



Effective Leadership and Infrastructural Development in Rivers State

Anyanwu Kingsley N, PhD.

Department of Business Administration, Faculty of Social and Management Sciences,
Kingsley Ozumba Mbadiwe University, Ogboko, Imo State, Nigeria
knanyanwu@yahoo.com

ABSTRACT

This study has extensively investigated leadership and infrastructural development in Rivers state. The objectives of the study, research questions as well as the hypotheses were formulated and tested. The data for the research was generated basically from the primary source. The questionnaire was the major instrument used to generate the data. The study determined the sample size from the population of the study. The determined sample size was tested based on the questions posed to respondents. The statistical analysis that was adopted is the chi-square statistical technique while the simple percentage was used to test the questionnaires, the chi-square was used to test the formulated hypotheses. The findings show that there is significance relationship between leadership discipline and infrastructural development. Also that leadership integrity has impact on infrastructural development.

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INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Leadership is at the heart of public sector governance, and it is critical to a country's overall

development as well as its citizens' well-being. The quality of leadership, according to Lawal and Tobi (2006), influences the rate of development in any country.

Baets (2011) argued that Africa lacks the leadership skills needed for effective public governance, and Ojo (2012) emphasized Nigeria's leadership crisis and political instability. Ngowi (2009) investigated the impact of political leadership on economic development in Tanzania, concluding that leadership is the defining factor that has shaped the nature and trajectory of that country's economic development. The slow pace of development in key sectors of the Nigerian economy, particularly in the infrastructure sector, has been blamed on poor leadership and endemic bureaucratic corruption that has characterized public sector governance since independence in 1960. (Lawal & Tobi, 2006; Ogbeide, 2012). A shift in Nigeria's infrastructure development governance in the right direction could create a favorable environment for economic growth and social stability.

According to Achebe (1988), apart from persistent leadership failures, there is nothing fundamentally wrong with the Nigerian character. According to Burns (1978), leadership is a moral necessity, and the virtues of liberty, equality, justice, opportunity, and the pursuit of happiness are the best indicators of its expression and accomplishments. These, in my opinion, are good reasons for Nigerian infrastructure development. Government exists to serve the public's needs, and good governance ensures that those needs are met in an efficient, effective, and equitable manner (Deloitte Global Series, 2012). This means that governance has a lot to do with how authority is exercised in institutions and government traditions, such as the process of establishing government and holding it accountable (Davis, 2011). According to the United Nations (2007), governance is the process by which society establishes and manages the rules that govern policymaking and policy implementation. According to Toikka (2011), public governance is concerned with how governments at all levels conduct themselves in order to provide the best possible benefits to their citizens. As a result, depending on the manner and mode of governance, governance can be good or bad (Rotberg, 2005). Good governance, according to Lawal and Tobi (2006), should be centered on the welfare of the people and geared toward the provision of good infrastructure that will promote citizen happiness..

According to Oyedele (2012), a leader's or government's success or failure is determined by the level and nature of infrastructure development undertaken by the leader or government, as well as how well it meets the people's aspirations in democratic governance. Good public governance contributes to the strengthening of democracy, the promotion of economic prosperity and social cohesion, and the reduction of poverty (United Nations, 2007).

Good governance must be seen as a means of resolving social issues. According to Rotberg (2005), good governance occurs when resources are allocated and managed to address collective socioeconomic and political problems. Good governance, according to Cheema (2005), should promote gender equality, protect the environment, allow citizens to exercise personal freedom, and provide tools to alleviate poverty, deprivation, fear, and violence. Infrastructure development and corruption reduction should, in my opinion, be added to the list of things that good governance should address because they are critical to the Nigerian situation and the study's goals. While Akinwale (2010) argued that infrastructure availability is critical to a society's development, Zuofa and Ochieng (2014) discovered that corruption is one of the major causes of infrastructure project failures in Nigeria. This finding justifies the study's inclusion of bureaucratic corruption as a topic to investigate.

Various aspects of governance have been mentioned by researchers. According to Nzongola-Ntalaja (2002), there are three types of governance. Political or public governance, economic governance, and social governance are the three types of governance. In the Nigerian context, the three types of

governance are inextricably linked and intertwined. It is difficult to (a) separate the effects of leadership on each type of governance and (b) isolate their effects. In fact, leadership should have an impact on all aspects of governance at the same time, with results visible in all areas of development (Kemp, Parto, & Gibson, 2005). The focus of this research was on Nigerian infrastructure development leadership and governance. Institutions are critical to the development of public sector governance. According to the World Bank Group (2002), most developing countries' economic and sociopolitical development is dependent on their public sector institutions. According to Therkidsen (2001), the bane of infrastructure development has been highlighted as weak public institutions and poor governance, which serves as a catalyst for poverty and corruption in Nigeria. This finding can be applied to other African countries and shows a common trend.

Between 1960 and 2010, various political leaders in Nigeria initiated and implemented a number of economic, political, and social reforms. The progress and challenges of Nigerian economic reforms were reported by Okonjo-Iweala and Osafo-Kwaako (2007). Ekpenkhio (2003) focused on public sector procurement reforms, Afeikhena (2002) on public enterprise reform from the perspective of telecommunications, and Ado-Kurawa (2005) on Nigerian national political reforms.

