

Higher Education Leadership and Governance Issues: Their Effect on the Creative and Cultural Industries

Background

The creative and cultural industries' slow development in Kenya may be understood by examining a number of factors. One of these is the country's provision for education and training for the sector in general, and specifically how this is organised. This chapter examines leadership styles and governance issues that emanate from the same in the Kenyan higher education scenario, from the notion that governance matters affect the process and outcome of teaching and learning. The chapter subsequently relates these issues to their effect on education and training for the creative and cultural industries, finally demonstrating that leadership styles and governance issues impact on the success of the creative and cultural industries.

After 2003, the Chancellor of all the public universities ceased to be the person of the Head of State, preferring instead the appointment of an individual to fulfil that role. Shortly after that, the vice-chancellor, the chief executive officer of the university, also ceased to be appointed by the president, but was instead selected through an open competitive procedure. Within the university, there are, therefore cadres of leaders that are selected (VC/top management), elected or appointed (deans/middle management) and appointed (heads of departments/lower management). Such a melange of leaders provides an opportunity for diverse and creative ways of planning and executing programmes in the institution. The governors are not bound to follow political diktats, but engage professionally in the act of education provision. This chapter will interrogate the implication of leadership for the creative and cultural industries.

Higher education is expected to provide leadership in the context of national development (Dubbey 1991), a development that increasingly recognises the role of the creative economy. It is common, in developed countries, to find highly qualified persons recruited to fill high-profile decision-making posts in government and industry. Similarly, in terms of need, senior researchers are sought after to provide knowledge and insight to deal with social issues. It was only after fifty years of independence that Kenya, propelled by the dictates of the 2010 constitution began to move in this direction. The appointment of professionals into high positions of decision-making was a fresh breath, however differently received and viewed by interested parties. Seen hitherto as critics of government, academics were suspected, and treated as a threat. For a long period, the radical views of academics led to politically motivated detention and much-publicised university student unrests that hardly received any state sympathy, but further portrayed higher education as a resource-guzzling, non-benefit institution.

Recent observations and realities on leadership and governance have generated a perception of a transforming discipline. Whereas discourse on leadership and governance could address strengths and weaknesses in politics, economics, organisations, institutions and even religion, the term becomes more inclusive outside of the political arena. Undoubtedly, discussions on leadership (good or bad) eventually revolve around the leader and leadership strategy or approach applied at a particular historical time. In the context of higher education, it is key to understanding the impact of institutions on industry and the society.

Zechlin (2011:1) discusses the departure of leaders from what he terms the sociological model that binds leaders to 'expectations' and 'generalized action patterns'. Zechlin faults this leadership design as an irony in what the leader might hold as their own concrete positions of action. The argument is extended further to propose a leadership situation that develops leadership paradigms based on the individual's understanding of situational contexts rather than impositions engendered by systems. This chapter discusses leadership and governance, pointing out their focal points of convergence as applied to numerous administrative contexts including higher education, and further articulating their effect on training for the creative and cultural industries.

Contextualising transformative leadership in areas that require organisational stewardship sheds light on the performance of the organisation. This entails understanding the continuum that defines the direction of change in the transformation, providing a vital view of the leadership processes in relation to leadership approaches, personalities and leaders' characteristic behaviours under different cultural settings. It is important to position the subject of transformation all leadership within the confinement of organisational culture and its outcome.

