

nical Integration  
conomic Planning  
and Physical Planning

Territorial Integration  
Rural Environment  
Urban Planning  
Unit (Areal)

# CONTEMPORARY CONCEPTS IN PHYSICAL PLANNING

Administrative Integration  
Federal, State, Local  
Governments  
Parastatals  
NGOs  
Communities

Functional  
State Teaching  
Interactive Node  
Hospital

Regional  
Hospital

District  
Hospital

Health  
Centre

Dispensary  
or  
Maternity Centre

*EDITED BY*  
**LAYI EGUNJOBI**



Education

Housing

**VOLUME II** System

Mr. S.O. Medayese

26/04/16

# CONTEMPORARY CONCEPTS IN PHYSICAL PLANNING

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**LAYI EGUNJOBI**

**Volume II**

## Preface

This is Volume II of *Contemporary Concepts in Physical Planning*. It is a follow-up to Volume I, which was introduced to the global academic cum professional market in 2015. As a pleasant appetizer to the present volume, it has presented an image of resounding success through acceptance inferred from the large volume of sales within a period of only one year. The motivation, as presented in respect of volume one, is contribution to advancement in urban and regional planning (URP) knowledge and practice. Enrichment in critical thinking, conceptualization and creativity has constituted our broad objective. Specifically, the objective is coming up with a list of concepts; defining those concepts in terms of origin, historical and philosophical development; and relating the concepts to urban and regional planning theory and practice.

The methodology adopted for the production of the book was a process of compiling over time, a list of the concepts through literature search, observation, attendance at conferences and consultations. This was followed by identifying potential authors by such variables as academic/professional qualifications, experience, competence in conceptualization, communication skill and time management. Indications of willingness to participate were followed by guidelines spelling out the authors' responsibilities and the publishers' obligations,

especially in review, printing and funding. The outcome of this process, building on the 2015 experience, is volume two of *Contemporary Concepts in Physical Planning (CCPP)*. One special feature in this new volume is the colour of the book's cover page, which is off-white and deep green (the colours of volume one are gold and coffee). This is to make the two volumes easily distinguishable on a bookshelf.

Volume II of *CCPP* is made up of 51 chapters put together in 1077 pages by a total of 76 single and joint authors. The chapters, as in the first volume, are arranged alphabetically. They are made up of concepts that are regarded as directly related to URP, such as 'community', 'development', 'location' and 'region,' but now presented with new insights and ideas. There are also concepts such as 'ecology', 'vulnerability', 'crime', and 'matrix,' that would not have been seen as directly related to URP, but now convincingly presented as relevant to and, therefore, closely related to URP. Lastly, there are a set of concepts which hitherto would not have been thought of as relevant to URP, but have now entered into the purview of URP. These include 'exclusion', 'inclusion', 'values' and 'leadership'.

The essential value of this volume, as also stated in first volume, is that it cuts across the whole spectrum of the various categories of town planners or urban/regional planners. That is to say that the book is of value to planning students, planning educators, those planners in practice as well as those in the public sector. However, we have, in this volume included another category of planners: these are the emerging crop of 'entrepreneur planners'. (See, Egunjobi Layi, Zubairu Mustapha and Gunn Ezekiel (editors), 2016, *Entrepreneurial Opportunities in Urban and Regional Planning Practice*. Abuja: Town Planners Registration Council of Nigeria – TOPREC; 218 pages). In general, the book is about familiarity with the changing world much as the changes relate to URP. For instance, changes in technology are reflected in 'planning on the moon,' planning the artificial islands and coping with traffic situations involving the self-

driven and, even, flying cars.

Emerging from this book project is the fact that the concepts that are relevant to the theory and practice of URP are legion. This in itself is a reflection of the nature of URP, as embracing almost all conceivable aspects of human life, and all its supporting elements. It also confirms the general assertion that there can be no end to the pursuance of knowledge, even in a narrow segment.

The measure of success attributable to this endeavour was due to the collaborative and cooperative efforts of the 76 authors, whose names and brief profiles have been highlighted in the table of contents and authors' profiles; the reviewers, who are mandatorily anonymous; and Dr. Adesina Sunday of the Department of English, University of Ibadan, who was consulted for language editing. Others were Tpl. Olusegun Falola, Miss Oluwafisayo Abiodun and Mr. Ola Olaniyan, who, since the conception of the idea of this publication, constituted a formidable team working on the logistics and technical areas of production. Tpl. Ademola Adebayo, who had the responsibility of designing the cover page, and Mr. Paul Gbolagade Falodun, the master printer, closely worked with the technical team and the editor. The publisher, the Department of Urban and Regional Planning of the University of Ibadan, currently being led by Dr. Olusiyi Ipingbemi, supported our efforts towards advancement in knowledge and professionalism.

**Professor Layi Egunjobi**

5th July, 2016.