According to Ogbuagu, Ubi, and Effiom (2014), there is a link between infrastructural decay in Nigeria and bureaucratic corruption, and that corruption, rather than a lack of funds, is the primary cause of infrastructural decay in Nigeria. According to Lawal and Tobi (2006), bureaucratic corruption has not only denied Nigerians access to good infrastructure, but it has also distorted incentives, undermined institutions, and redistributed wealth and power to the undeserving without adding value to the economy. This lack of good governance of the infrastructure sector provided the motivation to focus on the impact of leadership on infrastructure development.

Nigerian society has long struggled with corruption. According to Lawal and Tobi (2006), various Nigerian political leaders have attempted to implement anti-corruption measures at various times, but to no avail. Good governance is impossible to achieve in a chronically corrupt political leadership structure because, as Lawal and Tobi hypothesized, corruption violates public trust and deviates from high moral standards in exchange or anticipation of personal and financial gains at the expense of the common good. In order for people to achieve their goal of happiness, they need good infrastructure to support good governance..

Corruption has erected a significant impediment to individual rights to liberty, equality, justice, and national development in Nigeria, and has been blamed for the country's failure to provide employment, eradicate poverty, develop infrastructure, and implement good public governance (Lawal& Tobi, 2006). Corruption, a lack of political will, and a lack of probity, accountability, and transparency are all factors that contributed to Nigeria's previous development plans failing (Achebe, 1988). Accountability and transparency, in particular, are important indicators of good governance (UN, 2007), as they help to build public trust and contribute to infrastructure development (Transparency International, 2006).

As a result, the purpose of this research is to determine the impact of leadership on infrastructural development in Nigeria, with a particular focus on River state.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Nigeria has a leadership problem (Achebe, 1988; Mustafa, 2004). Madueke (2008) concluded that Nigeria is in desperate need of transformation and suggested that more research into the role of leadership in national development should be conducted based on the Nigerian experience. The need for transformation is more pressing in Nigeria's public sector than in the infrastructure sector (Akinwale,

2010; Mbanefo, 2000; Olaseni & Alade, 2012). Millions of Nigerians have had their hopes dashed due to successive political leaderships' failure to provide good governance in the public sector, which is required to build sustainable infrastructure for citizens' creative engagement and national development (Ogwu, 2001). Infrastructure serves as a catalyst for economic growth as well as a platform for the nation's sociopolitical transformation (Akinwale, 2010; Olaseni & Alade, 2012).

Since Nigeria's political independence more than 50 years ago, the country has had a persistent leadership problem that has culminated in poor infrastructure, causing citizens to lose faith in the country's leadership (Transparency International, 2006; Zuofa & Ochieng, 2014). Nigeria has attempted to restructure the economy and reform public sector governance in the past through the implementation of public service reforms (Okonjo-Iweala, 2012). Nigeria's government is continuing to execute several changes, including privatization and concessions of critical services and infrastructure to private sector operators (OkonjoIweala & Osafo-Kwaato, 2007.). According to Mustafa (2004), these reforms have not yet delivered the desired results, in part due to issues arising from inadequate leadership, which has resulted in a low quality of life for the citizens. The leadership problem is especially visible in the domain of infrastructure development, which has a direct impact on all Nigerians' socioeconomic well-being (Oyedele, 2012).

It is impossible to overstate the importance of infrastructure development in Nigeria. It is at the heart of good governance and the well-being of the public. Infrastructure development in Nigeria is critical to the country's overall economic development, which has an impact on everyone's standard of living. In this study, I looked at how leadership affects infrastructure development governance in Nigeria, specifically in terms of the formulation and implementation of public policies in the infrastructure sector.

1.3 Objective of the Study

The general objective of this study is to determine the impact of leadership on infrastructural development.

Other specific objectives include;

1. To ascertain the effect of leadership discipline on infrastructure development in Rivers state.
2. To investigate the impact of leadership integrity on development of infrastructure in Rivers state.

1.4 Research Hypothesis

H0: there is no significance relationship between leadership discipline and infrastructural development.

H01: leadership integrity has no impact on infrastructural development.

CONCEPTUAL MODEL

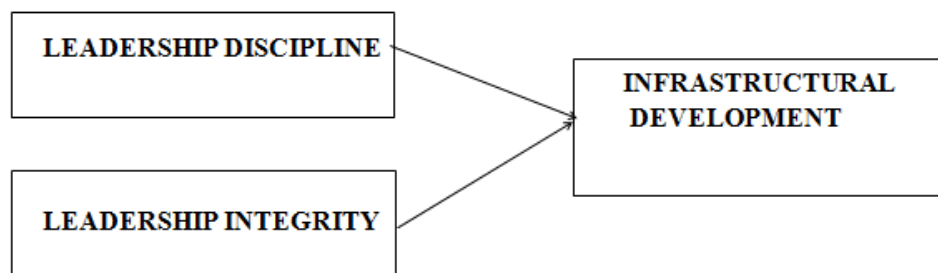


FIG 1.1 CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Source: researcher's desk

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the related literature which is divided into conceptual framework and theoretical.

2.1 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1.1 Leadership and Leaders Defined

Leadership has been characterized in a variety of ways. Northouse (2013) defined leadership as a process by which an individual persuades a group of people to work toward a common goal. According to Riggio and Murphy (2003), leadership is the process of influencing others to achieve a goal and directing the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. These definitions define leadership as a process involving an individual who wields some level of influence in order to achieve or fulfill specific goals.

