brain-drain,” Nigeria was left disadvantaged (West, 2005). Increases in the number of expatriates in other countries indicated a corresponding decrease in the number wishing to return home to Nigeria. Seeking to understand how Nigerian expatriates perceived the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta was one way of seeking to discover the reasons for the increased number of expatriates. It was hoped that obtaining the expatriates’ perceptions of the educational leaders they encountered in Nigeria would offer hints to some of the reasons for the increasing and numbers of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

This chapter (a) relates findings from the study to the research questions, (b) relates findings to the literature reviewed, (c) considers the validity issues, (d) presents conclusions, (e) makes recommendations for practice, and (f) offers recommendations for future research.

The researcher constructed a theoretical model in order to represent the ways in which the participants in this sample described their perceptions of leadership qualities of educational leaders and the impact of those qualities on their own acquired leadership skills. The study participants can be described as a group of postgraduates who are full of initiatives in the face of

obstacles and are hard working in their professional lives. These participants primarily relied on leadership qualities of their favorite leaders to assess their success as well as the success of other leaders. These expatriates have had to deal with their perceptions of corruption, poor pay, ethnicity, inadequate infrastructure, poverty within the Niger Delta, and diversity, differences, racism, and challenges outside the Niger Delta. They see their personal and professional lives as linked. These expatriates are strongly concerned about the Niger Delta region, and they have a sense of the perception of their leaders in the world. They are motivated to see the Niger Delta region change in a positive way through their own positive initiatives and concerns.

Relationship of Findings to Research Questions

Relating this model to research questions suggests one way in which qualitative research can be used to understand the perceptions of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta by three groups of Nigerian expatriates, doctoral degree respondents (11), masters' degree respondents (11), and bachelor's degrees with other professional certificate's respondents (5). Another way to examine how qualitative research can be used to enhance knowledge of expatriates is by focusing on five sections of their lives. Strauss and Corbin (1998) point out that the central question in a grounded study is very broad in the beginning of the study; and, as the analysis progresses, it narrows in scope. The defining focus for the current study was leadership qualities. The central question was "What is the impact of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates?" This was narrowed down to four research questions, which were considered as four sections.

Section one considered the perceived impacts of leadership qualities of educational leaders on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates (ILQELALSENP). Subsets included four items: (a) their university experience in the Niger Delta, (b) their experience outside Niger Delta, (c) the perceived impact of the leadership qualities of Nigerian

education leaders on them, and (d) their perception of the leadership qualities of their favorite Nigerian educational leaders. Section two, the BLQELALSENP section, concentrated on the perceived barriers to their acquisition of leadership skills.

In the third section, ENPRPLQEL, the expatriates shared three items: (a) their responses to perceived effective leadership qualities, (b) responses to perceived non-effective leadership qualities, and (c) their motivations in making their responses. They discussed positive impacts of perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in the last (ENPRPIPLQEL) section. There were two subsets: (1) their positive responses to perceived influences of leadership qualities on their acquisition of leadership skills and their motivations in making their responses. And (2) the perceived barriers that Nigerian educational leaders' qualities presented to the expatriates' (ENPRPBPLQEL) acquisition of their own leadership skills and their motivations in making their responses.

The four research questions in this study were grounded in the literature about leadership and perception of the leadership qualities. The purpose of this study was to ascertain what Nigerian expatriate postgraduates perceived to be the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted their acquired leadership skills. Answering the research questions gave clarity to the findings and their relationship to the literature. It is after exploring each research question that the central question is addressed.

Research Question #1

What do the expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceive to be the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria?

This question originated from the works of the Nigerian novelist and social critic Achebe (1984) and on writings that focused on the brain drain in Nigeria (Akomas, 2006; Oji, 2005; Pires et.al, 1999; West, 2005). This research question guided the analysis of what it was that

expatriate Nigerians perceived to be the leadership qualities of educational leaders. The leadership qualities perceived by participants were both positive and negative. These qualities might have been the leading influences that led the three groups of the expatriates to be positive in their professional decisions, as well as to develop a negative outlook on things.

Doctoral degree respondents (11) perceived leading qualities, favorable qualities, and effective qualities of leaders as they impacted their acquisition of leadership skills. They felt that some of these qualities were “encouraging and supportive” to them whereas some were “excessively driven by concern for money.” The ways in which leadership qualities both inside and outside of the Niger region positively influenced the expatriates’ acquisition of leadership skills. These ways were perceived to occur through (a) discipline, (b) ability to pursue goals, (c) convictions, (d) desiring to be something in life, (e) having mentors, (f) hard work, (g) loyalty, and (h) developing coping skills. Their reasons for mentioning these influences were to acknowledge advantages of leadership qualities, experience, sacrifices, altruism, and advocacy. Leading qualities, both positive and negative, stimulated doctoral respondents through their experiences both within and outside the Niger Delta region to be among the more dynamic and highly motivated learners in a high standard but racially charged environment.

Master’s degree respondents (11) perceived favorable and effective leading qualities as those that “could inspire others (students)” depending upon the situation. The leading qualities, also included negative qualities like “greed” and being driven “by a culture of eldership.” These expatriates indicated that leadership qualities did have some positive influence on the acquisition of their leadership skills and perceived these skills to be developed through (a) teaching method, (b) good use of time, (c) publications, (d) developing alternative skills, (e) hard work, and (f) adapting to changes. The reasons given for acquiring these skills were the expatriates’ desire for improvement in the region, working with western methods of teaching, insight, gratitude, adequate human resources, and vision. For the expatriates with master’s degrees, favorable and effective leading qualities impacted the acquisition of their own leadership skills through their

experiences within and outside the Niger Delta region and through both positive and negative experiences. The impact came through strikes and an environment of unrest in the Niger Delta to the technologically opportune and timely graduation environment outside the region.

Those with bachelor's degrees and other professional certificates' (5) perceived favorable and effective leading qualities as those through which leaders "command respect." Those who did not command respect subscribed to "believe in bribery of varied forms for success." These expatriates indicated that there were ways in which the Nigerian educational leaders had a positive influence on the acquisition of their leadership skills. Their own skills were developed through (a) helpful resources, (b) accepting differences, (c) focusing on careers, and (d) studying abroad. The reasons given for this development were their determination, personal experience, productivity, and self-discovery. For the expatriates with bachelor's degrees, favorable, and effective leading qualities also impacted the acquisition of their leadership skills through their positive and negative experiences within and outside the Niger Delta region. The impact came through enduring the overcrowded lecture halls in the Niger Delta to an environment outside the region where their needs were met.

Leading qualities from their favorite leaders were the core qualities expressed by the Nigerian expatriate postgraduates. Leadership was perceived as coming from the core leading qualities of trust, humility, knowledge, availability, patience, open-mindedness, love, and listening.

Leading qualities of favorite leaders were very important to expatriates. An environment that was trustworthy appeared to motivate many initiatives by the participants. Trustworthiness made positive contributions to their learning and, motivated them to pursue educational goals. Other core leading qualities that positively influenced the expatriates were humility, knowledge, being available, being patients, having an open mind, showing love, and being able to listen. Closely tied to these core qualities were those positive leadership qualities of encouragement,

support, inspiration, vision, strength, integrity, learnedness, devotion, innovation, creativity, resilience, motivation, dedication, and respect.

In contrast to the positive qualities of the leaders, the negative qualities tended to hinder the participants' education. The negative qualities that the expatriates perceived were being myopic, autocratic, authoritative, self-centered, arrogant, conceited, pompous, showing self-imposition, being greedy, being dictatorial, and being involved in embezzlement.

Core leadership qualities of the participants depended on their identification of favorable leadership qualities with leaders. Negative leadership qualities that were perceived to hinder participants' education tended to be related to the educational leaders who were not their favorite leaders. These negative qualities might have had either an explicit or implicit impact on the education of the participants. They might also have posed barriers to the participants in their professional lives and in their acquisition of leadership skills. All of the negative leadership qualities were attributed consistently to a lack of trust. The consistent core positive leading quality identified by the participants was trust. Other positive leadership qualities originated from trustworthiness.

Research Question #2

To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that their acquired leadership skills have been impacted by the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta?

The second research question directly targeted the powers or "outcomes" resulting from the positive or negative leadership qualities of educational leaders in the region that produced changes or that moved the feelings of the participants in either the positive or negative direction. The assumption was that individuals were impacted differently by different leadership qualities. The analysis for this research question explored the perceived produced impacts on the participants by the leadership qualities of their educational leaders.

Doctoral degree respondents (11) perceived outcomes from ineffectiveness among leaders, including social, environmental, and economic outcomes. Social outcomes included strikes, strictness, favoritism, lack of innovations, staleness, and structural constraints in universities and were seen to have a serious impact on the expatriates' acquisition of leadership skills. Negative economic impacts of leadership qualities of educators were perceived as corruption and scarce funding. On one hand, educational leaders "brought about corruption, especially in the form of buying and selling of grades," but the expatriates half-excused this behavior because "funding is scarce while educational needs are very high."

