Approaches to Administrative Leadership

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Abstract: Man, the different situations in which he finds himself, the diversity of aims, objectives and functions that he purpose and that are laid down for him and the many types of frames of reference in which he finds himself, are all together so complex and complicated that we cannot evolve anything like a universal formula for leadership. In fact the most that we can say and we can say it all generic elements of administration – is that the success of leadership in the final analysis is determined by the knowledge of the leader and of the people he leads. This knowledge includes knowledge of things outside the group’s own frame of reference. All this constitute the subject – matter of this article.

Keywords: universal formula for leadership, situations, generic elements, leader and leadership

I. Introduction

Various studies indicate that there are three main approaches to leadership. From the approaches we can deduce that we must regard traits of leaders, the situations and functions rather as variables that determine the success of leadership. Knowledge of what very variable in a certain situation entails and the use of such knowledge will determine the success of leadership. A leader must therefore remain the eternal student. Practical leadership is a kind of work.

II. Purpose Of The Article

The purpose of this article is twofold:

a. to analyze the three theories of (approaches to) leadership, namely, trait theory, behavioral or functional theory and situational theory; and

b. to synthesize different viewpoints and approaches to administrative leadership.

III. Theoretical Approaches To Administrative Leadership

1.1 Leadership theories or approaches

Some prominent thinkers, authors and scholars whose contributions to the leadership are critically important include: John Adair; E. P. Hollander; and J. J. N. Cloete

There are three main theories of (approaches to) leadership, namely, trait theory, behavioural or functional theory and situational theory. Each is looked at separately as follows:

1.1.1 Trait theory

This theory says that a person becomes a leader because of the traits possessed by him. It is concerned with identifying the personality traits of leaders.

The trait theory in the beginning assumed that leaders are born and are not made. This came to be popularly known as the great man theory of leadership. Later, the behavioural studies revealed that the leadership traits are not totally in – born but can also be acquired through learning and experience. The important advocates of this theory are Chester Barnard, Ordway Tead, Millet, Terry, Appleby and Schell.

Though popular during 1900 – 1940, the trait theory has been hugely criticized on the following grounds that:

a. it failed to provide a common (universal) list of leadership traits. There has been a wide variation in the traits being identified different scholars.

b. It does not indicate the comparative (relative) importance of different traits.

c. It fails to consider the fact that most or all the traits attributed to leaders are also possessed by many who are not leaders.

d. It does not distinguish between the traits needs for acquiring leadership land necessary for maintain it.

e. It ignores the needs of subordinated (followers0.

f. It does not recognize the influence of situational factors on leadership.

1.1.2 Behavioral theory

Unlike the trait theory which concentrated on what leaders are, the behavioural theory concentrates on what leaders do. The behavioural researchers sought to find out what the leaders do, how they lead, how they motivate subordinates, how they communicate, and so on. They concentrated on leadership functions and styles.
The following table gives the details of various contributions to the growth of behavioural theory (also called functional theory) to leadership.

### Table 1.1: Behavioral theories of leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Studies/models, years and persons associated</th>
<th>Identified leadership styles/ variable</th>
<th>Most effective leadership style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lowa University Leadership studies, late 1930s, Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippit &amp; Ralph White</td>
<td>Authoritarian, democratic and laissez</td>
<td>Democratic style.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Ohio state University leadership studies, 1945, E. A. Fleshman, E. F. Harris and H. E. Burt</td>
<td>Initiating structure (directive type) and consideration (participative type)</td>
<td>A combination of high initiating structure and high consideration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Four systems of management leadership 1961, Rensis Likert.</td>
<td>System 1 (Exploitative Authoritative) System 2 (Benevolent – authoritative)</td>
<td>System 4 (Participative group or democratic style)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Managerial Grid, 1964, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton.</td>
<td>System 3 (consultative), System 4 (participative group or democratic). Five styles of leadership, i.e. a. Impoverished low concern for production and for people b. Country club low concern for production and high concern for people c. Task high concern for production and low concern for people d. Middle of the road moderate concern for production and for people e. Team high concern for production and for people</td>
<td>Team leadership high concern for both production &amp; people.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Situational theory