A leader has been defined in a variety of ways by researchers. A leader, according to Fiedler and Garcia (1987), is “someone who is elected or appointed or who has emerged from the group to direct and coordinate the efforts of the group members toward some given goal.” The leader, in general, plans, organizes, directs, and supervises the activities of group members, as well as develops and maintains sufficient cohesiveness and motivation among group members to keep them together as a functioning unit.” A leader, in essence, gathers and challenges people to make a vision a reality. Winston and Patterson (2006) provide the most comprehensive definition of a leader: “A leader is one or more people who selects, equips, trains, and influences one or more followers who have diverse gifts, abilities, and skills and focuses them on the organization's missions and objectives, causing them to willingly and enthusiastically expend spirit.” While this definition encompasses all aspects of leadership, Bass and Bass (2008) offer a definition of transformational leadership that is very relevant to the conceptual framework of this study, stating that “transformational leaders motivate their followers to do more than they originally intended and thought possible.” The leader sets high expectations for himself and others in order to achieve higher levels of success.”

Leadership and leader are not synonymous, but they are similar. While leaders are expected to lead and influence their subordinates, leadership is the process of persuading others to work toward a common goal.

2.1.2 Leadership Styles

Over the years, different leadership styles and models have emerged in various disciplines. Kendra (2012) cited by Lewin (1939), identified three leadership styles. They include:

- " Authoritarian or autocratic leadership.
- " Participative or democratic leadership.
- " Delegative or Laissez-Faire leadership.

Zerva and Lassiter (2005) suggested a broader range of leadership styles. They are:

- " Coercive leadership.
- " Task-oriented leadership.
- " Authoritarian or authoritative leadership.
- " Bureaucratic leadership.

- " Affiliative leadership.
- " Laissez-Faire leadership.
- " Empowering leadership.
- " Democratic or participative leadership.
- " Pacesetter or charismatic leadership; and
- " Coaching.

To this long list, Goleman (2000) added two more leadership styles: commanding and visionary leadership. As long as the list appears, the various styles of leadership are interrelated, and most leaders use them simultaneously in the governance process (Dereli, 2010), though men and women's leadership styles may differ in some cases (Eagly & Johanneses-Schmidt, 2001).

The authoritarian leader establishes clear expectations for what must be accomplished, when it must be accomplished, and how it must be accomplished. This style is used when a leader tells his or her followers what they want done and how they want it done without soliciting their input. Authoritarian leaders make decisions independently of the rest of the group, with little or no input from them (Kendra, 2012). Coercive and bureaucratic leadership styles are autocratic in nature in many ways. According to Zervas and Lassiter (2005), the fundamental element of the coercive leadership style is control of people and jobs, and that results are achieved by giving clear, explicit instructions on expectations and demanding compliance from followers. Similarly, bureaucratic leadership imposes strict adherence to procedures and rules on subordinates. In the case of Nigeria, political leadership during the military era falls under the category of autocratic leadership.

The democratic or participative leadership style relies on the functioning of a group or team to achieve results (Goleman, 2000; Northouse, 2013). Subordinates are involved in decision-making, and decisions are reached through group consensus. Leaders who encourage group participation while maintaining control over the decision-making process are known as participatory leaders (Kendra, 2012).

Members of the group are more motivated and creative because they are more involved in the process. According to Zervas and Lassiter (2005), the style fosters responsibility, flexibility, and high morale, and because employees are involved in decision-making and planning, they are more realistic about what is possible and what is not. The participative or democratic leadership style, according to Lewin (1939), is the most effective because the democratic leader provides guidance and encourages group members to participate in the leadership process. In Nigeria, the civilian democratic political party system should reflect the participatory or democratic leadership style's ideals. This, in my opinion, has been the case with Nigeria's various democratic governments. Delegative or laissez-faire leadership provides little or no guidance to group members or followers, allowing them to make their own decisions (Kendra, 2012). With limited interference in the leadership process, the leader allows the followers to make decisions. There is a deliberate policy of not influencing subordinates, resulting in a high level of autonomy and authority for subordinates.

According to Zervas and Lassiter (2005), the laissez-faire leadership style is most effective when team members are highly skilled and knowledgeable in a specific area of expertise, and the organization's goals are clearly stated and acceptable to both the leader and the followers. This style of leadership, on the other hand, has the potential to result in ill-defined roles and a lack of motivation among subordinates, groups, and followers.

Other leadership styles have been identified by various authors. The commanding leader expects immediate obedience from subordinates (Goleman, 2000), which categorizes this leadership style as autocratic. The coaching leader develops people for the future and places a greater emphasis on the development of subordinates and their capabilities by identifying the subordinates' unique skills, strengths and weaknesses, and connecting them to personal career goals. Delegating tasks, developing skills, and evaluating outcomes are all part of the coaching leadership style. The pacesetter leader sets high standards for subordinate performance, while the affiliative leader creates harmony and builds emotional bonds. The visionary leadership style encourages people to mobilize toward the realization of a vision, and the pacesetter leader sets high standards for subordinate performance (Goleman). Although different leadership styles produce different outcomes or outcomes (Ekaterini, 2012; Howard, 2005), a good leader is one who uses any or a combination of leadership styles to provide direction and motivate people to achieve desired goals.

2.1.3 Leadership Qualities

Vision

“Good company leaders build a vision, explain it, passionately own it, and tirelessly pursue it until it is realized.” — Welch, Jack

Great leaders have a vision for the future...

They have the ability to look into the future.

They have a clear, exciting vision of where they want to go and what they want to achieve, and they excel at strategic planning.

This distinguishes them from managers. Having a clear vision transforms a person into a unique entity. A “transactional manager” becomes a “transformational leader” when they have this quality of vision.