		Page
Preface		iv
List of Tables		x
List of Figures		xii
List of Boxes		xiv
Abbreviations and Acronyms		xv
Accessibility	<i>O. J. Omirin</i>	1
Accountability	<i>Taibat Lawanson, Hakeem Bishi and Adedoyin Luwaji</i>	20
Assessment	<i>Layi Egunjobi, Olusegun Falola and Oluwafisayo D. Abiodun</i>	38
Biodiversity	<i>Olusegun Falola and F. C. Adeyemi</i>	71
Capacity Building	<i>J. T. Famutimi</i>	99
Climate Change	<i>Adeniyi Oseni</i>	126
Community	<i>S. D. Wapwera and K. G. Jiriko</i>	148
Comprehensiveness	<i>Ola Aluko, Y. A. Aluko and A. K. Adebayo</i>	170
Conservation	<i>Adebayo A. Emmanuel and Taye J. Bayode</i>	194
Creativity	<i>Ola Aluko, Hakeem Bishi and Oluyemi Akindeju</i>	214
Crime	<i>Abdullateef I. Bako</i>	235
Development	<i>Layi Egunjobi and Chukwuemeka Orji</i>	250
Ecology	<i>S. A. Oladimeji and Olusegun Falola</i>	268
Empowerment	<i>Ola Aluko, A. Farinmade and Y. A. Aluko</i>	291
Environmental Justice	<i>Layi Egunjobi and Femi A. Balogun</i>	313
Equity	<i>I. K. Adebisi</i>	329
Exclusion	<i>S. O. Medayese, B. M. Adeleye and A. A. Popoola</i>	347
Feminism	<i>Olusola Olufemi</i>	367
Harmony	<i>Ola Olaniyan</i>	388
Homelessness	<i>Tunde Agbola and Victor Onifade</i>	408
Inclusion	<i>Funke M. Jiyah, Oluwatoyin A. Fashae and Joshua Adewunmi</i>	434
Infrastructure	<i>U. U. Jimoh</i>	455
Institution	<i>Taofiki Salau, Omoayena Odumbaku and Haruna Jimoh</i>	480

Interdisciplinarity	<i>A. A. Adedibu and A. T. Adeboyejo</i>	500
Justice	<i>Layi Egunjobi and Philip Ighosoyivwi</i>	517
Knowledge	<i>A. O. Sulyman</i>	539
Leadership	<i>S. O. Medayese, S. I. Shaibu and O. O. Idowu</i>	559
Legislation	<i>Jehu Gwani and Abok Galadima</i>	578
Livelihood	<i>Oluwafisayo D. Abiodun and Oluwabukola A. Ayangbile</i>	593
Location	<i>Oluwabukola A. Ayangbile and Bamiji M. Adeleye</i>	611
Management	<i>Thaddeus M. Imegi</i>	629
Matrix	<i>J. F. Olorunfemi, O. O. Idowu and S. O. Medayese</i>	642
Mega City	<i>Leke Oduwaye, Omoayena Odunbaku and Olabode Orelaja</i>	658
Mobility	<i>Olusiyi Ipingbemi and Olawale Akogun</i>	676
Model and Modelling	<i>C. O. Olatubara and Oluwasinaayomi F. Kasim</i>	692
Modernism	<i>Victor Ilechukwu</i>	709
Policy	<i>Muyiwa E. Agunbiade and Oluwafemi Olajide</i>	738
Pollution	<i>Martin B. Gasu and Deborah A. Yakubu</i>	757
Poverty	<i>Ola Aluko, I. C. C. Nwokoro and A. K. Adebayo</i>	786
Regeneration	<i>Mubarak Lasisi</i>	807
Region	<i>Ashiru Bello and Joseph S. Oladimeji</i>	828
Satisfaction	<i>Erumon O. F. Elegbu and Paul D. Adah</i>	846
Settlement	<i>Ola Aluko</i>	870
Space	<i>Tolulope Osayomi and Olusegun Falola</i>	893
Standards	<i>J. F. Odekunle and R. F. Simon</i>	913
Strategy	<i>Olumuyiwa B. Akinbamijo and Taye J. Bayode</i>	935
System	<i>Olatunde Oduwole and Obinna K. Ijeomah</i>	951
Technology	<i>Ademola Adebayo</i>	969

Trend Values	<i>C. O. Olatubara and S. K. Ojelowo</i>	989
Vulnerability	<i>J. J. Dukiya</i>	1006
Authors' Profiles	<i>Oluwasinaayomi F. Kasim and</i>	
Index	<i>Kolawole K. Amusat</i>	1032
		1057
		1064

30	Planning Profession	
104	Emergence of Capacity Building	2.1:
240	Typology of Crime and Violence	11.1:
261	Serious Crimes in Nigeria (1995 - 2003)	11.2:
340	Summary of Nigeria's Development Plans (1945 to 2014)	12.1:
356	The Linnian Transportation Evaluation Measurement Table	16.1:
372	Mobility - Accessibility-based Transport Planning	16.2:
376	Harmonized Indicators of Social Exclusion adopted by the European Union in 2001	17.1:
377	Second Wave (the 1970s and 1980s) and Third Wave Feminism (the 1990s)	18.1:
461	Overview of Varieties of Feminist Theory	18.2:
545	Summary of Feminist Theories	18.3:
562	Material Infrastructure to Satisfy Requirements of Human Life	22.1:
567	Evolution of the Knowledge Concept	26.1:
598	Definitions of Leadership	27.1:
644	Leadership Approaches according to Different Schools of Thought	27.2:
664	Livelihood Assets	29.1:
672	Size and Description of Matrix	32.1:
764	Maturity Level and Challenges of Megacities	38.1:
811	Current and Upcoming Meg-cities in Africa	33.2:
814	Categories of Pollution	38.1:
833	The Evolution of Urban Regeneration	40.1:
853	Approaches to Urban Regeneration	40.2:
883	Typology of Regions with Examples	41.1:
920	Quality Values and Sub-characteristics	42.1:
	Urban Planning Practices and Citizen Expectation	42.2:
	National Standards Organisation founded in Early Twentieth Century	42.1:



# List of Tables

<b>Table</b>	<b>Page</b>
1.1: Definition of Accessibility by Various Authors	4
1.2: Accessibility Constraints and Solutions	15
2.1: Accountability Mechanisms in the Nigerian Urban Planning Profession	30
5.1: Emergence of Capacity Building	
11.1: Typology of Crime and Violence	104
11.2: Serious Crimes in Nigeria (1995 - 2003)	240
12.1: Summary of Nigeria's Development Plans (1945 to 2014)	261
16.1: The Litman Transportation Evaluation/Measurement Table	340
16.2: Mobility – Accessibility-based Transport Planning	
17.1: Harmonized Indicators of Social Exclusion adopted by the European Union in 2001	356
18.1: Second Wave (the 1970s and 1980s) and Third Wave Feminism (the 1990s)	372
18.2: Overview of Varieties of Feminist Theory	376
18.3: Summary of Feminist Theories	377
22.1: Material Infrastructure to Satisfy Requirements of Human Life	
26.1: Evolution of the Knowledge Concept	461
27.1: Definitions of Leadership	545
27.2: Leadership Approaches according to Different Schools of Thought	562
29.1: Livelihood Assets	567
32.1: Size and Description of Matrix	598
33.1: Maturity Level and Challenges of Megacities	644
33.2: Current and Upcoming Mega-cities in Africa	664
38.1: Categories of Pollution	672
40.1: The Evolution of Urban Regeneration	764
40.2: Approaches to Urban Regeneration	811
41.1: Typology of Regions with Examples	814
42.1: Quality Values and Sub-characteristics	833
42.2: Urban Planning Practices and Citizen Expectation	853
45.1: National Standards Organisation founded in Early Twentieth Century	863
	920

49.1:	Percentage of Municipal Solid Waste Generated and Collected in the Lagos Metropolis from 2007 to 2013	1001
50.1:	Ideologies of Environmental Perception and Theorist	1019
50.2:	Modern Planning with Focus on Urban Design and Street System	1024

# List of Figures

Figure	Page
1.1: Relationships between Components of Accessibility	12
2.1: The Accountability Matrix	23
2.2: Flowchart of Rational Planning and Decision-making Process	27
4.1: Linkages among Biodiversity, Ecosystem Services and Human Well-being	79
16.2: The Equity Wheel Model	343
19.1: Elements of Harmony	390
19.2: Kepler's <i>Harmonices mundi</i>	392
19.3: Museum of Civilisation, Hull Quebec, Canada	401
19.4: High-rise Buildings, Lagos	401
19.5: Model of Colour Schemes	402
19.6: A View of Lagos	403
19.7: Integration of Water and the Built Environment in Lagos	404
19.8: Soft Green Landscape within in Lagos	404
19.9: A Clustered Urban Neighbourhood Interspersed with Nature in Lagos	405
25.1: Relationship among the Three Elements of Justice.	526
25.2: The Elements of Theory of Justice.	528
27.1: Characteristics/ Indicators of Good Governance	576
29.1: An Abridged Livelihood Framework	638
31.1: Decision Tree Building Blocks	671
33.1: Selected Current and Future Megacities 2015 to 2030	681
34.1: Historical Timeline of Mobility Development	744
37.1: Types of Coercion, Policy and Politics	752
37.2: Model of Intelligent Cities	769
38.1: Smoke from a Factory	829
41.1: A Hypothetical Example of Two Geographic Spaces with Differing Internal Characteristics	836
41.2: The Determinants of Regional Output Growth	902
44.1: Lefebvre's Conceptual Triad	907
44.2: The Invaded City – Westport, Ireland	907

## List of Figures

Figure	Page
1.1: Relationships between Components of Accessibility	12
2.1: The Accountability Matrix	23
2.2: Flowchart of Rational Planning and Decision-making Process	27
4.1: Linkages among Biodiversity, Ecosystem Services and Human Well-being	79
16.2: The Equity Wheel Model	343
19.1: Elements of Harmony	390
19.2: Kepler's <i>Harmonices mundi</i>	392
19.3: Museum of Civilisation, Hull Quebec, Canada	401
19.4: High-rise Buildings, Lagos	401
19.5: Model of Colour Schemes	402
19.6: A View of Lagos	403
19.7: Integration of Water and the Built Environment in Lagos	404
19.8: Soft Green Landscape within in Lagos	404
19.9: A Clustered Urban Neighbourhood Interspersed with Nature in Lagos	405
25.1: Relationship among the Three Elements of Justice.	526
25.2: The Elements of Theory of Justice.	528
27.1: Characteristics/ Indicators of Good Governance	576
29.1: An Abridged Livelihood Framework	638
31.1: Decision Tree Building Blocks	671
33.1: Selected Current and Future Megacities 2015 to 2030	681
34.1: Historical Timeline of Mobility Development	744
37.1: Types of Coercion, Policy and Politics	752
37.2: Model of Intelligent Cities	769
38.1: Smoke from a Factory	829
41.1: A Hypothetical Example of Two Geographic Spaces with Differing Internal Characteristics	836
41.2: The Determinants of Regional Output Growth	902
44.1: Lefebvre's Conceptual Triad	907
44.2: The Invaded City – Westport, Ireland	907

44.3:	The Invaded City – Lagos, Nigeria	907
44.4:	The Abandoned City – Spokane, WA, USA	907
44.5:	The Reconquered City – Abuja, Nigeria	907
47.1:	Elements of a System	954
48.1:	Train in the 19th Century	976
48.2:	Train in the 21th Century	976
49.1:	Trend in Municipal Solid Waste Collection in Metropolitan Lagos	1002
50.1:	Range of Environmental Philosophies	1020

## List of Boxes

<b>Box</b>		<b>Page</b>
3.1:	Elements of an Effective Assessment Plan	65
4.1:	The RTPPI's Five-point Approach to Planning	
	Decisions for Biodiversity	92
33.1:	Emerging Trends of Urban Planning	671
		34
		390
		392
		401
		401
		402
		403
		404
		404
		405
		526
		528
		576
		638
		671
		681
		744
		752
		769
		829
		836
		902
		907

## LEADERSHIP

S. O. Medayese, S. I. Shaibu and O. O. Idowu

### 27.1 Introduction

Leadership is one of the topics in modern research. It is limited to only management. It originated long back in history when people started understanding the importance of leaders' role in various facets of life, such as politics, governmental issues, foreign policy and war. Philosophers, historians, warriors and rulers in the past paid much attention to this subject to bring improvement to leadership practices of their times (Shamas-ur-Rehman, 2009).