Both trait and behavioural theories failed to provide an overall and satisfactory theory of leadership as they ignored the situational factors in determining the effectiveness of leadership. Hence, research scholars turned attention to the situational dimension of leadership. They assert that the leadership effectiveness is determined by the various situational factors in addition to the traits and behaviour of the leader himself. This theory belies that the leadership is influence by situational variables and thus differ from situation to situation. It views leadership in terms of a dynamic interaction between a number of situational variables like the leader, the followers, the task situation, the environment and soon. Thus, leadership according to this theory is multi – dimensional. The following table gives the details of various contributions of scholars to the growth of situational theory of leadership.

### Table 1.2 Situational theories of leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theories, years and proposers</th>
<th>Situational variables and leadership styles</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Continuum of leadership behaviour or styles, 1958, revised in 1973, Robert Tannenbaum and Warren Schmidt.</td>
<td>The leader can choose the leadership style based on the forces (i) in himself, (ii) in his subordinates, and (iii) in the situation. The two ends of the continuum consisting of a range styles/behaviour are Boss – Centred leadership (BCL) and subordinates – centred leadership (SCL)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Contingency model of leadership effectiveness, 1967, Fred E. Fiedler</td>
<td>The effectiveness of the leader is contingent upon (i) the leader member relations, (ii) the task structure and (iii) the leader’s position power. He used two scales (i) least preferred co-worker (LPC) scale, and (ii) assumed similarity between opposites 9as) scale and identified two basic styles of leader behaviour; task – oriented and human relations – oriented. He discovered that in extreme unfavourable or extreme favourable situations, the task – oriented leader is more effective and in moderately unfavourable or moderately favourable situations, the human relations – oriented leader is more effective.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Pub-goal theory of leadership effectiveness, 1970 – 71, Martin Evans and Robert House</td>
<td>This theory is based upon the expectancy theory of motivation. The effectiveness of leadership styles (directive, supportive, participative and achievement – oriented) is contingent upon two factors (i) characteristics of subordinates, and (ii) environmental pressures.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Three dimensional model of leadership</td>
<td>In his model, Reddin uses three dimensions of task – orientation.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
effectiveness, 1970, William Reddin

5. Decision participation model. Also known as leader – participation model, normative model and leadership decision theory, 1973, Victor Vroom and Phillip Yetton

6. Life cycle (later termed the situation) approach to leadership, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard

- relationship – orientation and the effectiveness and identifies four effective and four ineffective styles of leadership based on the situation.
  - The effective styles are executive, developer, benevolent autocratic, and bureaucratic and; the ineffective styles are compromiser, missionary, autocrat, and deserter.

Three variables affect the performance of the leader in terms of his capacity as a decision – maker: (i) quality of the decision (ii) degree of acceptance of the decision by subordinates and (iii) time required making the decision.

This model identifies five styles of leadership that represents a continuum from authoritarian approaches (AI, AII) to consultative approaches (CI, CII), to a fully participative approach (GII). The model focuses on the level of maturity of the followers as a contingency variable affecting the styles of leadership (telling, selling, participating, and delegating).

In the next section, a synthesis of different viewpoints and approaches to leadership is presented in order to encourage much more robust and stimulating debate on the topic subject of leadership theories and practices in contemporary society.

3.2  A synthesis of different viewpoints and approaches to leadership

3.2.1  General comments

Leadership is a phenomenon found in all culture, in all ages and in all groups. It affects so many kinds and types of relations that in its totality it cannot be confined within the bounds of a single discipline. Economists, politicologists, sociologists, criminologists, psychologists, socio-psychologists, public administrators all are interested in leadership, each in his own type of frames of reference and situations. The public administrator has perhaps greater interest in the subject than all the other subject specialists because the nature and success of every generic elements of administration is determined by leadership. In fact the practice of leadership is itself a non – sequential generic element of administration.