Great leaders delve into their people's emotions while a manager gets the job done.

Courage

“Courage is rightfully regarded as the most important of the virtues, because it is on it that all others are predicated.” — Churchill, Winston

Courage is one of the most vital attributes of a good leader. Having the quality of courage indicates you're willing to take chances in order to attain your goals, even if you don't know if you'll succeed. Because there is no such thing as certainty in life or business, every promise you make and every action you do comes with a risk.

Courage is the most visible exterior quality among the seven leadership qualities.

Integrity

“You have nothing to fear if you have integrity because you have nothing to conceal. You will feel no guilt if you have integrity because you will do the correct thing.” - Zigl Ziglar.

The first value that all the gathering executives agree on for their company is integrity in every strategic planning session that I have held for large and small corporations. They all agree that perfect honesty is critical in everything they do, both internally and externally.

Truthfulness is at the heart of honesty.

Integrity necessitates always telling the truth, to everyone, in every circumstance. Truthfulness is the foundation trait of trust, which is required for any business to succeed.

Humility

Humility yields positive results. Former Honeywell CEO Larry Bossidy, author of the book *Execution*, explains why leadership qualities like humility make you a more effective leader:

“The more you can control your ego, the more realistic your difficulties become.

You learn to listen and accept that you don't know everything.

You have the mindset that you can learn anything at any moment from anyone. You don't let your pride get in the way of getting the data you need to attain the greatest results. It doesn't stop you from giving credit where credit is due. Humility enables you to admit your errors.” Larry Bossidy

Great leaders are strong and determined, but they are also modest.

Humility does not imply that you are weak or insecure. It means you have the self-assurance and self-awareness to evaluate others' worth without feeling intimidated.

Because it necessitates ego containment, this is one of the more uncommon abilities – or features – of successful leaders.

It suggests you're willing to admit you might be mistaken and that you're aware you don't know everything. It also implies that you give credit where credit is due, which many individuals find difficult.

Strategic Planning

“Strategy is not a byproduct of planning; rather, it is the beginning point.” Henry Mintzberg (Henry Mintzberg) (Henry Mintzberg)

Strategic planning is a strength of great leaders. It's one of the most crucial leadership qualities. They have the ability to see into the future and predict with some accuracy where the industry and markets will go.

Leaders have the ability to foresee trends well ahead of their opponents. They are constantly asking, "Where is the market headed based on what is happening today?" In three months, six months, a year, and two years, where do you think it will be?" This is accomplished by careful strategic planning.

Only the leaders and organizations who can effectively predict future markets will be able to survive in the face of rising competition. Only foresightful executives can benefit from the "first mover advantage."

Focus

“No matter what is going on around them, successful people have a positive outlook on life. They keep focused on their previous accomplishments rather than failures, and on the next action steps they need to take to get closer to their goals rather than all the other distractions that life throws at them. - Jack Canfield

Leaders are continually focused on the company's and situation's demands. Leaders concentrate on outcomes, on what has to be accomplished by themselves, others, and the firm. Great leaders concentrate on their own and others' strengths.

They concentrate on the company's strengths, on the things that it excels at in pleasing demanding clients in a competitive market.

Your ability to call the shots as a leader and ensure that everyone is engaged and concentrating on the most productive use of their time is critical to the company's success.

Cooperation

“You can have nearly everything you want if your imagination leads you to grasp how fast people grant your requests when those asks appeal to their self-interest.” Napoleon Hill is a famous author.

Your ability to get everyone on board and pulling in the same direction is critical to your success. The capacity to persuade others to work for you because they want to is what leadership is all about.

Here's where the 80/20 rule comes into play:

Only 20% of your team is responsible for 80% of your results.

The seamless operation of the organization depends on your ability to pick these people and then work successfully with them on a daily basis.

Make a daily commitment to get along well with each essential individual to gain the cooperation of others. When it comes to a task, you always have two options: do it yourself or hire someone to do it for you. Which one will it be?. (<https://www.briantracy.com>)

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Over time, leadership theories have evolved. The “great man” theories, trait theories, contingency theories, situational theories, behavioral theories, participative theories, management theories, and relationship theories are among the eight leadership theories mentioned by Kendra (2012). There are other types of leadership theories. The trait theory, the skills theory, the situational theory, the contingency theory, the path-goal theory, the transformational theory, the transactional theory, and the servant leadership theory were all presented by Wolinski (2010). All of these theories of leadership are thought to be based on one or more of the three perspectives of leadership: leadership as a process or relationship, leadership as a collection of traits or personality characteristics, or leadership as a measurement of specific behavior or skills (Avolio, 2005).

2.2.1 Trait Theory

People are either born with or are not born with the qualities that predispose them to success in a leadership role, according to the trait theory of leadership (Wolinski, 2010). People are born with certain qualities and characteristics that make them better leaders. Leaders are born, not made, and to be a leader, one must be born with the leadership genes. In this way, the trait theory of leadership is similar to the great man theory, which assumes that leadership ability is innate (Kendra, 2012). Early leadership research centered on identifying leadership characteristics and what set one leader apart from another. Many of the early studies, according to Filley and House (1969), were designed to uncover universal traits such as intelligence, social, emotional, and physical anatomy of a leader. Stogdill (1974) carried out two separate scientific studies on leadership characteristics.