According to the prominent leadership scholar Bennis (2007), leadership is an important resource in any organization; it exhibits individual's broad scope talents and abilities. The conceptual idea of leadership is embedded in managing and management principles. There is no area of human activity or profession where the task of leadership is

not require for smooth running of the affairs of the activity or profession. However, the concept of leadership is ambiguously viewed in organizational and managerial practice. Basically, the focus of leadership lies in the process applied in doing things or influencing people to get involved in achieving the set objectives.

Yukl (2002) notes that the term leadership is a word drawn from the common vocabulary and incorporated into the technical vocabulary of scientific and non-scientific disciplines, without being precisely redefined. There are scientists who work on the concept of leadership, trying to narrow this concept down in terms of traits, behaviours, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, occupation of an administrative position, or attribution.

There are numerous definitions for leadership. Kotter (1992) submits that leadership is most fundamentally about changes. Yukl (2006) firmly subscribes to the view that leadership is the process which influences others to understand and agree on what to be done and how to do it. This involves facilitating individuals with collective effort to accomplish shared objectives. Norhouse (2010) discusses involvement of process in the conceptual background of leadership. In exercising leadership responsibility, an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. Kotter (2009) mentions five basic approaches to which leadership could be understood: the involvement of the process approach, the influencing ability, the dealing and relationship with a group of people, the goal-oriented approach, and the sharing of responsibility among the people. Decades of work on leadership have yielded trends in leadership application and its relationship to several professions, including urban and regional planning practice and training.

Understanding the concept of leadership in the light of the contemporary ideas in urban and regional planning is a worthwhile venture. With regard to the restructuring of the curriculum of the profession (urban and regional planning) in the tertiary institutions in the country, the study of the principles, philosophy and theories of leadership as a contemporary concept in physical planning will passionately enhance qualitative results in the practice or teaching of the profession. Transformation is bound to continue in the immediate and



distant future. It is against this view that the contemporary concept of leadership is required, for instance, to position the physical planning profession as a reckoning profession, with experts in leadership skills playing the leading role and creating innovativeness among the professionals in the built environment.

This chapter mainly addresses the meaning and different definitions of leadership, the emerging concepts and evolution of the leadership cum historical background of leadership. The key elements, concepts, philosophies and theories of leadership are also appraised, which form the first part of the chapter. The second section discusses the relevance of leadership to the town planning education and practice.

## **27.2 Literature Review**

### **27.2.1 Meaning and Definitions of Leadership**

The literature on leadership is, characterized with confusion and misunderstandings of the definitions, concepts and approaches of leadership. The researches on leadership have been repeatedly conducted on a few areas and topics. Shamas-ur-Rehman (2009) argues that several works on leadership started with the question: What is leadership? He discusses the variations on the concept of leadership and lack of common definition by which leadership can be evaluated. Burns (1978) argues that leadership is the most observed but least understood phenomenon.

Proliferation of terms in explaining what leadership is all about has been reported by several researchers; still its concept is not yet sufficiently defined. Besides the leadership ideologies and myths, the common understanding of leadership seems blurred, with diverse approaches to explaining and interpreting the scholars' opinions on leadership. Yukl (2002) makes a compilation of different definitions of leadership, summarizing the views of several scholars, as shown in Table 27.1. Most of these definitions mainly assumed that leadership is a process exerted by an individual, influencing others by guiding; and that it creates a structure to facilitate organizational activities and promote relationships. However, the focus on leadership differs as to who exerts influence and in what manner, as well as the purpose and the outcome of the influence attempt.

**Table 27.1: Definitions of Leadership**

Leadership is ...
1. "the behaviour of an individual ... directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (Hemphill and Coons, 1957: 7)
2. "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization" (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 528)
3. "exercised when persons ... mobilize ... institutional, political, psychological, and other resources so as to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers" (Burns, 1978:18)
4. "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement" (Rauch and Behling, 1984: 46)
5. "a process of giving purpose (meaningful direction) to collective effort, and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve purpose" (Jacobs and Jaques, 1990: 281)
6. "the ability to step outside the culture ... to start evolutionary change processes that are more adaptive" (Schein, 1992: 2)
7. "the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed" (Drath and Palus, 1994: 204)
8. "about articulating visions embodying values, and creating the environment within which things can be accomplished" (Richards and Engle, 1986: 206)
9. "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization..." (House et al., 1999: 184)

**Source:** Yukl (2002)

When leadership is defined in different ways, the focus and the interpretation seem to vary. This depends on the circumstances, the purpose and the capacity of responsibilities such an individual is saddled to bear or undertake. Whatever the way, one may try to define leadership, or interpret its contextual basis, leadership entails developing the skills and ability to inspire confidence and support among the people who are needed for one to achieve organizational goals.