We need hardly stress that many works on leadership have been published even on leadership in the animal kingdom. Comparatively little success has been gained by prescriptions for leadership; today we know that leadership cannot be expressed in a single formula for universal application. In this article we shall find out why this is so.

The interdisciplinary interests in leaders him has both advantages and disadvantages, seen from the point of view of someone trying to determine what good leadership comprises in any particular situation. The greatest advantage is that the complex phenomenon is studied in various ways from which we can possibly learn more than from a single way of studying it. But in this very point lies its greatest disadvantage: diversity f opinions, conflicting terms and parochial approaches. In this work we shall do our best to avoid these disadvantages by applying our characteristic integrating macro approach the approach that makes of public administration a discipline of exceptional intellectual effort [Macro – and – eclectic – perspective – approach].

3.2.2  Attempts to define leadership

Many attempts have been made to define leadership. Let us examine several of them before we try to make a synthesis.

According to Catherine Seckler – Hudson [1957:268] leadership may be defined as the influencing and energizing of people to work together in a common effort to achieve the purpose of the enterprise

Pfiffner and Presthus [1967:89] define leadership as the art is coordinating and motivating individuals and groups to achieve desired ends.

Martin Tonher [1966] who has written a very profound work on leadership and describes his book as an indictment of the peculiarly American desired for a quick, easy answer to complex situations and problems did not venture to define leadership specifically. And for his book I have more respect than for all the others, which are crammed with over – hasty definitions.

The most that we can say of the polymorphic concept of leadership in a universal and generic sense is that: (a) it occurs in groups; (b) it is practice by individuals in groups; and (c) it helps to determine the direction and way of action of the group [S. B. M. Marume:1988].

Who today is not interested in the direction and way of action of groups? Only one who is absolutely unaware of the existence of others. And surely there are very few who are so irremediably comatose as to be unaware of others.
That is why leadership is so universally important. Even a group that today opposes leadership must use some of substitute leadership in its own group. A group cannot think or decide as an organised unit; only an individual can. And this is another reason why leadership is inherent in group – formation.

3.2.3 Approaches to administrative leadership
We shall probably understand leadership and learn what manifestations it may or should assume in a particular situation if we analyse all the different approaches to leadership. In this connection we can distinguish between three broad approaches: the traits approach, the situational approach and the functional approach. Let us briefly discuss each of these approaches.

3.2.3.1 The traits approach to leadership
This we can look upon as the oldest or classic approach. In this approach leadership consists in the possession of a combination of attributes that are either inborn or acquired, or partly inborn and partly acquired. The following are some of the best – known of these attributes which are usually singled out for special emphasis, we present them in the prescriptive style in which they are often cited.

a. The ability to delegate authority with firmness
The competent leader must have the ability to delegate powers clearly and firmly whenever it becomes impossible for him to do all work himself. It is his task to ensure that the work is done, that it is properly done and that it is done on time, for this reason he cannot hold himself aloof but must attend to the difficult questions while the more routine matters are attended to by his personnel. This means that he delegates his responsibility provisionally, though he cannot rid himself of it, for his superiors still hold him accountable. When he delegates his authority to a subordinate he does so only on condition that he subordinate uses it correctly.

b. The ability to be impartial, objective and thorough
Impartially is extremely difficult to cultivate, because all men have prejudices, biases, likes and dislikes. The senior official who is worthy of his position must constantly strive to be as impartial as possible, especially where he has to do with personnel matters.

c. Personal interest in subordinates
Human relations require in the leader interest in some of the affairs of his subordinates. All human beings are subject to illness, bereavements, domestic and financial difficulties and all these factors have a direct or indirect influence on the subordinate’s potential. The leader should therefore take a personal interest in some of the things that vitally concern his subordinates.

d. The leader must be able to set an example
The leader must always set an example. He cannot afford to expert others to make scarifies that he is unwilling to make himself. In this field nothing is more important than the higher official’s constant sense of responsibility in conducting himself with courtesy, consideration and decency. This not only improves the relations of the institution with the public, but also adds to the effectiveness of the instruction itself.