In the first study which surveyed a group of leadership traits, Stogdill (1974) found that an average person in leadership role differed from an average group member in (a) intelligence, (b) alertness, (c) insight, (d) responsibility, (e) initiative, (f) persistence, (g) self-confidence, and (h) sociability. At the end of the second study, Stogdill (1974) listed 10 characteristics of a leader, thus: (a) drive for responsibility and task completion, (b) vigor and persistence in the pursuit of goals, (c) venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, (d) drive to exercise initiative in social situations, (e) self-confidence and sense of personal identity, (f) willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, (g) readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, (h) willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, (i) ability to influence behavior of others, and (j) capacity to structure social interaction systems to the task at hand. Although Stogdill (1974) demonstrated that personality traits are linked to leadership effectiveness in situations, he did not show that there are a number of such traits that distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders.

Leaders inherit some traits. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) identified six traits that distinguished a leader from nonleader: (a) drive, (b) desire to lead, (c) honesty and integrity, (d) self-confidence, (e) cognitive ability, and (f) knowledge. While Stogdill (1974) and Kirkpatrick and Locke argued that there are personality traits that distinguish leaders from non-leaders, Wright (1996) argued that other researchers found no differences in these traits between leaders and followers. If specific characteristics are required for each situation, and those characteristics must vary as the situation changes, as Filey and House (1969) pointed out, it is unlikely that the traits required for leadership are widely distributed throughout the population at large. As a result, unless these traits and characteristics are combined with appropriate situations, they will not distinguish leaders from non-leaders. According to Filey and House, leadership extends beyond a leader's personal characteristics, and that a leader's effectiveness is determined by the interaction between the leader and group members, as well as how the group members perceive the leader's behavior as supportive of their own well-being. Leadership, in my opinion, is a learned skill.

2.2.2 Situational Theory

As opposed to the trait theory of leadership, situational theory focuses on leadership in situations based on observed behavior. The situational theory of leadership, according to Kendra (2012), proposes that leaders choose the best course of action based on situational variables. Leadership, according to Hersey and Blanchard (1977), is a dynamic process that changes from situation to situation based on observed changes in leaders, followers, and the environment. Situations, in my opinion, define leaders based on how they handle a situation..

Leaders have a variety of characteristics. Gardner (1990) argued that a leader with certain qualities or attributes could lead in a different situation. Gardner identified the qualities identified in the leader in a study of a number of North American organizations as follows:

1. Physical vitality and stamina
2. Intelligence and action-oriented judgment
3. Eagerness to accept responsibility
4. Task competence
5. Understanding of followers and their needs
6. Skill in dealing with people

7. Need for achievement
8. Capacity to motivate people
9. Courage and resolution
10. Trustworthiness
11. Decisiveness
12. Self-confidence
13. Assertiveness
14. Adaptability/flexibility

Several factors have an impact on leadership behavior. Hershey and Blanchard (1977) identified four different relationships that influence leadership behaviors in various situations, as well as how they influence how effective or ineffective leaders are perceived: (a) a high task with a low relationship, (b) a high task with a high relationship, (c) a high relationship with a low task, and (d) a low relationship with a low task

In the act of governance, leaders use a variety of styles. According to Fiedler and Garcia (1987), a leader's effectiveness is determined by the leader's leadership style and the extent to which the situation grants the leader locus of control and influence over the followers.. Fiedler and Garcia also identified the following conditions as essential to a leader's success: (a) the relationship between the leader and followers, (b) the structure of the task, and (c) position power. Leaders exposed to the same situation may not exhibit the same behavior due to environmental differences, despite the fact that the situational leadership approach demands that leaders vary their behaviors according to the situation.

2.2.3 Contingency Theory

The basic tenet of contingency leadership theory is that there is no single way to lead, and that each leadership style should be based on specific situations, implying that a leader's performance is contingent on the circumstances (Burns, 1978). This theory, which is based on situational theory principles, maintains that leadership can only be explained in terms of the interaction between the leader and many variables in the environment that may determine the best leadership style for different situations. From this perspective, leadership is defined as the display of specific behaviors that command the loyalty of followers and motivate them to achieve predetermined objectives (Foley & House, 1969). In my opinion, no single leadership style is best in all situations; rather, success is contingent on a variety of factors.

In a study to assess the style of leadership in their work situations and determine whether they were effective or not, Fiedler (1969) analyzed the styles of hundreds of leaders working in different contexts in military organizations. Fiedler was successful in making empirically grounded generalizations about which leadership styles were most appropriate for given situations and which were least appropriate at the end of the study.

Fiedler divided group-task scenarios into eight categories. Three dimensions of leadership assessed one aspect of the situation that determines a leader's ability to influence his followers and the situation's favorableness. Fiedler (1969) proposed some assumptions in order to determine the most favorable and least favorable situation. One of these assumptions was that leaders with clear goals have expert, attraction, and coercive power. Leaders who do not have clear objectives, on the other hand, will not have the support of their followers.

Another hypothesis proposed by Fiedler was that the relationship between leaders and followers determines how favorable the situation is, and that leaders who are favored will be able to influence their followers, whereas leaders who are not favored will not. Based on these assumptions, Fiedler concluded that in determining how favorable a situation is, the leaders-followers relationship dimension is more important, followed by the task-structure dimension.