Winston and Patterson (2006:7) proposed, while exposing research flaws in a social sciences approach of understanding leadership through reductionism, an integrated model of defining a leader. In their argument,

a leader is someone who selects, equips, trains and influences one or more follower(s) with diverse gifts, abilities and skills and focuses the follower(s) to the missions and objectives of willingly and enthusiastically expending spiritual, emotional, and physical energy in a concerted coordinated effort to achieve the organisational mission and objectives. The leader achieves this influence by humbly conveying a prophetic vision of the future in clear terms that resonate with the follower(s) ['] beliefs and values in such a way that the follower(s) can understand and interpret the future into present-time action steps. In this process, the leader presents the prophetic vision in contrast to the present status of the organisation and through the use of critical thinking skills, insight, intuition, and the use of both persuasive rhetoric and interpersonal communication including both active listening and positive discourse, facilitates and draws forth the opinions and beliefs of the followers such that the followers move through ambiguity toward clarity of understanding and shared insight that results in influencing the follower(s) to see and accept the future state of the organisation as a desirable condition worth committing personal and corporate resources toward its achievement [sic]. The leader achieves this using ethical means and seeks the greater good of the follower(s) in the process of action steps such that the follower(s) is/are better off (including the personal development of the follower as well as emotional and physical healing of the follower) as a result of the interaction with the leader. The leader achieves this same state for his/her own self as a leader, as he/she seeks personal growth, renewal, regeneration, and increased stamina—mental, physical, emotional, and spiritual—through the leader-follower interactions.

The persuasion by the authors for the case of departing from reductionist thinking was informed by the weakness in understanding leadership as 'parts' and not as a 'whole'. The integrated model proposed analyses the leader vis-à-vis the led. It establishes an inseparable chain of organisational relationships that synergises mission, vision, communication, emotional development, ethics, spirituality, critical thinking, values and achievement, not as attributes of an individual effort but as a leadership strategy that draws success from collective ideological and implementation enterprise. It does not relieve the one at the top of the leadership. It only collates a participatory approach to realising collective missions and objectives. Further more, there is an insistence on the leader's sensitivity to enable training, support and protection with a view to encouraging achievement of organisational goals.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) argue that decades of academic analysis have given us more than 350 definitions of leadership, but that no clear and unequivocal understanding exists on what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders. Perhaps more importantly, what distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective ones is the most studied and least understood topic of any of the social sciences. On the other hand, Northouse (2007) avers that leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal. This therefore suggests that even though the definition of leadership can be approached from myriad points of view, the common denominator remains that leadership is not a one-person affair. It involves collaboration between and among individuals

towards a common cause. One person influences and directs the others towards a defined direction and within certain agreed rules and regulations.

Petrie (2014) provides four transitions to leadership development as shown in Table 4.1. This validates the definition given by Winston and Patterson (2006) of the integrated leadership model. Petrie (2014) suggests more of a collective developmental approach as opposed to an individualised approach where one person controls operations and development. Notably, the proponent advocates for ‘collective leadership’ spread throughout the ‘networks’.

Table 4.1: Focus of leadership for higher education

Current focus	Future focus
The ‘what’ of leadership	The ‘what’ and ‘how’ of development
Horizontal development	Horizontal and vertical development
HR/Training companies, own development	Each person owns development
Leadership resides in individual managers	Collective leadership is spread throughout the network

Source: Petrie (2014).

There is a point of concurrence with the integrated model where leadership is a collective ownership. In support of proposing changing leadership approaches, the author cites, among others things, the new values and expectations of generations entering the workplace, new technologies that have disrupted old work practices, increased globalisation leading to the need to lead across cultures and interconnectedness of systems and business communities.

Effective leadership, therefore, reposes on the approach where the leader seeks viable networks useful to the organisation, respects the lives and ideas of the followers, is humble enough to be able to interact and listen to ideas outside their own and realises that leadership and the growth of an organisation relies on many actors. However, beyond these concepts and proposals on ethical, accommodative and inclusive leadership, questions of their applicability in real eclectic contexts emerge.