e. Strictness and sympathy
A good leader is often called upon to handle situations that required the delicate combination of strictness and sympathy. Though he cannot allow himself to be satisfied with poor work and inefficiency he must always remember that he is dealing with people whose sensibilities are as delicate as his own. He certainly may not hesitate in discharging of his responsibilities but he must proceed with the utmost fairness.

f. The ability to reconcile theory and practice
One of the most different tasks of the leader is that of reconciling theory with practice. He must be fully aware of the theory and keep himself informed of recent developments in the field of administration. It is his duty to read extensively, to join professional associations and take an active part in their activities in an effort to increase his knowledge and enhance his value to his organisation. Having gained knowledge he must be able to apply his knowledge in his work and ensure that up to date methods are adopted and used once their practically has been proved.

g. The ability to plan
Since in the preliminary stage of all multi – phase work planning is essential not only in the implementation of policy but also in connection with policy – making the leader must to be plan. Planning is concerned with the examination of situations with due consideration of the objects in view and the resources available. Planning also includes an element of forecasting.

h. The ability to organise
A leader must be able to organize, because organizing is concerned with the arranging of the human and material resources available with a view to attaining the predetermined aims as and objectives as effectively as possible.
i. **The ability to direct**

Direction is the task of making appropriate and necessary decisions and ensuring that such decisions are embodied in orders and instructions in such a way as to facilitate the running of an enterprise and the achievement of predetermined aims and objectives. Because leaders have to take decisions and give orders and instructions the ability to direct is absolutely essential for leaders.

j. **The ability to select personnel**

How a leader uses his power to appoint personnel in any institution is vitally important. A competent leader must be able to sum up individuals and evaluate their education, experience and qualifications in relation to the requirements for a particular post. Today the selection of personnel has greatly improved by the use of scientific aids, but the leader must be thoroughly aware of the requirements for the different positions and be able to weigh the qualifications, skills and experiences of the individuals accurately in relation to them.

k. **The ability to inspire and motivate**

The leader can do longer act like a general giving orders, but sometimes has to act like the chairman of a committee who does his best to persuade members to cooperate in a spirit of tolerance and mutual understanding.

Two of the main pioneers in this field are C. Barnard and O. Tead. Barnard is of the opinion that leaders should use positive incentives to motive their subordinates. Sanctions should be applied for the sake of discipline only. There are many ways to motivate subordinates. Among them being the material, the personal non – material (the opportunity for promotion for example), physical conditions, camaraderie, and tribute. Among the specific incentives Barnard mentions attractive personal associations, environment, the opportunity for greater participation and the condition of communion which is a sense of belonging to a group or an enterprise coupled with personal loyalty and devotion.

According to Barnard the most important incentives are personal non – material factors such as the change to acquire distinction, prestige and personal power.

Tead’s opinion on the motivation of subordinate’s coincides in many respects with Barnard’s. According to Tead every human personality is unique because, like an administrative situation, each is a unique combination of common elements and must be handled accordingly. Human beings have basically two types of interest; the internal, which is concerned with personal integrity and the external, which is concerned with successful relation to the environment. Every individual strives to satisfy his individual and social interests. The internal and external interests are interdependent and the skill with which the individual combines them determines personal integrity. In effecting this combination the individual seeks and is guided by influences which he holds in sufficiently high regard to use them to determine his choice of behaviour. Some people are also what may be called altruistic being happiest when they are devoted to something worthwhile outside themselves.

When attempting to motivate subordinate or when deciding on the steps to be taken to motivate them in a certain way, the leader should give due consideration to these aspects.

As you will see when we come to the other approaches the great difficulty in the traits approach is not that one or more of the attributes can be described as undesirable or wrong; it is that in the practical display of leadership we do not know the relative importance of the different attributes or even how a certain attribute can be converted into a dynamic process. The next two approaches try to overcome this difficulty or at least to keep it in mind more pertinently.