According to Fiedler (1969), group performance is linked to leadership styles and the extent to which situations allow the leaders to influence their followers. As a result, relationship-oriented leaders perform best in situations where they have only moderate influence because, despite their high position power and structured task, they are not well accepted. Followers are willing to be directed and told what to do in favorable circumstances, such as when leaders have power, informal backing, and a relatively well-structured task. Task-oriented leaders are expected to be more effective than considerate leaders who are concerned with interpersonal relations in a relatively unfavorable situation. A considerate, relationship-oriented attitude appears to be most effective in situations that are only moderately favorable or unfavorable for leaders. When acceptable leaders are faced with uncertain tasks, or when the tasks are organized but the leaders are not highly liked, the compassionate, relationship-oriented leadership style is more likely to lead to effective team performance. According to Bass and Bass (2008), leaders who are highly evaluated by supervisors and peers, most fulfilling to subordinates, and whose approaches result in strong follower performance are more likely to be both relational and task-oriented in an integrated manner. In today's society, leaders are not expected to have expert power because the government's various institutions already have it in abundance. Coercive authority has no place in a democratic society, even when applied under draconian leadership such as military authority. In relatively favorable situations, on the other hand, attraction power can be a powerful tool for developing strong leader-follower relationships and improving and efficient job performance.

2.2.4 Transactional Theory

The aspects of transaction made between the leader and the followers characterize the transactional theory of leadership. Transactional leadership, according to Burns (1978), is the exchange of relationships between a leader and followers aimed at satisfying their self-interests. According to Burns, leadership over a group of people occurs when a person with defined motives mobilizes resources in rivalry or conflict with other people in order to arouse, engage, and satisfy the objectives of followers, resulting in the leader and followers realizing mutually held goals. According to Bass (1985), the most efficient transactional leader creates a mutually reinforcing atmosphere that promotes trades between the leader and the followers, based on contingent reward and management by exception. According to Bass, in order to achieve specified goals, the leader and followers must accept interrelated roles and duties, with the leader functioning as a reinforcement agent for the followers.

The transactional leader, according to Kouzes and Posner (1995), is very similar to the classic manager. The theory is founded on the idea that it is a leader's role to develop structures that make it crystal apparent what is expected of followers, as well as the repercussions of meeting or failing to fulfill the leader's expectations (Wolinski, 2010). The transactional theory assumes that people generally want to maximize joyful experiences while minimizing unpleasant ones.

The transactional leadership model aimed to show the leadership process and how it is established and exercised (Shafritz & Russell, 2003). Bass (1990) proposed that transactional leadership entails a person taking the initiative to contract with others for the aim of exchanging a valuable return, which could be economic, political, or psychological. According to Burns (1978), this is the most prevalent style of leadership, and people can be trained to acquire the necessary leadership abilities for contract-based

leadership emergence. According to Burns (1978), the interaction between the leader and the followers occurs in two main leadership models: transactional and transformational leadership. Despite their popular classification, transactional and transformational leadership, according to Burns, are at different extremes of a continuum.

2.2.5 Transformational Theory

Unlike transactional leadership, which rewards followers with a carrot for fulfilling agreements and standards and punishes them with a stick for failing to achieve what they were meant to accomplish (Bass & Bass, 2008), transformational leadership encourages followers to exceed expectations and goals. Burns (1978) characterized transformational leadership as a collaborative effort between leaders and followers to improve morale and motivation. Transformational leaders raise the bar by appealing to followers' higher ideas and values, modeling the ideals themselves and using charismatic techniques to attract people to the values and the leader. Transformational leadership, according to Burns, is more effective than transactional leadership because, whereas transactional leadership appeals to selfish interests, transformational leadership appeals to societal principles, encouraging people to collaborate rather than work alone. Transformational leadership, he believes, is a continuous process rather than a series of discrete transactions like transactional leadership.

Transformational leadership, according to Bass (1990), requires good visioning, impression management, and argumentative abilities. Transformational leaders, according to Bass, use these talents to elicit strong emotions in their followers and push them to accomplish above and beyond expectations. Transformational leadership, according to Wolinski (2010), is a process in which an individual engages with others and is able to establish a relationship that leads to improved motivation and morality in both followers and leaders. The charismatic leadership hypothesis states that leaders with specific characteristics, such as confidence, extroversion, and clearly articulated values, are best suited to encourage followers (McLaurin & Amri, 2008).

According to Hopen (2010), it is critical in transformational leadership for the leader to be aware of the needs and reasons of followers in order to assist them in reaching their full potential. Transformational leadership, in its most basic form, discusses how leaders can initiate, develop, and implement significant changes in businesses, institutions, and governments. The core tenet of transformational leadership theory is that leaders, by their inspirational nature and captivating personalities, transform their followers. Rules and regulations are flexible and directed by group norms, which gives followers a sense of belonging because they can easily identify with the leadership and its mission. (McLaurin & Amri).

Bass (1985) described transformational leadership as a leader's ability to influence followers, who are expected to trust, appreciate, and respect the transformational leader. He suggested three approaches for leaders to transform followers: increasing the task's significance and worth, focusing on common goals, and stimulating the followers' peak needs. Bass (2000) recognized charisma as a necessary component of transformational leadership, explaining that charisma is used by the transformational leader to elicit powerful emotions and encourage followers to identify with the leader.

Notably, Bass and Riggio (2006) explained that authentic transformational leadership is grounded in moral foundations that are based on four components:

- Idealized influence
- Inspirational motivation

- Intellectual stimulation
- Individualized consideration.

In addition, Bass highlighted the three moral aspects of transformational leadership as:

- The moral character of the leader.
- The ethical values embedded in the leader's vision, articulation, and program which followers may embrace or reject; and
- The morality of the processes of social ethical choice and action that leaders and followers engage in and collectively pursue.