### 27.2.2 Evolution of Leadership Thought

The study of leadership has its roots in the beginning of civilization (Stone and Patterson, 2005). For instance, the Egyptian rulers, Greek heroes, and biblical patriarchs all exhibited leadership as a common feature. Although the practice of leadership has changed considerably over time in many ways, the basic functions of leadership – providing direction, decision-making, establishing goals, communicating, resolving conflict – still remain the same. Examining the evolution of leadership provides a necessary perspective within which to appreciate the increasing interest in transformational leadership (Clark and Clark, 1990). There has been a growing interest of the cultural and biological anthropology on the contents of leadership.

The evolution of leadership, as related to this chapter, can be viewed from a different paradigm. This enables systematic illustrations on how the leaders emerged and how principles of leadership evolved.

#### (a) Leadership Traits

The Galton's Great Man theory formed the historical basis for the evolution of the study of leaders and leadership (Clark and Clark, 1990). This era is traceable to the royalty, battlefield heroes, wealthy and successful individuals who possessed inherent talents and abilities that set them apart from the population at large. In the 1920s and 1930s, the trait theory became accepted and spread due to the "Great Man" theory. However, this theory has been unsuccessful in identifying the traits that made leaders different from other people. The underlying assumption of the theory was that leaders surely had to possess some universal characteristics that made them leaders. For the most part, the traits were viewed as given at birth. The theory did not take into account the different circumstances faced by leaders, nor the vast differences in the types of the individuals being led.

#### (b) Leadership Behaviours

A shift away from the view on who a leader is or the inborn traits of the leader has influenced several researchers to refocus themselves to what leaders are actually doing, as an attempt to identify the leader's behaviours. This is referred to as a behavioural approach to leadership. The behavioural approach tries to identify exactly what good leaders do on the job and then draws correlations between those specific behaviours and their leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). Research in this area basically identified two different dimensions of leadership behaviour,

one focused on the task and the other on the people or interpersonal dimensions.

**(c) Situational Leadership**

The situation under which the leadership operates is quite important, as important as the leadership behaviour is. The work of previous scholars has resulted in reorientation of the field in what is, referred to as situational leadership. For example, some specific personal characteristics that were associated with leadership were identified (Shamas-ur-Rehman, 2009). Leader traits, for example, were relevant only to the degree that they pertained to the task under consideration.

Situational leadership theories can be categorized as trait or behaviour, depending on the researcher's judgment as to whether the leader's actions reflect either innate skills (traits) or simply the leader behaving in a way in response to the demands of a specific situation. This reorientation of the field paved the way for consideration of other approaches to the leader-follower relationship.

**(d) Contingency and Transactional Leader Model**

These approaches to leadership emerged from the situational approach of leadership. They identify leadership effectiveness traits which relate to those qualities individuals in leadership roles had to perform well, as opposed to identifying any specific traits needed. Situational elements as well as the characteristics of both the leader and the followers greatly impacted the leadership process. The contingency and transactional models contributed to the understanding of leadership complexity by migrating away from trait or situational approaches to leadership.

**(e) Contingency Leadership**

The contingency theories of leadership claim that leadership effectiveness is the combined result of both the qualities of the leader and the demands of the situation. These requirements interact to ensure that leadership qualities are consistent with the encountered task. The contingency leadership concept is based on the idea that effective leadership is situation-dependent. The leader has to be prepared to address effectively a host of situational variables in order to make intelligent decisions regarding his actions. The model was predicated on the idea that there is a direct link between subordinate acceptance of the decisions and worker productivity. However, the model emphasises leader's behaviours, not traits. It introduced the idea of the leader being

concerned with followers' development.

**(f) Transactional Leadership**

Transactional leadership was derived initially from a social exchange perspective that focused on the implicit social contract between leaders and followers and its relationship to effectiveness. Typically, transactional models focus on exchange theory and the perceptions and expectations followers have regarding the actions and motives of leaders. The follower's perception regarding fairness and equity of the exchange with the leader is paramount.

**(g) Charismatic Leadership**

The field showed renewed interest in the idea of the "charismatic leader," a concept first introduced by Max Weber. Charismatic leaders are typically thought to exert enormous influence and power over their followers as a result of their emotional appeal, especially in crisis-type situations where conventional wisdom suggests strong leadership is sought out. Impression management, articulation of an appealing vision, communicating high expectations, and expressing confidence in the ability of their followers are all key behaviours of charismatic leaders. The behaviours of the charismatic leader are aimed at influencing their followers' attitudes and perceptions about the leader.

Burns (1978) notes that charisma is a phenomenon often associated with political leaders, and articulate the positive characteristics associated with that style-inspire trust, confidence, unquestioning acceptance, wilful obedience, emotional investment, affection for the leader, and garner higher performance from their followers. This concept of leadership promotes unquestioning follower obedience and dependence. Pseudo-transformational leaders employ symbols of authority and exploit hierarchical differences to advance their own interests and agendas. They also inappropriately use their transactional skills and behaviours to threaten, coerce, demand compliance, and manipulate follower behaviour.

**(h) Transformational Leadership**

This concept of leadership evolved as a discernible trend. It was first introduced by Burns in *Leadership* (1978). This concept notes a difference between those leaders whose exchanges with followers are transactional and those whose interactions with followers are transformational.

Transformational-type leadership is a potentially powerful approach to be explaining leadership. Transformational leadership did not replace transactional leadership; it rather built on it. The two theories are neither inconsistent nor incompatible. In fact, leaders typically use both approaches, although transformational leadership is often more powerful in its effect.

### **27.2.3 Changes in Leadership Approach**

Bryman (1992) splits leadership research into roughly four decades, beginning with the trait approach up to the 1940s and ending to date, with the so-called "new leadership approach," that includes charismatic and transformational leadership (see Table 27.2). This brief listing is not exhaustive, but rather superficial. Motivational approaches, attribution theory, learning theories, etc., which also play an important part in understanding leadership, are missing.