### 3.2.3.2 The situational approach to leadership

One of the leading supporters (writers and researcher) of this approach is the psychologist E. P. Hollander [1964], who also gives an outstanding explanation of the shortcomings of the trait approach.

Hollander maintains that it is easy to understand why the trait approach was for so long the dominant approach. The literary, prescientific conception of the leader as a special person, a great man, called attention to inherent qualities that in either possesses or does not, in short, leadership traits in the traditional usage. Illustrations of this view abound, especially on popular literature. Emerson has said: he is great what he is from nature. And Thomas Heggen, in introducing the hero of his novel about naval leadership, Mister Roberts, says of him: He was a born leader; there is no other kind [Hollander, 1964:5].

In fact leaders function at a particular time and place. Furthermore leaders arrive at a leading position in various ways; sometimes it is by way of authority allocated by a source outside the group; sometimes it is matter of social custom, as in the recognition of the man as head of the household. Hollander stresses that the modern day view of leadership is that leaders are made by circumstance even though some come to those circumstances better equipped than others. What is one culture and situation holds as necessary traits of leadership does not necessarily hold in another culture and situation [op.cit]

The distinctive asset in the situational view lies in the way it frames leadership events in the life context in which they occur. If a leader – let us take the fictional Mr. Roberts, for example, - is effective, this is a relevant datum only in so far as it speaks of his setting, a ship’s crew, and its associated conditions, as time – space –
person complex. His responsiveness to those men, in their circumstances, at the time, is what helps us to know and understand his effectiveness; and characteristics which make him effective there in securing a willing, responsive group support might not carry though to other situations with different demands.

As you can see Hollander approach aims at explaining leadership fro case to as rather than at prescribing what non – leaders can become leaders or at telling those already in the position of leader how to fulfill their roles. This is also evident from the categories of leadership which he discusses fully. There is also naturally – developed and imposed leadership, informal and formal leadership. These forms of leadership can be found in all situations but the formal leadership is usually the species provided for in the formal organisation of institutions.

Hollander points out that the last mentioned type of leadership has aroused great interest because we do live in highly (not necessarily well) organized societies. This type pd leadership demands a certain approach and it is here that we come to the functional to leadership in the organizational context.

The function of the leader may be definably different from this personal characterizes. Bavelas suggests that in the aggregate such leaders are those who perform certain categories of task rather than share characteristic attributes of personality. The question in organizational leadership, says Bavelas, is not who is the leader? But what functions are to be fulfilled? This view point of common functional requirement in institutional situations reveals the expectations of interchangeability of personnel [op.cit., p.7]

3.2.3.3 The functional approaches to leadership

Before we say anything more about this approach we fell it advisable to warn you that the different writers’ views on the same approaches do not always coincide. One important reason for this is that the different approaches do not entirely exclude one another. And so we have again, as almost everywhere in the social sciences, to cope with a classification and terminological problem.

You will remember that we divided administration into different dynamic generic elements. Each of these elements can therefore be represented as an activity or process. If such a process has to be performed by a group (more than one person) then leadership is necessary. Practical leadership is therefore itself a generic process that occurs in all other generic processes of administration. What we are calling processes, activities, dynamic elements are also sometime known as functions [Marume 1988]. In an administrative situation certain functions must be fulfilled. The functional approach to leadership tries to determine what functions the leader must fulfill. Once again however you will realize that the way in which these functions have to be fulfilled as well what functions are at all relevant is also determined by the situation. Moreover it is merely a question of wording to make an attribute of leadership a function of leadership. Thus the difference between the three approaches to leadership apparently amounts to a question of emphasis and choice of first analytical units. The functional approach can therefore differ from the situational approach only in what is used as the first analytical units. In the situational approach these are situations; in the functional approach they are functions. Later we shall make a more complete synthesis of the three approaches; abut we shall first give a concise exposition of the functional approach based on a book by John Adair 1968.