It's worth noting that whereas Burns (1978) saw transformational leadership as intrinsically related to higher-order principles, Bass (1985) saw it as amoral and assigned transformative abilities to charismatic leaders.

However, Bass (1985) claimed that there are significant differences between transformational and charismatic leaders, stating that while charisma is a fundamental component of transformational leadership, equating charismatic with transformational leadership is not sufficient. "Nonetheless, the charismatic leader is likely to be transformational," say Bass and Bass (2008), "but it is possible – though unlikely – to be transformational without being charismatic". In the end, transformational leadership theory is a relationship theory that focuses on the connections formed between leaders and followers. It is based on the assumption that a transformational leader motivates and inspires people by assisting group members or the general public in seeing the importance and greater good of a particular task. The charismatic transformational leader has high ethical and moral standards. The ultimate goal of a transformational leader is to transform his or her followers so that the group can achieve maximum success..

Transformational leadership is profoundly founded in studies of political and governmental leadership, according to Denhardt, Denhardt, and Aristigueta (2002). They also said that public leaders contribute to the creation of a vision for their town, state, or country, as well as to the development of a public policy agenda, mobilization of public opinion on policy proposals, and creating and implementing government programs and policies. These opinions are relevant to Nigeria.

According to Shafritz and Russell (2003), transformational leadership strives to change a company's culture by providing a new vision for the organization. "A transformational leader is one who can change an established organizational culture by articulating a new vision for the organization and marshalling the needed support to make that vision a new reality," Shafritz, Russell, and Borick (2007) wrote.

According to Bryant (2003), while transformational leaders inspire, provide a vision, and intellectually stimulate followers, they are weaker on systems, structures, and implementation, which are areas where transactional leaders have a strong influence. Transformational leadership, according to Bass (1990), has an incremental effect over transactional leadership. While transactional leadership can provide structure and consideration, transformational leadership adds to it by assisting followers in transcending their own self-interests toward accomplishment and self-actualization, according to Bass (1990).

EMPIRICAL FRAMEWORK

In a research carried out by Onolememen M. O. (2015) on the impact of leadership on the governance of infrastructural development in Nigeria, Data were collected through personal interviews with a

purposeful sample of 13 past presidents of Nigeria, public officials, and infrastructure development experts, and by reviewing secondary data on leadership and development in Nigeria during the period 1960-2010. Data were analyzed using the constant comparative method to identify patterns and themes. Findings showed that (a) political instability and the Nigerian civil war have been obstacles to infrastructure development and implementation; (b) military dictatorships implemented improvements, although they neglected rural areas; (c) a new national infrastructure plan must be funded, developed, and implemented; (d) corruption must be combatted in awarding project contracts; and (e) Nigeria's governance should be based on a pragmatic-visionary form of leadership. The implications for positive social change include informing policy makers about the importance of infrastructure development in Nigeria in order to improve economic growth and the lives of citizens.

Literature Gap

There has been a lot of research done on good leadership and infrastructure development. Empirical study indicates that leadership has a significant impact on the development of infrastructure in every community. This study filled a previously untapped vacuum by analyzing the impact of leadership discipline and integrity on infrastructure development in Rivers State, Nigeria. This study addressed a vacuum by analyzing personal leadership attributes as they affect leadership decisions toward infrastructure development, which has never been discussed previously.

3.1 METHODOLOGY

The researcher will use this chapter to outline the measures that were taken to generate current and relevant data for this investigation. The statistical tools that were utilized to examine the data were also explained in this chapter.

3.2 Research Design

The survey methodology was used in the design of this study. Because the quantity of people being studied is known and defined, and the task will entail the use of questionnaires, the researcher's choice of survey can be stated to be acceptable.

3.3 Population of the Study

The population used in this study consists of all the staff of river state ministry of works. The record available to the researcher from their human resource unit put the total population at 89 staff.

3.4 Sample size Determination

According to Alugbuo (2005), sample size determination is the optional number of sampling unit or elements that should be sampled, interviewed or those who can be useful in the study. The researcher will use the Taro Yame method to determine the sample size. The formula is given as;

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

where n= Sample size

N= Population of study

(e)² Square of the level of significance which is put at (0.05)

$$n = 89$$

$$\frac{1 + 89 (0.005)^2}{89}$$

$$\frac{1 + 89 (0.0025)}{89}$$

$$1.2225$$

$$= 72.8 \approx 73$$

3.5 Sampling Procedure

The probability sample approach was used as the sampling approach in this study. The probability sampling approach, which requires random selection of staffs, was used to develop the basic random sampling methodology. Members of the general public have an equal chance of getting chosen. The researcher chose this strategy because it is simple and avoids bias judgment.

3.6 Sources of Data

The information used in this study came from two main sources: primary and secondary sources. Primary sources include questionnaires, oral interviews, and direct observation by the researcher, whereas secondary sources include journals, articles, the internet, textbooks, and institutional publications.

3.7 Validity of the Instrument

Content and face validation were performed on the questionnaire. The instrument's first draft was provided to a committee of practicing experts as part of this process. The supervisor was presented the updated copy that was given to the respondents for review and approval.

3.8 Reliability of the Instrument

To ensure that the results of this study are consistent, a pre-test was undertaken with a distinct group that is not related to the respondents but has similar features. When the results of this pre-test are compared to the results of the main study, it is clear that the research's instrument is dependable.