Master's degree respondents (11) perceived ineffectiveness brought about by feelings of hopelessness, disrespect, the presence of secret cults, and lack of motivation. These expatriates stated that there was a "sense of hopelessness." They indicated that "there is power imbalance and little respect for students' rights." In addition, these expatriates indicated that there was "the persistence of what should not be heard of in the universities, like secret cult activity, that receive more attention from some faculty or staff members and students."

Bachelor's degrees and other professional certificates respondents (5) perceived ineffective leadership was shown in what they discussed as bribery, intimidation, half-baked graduates, and studies abroad being exclusive to privileged families. These expatriates reported "grades determined for the most part by bribery in cash or kind." They indicated that "some educational leaders take it upon themselves to intimidate and punish their students without any justification."

For the participants in the study, the perceived produced impacts appeared to be both positive and negative. The perceived positive produced impacts occurred when participants looked up to their educational leaders who showed approachability, accessibility, and promotion of learning. Being able to approach their educational leaders made it possible for their problems to be discussed and their educational needs to be spoken about, whether they were addressed or

not. Access to facilities in the school became possible and, ultimately, this occasioned an environment that promoted good learning.

On the other hand, the perceived negatively produced impacts were from corruption, lack of innovations, staleness, an eroding value system, lack of foresight, scarce funding, disrespect for students' rights, deprivation, oppression, secret cults, and extortion, which bred self-centeredness, hopelessness, intimidation, disinterestedness, sending family abroad, and "half-baked graduates." The negative qualities created a change in the participants' emotional patterns. Comparatively, the number of perceived positively produced impacts was smaller than the perceived negatively produced impacts. It was possible that few educational leaders did not produce these negative impacts, but because there were many negatives mentioned, it is likely that many educational leaders exhibited these negative leadership qualities. As a consequence, their negative leadership qualities shaped and impacted the lives of the participants. For most participants, their well being, and their educational success depended on having educational leaders they could look up to for guidance. Those leaders with positive qualities were able to create this impact.

Research Question #3

To what extent, if any, do these postgraduates perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta have posed a barrier to acquiring leadership skills?

The third research question directly targeted the determinants or "any" leadership qualities that hindered or prevented effective educational leadership. The assumption was that certain attributes or qualities of educational leaders in the region posed barriers to expatriates desiring to acquire leadership skills. The analysis for this research question explored the perceived barriers to the participants produced by the leadership qualities of their educational leaders.

Davis (2004) included perceived susceptibility, severity, action efficacy, self-efficacy, cues for action, social acceptability, and divine will as perceived barriers. Doctoral degree respondents (11) perceived barriers identified from the emerging themes as barriers that impacted their acquisition of leadership skills. These expatriates saw inadequate infrastructure, difficulty attracting quality leaders, materialism, poor pay, and lack of survival rules as barriers encountered by their educational leaders. “Yes, inadequate infracstrcure [sic] is a great barrier as you need mordern [sic] tools to work with. For example, these questions that I am answering now can not be done an environment without adequate supply of electricity.” There were instances in which these expatriates perceived that educational leaders did not think that lack of adequate infrastructure, quality leaders, and good pay was serious.

Masters’ degree respondents saw political appointments, time wasting, a broken system, under-funding, conformity, lack of personnel, not being in the right place, poverty levels, not-well-paid, “man know man” philosophy, custodian of knowledge, poor infrastructure, and corruption at all levels of life as barriers. These expatriates saw that “Leaders are political appointees that may not be qualified to lead universities,” and “as such they don’t see any need to waste their time with students.” If they were in “conformity to the status quo,” whether a person was qualified or skilled, did not matter because people were put in positions of leadership based on “man know man.” The social norm was that the interests of politicians mattered and “the interests of the people or students” were unimportant. Others saw the limited resources and related them to the “poverty level of most families” in the region.

Bachelor’s-degree and other professional certificates respondents described ethnicity, lack of properly equipped facilities, limited exposure, not being worthy, poor examples, government, wanton looting, and selfishness as barriers. These expatriates thought that ethnicity was socially accepted in the Niger Delta region. They described, “Partial justice due to one’s ethnicity in the region,” and “there’s so much ethnicity within the university system that elevation within the system is not based on merit.” In addition, poor leadership was seen as

obvious when the actions government and educational leaders promoted were not perceived as good examples. “Government policies do not recognize leadership training as important,” and “very few of such perceived leaders live by example.”

For the participants in the study, the perceived barriers were classified into four categories: (1) social leadership barriers, (2) economic leadership barriers, (3) environmental leadership barriers, and (4) ethnic leadership barriers. Social leadership barriers, which hindered universities from having staff and students stay together, produced lack of care, diversion of finances, poor remuneration, disinterestedness, lack of adherence to the rule of law, family disenchantment, resistance to change, mismanagement, and selfishness. Participants understood that care and interest were the basic societal supports that biological, spiritual, and educational “families” provide. They understood also that lack of caring brings about several negative consequences. Economic leadership barriers, which hindered universities’ management of income and expenditures and satisfaction of the material needs of these institutions, included inadequate infrastructure, materialism, poor pay, poor international exposure, under funding, cost, poverty level, and government policies. The participants determined that poverty was what deprived institutions and individuals of the basic satisfaction of their material needs.

Environmental barriers were hindrances that influenced life in the universities, including atmospheric conditions, food chains, and the water cycle. For the participants, these produced the falling quality of education, lack of properly equipped facilities, and greediness. Finally, the participants perceived ethnic leadership barriers as hindrances to groups in universities that were distinguished by an institutional cultural heritage, customs, language, and a common history. These were manifested by the dysfunctional technology labs, political appointees, discouraging government, lack of periodicals, lack of personnel, neglect, and the admission process of these institutions.

Research Question #4

How have these postgraduates responded to their perceptions of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta?

The fourth research question was designed to discover from the participants something they did, were doing, and perhaps were envisaging doing either to affirm the effective leadership qualities or discourage the ineffective leadership qualities.

Doctoral degree respondents (11) said that positive leadership qualities of educational leaders stimulated support and financial contributions. These expatriates stated they “responded by supporting the cause of university teachers by contributing money to support them when they [sic] were fighting for salary increase.” They admired, learned similar qualities, encouraged, and emulated the leaders whose qualities had the positive impact on their skills. They claimed that they “welcome any demonstration of effective leadership and will encourage it.” Again, they noted that they have “tried not only to emulate the good qualities of those effective leaders,” but they also sought “to teach students the same.” On the other hand, one expatriate stated that he responded to negative attributes with avoidance. “I avoid those qualities that I perceive are ineffective.” Another responded with a feeling of demoralization, resentment, and defense. “I share those ‘aweful’ experiences with my students and tell them to avoid doing that when they eventually come along.” Another expatriate expressed resentment toward the leaders and became defensive by “tuning out their messages.” Several expatriates claimed to “write articles” about the perceived negative attributes of the educational leaders in the Niger Delta region.

Few negative attributes in response to the impact of leadership qualities on their acquired leadership skills were discussed by expatriates with master’s degrees (11). Provision of books was seen as a way of educating people interested in learning who had no resources. Responses to negative leadership qualities included furnishing a library with books, “our goal to furnish a library and give access to student and lectures with modern books to foster knowledge.” Some of the expatriates who were upset about “the non-effective leadership qualities,” responded by

talking about the problem,” “finding ways for improvement,” publication, and being involved in training students in “post secondary education.”

Bachelor’s degree and other professional certificates’ respondents (5) described positive attributes of leadership that motivated them. These expatriates told others about their former educators survival in an environment with little resources. “I recognize the fact that they are struggling to achieve much in a system that is grossly under funded.” These expatriates saw the educational system in the Niger Delta as “sick” and “needs to be re-energized.” They were motivated to respond to negative qualities with actions such as “writing newspaper articles,” “consultations,” and “dialogue.”

For the participants in the study, responses were comprised of verbal responses to effective leaders, verbal responses to non-effective leaders, positive responses in action to effective leaders, and negative responses in action to non-effective leaders. For the participants, their verbal responses to effective leaders were shown in their admiration of these leaders, their encouragement given to the leaders, their believing in them, and showing pity for them when they were doing their best in the midst of poor salaries. Additionally, the leaders were found to be open to advice and the participants gave them recognition for their efforts. Participants’ verbal responses to non-effective leaders were to talk to others about the problem of the region and to initiate finding ways for improvement. They expressed their amazement, surprise, astonishment, and disappointment at the leadership qualities of some of these educational leaders.