Aseka (2011) speaks of a ‘new philosophy of leadership’. The author decries past leadership paradigms that rested entire leadership responsibilities on an individual expected to inspire individuals to achieve organisational objectives:

It was an approach that was based on assumptions of people’s powerlessness, their lack of personal vision and inability to master the forces of change, deficits which can be remedied only by a few so-called great leaders... There must be a post-heroic leadership based on bottom-up transformation fuelled by the quest to shared power and responsibilities of community building. (Aseka 2011:1)

Certain fundamental tenets emerge from this argument: collaborative leadership where followers are not only considered as followers, but people who also possess talents of great leadership; proposals for transformative leadership in states to engender a servant leadership style and the reversal of dictatorships and exclusionist politics so far experienced, especially in Africa, to be replaced with inclusivity and attendant growth and sustainability of populations and resources. These are situations pre-colonial mind-sets considered inescapable.

Forje (2007), discussing politics in Cameroon, singles out 'predatorialism' as a disease that has affected leadership strategies in African states in terms of the exercise of power. It is a complex that marginalises citizens causing socio-economic debility. The works cited so far provide an empirical platform of understanding leadership strategies. The works converge on the compromise that the time has come for leadership approaches to shift from provisions of singularity to the accommodation of plurality and collectivism towards the realisation of organisational objectives.

Ethics and Leadership

Souba (2011), in discussing leadership, positions the questioning and re-examination of deeply held beliefs and convictions of leaders as integral facilitators to good, effective and constantly transformative leadership. Fundamentally, the author singles out 'commitment, awareness, and authentic joy' as factors that shape ethical leadership. Skovira and Harmon (2006) argue for the concept of ethical ecology within organisations. The authors see in this concept the creation or facilitation of a moral landscape or ethical environment within which leaders operate. Among the factors singled out to qualify these environments are codes of conduct, corporate policy, financial affairs, human resources, organisational reputation and the leader's moral frame. This does suggest that a leader's ethical judgement is a sum-total of actions morally and strategically taken in wide-ranging managerial and leadership responsibilities whose consequence is the success of the organisation.

This study sought to establish leadership status in higher education in Kenya with a view to determining how this influences growth and development in the industry. An understanding of the models of leadership applied paved the way for the articulation of a way forward that should see a strong higher education–industry partnership for a robust industry. In this analysis of leadership approaches in HE, it is useful to engage Martinez-Saenz (2009) whose thoughts on constructs of ethical leadership name: altruistic (leader acting out of selfless motives) and egoistic (right thing considered by leaders because of a selfish motive) forms. The other types are autonomous (allowing followers to determine direction of ethics), legalistic (leaders following set rules and regulations) and communitarian (bettering society and communities within which organisation resides). A study of the trends in our higher education institutions would reveal tendencies towards these types of approaches to leadership.

Governance

Governance as a concept was foregrounded in development discussions in the last Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Having evolved from a strict analysis of the application of the concept to the rule of law, it assumed an even wider role in re-configuring public administration to meet developmental challenges of globalisation.

Brankovic (2011) draws a direct nexus between governance and implementation of institutional policies and decisions. Taylor and Machado (2006) observe that governance, as opposed to management and leadership, incorporates governing functions such as strategic direction, resource planning and accountability, extending to strategic implementation. Scholars have propounded various other points of view. Peters (2001) agrees with Pierre (2000) that 'governance' refer to a set of relations among various social actors between and within various levels of social action and whose contexts change over time. Pollitt and Bouckaert (2004) discuss governance as a process of institutions that guides and restrains collective actions of a group.

It therefore, emerges that governance is a catalyst and principal facilitator of development regarding reforms, wealth creation, equitability and equity, eradication of poverty and democratisation. As a process it is subject to change anchored on changing times, needs and organisational goals. It also emerges that governance is an institutional exercise that not only factors in missions and visions of organisations and institutions but the social groups that comprise those institutions. Such an environment is the type that higher education institutions exhibit. This multifaceted character of governance engenders a need to discuss some forms/models of governance that give the concept wide scopes of interpretation, and how it impacts on higher education procedures and policies.

General Models of Governance

As a dynamic concept, various players have tended to transform procedures of governance in the context of rapidly changing environments within which they operate. This process follows certain strategies to conform to the challenges at hand. There are three significant models of governance in various fields that appear to be the foundations of other existing models. Some models appear to have direct influence on higher education.