3.9 Method of Data Analysis

The statistical tool for data analysis in this study is the non-parametric chi-square test, which is given as;

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(\text{Observed frequencies} - \text{Expected frequencies})^2}{\text{Expected frequencies}}$$

$$= \sum \frac{(F_o - F_e)^2}{F_e}$$

Where summation

F_o= observed frequency

F_e= expected frequency

Decision Rule

Accept H₀ if chi-square calculated is greater than the chi-square tabulated (i.e X²_{cal} > X²_{tab}) otherwise reject.

4.1 Testing of Hypotheses

The hypotheses to be tested in this research work are:

Hypothesis One:

H₀₁: There is no relationship between leadership discipline and infrastructural development.

4.1.1 Testing of Hypothesis One

To test this hypothesis results of questions 5 and 6 are used.

Table 4.2.5	Table 4.2.6	Total
16	22	38
12	32	44
20	6	26
24	11	35
1	2	3
Total= 73	73	146

F_e= RT x CT/N

Where F_e= Frequency expected

RT= Row Total

Ct= Column Total

N= Grand total

Level of significance= 5% = 0.05

Degree of freedom= (R-1) (C-1)

= (5-1) (2-1)

$$= (4) (1)$$

$$= 4$$

X^2 tab for 2df at 0.05 level of significance = 3.84

$$R1C1 Fe = 38 \times 73/146 = 19$$

$$R1C2, Fe = 38 \times 73 / 146 = 19$$

$$R2C1, Fe = 44 \times 73/146 = 22$$

$$R2C2, Fe = 44 \times 73/146 = 22$$

$$R3 C1; Fe = 26 \times 73 / 146 = 13$$

$$R3C2; Fe = 26 \times 73/146 = 13$$

$$R4 C1; Fe = 35 \times 73/146 = 17.5$$

$$R4 C2; Fe = 35 \times 73/ 146 = 17.5$$

$$R5 C1; Fe = 3 \times 73/ 146 = 1.5$$

$$R5 C2; Fe = 3 \times 73 / 146 = 1.5$$

F0`	Fe	Fo-Fe	(fo-Fe) ²	(Fo-Fe) ² /Fe
16	19	-3	9	0.4737
22	19	3	9	0.4737
12	22	-10	100	4.5454
32	22	10	100	4.5454
20	13	7	49	3.7692
6	13	-7	49	3.7692
24	17.5	6.5	42.25	2.4143
11	17.5	-6.5	42.25	2.4143
1	1.5	-0.5	0.25	0.1667
2	1.5	0.5	0.25	0.1667
				22.7384

Decision

Since the calculated value of Chi-square, 22.7384 is more than the tabulated value, 9.488, the alternative hypothesis is hereby accepted. And so there is significant relationship between leadership discipline and infrastructural development.

4.1.2 Hypothesis two

HO₂: leadership integrity has no impact on infrastructural development.

To test this hypothesis results from question 8 and 9 are used.

Table 4.2.8	Table 4.2.9	Total
30	19	49
18	34	52
11	8	19
12	8	20

2	4	6
Total= 73	73	146

$$Fe = RT \times CT / N$$

Where Fe= Frequency expected

RT= Row Total

Ct= Column Total

N= Grand total

Level of significance= 5% = 0.05

Degree of freedom= (R-1) (C-1)

$$= (5-1) (2-1)$$

$$= (4) (1)$$

$$= 4$$

X^2 tab for 2df at 0.05 level of significance = 9.488

$$R1C1 fe = 49 \times 73 / 146 = 24.5$$

$$R1C2, Fe = 49 \times 73 / 146 = 24.5$$

$$R2C1, fe = 52 \times 73 / 146 = 26$$

$$R2C2, fe = 52 \times 73 / 146 = 26$$

$$R3 C1; Fe = 19 \times 73 / 146 = 9.5$$

$$R3C2; Fe = 19 \times 73 / 146 = 9.5$$

$$R4 C1; Fe = 20 \times 73 / 146 = 10$$

$$R4 C2; fe = 20 \times 73 / 146 = 10$$

$$R5 C1; Fe = 6 \times 73 / 146 = 3$$

$$R5 C2; Fe = 6 \times 73 / 146 = 3$$

F0`	Fe	Fo-Fe	(fo-Fe) ²	(Fo-Fe) ² /Fe
30	24.5	5.5	30.25	1.2347
19	24.5	-5.5	30.25	1.2347
18	26	-8	64	2.4615
34	26	8	64	2.4615
11	9.5	1.5	2.25	0.2368
8	9.5	-1.5	2.25	0.2368
12	10	2	4	0.4
8	10	-2	4	0.4
2	3	-1	1	0.3333
4	3	1	1	0.3333
				9.7326

Decision

Since the calculated value of Chi-square, 9.7326 is more than the tabulated value, 9.488, the alternative hypothesis is hereby accepted and so leadership integrity has impact on infrastructural development.

4.2 Discussion of Findings

The results of the study were focused on data analysis. The results of the first hypothesis revealed that there is significant relationship between leadership discipline and infrastructural development. It arrived at its conclusions after rejecting the null hypothesis and accepting the alternative hypothesis.

Furthermore, the study of the second hypothesis showed leadership integrity has impact on infrastructural development. Based on the responses from the respondents, the null hypothesis was also dismissed, while the alternative hypothesis was accepted.

4.3 Conclusion

Based on the findings the research concludes that there is significant relationship between leadership discipline and infrastructural development. Also, the study concluded that leadership integrity has impact on infrastructural development.

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