Adair advances the familiar criticism of the trait approach: the quite understandably people differ on what the traits of a leader should be. Then in referring to the situational approach he points out that of leaders are needed beforehand we cannot wait for the situation to produce the leader. And he goes on to say that either these two approaches lends itself to teaching anyone how to practice leadership.

He then introduces his own approach – the functional approach – by first trying to stipulate the nature of leadership. Groups, like individuals, differ but have certain qualities in common. One of these is certain common needs. These needs must be satisfied. Leadership is then defined as the function of satisfying the needs of a group. These needs can be ascertained and the leader can be made aware of them and taught how to satisfy them.

Adair works with all kinds of groups. We must determine how well his theory holds for groups that we could call the staff or organizational groups. In all groups Adair distinguishes a threefold category of needs:

1. Task needs: the main need of the group is its common task
2. Team maintenance needs this is the need for creating and cultivating esprit de corps, a feeling of solidarity, which is necessary for the fulfillment of the task – common aim – of the group.
3. Individual needs; each member of a group has his own personal needs. These are complex and consist of physical. Social and occupationalal needs. Each member may have his own hierarchy of needs.

Subsequently the writer makes the point that the categories of needs overlap and influence one another in the group situation. For instance, failure of the group task will affect the feeling of solidarity and decrease individual happiness; whereas success enhances group pride and individual happiness. The functional of leaders are therefore – and they follow from the defintion of leadership – to promote the solidarity of the group; ensure that the task has been fulfilled; and make it possible to satisfy individual needs.

Continuing his exposition Adair points out that several factors may influence practical leadership functions:
1. The personality of the leader himself
2. The knowledge, skill and experience of his subordinates and the extent to which they can learn from experience.
3. The situations or circumstances of the task

We need not go further into the question of John Adair’s theory to be able to indicate certain problems in it. His categorizing of group needs is illuminating though in itself not a decisive factor in the determination of what a leader ought to do and what can ensure group success. The task of some formal groups, especially big complex groups embracing subgroups – for example a state department – are often complex. The important thing is that the task should always be expressed as clearly as possible. Often conflicts arise between the needs of the individuals and those of the group and the extent to which the individual identifies himself with the group of internalizes the aims of the group is extremely important for the common success of the group, a third problem inherent in Adair’s theory is that the factors that may affect success in leadership are often outside the frame of reference of the group and also beyond the control of the leader.

3.2.4 Critical synthesis of administrative leadership in public institutions

General remarks
The most that can be said of this most important polymorphic concept of leadership in a universal and generic sense is that:
- It occurs in groups
- It is practiced by individuals in groups; and
- It determines the direction and manner of the group action.

Methodological approaches: there are various methodological approaches to modern leadership as follows:
- the traits approach;
- the situational approach;
- the functional approach and
- eclectic approach

The traits approach to leadership
The trait approach sometimes called the leader principle or the great man theory of leadership points to the idea that leaders are necessary and history hinges on their action. This is oldest or classic approach to leadership studies. According to the traits approach to leadership, the possession of a combination of attributes that is either inborn or acquired, or partly inborn and partly acquired. These are some of the well-known attributes that are usually singled out for special emphasis. These attributed are presented in the prescriptive styles in which they are often cited. However, in opposing the traits approach, some leading social researchers argue that the most urgent need in developing Asian, African and Latin American counties is the need to move away from the traditional leadership and that the young must be trained to develop into true agents and instruments of meaningful social change and development.

In order to have competent, reliable and successful public administration in the third world countries already mentioned, leadership must operate simultaneously at two levels, namely, political and administrative or at four levels political, executive, administrative and operational [E. N. Gladden: Essentials of public administration, 1972 pp. 67 – 70] in the public sector institutions.

While criticizing the traits approach, Lynton one of the social scientists, argues that leadership behaviors is not the special property of any one person. Leadership is now viewed as a set of functions in direct contrast to its traditional definition as the position of personality.