Participants’ positive action responses to effective leaders were shown in their willingness to learn from them, to support their cause by contributing money, to welcome them, and to emulate them. Other participants volunteered to teach and do training of others to facilitate their educational services, as well as to donate books, make suggestion, give them compliments, publish, and tell others about the region. On the other hand, their negative action responses to non-effective leaders were shown by avoidance, feeling of demoralization, feeling

overwhelmed, feeling awful, expressing regrets, and resentment about the region. They became defensive, felt lost, sick, and expressed sadness about the educational system in the region.

Analysis of the four research questions allowed for consideration of the data from four different perspectives. An analysis of the interrelationships among the expatriates' perceptions and their perceived ability for leadership in three different continents were important. Furthermore, an analysis of the data in relation to literature was also important in helping to answer the central question of the study.

Relationship of Findings to the Literature

Relating this model with existing leadership literature is one way that qualitative research can be used to enhance knowledge of leadership theories. In particular, the results of this study illustrate ways in which expatriate Nigerian postgraduates perceived and responded to leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta region. The literature presented various theories of leadership: trait (Black, 2006); skills (Katz, 1955; Mumford & Connely, 1991); contingency (Fiedler, 1967); situational (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969); transactional (Burns, 1978; Schein, 1985); transformational (Bass, 1990; Burns, 1978) among others. Although the participants in this study appear somewhat similar to respondents described in the literature on leadership qualities, their culturally related background and behaviors differ from those typical to respondents in the literature. This study indicated that participants did not need to disown their national affiliation in order to perceive and express negative qualities of effective leadership. In particular, these expatriates did not appear to mute their national affiliation in order to discuss perceived leadership qualities, and they expressed explicit attributes (e.g., initiative, courage, encouragement, and interest) that contrasted with the busy lifestyles of the professional worker and the student.

Relating the findings of the data to the research questions and the literature presents an answer to the central question, "What is the impact of the leadership qualities of educational

leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates?” Fear is central to the negative leadership qualities of educational leaders and was a consistent barrier perceived by the participants. Minor impacts were anger, restlessness, and alienation.

In previous historical data on Nigeria, the country did have something to say about the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region as they impacted the leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates from the region. Often a superficial reading of the history of Nigeria is unable to fully reveal the impact of the creation of the country into four regions by Britain during the country’s colonization. The researcher expected to ascertain how the division impacted the Niger Delta region positively in relation to its economic, social, environmental, and educational development. The researcher saw that the division greatly favored the Northern region that was geographically occupied by the Muslims. The division by Britain during its colonization was politically motivated. The researcher supposed this political motivation enabled them to consult the Northern leaders in matters related to government and control of the country. In subsequent years, with the country’s independence, Britain had paved the way for the Northern leaders to take over the political affairs of the country. The researcher understood that in those subsequent years of various regimes in the country, those major state creations in 1967 and 1997 from 4 regions in 1963 into 12, into 19, and 36 states were to diffuse the political tension in the country. The researcher expected the Niger Delta region to have greater number of states and federal universities because the region produces the country’s oil wealth and other natural resources. Appendices D, E, F, G, and J have shown this perception was not true.

Previous leadership studies did not address the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region as they impacted the leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. Often a respondent outside a culture or geographical region is unable to fully appreciate how qualities of particular cultures impact perceptions. The researcher expected to ascertain how trait theory impacted the perception of the leadership qualities by expatriate Nigeria postgraduates. The researcher has seen and heard about educational leaders who were born with exceptional characteristics who were not effective leaders. There have been other educational leaders who have been very skillful and with better teaching styles. Yet, the researcher has identified them as not effective leaders. The researcher supposed their skills and styles helped them as educators to remember what they taught. Likewise, in contingency and situational leadership theories emphasizing adaptation and situations, the researcher also expected educational leaders to be effective leaders because the situation in the Niger Delta region called for it. This was not perceived to be true.

The researcher expected the comparative analysis of the expatriates in the three continents to reveal the perceived effective leadership qualities of educational leaders to be transformational. The positive impact of transformational leadership qualities should have influenced the expatriates' perception of and willingness to lead. The leadership qualities of a transformational leader were seen as transformational by the expatriates and they seemed to positively impact the acquisition of leadership skills. There is the possibility that these expatriates may also lead by becoming role models for followers, communicating high expectations, and helping followers to question their assumptions. The researcher's ongoing analysis of the narrative studies revealed that expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perception of leadership qualities such as motivation, vision, inspiration, collaboration, problem-solving, trustworthiness, and focus were particular qualities that impacted the acquisition of their

leadership skills. The reason is because these qualities promote favorable and effective leadership that reduce ineffectiveness and perceived barriers and bring about positive outcomes and responses.

This sense of initiative is, in fact, the overall theme that permeates the overall constructs of the model, clearly indicating the eagerness on the part of the expatriates to do something about the leadership situation in the Niger Delta region. For example, the core leadership qualities describing the favorite leaders of these expatriates reflect the initiatives and bases of effective leadership in any organization. The expatriates do not view their current continents of residence as separating them from their past educational experiences in the Niger Delta region, nor do they claim their present experiences outside the Niger Delta to be devoid of the region as their root. For most of these participants, their perspective is influenced by their collective expatriate experience in African, European, and North American climates.

The theme of initiative also is found in the portion of the model that describes response; here again these expatriates demonstrate their initiative to do something in words and in action, particularly in their strong initiative to learn, support the cause, contribute money, welcome, emulate, teach, train, donate books, suggest, and compliment effective leaders. Equally, the initiative is seen also in their responses to non-effective leaders, particularly in talking about the problems and finding ways for improvement. Despite obstacles due to multiple leadership barriers, these expatriates demonstrated initiatives to end barriers, reduce negative impacts, and improve the region.

In summary, by using qualitative research methods to study the perceptions of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates, the researcher discovered ways these leadership qualities were seen as impacting acquisition of leadership skills. The theory generated was compared to existing theory on effective leadership using leadership from other settings. This theory will be used to develop educational leadership workshops for the universities in the Niger Delta region. The ultimate

goal of improved leadership qualities in the universities in the Niger Delta region improving educational leaders' enthusiasm for – and learning of, the leadership qualities basic to leading.

The expatriates exercise constant educational leadership roles to find ways to bring about improvement to the region. The four perspectives, leading qualities, perceived produced impacts, perceived barriers, and responses present the expatriates' initiatives for effective leadership qualities.

Discussion of the Validity Issues

Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates who resided in three continents were from the states comprising the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Those who had different perspectives and opinions of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities were intentionally selected. Was there a sufficient number of participants from each of the three continents? Were the data biased because of those selected to be interviewed? The participants were Nigerian postgraduates who were: (a) known to have attained a postgraduate academic qualification or were currently enrolled, (b) known to be residing outside Nigeria, (c) known to reside in one of the countries in Africa, Europe, or North America, (d) both known and unknown by the researcher, (e) some known to be outspokenly critical of Nigerian leadership in general, (f) some who were identified as feeling positive about the educational leadership in the Niger Delta region, (g) who had attended both public and private schools in the Niger Delta. In essence, those sought were expatriate Nigerian postgraduates some of whom felt no positive benefit from the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria as well as those who felt positively about the educational leadership.

Most Nigerian postgraduates in most schools, both national and international, are males so the majority of the postgraduates being males did not threaten validity. To make participants comfortable and frank in their responses, they were assured of confidentiality in responding. To balance responses, the postgraduates were asked to give all the leadership qualities that they

claimed their favorite educational leaders exhibited as well as those they thought were not helpful. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates' perceptions and their reasons for those perceptions were accepted as true.

Conclusions

This study aimed at exploring how educational leaders at Nigerian universities in the Niger Delta are perceived in terms of their leadership qualities. The study was based on a survey of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. The findings provided insights into rich and varied experiences, which were conceptualized in four categories. The initial leading qualities (LQ) category was characterized by leadership qualities such as innovation, encouragement, arrogance, pomposity, and racism. Themes that generated this construct illustrate perceptions of transactional rather than transformational leadership behavior. More inclination to transactional leadership behaviors were illustrated under the perceived fear of leading qualities. Although the expatriates also described a range of favored qualities (FQ) such as trustworthiness, availability, compassion, punctuality, dedication, integrity, collaboration, and listening, to identify their favored educational leaders, anger emerged when these qualities were increasingly seen as absent.

The majority of the expatriates agreed that inspiration and focus were two leadership qualities perceived to be exhibited by effective leaders (EL) in the region. A lack in other qualities created a restlessness resulting from the idea that they were needed for an effective leader. The expatriates also described a range of leadership qualities that created an atmosphere of corruption, such as lack of vision and lack of foresight. These expatriates used such qualities to identify ineffective leaders (IL).