Although research trends have changed over the years, each new stage did not herald the demise of its predecessor; rather, a change in emphasis and perspective was indicated. Components of the preceding approaches can be found in the following trends. The new leadership approach, for example, refers to charisma and leadership behaviours and, therefore, combines the first two decades with newer theoretical suppositions. The attempts to organize the major approaches to leadership, according to the literature, have only been partially successful (Yukl, 2002). A more useful way is the classification according to the variable that is emphasized the most. The three major variables of researches on leaders are (1) characteristics of the leader (traits, skills, behaviour, influence tactics, attributions about followers, etc.); (2) characteristics of the followers (traits, skills, attributions about the leader, trust in the leader, task commitment, satisfaction, etc.); and (3) characteristics of the situation (type or size of organizational unit, position power, task structure, environmental uncertainty, external dependencies, etc.).

According to Yukl (2002), in order to explain effective leadership, leadership theories emphasize one category more than the others. Therefore, he classifies the theories and empirical approaches into the following five categories, as shown in Table 27.2:

**Table 27.2:** Leadership Approaches according to Different Schools of Thought

Approach	Examples
Trait Approach	Trait theory
Behaviour Approach	Ohio, Michigan studies
Power-Influence Approach	Participative leadership
Situational Approach	Contingency theories, leadership substitutes
Integrative Approach	Charismatic leadership, transformational leadership

Source: Yukl (2002)

#### 27.2.4 Trait versus Process

Statements such as “She is a born leader” and “He was born to lead” imply a perspective toward leadership that is trait-based. Yukl (2006) states that the trait approach emphasizes leaders' attributes, such as personality, motives, values, and skills. Underlying this approach is the assumption that some people are natural leaders, endowed with certain traits not possessed by other people (p. 13). This is very different from describing leadership as a process. In essence, the trait viewpoint suggests that leadership is inherent in a few select people and that leadership is restricted to only those few who have special talents with which they are born (Yukl, 2006). Some examples of traits are the ability to speak well, an extroverted personality, or unique physical characteristics such as height (Bryman, 1992).

Viewing leadership as a process implies that leadership is a phenomenon that is contextual and suggests that everyone is capable of exercising leadership. This suggests that leadership can be learned and that leadership is observable through what leaders do or how they behave (Daft, 2005; Northouse, 2010).

#### 27.2.5 Assigned Versus Emergent

Assigned leadership is the appointment of people to formal positions of authority within an organization. Emergent leadership is the exercise of

leadership by one group member because of the manner in which other group members react to him or her. Examples of assigned leadership are general managers of sports teams, vice presidents of universities, plant managers, the CEOs of hospitals, and the executive directors of non-profit organizations. In some settings, it is possible that the person assigned to a formal leadership position may not be the person to whom others in the group look for leadership. Emergent leadership is exhibited when others perceive a person to be the most influential member of their group or organization, regardless of the person's assigned a formal position. Emergent leadership is exercised when other people in the organization support, accept, and encourage that person's behaviour.

This way of leading does not occur when a person is appointed to a formal position but emerges over time through positive communication behaviours. Fisher (1974) asserts that some communication behaviours that explain emergent leadership are verbal involvement, keeping well-informed, asking other group members for their opinions, being firm but not rigid, and the initiation of new and compelling ideas (Fisher, 1974; Northouse, 2010).

### **27.2.6 Leadership and Power**

Power is related to but different from leadership. It is related to leadership because it is an integral part of the ability to influence others. Power is defined as the potential or capacity to influence others to bring about desired outcomes. We have influence when we can affect others' beliefs, attitudes, and behaviour. While there are different kinds of power, in organizations, we consider two kinds of power – position power and personal power. Position power is that power that comes from holding a particular office, position, or rank in an organization (Daft, 2005). A university vice chancellor has more power than a dean of a business school, but they both have formal power. Personal power is the capacity to influence that comes from being viewed as knowledgeable and likable



by followers. It is power that derives from the interpersonal relationships that leaders develop with followers (Yukl, 2006).

We would argue that when leaders have both position and personal power, they should use personal power most of the time. Overuse of position power may erode the ability of a leader to influence people. It is important to know when it is most appropriate to use position power and to be able and willing to use it (Daft, 2005). Power can be two-faced. One face is the use of power within an organization to achieve one's personal goals to the detriment of others in the organization. The other face is that power works to achieve the collective goals of all members of the organization, sometimes even at the expense of the leader's personal goals.

### **27.2.7 Leadership and Coercion**

Related to power is a specific kind of power called coercion. Coercive leaders use force to cause change. These leaders influence others through the use of penalties, rewards, threats, punishment, and negative reward schedules (Daft, 2005). Coercion is different from leadership, and it is important to distinguish between the two. It is important for you to distinguish between those who are being coercive and those who are influencing a group of people toward a common goal. Using coercion is counter to influencing others to achieve a shared goal and may have unintended, negative consequences (Dubrin, 2007; Yukl, 2006).

### **27.2.8 Leadership and Management**

Leadership is similar to, and different from, management. They both involve influencing people. They both require working with people. Both are concerned with the achievement of common goals. However, leadership and management are different on more dimensions than they are similar. Zaleznik (1977) argues that managers and leaders are very distinct, and being one precludes being the other. Managers are reactive. While they are willing to work with people to solve problems, they do so

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with minimal emotional involvement.