Community Governance

Totikidis, Armstrong and Francis (2005) advocate for what they term a new mode of governance that is increasingly becoming popular. They term it 'community governance'. In attempts to unpack it the authors state that this mode of governance entails community participation, engagement and decision-

making in public matters and is related to terms such as local governance, network governance and participatory governance. They further state that the distinguishing feature with other forms of governance is the emphasis on the community rather than corporations and organisations. Figure 6 validates why we chose this to be a foundational model towards discussing others. The model vividly explains different broad categories of models within which other sub-models can be discussed.

The reason for including this model in this study is to attempt to establish whether as models evolve and as the world changes there could be any role the corporate environment plays in community issues or whether largely autonomous gaps still exist. Do these broad descriptions of models exist in a state of autonomy or do they interact, each supporting the other in operational schemes? Of what benefit would be such an interaction in institutions, businesses, organisations in relation to ‘community’? Derived from Figure 4.1, this study presents two other models for discussion. This approach will be useful when discussing higher education and how emerging challenges/operational reconfigurations influence the choice of governance model to apply.

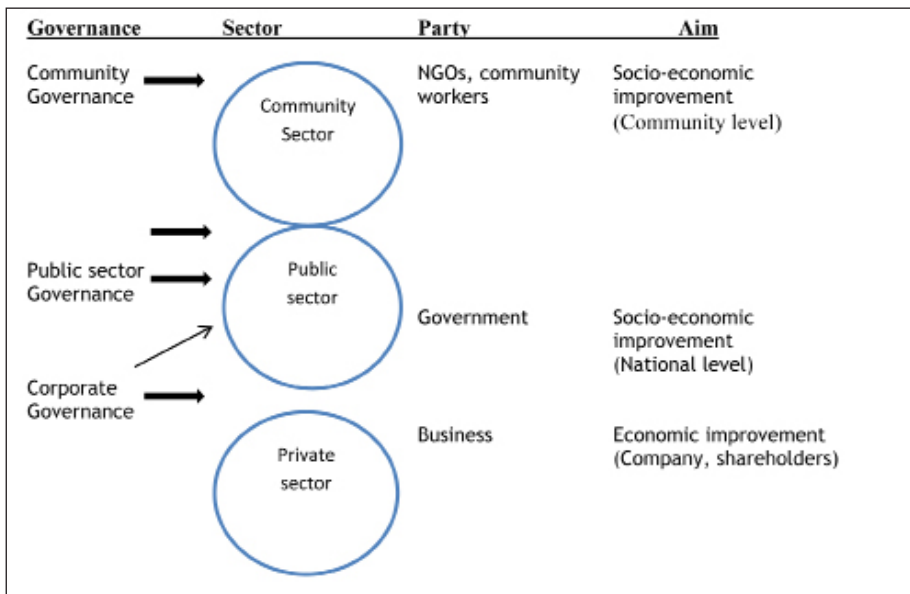


Figure 4.1: Community governance model

Corporate Governance Model

Argüden (2010) discusses a Corporate Governance Model as part of other emerging models of governance. The author lists several attributes that define this model that make up the acronym ‘CRAFTED’. These include a culture and

climate of consistency, responsibility, accountability, fairness, transparency and effectiveness that is deployed throughout the organisation. The author argues that governance should transcend mere compliance, but achieve meaning from paying attention to all the components of the model. Further more, the author emphasises not just the role of the board, but critically, how it is selected, its composition, priority issues of focus and ability to learn to continuously improve performance of corporations through the quality of decisions and management strategies.

Emphasis has also been directed to the character(s) at the top of management and how they influence the choice of the right people, decisions and processes to achieve the desired productive results. The corporate governance model is anchored on information, culture, guidance and oversight to yield the desired business results.