Several barriers, such as inadequate infrastructure, poor pay, broken systems, under funding, poverty, ethnocentricity, wanton looting, government, favoritism, and despotism were identified as perceived barriers (PB) in the region. Such perceived barriers could generate

strategies for expatriates to defend themselves. Expatriates also cited status quo, control, and authoritarianism as outcomes (O) of poor leadership qualities and felt shamed if leaders were no longer relevant in the technological era yet would not give up control. Poor salaries, political involvement, inadequate facilities, school closures, lack of periodicals, and the poverty level were seen as barriers faced by Nigerian educational leaders (SBNELF). These were considered disrespectful to the profession of education.

The expatriates responded (R) to perceived leadership qualities by giving compliments, support, and gratitude. Often, when they would respond with avoidance, it was because of ingratitude for their efforts to provide books, write newspaper articles, consult, and dialogue with leaders.

“Leadership quality” is a complex phenomenon that can have a tremendous effect on the lives of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. Perceptions of leadership qualities could provide information on how leadership traits, skills, and styles are shaped by many factors – culture, age, ethnicity, eldership, language, customs, climate, environment, clique, gender, and regionalization. Yet these perceptions are only part of the story. Leadership quality should be understood as a process involving an individual’s examination of self in the context of the past, present, and future. This conceptualization in an expatriate Nigerian postgraduate’s life can result in new ways of thinking, of acting in positions of leadership, and in resolving poverty and infrastructure issues in the educational system in the Niger Delta.

Recommendations to Improve

The findings of this study hold several implications for expatriate Nigerian postgraduates and educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Suggestions for practice are presented as follows:

Recommendations for Expatriate Nigerian Postgraduates

1. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should give more attention to providing inspiration and advocating focused attention as outstanding leadership qualities. They should communicate those leadership qualities to students in the Niger Delta region.
2. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should be more involved in actual leadership practices not just giving leadership advice in papers and words.
3. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should encourage collaboration and trust as the two leadership qualities whose lack caused most disapproval in their perceptions of Nigerian educational leaders.
4. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should place greater emphasis on perceived opportunities for the region and should accept the fact that expatriates' leadership advice alone does not solve problems of the Niger Delta region because they are given by expatriates.
5. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should take into account their familiarity with leadership qualities found in their continents of residence. If they know what they should do for the universities in the Niger Delta region, that does not necessarily mean that, given the opportunity, they provide leadership where they reside.
6. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should take into account their own desires for leadership in their continents of residence. Their wanting to see or introduce a particular leadership behavior in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, given the same context that occurred in their resident continent, does not guarantee that these postgraduates would act.
7. Expatriate Nigerian postgraduates should find ways that motivate educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria because many of the leadership qualities that educational leaders engage in are not necessary for leadership itself.

8. Find ways to increase funding for educational and political leaders so that Niger Delta leaders have motivation to reduce corruption.
9. Humility and collaboration seemed to be two of the major leadership qualities that may generate motivation for both expatriate and educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta. These seemed to become the foundation for other leadership qualities.

Recommendations for Educational Leaders in the Universities in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria

1. Educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta should develop leadership workshops designed to create the collaborating, trusting, and motivational leadership qualities that can be used by participants because if they care for the future of Nigeria, they will want to help all people, not just those who leave.
2. Educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta should support research regarding the nature of leadership styles peculiar to the culture of the region.
3. Educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta should support research into transformational leadership to enhance the leadership styles currently in use in the universities in the Niger Delta region.
4. Educational leaders at universities in the Niger Delta should publish results of research addressing leadership within all of the region's universities.

Recommendations for Further Research

The findings and conclusions of this study have raised the following questions, which could be addressed in future studies:

1. Research should be conducted on the nature of leadership of political leaders in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

2. This study should be replicated in the universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria asking the educational leaders to provide perceptions of leadership qualities of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.
3. This research method could be applied to expatriate graduates of universities in Nigeria's northern and western regions to measure how they perceive leadership qualities of those regions' educational leaders.
4. This research method could be applied to expatriate graduates of universities in Nigeria's northern and western regions to measure how they perceive leadership qualities of the regions' political leaders.
5. Another inquiry could measure the perceptions of Niger Delta postgraduates now living in Asia, South America, and Australia.
6. Research should be conducted to compare leadership qualities of educational leaders in private and public universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.
7. Leadership qualities at long-established Nigerian universities can be compared with those at the recently established institutions in the Niger Delta.
8. Research should be conducted to compare differences in leadership qualities of political leaders in all the regions of Nigeria.
9. Research should be conducted on Nigerian leadership traits, skills, and styles in the country's universities to determine if the use of these traits, skills, and styles impacts Nigerian achievement in the educational and political arenas.
10. The best educational practices listed could also be applied to the educational process in other countries, specifically in countries where their cultures make them possible.
11. Research should be conducted on educational leadership where participants interviewed are those inside Nigeria.

Burns (1978) reported that transformational leaders search for potential motives in followers, seek to satisfy followers' higher needs, and engage the full person of the follower. Bennis and Nanus (1985) identifying transformational leadership as the pivotal force behind successful organizations, referred to a transformative leader as "one who commits people to action, who converts followers into leaders, and who may convert leaders into agents of change" (p. 3). In addressing the need for leadership at the school level, Blank (1988) said:

School-level leadership is critical for the effective programs because the principal . . . must translate the program concept and design into an integrated curriculum delivered through a committed staff. The principal or coordinator is typically the person who generates interest and support for the . . . school in the community and who stimulates teachers to participate in developing an innovative approach to their work. . . . Principals should be chosen for their leadership skills and entrepreneurial abilities. (pp. 15-16)

The study of how Nigerian expatriates perceive leadership at universities within the Niger Delta offers opportunities for future inquiry. Through identifying positive leadership qualities practiced at Niger Delta universities, scholars can recognize ways educational leadership operates effectively within the region. Examination of such positive leadership practices can determine their impact on leadership skills of the region's postgraduates.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Number of Universities in Nigeria by 2005

Universities	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005
Federal Universities	16	17	17	17	17
Federal Universities of Technology	5	5	5	5	5
Federal Universities of Agriculture	3	3	3	3	3
Military University (NDA)	1	1	1	1	1
State Universities	17	19	19	21	25
Private Universities	4	7	8	8	24
Total	46	52	53	55	75

Source: National University Commission. Nigeria's Annual Abstract of Statistics, 2006.

Retrieved from http://nigerianstat.gov/ng/annual_reports/CHAPTER%206.doc on January 11, 2008.

APPENDIX B

Number of Universities in Nigeria by 2005 in Each of the Four Former Regions.

Universities	Northern	Western	Mid- Western	Eastern	Federal Capital Territory	Total
Federal Universities	6	4	1	5	1	17
Federal Universities of Technology	3	1	0	1	0	5
Federal Universities of Agriculture	1	1	0	1	0	3
Military University (NDA)	1	0	0	0	0	1
State Universities	9	5	2	9	0	25
Private Universities	6	12	3	3	0	24
Total	26	23	6	19	1	75

APPENDIX C

Federal Universities in Nigeria by 2005 in Each of the Four Former Regions.

Abbreviation	Name Institution	Location	Regions	Founded
ABU	Ahmadu Bello University	Zaria	Northern Region	1962
BAYERO	Bayero University	Kano	Northern Region	1975
UNILORIN	University of Ilorin	Ilorin	Northern Region	1975
UNI JOS	University of Jos	Jos	Northern Region	1975
MAIDUGURI	University of Maiduguri	Maiduguri	Northern Region	1975
UDU	Usman Dan Fodio University	Sokoto	Northern Region	1975
UNIBEN	University of Benin	Benin	Mid-Western Region	1970
UNIBAN	University of Ibadan	Ibadan	Western Region	1948
UNILAG	University of Lagos	Lagos	Western Region	1962
OAU	Obafemi Awolowo University	Osun	Western Region	1962
NOUN	National Open Univ. of Nigeria	Lagos	Western Region	2002
NAU	Nnamdi Azikiwe University	Awka	Eastern Region	1992
UNN	University of Nigeria	Nsukka	Eastern Region	1960
UNI PORT	University of Port Harcourt	Choba	Eastern Region	1975
UNICAL	University of Calabar	Calabar	Eastern Region	1975
UNIUYO	University of Uyo	Uyo	Eastern Region	1991
ABUJA	University of Abuja	Gwagwalada	Federal Capital	1988

Northern Region	=	6
Mid-Western Region	=	1
Western Region	=	4
Eastern Region	=	5
Federal Capital	=	1
	=	<u>17</u>

APPENDIX D

Federal Universities of Technology in Nigeria by 2005 in Each of the Four Former Regions.

Abbreviation	Name of Institution	Location	Regions	Founded
BAUCHI	Abubakar Tafawa Balewa University	Bauchi	Northern Region	1988
MINNA	Federal University of Technology	Minna	Northern Region	1982
YOLA	Federal University of Technology	Yola	Northern Region	1988
FUTA	Federal University of Technology	Akure	Western Region	1981
FUTO	Federal University of Technology	Owerri	Eastern Region	1980

Northern Region	=	3
Mid-Western Region	=	0
Western Region	=	1
Eastern Region	=	<u>1</u>
	=	<u>5</u>

APPENDIX E

Federal Universities of Agriculture and Military University in Nigeria by 2005 in Each of the
Four Former Regions.