Conversely, leaders are emotionally involved and seek to shape ideas instead of reacting to others' ideas. Managers have limited choice, while leaders work to expand the number of alternatives to problems that have plagued an organization for a long period of time. Leaders change people's attitudes, while managers only change their behaviour. Mintzberg (1998) contends that managers lead by using a cerebral face. This face stresses calculation, views an organization as components of a portfolio, and operates with words and numbers of rationality. Leaders lead by using an insightful face. This face stresses commitment, views organizations with an integrative perspective, and is rooted in the images and feel of integrity. Managers need to be twofaced; they need to simultaneously be managers and leaders.

Kotter (1998) argues that organizations are over-managed and under-led. However, strong leadership with weak management is no better and may be worse. Organizations need strong leadership and strong management. Managers are needed to handle complexity by instituting planning and budgeting, organizing and staffing, and controlling and problem-solving. Leaders are needed to handle change through setting a direction, aligning people, and motivating and inspiring people. Organizations need people who can do both – they need leader-managers.

Rowe (2001) asserts that leaders and managers are different and that one aspect of the difference may be philosophical. Managers believe that the decisions they make are determined for them by the organizations they work for and that the organizations they work for conduct themselves in a manner that is determined by the industry or environment in which they operate. In other words, managers are deterministic in their belief system. Leaders believe that the choices they make will affect their organizations and that their organizations will affect or shape the industries or environments in which they operate. In

other words, the belief systems of leaders are more aligned with a philosophical perspective of free will. Organizations with strong management, but weak or no leadership will stifle creativity and innovation and be very bureaucratic. Similarly, an organization with strong leadership and weak or non-existent management can become involved in change for the sake of change – change that is misdirected or meaningless and has a negative effect on the organization. Bennis and

Nanus (1985) express the differences between managers and leaders very clearly in their often quoted phrase: “Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing” (p. 221). Implicit in this statement is that organizations need people who do the right thing and who do the “right things right.”

### 27.2.9 Principles of Leadership

The following are the principles of leadership:

- i. **Know yourself and seek self-improvement** – In order to know yourself, you have to understand your *be*, *know*, and *do*, attributes. Seeking self-improvement means continually strengthening your attributes. This can be accomplished through self-study, formal classes, reflection, and interacting with others.
- ii. **Be technically proficient** – As a leader, you must know your job and have a solid familiarity with your employees' tasks.
- iii. **Seek responsibility and take responsibility for your actions** – Search for ways to guide your organization to new heights. And when things go wrong, as they often tend to do sooner or later – do not blame others. Analyse the situation, take corrective action, and move on to the next challenge.
- iv. **Make sound and timely decisions** – Use good problem-solving, decision-making, and planning tools.
- v. **Set the example** – Be a good role model for your employees. They must not only hear what they are expected to do, but also see them. *We must become the change we want to see* – Mahatma Gandhi

- vi. **Know your people and look out for their well-being** – Know human nature and the importance of sincerely caring for your workers.
- vii. **Keep your workers informed** – Know how to communicate with not only them, but also seniors and other key people.
- viii. **Develop a sense of responsibility in your workers** – Help to develop good character traits that will help them carry out their professional responsibilities.
- ix. **Ensure that tasks are understood, supervised, and accomplished** – Communication is the key to this responsibility.

### **27.3 Relationship and Relevance of Leadership Concept to URP Practice and Training**

Town and country planning is the process of making decisions on the development and use of land. It is a tool for guiding and facilitating development and regeneration in a way that also preserves the best features of our environment. Town planning is the determining and drawing up plans for the future physical arrangement and condition of a community or the comprehensive planning of the physical and social development of a town. Town planning is the physical, social and economic planning of an urban environment (such as a town). Town Planning is the planning and design of all the new buildings, roads and parks in a place in order to make them attractive and convenient for the people who live there. Town planning is the designing of the physical layout of cities, planning the infrastructure of an urban area. Town planning, the conscious intervention by government in the orderly growth of urban centres, aims to improve health, ensure efficient land use, protect the environment and facilitate economic development. Urban, city, and town planning is the integration of the disciplines of land use planning and transport planning, to explore a very wide range of aspects of the built and social environments of urbanized municipalities and communities.

**What do town planners do?** The modern profession of town planning mainly arose in response to the urban problems caused by rapid industrialisation from the late 19th century. The rapid growth of towns shook contemporary habits and concepts. Social reformers recognised the need for corrective intervention to deal with the growth forces unleashed by modernisation. Pioneering professionals often worked first in other built environment area like architecture, surveying, engineering or landscape architecture. Planning was a chance to exercise a distinctive overall spatial and social vision that drew on specialised inputs. Town planners could either design entirely new urban areas (such as suburbs and garden cities), or develop ways to reform and reorder existing ones to provide plenty of space and light, clean water and adequate drainage (through urban renewal).

Early town plans concentrated on securing adequate provision for key urban needs, such as: housing, commercial and industrial uses; railways and roadways; water; sewerage and energy supply; open space and recreational areas. Each element of a well-planned urban environment would work alone and as part of the whole. A town plan also to be affordable, and to fit the designated site. The vision of what the town or city could become was critical. The drawings produced were as important as the vision itself.

Planning today retains its commitment to ideal urban environments, but has to work within challenging political contexts. The task of reconciling competing development and environmental goals in the interests of "sustainability" usually falls to the planning function in government. Much attention is now directed at better managing existing cities than creating completely new ones.

There are various dimensions of leadership roles of town planners as a coordinator of resources, human, environmental and natural. The relationship between leadership and town planning education and practice is captured below:

- i. The town planner as a leader in urban governance,

- ii. The town planner as a leader in city centre design,
- iii. The town planner as a leader in master plan design,
- iv. The town planner as a leader in the design, implementation and monitoring plans,
- v. The town planner as a leader in the conceptualization and development of plan both at local, regional and national scale,
- vi. The town planner as a leader in the process of implementation of the sustainable development goals,
- vii. The town planner as a leader in the sustainable city programmes, and
- viii. The town planner as a leader in the drive towards mitigating climate change.