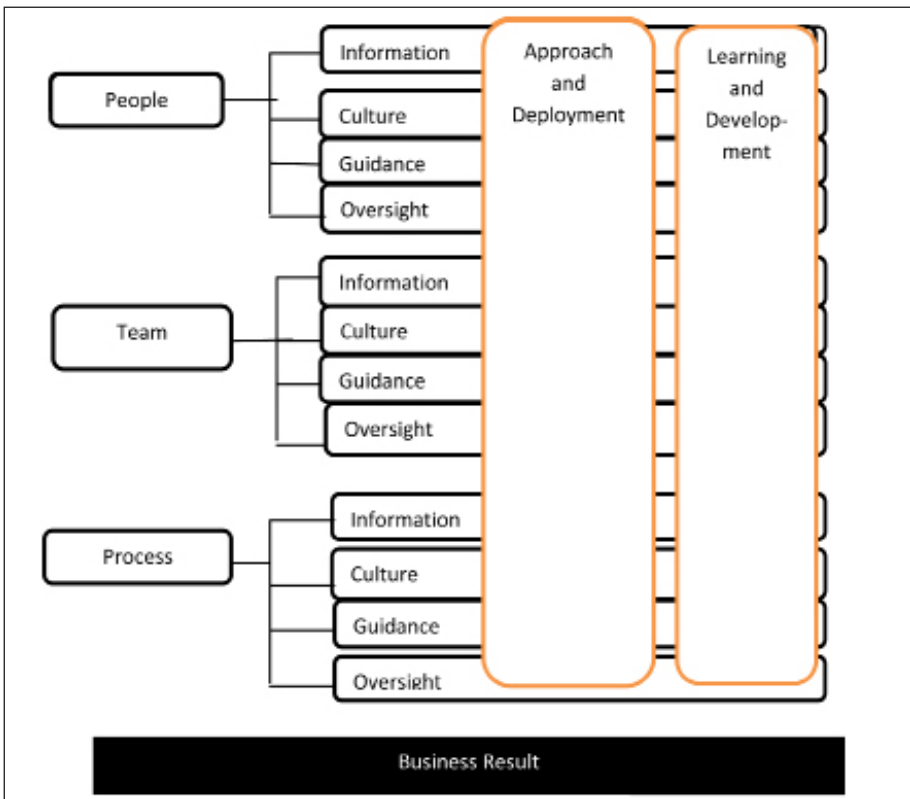


Figure 4.2: Pillars of the corporate governance model

Figure 4.2 identifies three pillars of corporate governance necessary for optimum business results. These are people, teams and processes. At each level, four factors are consistently active and these are information, culture, guidance and oversight.

Therefore right from the people at the top, the decisions they pass to teams and the processes initiated, the determination of benefits to the organisation will be made. Adjudicating all these process and networks are the factors of approach, deployment, learning and development. This model has significant information to contribute to the management of creative and cultural disciplines in higher education institutions, which would have great impact on the overall running of the institutions.

Integrated Governance Model

The United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP 2014) proposes an Integrated Governance Model (IGM) as part of reforms in ensuring sound financial systems and sustainability of organisations. It is ‘a system by which companies are directed and controlled, in which sustainability issues are integrated in a way that ensures value creation for the company and beneficial results for all stakeholders in the long-term’ (*ibid.*:35). To achieve this, three phases are outlined. Phase 1 depicts sustainability outside the board’s agenda. The board holds no responsibility for sustainability projects as this lies with other teams. Phase 2 has a sustainability committee. It is in this phase that progress and performance of sustainability projects take place through special committees and measurement indices. Phase 3 entails oversight of sustainability projects by the board. These phases are illustrated in Figure 4.3.