Abbreviation	Name of Institution	Location	Regions	Founded
Makurdi	University of Agriculture	Makurdi	Northern Region	1988
Abeokuta	Federal University of Agriculture	Abeokuta	Western Region	1988
Umudike	Michael Okpara University	Umudike	Eastern Region	1992

Northern Region	=	1
Mid-Western Region	=	0
Western Region	=	1
Eastern Region	=	<u>1</u>
	=	<u>3</u>

Abbreviation	Name of Institution	Location	Regions	Founded
NDA	Nigerian Defence Academy	Kaduna	Northern Region	1964

Northern Region	=	1
Mid-Western Region	=	0
Western Region	=	0
Eastern Region	=	<u>0</u>
	=	<u>1</u>

APPENDIX F

State Universities in Nigeria by 2005 in Each of the Four Former Regions.

Abbreviation	Name of Institution	Location	Regions	Founded
ADSU	Adamawa State University	Adamawa	Northern Region	2002
BUS	Benue State University	Benue	Northern Region	1992
= = =	= = =	Bauchi	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Borno	= = =	= = =
GSU	Gombe State University	Gombe	Northern Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Jigawa	= = =	= = =
KASU	Kaduna State University	Kaduna	Northern Region	2004
KUT	Kano State University of Tech	Kano	Northern Region	2000
= = =	= = =	Katsina	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Kebbi	= = =	= = =
KOGI	Kogi State University	Kogi	Northern Region	1999
= = =	= = =	Kwara	= = =	= = =
IBU	Ibrahim Babangida University	Niger	Northern Region	2005
NASSARAWA	Nassarawa State University	Nassarawa	Northern Region	2002
PLASU	Plateau State University	Plateau	Northern Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Sokoto	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Taraba	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Yobe	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Zamfara	= = =	= = =
LAUTECH	Ladoke Akintola University of Tec	Oyo	Western Region	1990
= = =	= = =	Osun	= = =	= = =
OOU	Olabisi Onabanja University	Ogun	Western Region	1982
AAUA	Adekunle Ajasin University	Ondo	Western Region	1999
UNAD	University of Ado-Ekiti	Ekiti	Western Region	1988
LASU	Lagos State University	Lagos	Western Region	1983
AAU	Ambrose Ali University	Edo	Mid-Western	1980
DELSU	Delta State University	Delta	Mid-Western	1992
ANAMBRA	Anambra State Univ. of Sc/Tec	Anambra	Eastern Region	2000
ESUTECH	Enugu State University of Sc/Tec	Enugu	Eastern Region	1981
IMSU	Imo State University	Imo	Eastern Region	1992
ABSU	Abia State University	Abia	Eastern Region	1981
EBSU	Ebonyi State University	Ebonyi	Eastern Region	2000
RIVERS	Rivers State University of Sc/Tec	Rivers	Eastern Region	1979
NDU	Niger- Delta State University	Bayelsa	Eastern Region	2000
CRUTECH	Cross River University of Sc/Tec	Cross River	Eastern Region	= = =
AKWATEC	Akwa Ibom State Univ. of Sc/Tec	Akwa Ibom	Eastern Region	2004

Northern Region	=	9
Mid-Western Region	=	2
Western Region	=	5
Eastern Region	=	9
	=	<u>25</u>

APPENDIX G

Private Universities in Nigeria by 2005 in Each of the Four Former Regions.

Abbreviation	Name of Institution	Location	Regions	Founded
ABTI	American University of Nigeria	Adamawa	Northern Region	2003
BENUE	University of Mkar	Benue	Northern Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Bauchi, Borno	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Gombe, Kano	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Jigawa, Kogi	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Kaduna, Kebbi	= = =	= = =
KATSINA	University of Katsina	Katsina	Northern Region	2005
AL-HIKMAH	Al-Hikmah University	Kwara	Northern Region	2005
NASSARAWA	Bingham University	Nassarawa	Northern Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Plateau, Niger	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Sokoto	= = =	= = =
TARABA	Wukari Jubilee University	Taraba	Northern Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Zamfara, Yobe	= = =	= = =
ACU	Ajayi Crowther University	Oyo	Western Region	2005
BOWEN	Bowen University	Osun	Western Region	2001
COVENANT	Covenant University	Ogun	Western Region	2002
BABCOCK	Babcock University	Ogun	Western Region	1999
RU	Redeemers University	Lagos	Western Region	2005
BELLS	Bells University of Technology	Ogun	Western Region	2005
CRAWFORD	Crawford University	Ogun	Western Region	2005
ABEOKUTA	Crescent University	Abeokuta	Western Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Ondo, Ekiti	= = =	= = =
IBADAN	City University	Ibadan	Western Region	2005
CAU	Caleb University	Lagos	Western Region	2005
PAU	Pan-African University	Lagos	Western Region	2002
LAGOS	CETEP City University	Lagos	Western Region	2005
IGBINEDION	Igbinedion University	Edo	Mid-Western	1999
DELTA	Novena University	Delta	Mid-Western	2005
BIU	Benson Idahosa University	Benin	Mid-Western	2002
MU	Madona University	Anambra	Eastern Region	1999
CUE	CARITAS University	Enugu	Eastern Region	2005
ENUGU	Renaissance University	Enugu	Eastern Region	2005
= = =	= = =	Imo, Abia	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Ebonyi	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Rivers	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Bayelsa	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Cross River	= = =	= = =
= = =	= = =	Akwa Ibom	= = =	= = =

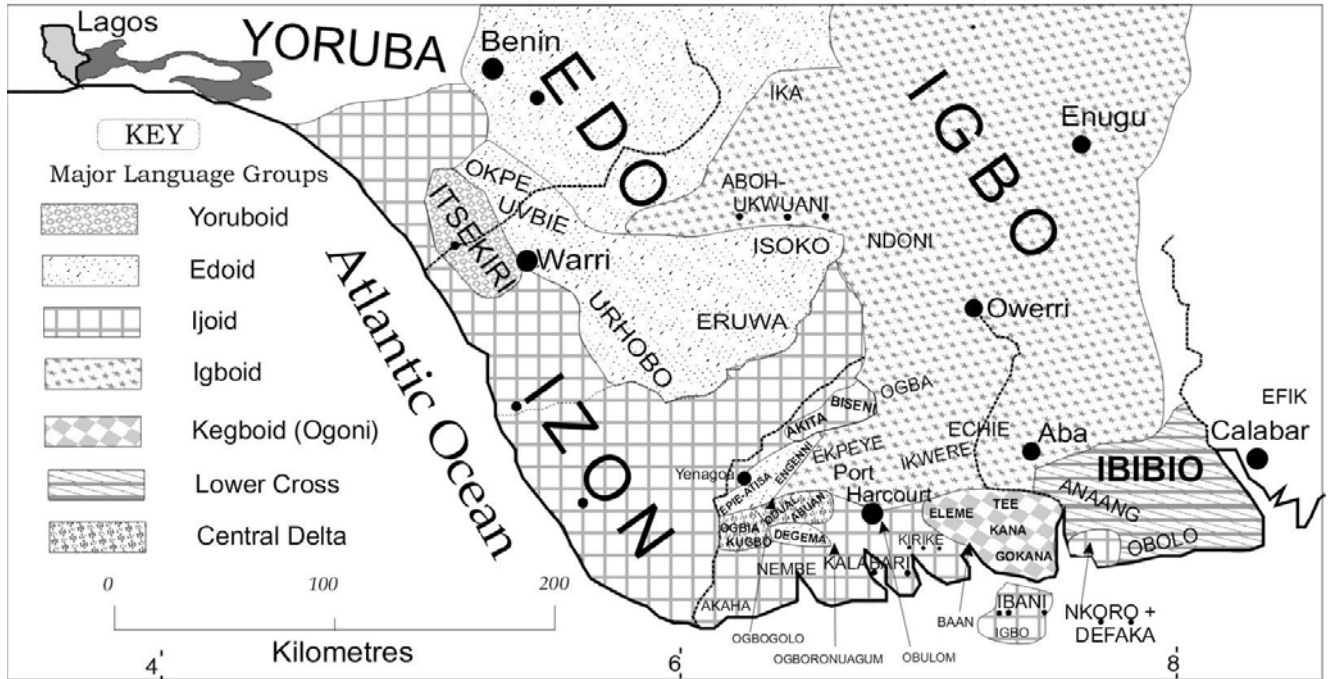
Northern Region	=	6
Mid-Western Region	=	3
Western Region	=	12
Eastern Region	=	3
	=	<u>24</u>

APPENDIX H

Linguistic Map of the Peoples and Cultures of the Niger Delta Region as of 2006

(Region created from Former Western, Mid-Western & Eastern regions)

PEOPLES AND CULTURES OF THE NIGER DELTA REGION



Note. Adapted from Nigeria and African: Some Maps. Retrieved from <http://coral.lili.uni-bielefeld.de/langdoc/EGA/Proposals/EGA-proposal2/sv019026.jpg> on January 11, 2008, Copyright © 1997 by the Association of Nigerian Scholars for Dialogue. Used with Permission.