The situational approach to leadership
Leaders function at a particular time and place. Furthermore leaders arrive at a leading position in a variety of ways, for example, sometimes it is by means of authority allocated by a source outside the group; and sometimes it is a matter of social custom, as in the recognition of the man as head of the household. The contemporary view of administrative leadership lies in the manner it frames leadership events in the life context in which they occur. If a leader is effective, this is a relevant fact only in so far it speaks of his setting, a ship’s crew and its associated conditions, as time – space – person complex. The leader’s responsiveness to those men of the crew, in their circumstances, at the time, is what assists us to gain a knowledge and understanding of his effectiveness; and characteristics which make him effective there in securing a willing, responsive group support might not carry through to other situations with different demands.

The situational approach to leadership conceives of leadership in terms of functions performed, rather than in terms of persisting traditional traits of the leader.
Hollander, one of the exponents of the situational approach to leadership, maintains that there is naturally developed and imposed leadership, informal and formal leadership. These forms of leadership are found in all situations, but formal leadership is usually the species provided for in the formal organizations of our contemporary social institutions.

Hollander’s formal type of leadership has stimulated great interest because we now live in highly organized, urban, complex societies, and this type of leadership demands a certain approach and it is here that we come to the functionalist approach.

The functional approach to leadership

John Adair urges that if leaders are needed beforehand we cannot wait for the situation to produce the leader. He holds that groups, like individuals, have certain common needs which must be satisfied. Leadership is then defined as the function for the satisfaction of the group needs. Three categories of needs have been identified as:

a. task needs;

b. team maintenance needs and

c. individual needs.

These categories of needs overlap and influence one another in the group situations. For instance, failure of the group task will affect the feeling of solidarity and decrease the individual happiness; whereas success in the group enhances group pride and individual happiness. The functions of leaders are to promote the solidarity of the group, to achieve the needs of the group, and to satisfy individual needs.

Several factors may influence practice leadership functions in so far as delegation of authority is concerned, for instance, the personality of the leader himself; the knowledge, skill and experience of his subordinates, and the situation of tasks.

The eclectic approach to administrative leadership

a. Criticism of the three approaches

The greatest difference between the three approaches to administrative leadership, namely the traits approach, the situational approach and the functional approach amounts apparently to a question of emphasis and the choice of the first analytical units. The great man theory uses the traits Hollander’s situational approach differs from John Adair’s functional approach only in the first analytical units.

In the great man theory, these are traits, in the situational approach these are situations and in the functional approach they are functions.

b. An eclectic approach to leadership

Man, the myriads of situations in which he finds himself, the continuous diversities of aims and objectives that he pursues and that are laid down for him and the multitudinous types of frames of reference in which he may find himself, are all together so complicated and complex that we cannot evolve anything like a universal formula for administrative leadership. The success of any administrative leadership is determined by the understanding, explanations, imagination, knowledge of the leader and his subordinates. This knowledge embraces knowledge of things inside and outside the group’s own frames of reference.

IV. Summary Of Viewpoints And Approaches To Administrative Leadership

Man, the differences in which he may find himself, the diversity of aims, objectives, and functions that he pursues and that are laid down for him and many types of frames of reference in which he may find himself, are all together so complex that we cannot evolve anything like a universal formula for leadership. In fact the most we can say and we can say it of all generic elements of administration is that the success of leadership in the final analysis is determined by the knowledge of the leader and his subordinates. This knowledge includes knowledge of things outside the groups own frame of reference.

From our brief discussion of three approaches we can deduce that we must regard traits of leaders, the situation and functional rather as variables that determines the success of leadership. Knowledge of what every variable in a certain situation entails and the use of such knowledge will determine the success of leadership. A leader must therefore remain the eternal student practical leadership is a kind of work. The precise content of this can be determined only by continual study from case to case. In this connection one may use all the analytical units of different approaches to leadership to ascertain the requirements of leadership. Once again we must stress: it is frustrating futile to insist that something must be simple if it cannot be simple. Do not try to force everything to your statistical ability; it is better to increase your insight, ability and intellectual power.
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Bibliography