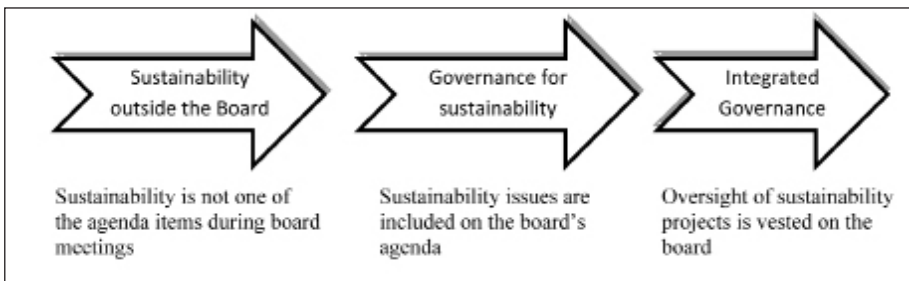


Figure 4.3: The board and sustainability agenda – 3 phases

Ideally, the integrated governance model recognises the significant role of the board while implementing mechanisms of role distribution, strategic planning, oversight and implementation. The board is not responsible for every action taken in the organisation. Most significantly, the board does not initiate the initial stages of projects but plays an oversight role in the span of the sustainability project. This is a very significant model, with much responsibility laid on processes as opposed to organisational structures, yet there are checks and balances to ensure adherence to the organisation’s objectives.

Governance and Higher Education

Leadership and governance in higher education are multi-dimensional and involve individuals in directing human behaviours towards the objectives of the institution. This act of directing human behaviour is normally undertaken within a structured system of authority a governance structure. From this perspective, where leadership provides the direction, governance establishes the powers that are used to direct human behaviour.

Governance is representative of norms, values and rules for administrating and managing public affairs in a transparent, responsive and inclusive manner. It is further about culture and institutional environment under which the subjects of a government have their public affairs managed through organs of the government (UNESCO 2014). Governance is the key and essential framework in which the activities of an institution of higher learning can be undertaken. Without governance as a framework for management of institutional affairs, the activities the organisation undertakes will fail to realise the desired outcomes.

Governance enables the staff of an organisation to discharge their duties and exercise their powers according to the organisation's mandate. Proper governance structures and practices allow employees to have a relationship with all the relevant stakeholders which results in improving work processes and practices, increases accountability and develops the institution's capability to achieve its objectives. The Australian National Audit Office (2003) sums up its view on governance by saying that it should account for the relationship with stakeholders in a formal way through a structure that effectively yields to efficient communication flows and minimises the chances and occurrence of conflicts of interest between government (in this case the institution) and stakeholders.

Governance in the context of higher education is therefore construed to have multiple elements. Significantly, it confers powers on different offices within the governing structure of an organisation. Institutions of higher learning have different offices and departments which must function in unison to yield results that are in line with their vision and mission statements. It is from this that the different office bearers derive their powers to influence others within their jurisdiction. In universities, the office of the Vice-chancellor is deemed to have the ultimate administrative powers in the institution, which implies that the person of the Vice-chancellor (VC), the office bearer, derives his or her powers to administer the university in accordance with the powers conferred on that office. From this, the VC directs and influences the actions and behaviour of his or her deputies and either directly or implicitly delegates authority to them. This creates an organisational structure in which powers are distributed to the different offices to the level unto which they can execute their mandates. Where the office bearer acts or makes a decision in excess of their powers, they seek permission, which is a way of requesting to be delegated authority to act or make that decision.

Tertiary institutions are corporate entities with defined processes and protocols to which the engagements of individuals in the institution's context must subscribe. The rules, regulations, norms, organisational culture and values are integrated towards the visions of the organisations. To achieve that aligning of individual strategies towards the vision of an organisation, the governance system confers powers on different offices in a structured manner, normally hierarchically, so that the actions outlined in the mission statement can be undertaken. In this case the expected output of the individual is strategically designed in advance by an effective leadership to move in sync with organisational strategies.