APPENDIX I

Universities by 2005 in the Niger Delta Region of Nigeria

States	Federal University	Federal University of Tech	State Universities	Private Universities
Abia	0	0	1	0
Akwa Ibom	1	0	1	0
Bayelsa	0	0	1	0
Delta	0	0	1	1
Edo	0	0	1	2
Imo	0	1	1	0
Rivers	1	0	1	0
Cross River	1	0	1	0
Ondo	0	0	1	0
Total	3	1	9	3

APPENDIX J

Online Research Study Questions Asked

I. DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

1. What is your gender?
 - Male
 - Female
2. On which continent do you reside?
 - Africa
 - Europe
 - North America
3. What is your age?
 - 18 –24
 - 25 – 39
 - 40 – 49
 - 50 – 60
 - 60+

II. EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

4. Please indicate the highest level of education you have attained:
 - Bachelor's
 - Master's
 - Doctorate
 - Other (Please specify)_____

Please include your e-mail here:_____
5. If currently enrolled in a degree program, please indicate the type of degree below:
 - Bachelor's
 - Master's
 - Doctorate
 - Other (Please specify)_____
6. Type of tertiary institution attended in Nigeria
 - Advanced teacher training
 - Polytechnic
 - University
 - Others
7. Was the school public or private?
 - Public
 - Private
8. Type of public or private school attended:
 - Federal government
 - State government
 - Local government
 - Religious body

- Industrial
- Other (Please specify)_____

III. PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS IN THE NIGER DELTA REGION.

9. Educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta are skilled motivators?
- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly Agree
10. Educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta have clear visions of where the university organization is headed?
- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly Agree
11. Educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta inspire others – influence how they think, act, and accomplish goals?
- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly Agree
12. Educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta feel comfortable asking their students/assistants opinions and ideas about projects?
- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly Agree
13. Most educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta are trustworthy?
- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly Agree
14. Educational leaders in universities in Niger Delta ask “what” rather than “who” went wrong when faced with an unexpected problem?
- Strongly Disagree
 - Disagree
 - Agree
 - Strongly Agree
15. Please describe other leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

IV. IMPACTS OF LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS ON ACQUIRED LEADERSHIP SKILLS OF EXPATRIATE NIGERIAN POSTGRADUATES

16. How would you describe your university experience in the Niger Delta?

17. How would you describe your university experience outside the Niger Delta?

18. How do you perceive the impacts of leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta?

19. What leadership qualities did your favorite educational leaders in the Niger Delta exhibit?

V. BARRIERS PRESENTED BY THE LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF NIGERIAN EDUCATIONAL LEADERS ON ACQUIRED LEADERSHIP SKILLS OF EXPATRIATE NIGERIAN POSTGRADUATES.

20. Please describe what you see as barriers to obtaining education regarding leadership skills?

21. In considering the leadership qualities of university educators with whom you are acquainted in the Niger Delta, would there be qualities that served as a barrier to your own acquisition of leadership skills?

VI. EXPATRIATE NIGERIAN POSTGRADUATES' RESPONSES TO PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

22. How have you responded to perceived effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta?

23. How have you responded to a non-effective educational leadership in the Niger Delta?

24. What motivated you to make the above responses?

VII. EXPATRIATE NIGERIAN POSTGRADUATES' RESPONSES TO PERCEIVED POSITIVE IMPACTS OF LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

25. In what ways do you perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta have positively influenced your acquisition of leadership skills?

26. What motivated you to make the above responses?

VIII. EXPATRIATE NIGERIAN POSTGRADUATES' RESPONSES TO PERCEIVED BARRIERS PRESENTED BY THE LEADERSHIP QUALITIES OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

26. In what ways do you perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta have presented a barrier to your acquisition of leadership skills?

What motivated you to respond in these ways?

APPENDIX K

Master List Codes

Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study was to ascertain the perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. An understanding of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta could assist in expanding the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

Please describe other leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria.

1. Leadership qualities outlined by Doctors

- Myopic [3]
- Autocratic [2]
- Outspoken [26]
- Self-centered [23]
- Encouragement [7]
- Supportive [7]
- Arrogance [6]
- Conceited [6]
- Pompous [6]

2. Leadership qualities outlined by Masters

- Inspiration [9], [5]
- Vision [19]
- Strong [16]
- Integrity [16]
- Encouragement [16]
- Learned [8]
- Intelligence [8]
- Devotion [8]
- Detectoral [4]
- Self-imposition [4]
- Greed [4]
- Authoritative [4]
- Innovative [5]
- Creative [5]
- Resilience [5]
- Motivation [1]

3. Leadership qualities outlined by Bachelors +
 - Dedication [10]
 - Respect [12]
 - Embezzlement [24]

How would you describe your university experience in the Niger Delta?

4. Experience in Niger Delta outlined by Doctors
 - Dynamic [3]
 - Highly motivated learners [3]
 - Demotivated teachers [3]
 - Conscientious teachers [3]
 - Lecture rooms unequipped with seats [3]
 - Fair [2]
 - Fairly good [27]
 - Modern equipment lacking [27]
 - Valued hard work [27]
 - Cut funding [26]
 - Low morale [26]
 - Fun [13]
 - With challenges [13]
 - Unavailability of educational materials [13]
 - Good [14]
 - Fulfilling [7]
 - Generally positive [6]
 - High [6]
 - Materials not adapted to local context [6]
5. Experience in Niger Delta outlined by Masters
 - Great [19]
 - Conducive [8]
 - Strikes and unrest [8]
 - Difficult [5]
 - Abstract materials [5]
 - Inapplicable materials to cultural practices [5]
 - Inapplicable materials to daily existence [5]
 - With survival instincts [5]
 - Excellent [1]
6. Experience in Niger Delta outlined by Bachelors +
 - Generally good [10]
 - Overcrowded lecture halls [10]

- Not enough seats [10]
- Unequipped facilities [10]
- Strikes [10]
- Rough [15]
- Inadequate infrastructure [24]
- Frustration [18]
- Incessant stoppage of classes [18]
- Prolonged years of graduation [18]
- Unserious attitudes of non-academic and academic staff [18]

How would you describe your university experience outside the Niger Delta?

7. Experience outside Niger Delta outlined by Doctors

- Not academically dynamic [3]
- Not academically motivated [3]
- Conscientious teachers [3]
- Teachers as para-administration duties [3]
- Innovative [3]
- Good [2]
- Encouraging [2]
- Teachers to do everything [27]
- High standard [26]
- Role models [26]
- Rewarding [23]
- High quality [11]
- Challenging [11]
- An investment [11]
- Diversity [11]
- Different [14]
- Difficult [14]
- Racially charged [6]

8. Experience outside Niger Delta outlined by Masters

- In-depth [21]
- Fun [21]
- Good [19]
- More resources [19]
- Happy [9]
- Great [16]
- Availability of books [8]
- Technological opportunities [8]

- Commitment [8]
- Timely graduation [8]
- Inspirational [4]
- Dedicative [4]
- Supportive [4]
- Constructive [4]
- Innovative [4]
- Challenging [4]
- Productive [4]
- Incentive [4]
- Remunerative [4]
- Easy [5]
- Applicable theory [5]

9. Experience outside Niger Delta outlined by Bachelors +

- Great [10]
- Availability of needs [10]
- No strikes [10]
- Stressful [12]
- Better [24]
- Committed administrators [13]
- Committed students [18]

How do you perceive the impacts of leadership qualities of educational leaders in the universities in the Niger Delta?

10. Positive social/economic/environmental outcomes from Doctors

- Hard work [7]
- Academic demands [7]

11. Negative social/economic/environmental outcomes from Doctors

- Strikes [3]
- Favoritism [3]
- Corruption [3]
- Lack of innovations [3]
- Staleness [3]
- Eroding value system [26]
- Lacking foresight [13]
- Scared funding [14]

12. Positive social/economic/environmental outcomes from Masters

- Approachability [5]
 - Accessibility [5]
13. Negative social/economic/environmental outcomes from Masters
- Disrespect for students' rights [5]
 - Deprivation [21]
 - Suppression [16]
 - Secret cult [16]
 - Extortion [8]
 - Under-qualified graduates [8]
 - Breeding self-centeredness [4]
 - Hopelessness [4]
14. Positive social/economic/environmental outcomes from BA +
- Promoting learning [10]
 - Studying abroad [24]
15. Negative social/economic/environmental outcomes from BA +
- Intimidation [12]
 - Corruption [15]
 - Disinterestedness [24]
 - Studying abroad [24]
 - Half-baked graduates [18]

What leadership qualities did your favorite educational leaders in the Niger Delta have?