This chapter considers two of the important areas of relevance of leadership in planning and the leadership roles of the urban planner. These areas of relevance are urban governance and master plan conceptualization, as well as plan preparation, implementation and monitoring.

### **27.3.1 Planners' Leadership Roles in Good Urban Governance**

Governance is a very complex issue. It refers to the administrative arrangements of economic and social resources for development. One of the main objectives of governance is to undertake holistic developmental planning for an area with the maximum utilization of the economic and human resources available therein. Governance is a generic term, which becomes more specific when we use the prefixes urban, rural, good, and so on with it.

Governance takes place at all scales of organization, ranging from global governance involving transnational coordination, planning and management of international policies, to internal governing of a small institution. Governance structures can include one, more or all of the following (Agere, 2000):

- between governments and markets,

- between governments and citizens,
- between governments and the private or voluntary sector,
- between elected officials and appointed officials,
- between local institutions and urban and rural dwellers,
- between legislature and executive branches, and
- between nation, states and institutions.

Urban governance involves administration, planning, coordination and management of an urban area/ city/town. It also refers to the relationship between local government institutions and urban dwellers or citizens. It equally includes partnership or coordination between local city governments and private enterprises/ the civil society/ the voluntary sector to help improve the administration of a city.

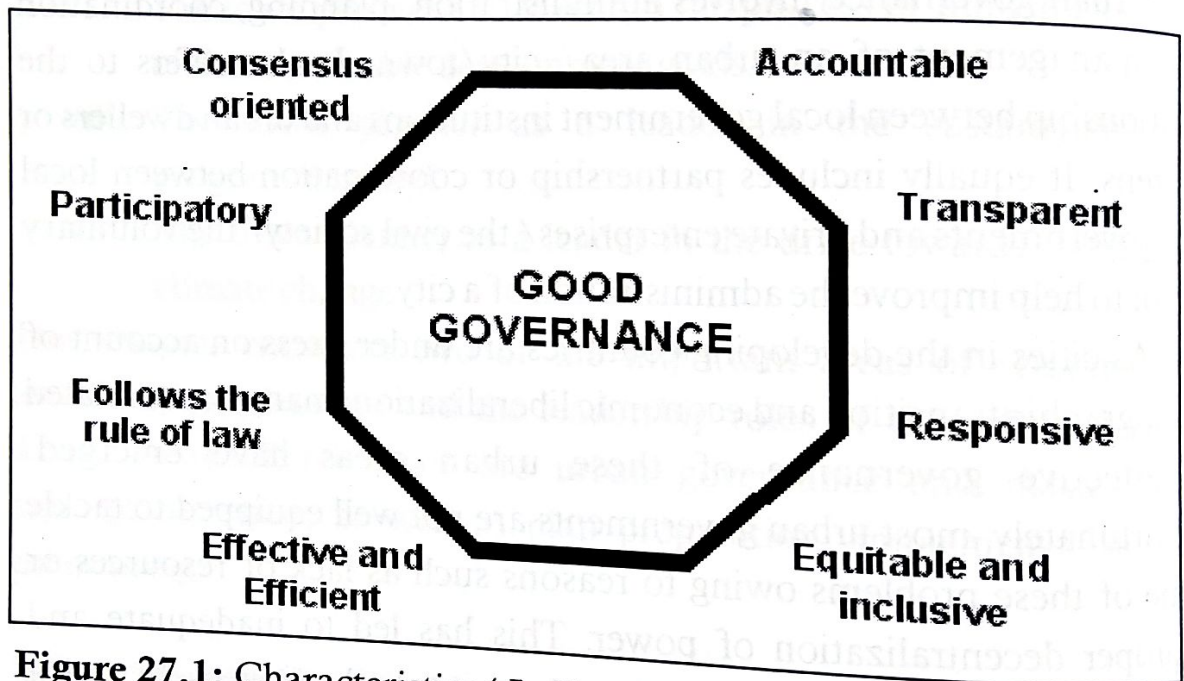
As cities in the developing countries are under stress on account of demographic transition and economic liberalization, many issues related to effective governance of these urban areas have emerged. Unfortunately, most urban governments are not well equipped to tackle some of these problems owing to reasons such as lack of resources or improper decentralization of power. This has led to inadequate and ineffective provision of public goods and services to the citizens. In such a scenario, partnerships of local governments with the civil society and the private sector become important to steer and create responsive governance structures. Local governments are the first and the most direct level of interface between citizens and governments and, therefore, the most vital platform for the exercise of democracy.

It is important to realize that for effective governance and planning of urban areas, local city governments must be empowered to carry out all functions related to the running of city administration. They must also have adequate funds and professionals with requisite skills to carry out all these functions effectively. In most developing countries, this kind of devolution of power and funds has not taken place and thus the local governments fail to function or deliver effectively. In India, there is constitutional support to such decentralization but its actual



implementation has been extremely slow.

When we define good governance, we are speaking about its quality. We, therefore, analyse the positive transformations that are alternatives to the current format, which can improve its functioning. Governance can be defined as good when all the issues that make it ineffective are addressed, removed or taken care of.



**Figure 27.1:** Characteristics/ Indicators of Good Governance

#### 27.4 Conclusion

In view of the various responsibilities of the town planner enumerated above, it has become obvious that the town planner is an individual who needs and should have a detailed knowledge of leadership skills and attributes. The planner must be able to proactively harness resources, and provide requisite direction on how the built environment should be managed, operated and protected.

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