16. Qualities of favorite educational leaders outlined from Doctors
- Integrity [27]
 - Trustworthiness [27]
 - Belief [27]
 - Humility [26]
 - Resilience [14]
 - Commitment [7]
 - Assistance [7]
 - Zeal [7]
 - Knowledgeable [6]
 - Visionary [6]
 - Open-mindedness [6]
 - Meticulous [6]
 - Thorough [6]
 - Critical [6]
 - Honest [6]

17. Qualities of favorite educational leaders outlined from MA

- Sticking on [21]
- Respect [19]
- Love [16]
- Humility [16]
- Faith [16]
- Hard work [16]
- Courage [16]
- Hope [16]
- Collaboration [16]
- Patience [8]
- Listening [8]
- Concerns [8]
- Intelligence [8]
- Availability [8]
- Open-mindedness [5]
- Listening [5]
- Understanding [5]
- Empathy [5]
- Problem-solving [5]
- Motivation [1]
- Exemplary [1]

18. Qualities of favorite educational leaders outlined from BA +

- Punctuality [10]
- Dedication [10]
- Availability [10]
- Compassion [10]
- Trustworthiness [10]
- Strong [12]
- Listening [12]
- Consistency [12]
- Discipline [12]
- Feedback [12]
- Constructive [12]
- Patience [15]
- Perseverance [15]
- Giving [24]

Please describe what you see as barriers to obtaining education regarding leadership skills.

19. Barriers (reasons) why expatriates' perceptions – Doctors
- Lacking innovation [3]
 - Lacking creativity [3]
 - Corruption [3]
 - Repeated strikes [3]
 - Inadequate infrastructure [27]
 - Materialism [26]
 - Poor pay [23]
 - Lacking care [17]
 - Falling quality [13]
 - Diverting finances [13]
 - Dysfunctional technology labs [13]
 - Poor international exposure [14]
 - Poor remuneration [7]
 - Endemic corruption [6]
 - Disinterestedness [2]
 - Lacking adherence to the rule of law [2]
20. Barriers (reasons why expatriates' perceptions – Masters
- Lacking to foster learning [25]
 - Lacking foresight [25]
 - Political appointees [25]
 - Poor funding [25]
 - Corruption [25]
 - Discouraging government [22]
 - Under funding [21]
 - Lacking periodicals [21]
 - Cost [19]
 - Lacking personnel [16]
 - Poverty level [8]
 - Inadequate wage [8]
 - Poor infrastructure [4]
 - Neglect [4]
 - Indefinite strikes [4]
 - Government policies [4]
 - Admission format [4]
 - Family disenchantment [4]
21. Barriers (reasons) why expatriates' perceptions – Bachelors +
- Lacking properly equipped facilities [10]
 - Greed [10]
 - Resisting change [10]
 - Mismanagement [10]

- Ethnicity [12]
- Selfishness [24]

In considering the leadership qualities of university educators with whom you are acquainted in the Niger Delta, would there be qualities that served as a barrier to your own acquisition of leadership skills?

22. Reasons why barriers are perceived as hindrances – Doctors

- Lacking funds [3]
- Lacking survival rules [14]
- Indisposition [7]
- Control [6]

23. Reasons why barriers are perceived as hindrances – Masters

- Lacking change [21]
- Authoritarian style [19]
- Cultural [19]
- Limited resources [8]
- Bribe [4]
- Archaic teaching methods [4]
- Belief [5]
- Expectation [5]
- Selected custodian of knowledge [5]
- Nationalism [1]

24. Reasons why barriers are perceived as hindrances – Bachelors +

- Lacking proper training [10]
- Educational curriculum [18]
- Insensitivity [18]
- Discouragement [18]

How have you responded to perceived effective leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta?

25. How expatriates responded to effective leadership – Doctors

- Admiring [3]
- Learning [3]
- Supporting the cause [27]
- Contributing money [27]
- Encouragement [23]
- Believing [17]

- Welcoming [14]
- Emulation [7]
- Teaching [7]

26. How expatriates responded to effective leadership – Masters

- Training others [21]
- Donating books [19]
- Admiration [16]
- Pity [16]
- Open to advice [8]
- Suggestion [8]
- Amazement [4]
- Surprise [4]
- Astonishment [4]
- Disappointment [4]
- Compliment [5]
- Publications [1]

27. How expatriates responded to effective leadership – Bachelors +

- Telling others [12]
- Recognition [15]

How have you responded to perceived non-effective educational leadership qualities in the Niger Delta?

28. How expatriates responded to non-effective leadership – Doctors

- Write articles [3]
- Avoidance [26]
- Very negative [17]
- Feeling of demoralization [11]
- Feeling overwhelmed [14]
- Awful [7]
- Resentment [6]
- Defensive [6]

29. How expatriates responded to non-effective leadership –Masters

- Furnishing library [21]
- Giving feedback [19]
- Regrets, contributions [16]
- Talking about the problem [8]
- Finding ways for improvement [8]
- Feeling lost [4]

- Learning [5]
- Publications [1]

30. How expatriates responded to non-effective leadership – Bachelors +
- Sadness [10]
 - Sickness [15]
 - Writing newspaper articles [18]
 - Consultations [18]
 - Dialogue [18]

What motivated you to make the above responses?

31. Factors prompting responses to non-effective leadership – Doctors
- Experience [23]
 - Love [11]
 - Commitment [11]
 - Concern [14]
 - Motivation [7]
32. Factors prompting responses to non-effective leadership – Masters
- Desire for improvement [19]
 - Family upbringing [8]
33. Factors prompting responses to non-effective leadership – Bachelors +
- Experience [10]
 - Motivation [18]

In what ways do you perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta have positively influenced your acquisition of leadership skills?

34. Positive influences of leadership qualities as perceived by Doctors
- Training [27]
 - Integrity [26]
 - Exemplary [26]
 - Trustworthiness [26]
 - Hard work [26]
 - Loyalty [26]
 - Desire to be or make something of my life [11]
 - Teach [7]
 - Convictions [7]
 - Knowledge [6]

- Discipline [6]
35. Positive influences of leadership qualities as perceived by Masters
- Strive [25]
 - Adopt changes in life [21]
 - Looking up to professors [19]
 - Educated professors [19]
 - Sophisticated professors [19]
 - Exemplary actions [16]
 - Protest [19]
 - Seminar/symposium [16]
 - Challenging [8]
 - New alternative skills [4]
 - Teaching methodology [1]
 - Exemplary academic living [1]
 - Good use of time [1]
 - Publication of inspiring materials [1]
 - Good public speeches [1]
 - Honesty [1]
36. Positive influences of leadership qualities as perceived by Bachelors +
- Striving for success [10]
 - Working with differences [12]
 - Focus on a career path [15]
 - Studying abroad [24]

What motivated you to make the above responses?

37. Factors prompting responses to leadership qualities – Doctors
- Government disinterest [2]
 - Sacrifices [27]
 - Devoted teachers [27]
 - Experiences [13]
 - Love [11]
 - Willingness [11]
 - Wish [14]
 - Belief [7]
 - Little contributions [7]
38. Factors prompting responses to leadership qualities – Masters
- Need [25]
 - Urge to speak out [22]

- States comprising the region [21]
- Abundance of human resources [21]
- Belief [21]
- Gratitude [19]
- Feeling [16]
- Conscience [8]
- Sense of good [8]
- Sense of bad [8]
- Western teaching method [4]
- Need for help [1]
- Seeking improvement [1]
- Concern for region [1]

39. Factors prompting responses to leadership qualities – Bachelors +

- Determination [10]
- Personal experience [10]
- Productivity [12]
- Not much focus [15]
- Why foreign countries progress [24]

In what ways do you perceive that the leadership qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta have presented a barrier to your acquisition of leadership skills?

40. Barriers perceived to be posed by leadership qualities – Doctors

- Stronger [27]
- Repeated mistakes [13]
- Difficult environment [13]
- Political appointments [13]
- Difficulty attracting quality leaders [13]
- Bad impression [7]
- Difficulty growing [6]

41. Barriers perceived to be posed by leadership qualities – Masters

- Broken down system [22]
- Wasting time [22]
- Poor planning [21]
- Under funding [21]
- Fear of reprisals [20]
- “Man know man” [8]
- Absence of participation [4]
- Mistakes [5]
- Lack of honesty [1]

- Lack of nationalism [1]
42. Barriers perceived to be posed by leadership qualities – Bachelors +
- Limited exposure [10]
 - Not being worthy [12]
 - By example [15]
 - Improper funding [24]
 - Lack of sincerity [24]
 - Discouragement [27]

What motivated you to respond in these ways?

43. Factors prompting responses to barriers – Doctors
- Lack of innovation [3]
 - Refusing help [27]
 - Studying abroad [17]
 - Experiences [13]
 - Common knowledge [13]
 - Wish [11]
 - Improvement [7]
 - Love [6]
44. Factors prompting responses to barriers – Masters
- Situation [22]
 - Belief [21]
 - Growth [19]
 - Like [9]
 - Situation [4]
 - Experience [5]
 - Change [1]
45. Factors prompting responses to barriers – Bachelors +
- Experience [10]
 - Vacuum [15]
 - Looting [24]
 - Discouragement [18]

NUMBERS: Represent those numbers given to participants.

APPENDIX L

Master Code Book 1 on Themes

Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study was to ascertain the perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. An understanding of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta could assist in expanding the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

15 emerging THEMES from the codes

1. Perceived educational leading qualities
2. Leading qualities of favorite teachers
3. Perceived barriers of leading qualities
4. Social, economic, ethnic, and environmental leadership barriers in the Niger Delta
5. Perceived impacts of leading qualities
6. Good and bad educational experiences in the Niger Delta
7. Leadership barriers outside the Niger Delta
8. Expatriates' perception of leadership barriers
9. Expatriates' responses to leading qualities
10. Good and bad educational experiences outside the Niger Delta
11. Effective and ineffective leading qualities
12. Impacts of leading qualities for Nigerian educators
13. Impacts of leading qualities for expatriates
14. Expatriates' written or verbal responses to leading qualities
15. Expatriates' responses in action to leading qualities

APPENDIX M

Master Code Book 2 on Constructs or Patterns

Purpose of Study: The purpose of this study was to ascertain the perceived leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria and how those qualities impacted the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. An understanding of the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta could assist in expanding the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

4 emerging PATTERNS or CONSTRUCTS from merged themes

1. Leading qualities: Merged themes [1, 2, 3, 6, 10, 11]
2. Perceived produced impacts: Merged themes [5, 12, 13]
3. Perceived barriers: Merged themes [3, 4, 7, 8]
4. Response: Merged themes [9, 14, 15]

APPENDIX N

E-mailed Invitation Letter to Participants – IRB Approved

**EAST TENNESSEE
STATE UNIVERSITY**

Claudius G. Clemmer College of Education • Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis
Box 70550 Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-1707, ph: (423) 439-4430, fax: (423) 439-7636, www.etsu.edu

Date:

Name of Expatriate Nigerian postgraduate,
Address
City, State, Zip

Dear Mr./Mrs./Rev./Engr./Dr.


My name is Gerald Akata, a native of the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. I am a doctoral candidate at East Tennessee State University in Johnson City, Tennessee, U.S.A. As part of my doctoral dissertation research, I am conducting a research project on the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region and their impact on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

The purpose of this study is to ascertain the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria, and how those qualities impact the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates.

ETSU has given me approval to conduct this study through its College of Education Survey System. Through this system, the study will involve a one round online web interview of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates on three continents: Africa, Europe, and North America. You are one of several expatriate Nigerian postgraduates from the Niger Delta region of Nigeria living on one of the three continents, who is invited to participate in this online voluntary research study. I may also invite you to respond to an additional follow-up telephone interview.

You have been chosen for this study because you are a postgraduate, an expatriate from Nigeria and because of where you now live. The web interview itself consists of 28 questions. You will be asked to write your responses to the issues. For the purpose of providing proper individual feedback, and follow-up with a telephone interview, I will need to collect your name with your responses. However, be assured that your individual response will be held in the strictest of confidence in a locked storage space and your name will not be disclosed. When data are compiled, your individual responses will not be identifiable.

The online web interview will take approximately 40 minutes. You may end participation at any time without penalty. Answering the questions implies that you have voluntarily consented to participate. There will be no compensation for your involvement in this study, but you will be contributing significantly to research related to educational leadership in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. The results of this study may be

APPROVED
BY THE ETSU / VAIRE
OCT 25 2007
BY 
CHAIR/IRB COORDINATOR

beneficial in actively assisting growing youths, students, graduates, future leaders, local, national and international communities, educators, as well as local, state and federal government office-holders in their educational leadership decision-making processes. It could eventually help Nigerians understand how major issues like poverty in the region could be resolved.

If you have any questions prior to agreeing to be part of this study, please contact me. Again, thank you for your time and willingness to participate in this study.

Sincerely,

GERALD I. AKATA
East Tennessee State University Doctoral Student
(423) 826 – 0429 House
(423) 794 –8368 Cellular
zgaa5@imail.etsu.edu

APPROVED
BY THE ETSU / VAIRE
OCT 25 2007
BY ④
CHAIR/IRE COORDINATOR

APPENDIX O

Letter of Informed Consent – IRB Approved

Doctoral Dissertation Online Web Survey Letter of Informed Consent

Much has been written about the qualities of educational leaders in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. Certainly expatriate Nigerian postgraduates are expected to be a major source for the supply of new ideas on leadership qualities in the region.

As an expatriate Nigerian postgraduate residing in any of the countries either in African continent, or North America, or Europe, you have been exposed to opportunities to acquire leadership skills, including learning or reading about them. For this reason we are interested in knowing about your perceptions and views on some of the key issues facing the educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region of Nigeria. We believe that your responses to this doctoral dissertation survey will be of great interest to office-holders in their educational leadership decision-making processes and we ask you for your help.

This survey is being sent to you because you are a postgraduate, an expatriate from Nigeria and because of where you now live. Your participation is **confidential and individual participant responses will not be shared with anyone, and the results will not identify any individual participant**. By completing and submitting the survey, you are indicating your informed consent to participation in this survey.

If you have questions or problems or research-related medical problems at any time of the survey, you may call Gerald Akata at (423) 794-8368 or Dr. Terrence Tollefson at (423) 439-7617. You may call the Chairman of the Institutional Review Board at (423) 439-6054 about your rights as a research participant.

Please complete and return this survey by Monday, October 29, 2007.

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By THE ETSU / VAIRB

OCT 25 2007

BY 
CHAIR/IRB COORDINATOR

APPENDIX P

Thank-You Letter to Participants

EAST TENNESSEE
STATE UNIVERSITY

Claudius G. Clemmer College of Education • Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis
Box 70550 Johnson City, Tennessee 37614-1707, ph: (423) 439-4430, fax: (423) 439-7636, www.etsu.edu

Date:

Name of Expatriate Nigerian postgraduate,
Address
City, State, Zip

THANK YOU LETTER

Dear Mr./Mrs./Rev./Engr./Dr.

Thank you for your recent participation in my research study on the leadership qualities of educational leaders in universities in the Niger Delta region and their impact on the acquired leadership skills of expatriate Nigerian postgraduates. It was considered a privilege to be entrusted with the information that you shared on this important research subject.

If you have any further or additional information you would like to contribute, please feel free to contact me. Thank you again for your participation, time and patience.

Sincerely,
GERALD I. AKATA
Doctoral Candidate
East Tennessee State University
Johnson City, Tennessee.

VITA

GERALD I. AKATA

- Personal Data: Date of Birth: May 6, 1965
Place of Birth: Urua Akpan, Akwa Ibom
Marital Status: Single
- Education: Private Schools, Rome, Italy
Pontifical Urbanian University, Ikot Ekpene, Akwa Ibom;
Philosophy, D. Phil., 1988
Pontifical Urbanian University, Ikot Ekpene, Akwa Ibom;
Theology, B. Th., 1993
St. John's University, New York, New York;
Finance, MBA, 2003
Public Schools, Mountain Home, Tennessee
James H. Quillen VA Medical Center, Mountain Home, Tennessee;
Clinical Pastoral Education, CPE, 2004
East Tennessee State University, Johnson City, Tennessee;
Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis, Ed.D, 2008
- Professional
Experience: Manager, Nursery/Primary School; Secretary, Bishop's Office; Coordinator,
Bible Society of Nigeria; Chaplain, School of Nursing & Midwifery, Goretti
Girls Secondary School; Ikot Ekpene, Akwa Ibom, 1994 – 1996
Teacher & Bookkeeper, Seminary Boys' High School; Chaplain, Junioriate
Girls' High School; Afaha Obong, Abak, Akwa Ibom, 1996 – 1999
Graduate Assistant, East Tennessee State University, College of Education,
2005 – 2007
Associate Pastor, St. Mary's Church, Johnson City, Tennessee, 2004 – 2007
Parochial Administrator, St. Augustine's Church, Signal Mountain,
Tennessee, 2007 - present
- Publications: Akata, G. I. (1998). *There is Something New under the Sun*.
Nigeria: Patom Graphics Press.

Honors and

Awards:

Ika Foundation, Inc., U.S.; Sigma Iota Epsilon Management, Experienced Leadership, Established Leadership and Emerging Leadership, St. John's University, New York.