The hierarchical structuring of power leads to a clear differentiation of functions within institutions of higher learning. The clear determination and differentiating of functions provide a platform upon which the leadership can oversee the functions of their subordinates and be accountable for those departmental or individual outcomes (Esmark 2009). The functional differentiation allows tertiary institutions to adapt to the new trend of a reflexive, adaptive network-based governance approach that is distinct from the traditional tools of governance. This incorporates new governance instruments to the conventional approaches based on order and command structure, coercion and legalities (Esmark 2009; Marcussen and Torfing 2007; Kettl 2002). In this way the governance of tertiary institutions can react spontaneously to new challenges based on the fact that delegation of powers and effective leadership within a democratic environment, where accountability and responsibility are paramount, allows the institutions to be more flexible than in the past. Regarding leadership, governance can be used to imply the structure of administering an organisation. In this, governance underscores the importance in which leadership is used to make the structures proactive in leading people towards a common purpose.

UNESCO (2014) posits that governance compels the leadership of an institution to ensure that the activities of an organisation are undertaken within accepted legal considerations. Furthermore, it imposes the element of making the leadership act in moral and ethical ways in providing oversight authority on the work processes and activities of employees. The ethical challenges confronting leadership in HE is a question of reconciling their personal world views and values with those of their followers. This, in itself, is a dilemma. Furthermore, the moral challenge in the concern of the leadership arises from the demand to work with diverse groups in the same institutional setting arising from the need to have 'reflection and critical yet respectful thinking about themselves, the organisation and others'. All these must happen in a multicultural setting within an accommodative organisational culture that allows the leadership to nurture an environment where everyone feels valued, finds meaning and fulfilment in their contribution, activities and role in the organisation and earns respect within the institution (Pless and Schneider 2006; Pless and Maak 2009; Dorasamy 2010). Sound governance is a response to the need for inclusivity in the administration of institutions of HE.

With good governance conferring enough powers on leaders, an effective leadership network within an institution can motivate staff, clients and relevant stakeholders to greater productivity and satisfaction. The leadership must align productivity to the objectives of the institution, and different system and organisation linkages are created which bridge the different functions into a unified whole for the entire institution (Leder 2012). This creates a leadership structure in which personnel report to their functional heads at every level. Ultimately, the CEO of the institution, be it Principals or Vice-chancellors, have a means of exerting control over their juniors, and providing the visionary leadership that complements governance efforts to bear the expected results.

In exercising the powers conferred on them, the leaders must first motivate their subordinates. Exercising the powers without due regard for the situational context of their juniors may create a perception of dictatorship. Tertiary institutions must use a leadership approach that permits diverging views of subordinates to be included in decision-making processes. This should not be implied as a benevolent dictatorship, which restricts the inclusiveness and level of participation in the decision-making processes of an institution. In the context of governance, leadership must entail legitimacy that is acceptable to the followers. Leadership is not about leading; it is about the followers and the leader working in harmony. Leadership must be able to use legitimacy to mobilise resources, create networks and rally for the proper use of assets in creating support for all stakeholders, both internal and external, to realise the corporate goals within the frame of effective governance.

In the Kenyan context, higher education is an all-encompassing term that includes post-secondary institutions even though the dominating sector in the conversation of higher education is universities. They exist to play a fundamental role in the socio-economic, cultural and even political outline of the nation. The ideas generated as well as expected innovations are aimed at uplifting the status of the nation in terms of discoveries, problem solving and opening up opportunities through which meaningful interaction and knowledge sharing with the international community can be realised. It is in this context that studies need to seriously interrogate modes and approaches that characterise governance and how this influences the realisation of the initial mission of how universities can serve society. Very significantly, it is to establish how governance structures assist in mobilising technology, science, arts, religion, etc. in the service of humanity, empowering populations and creating opportunities for economic growth.

Put differently, the twenty-first century and beyond presents an opportunity to reverse years of neglect of the higher education sector, especially in a supposedly independent Africa that selectively served neo-colonial interests. Discussions on governance are therefore aimed at locating this particular history of colonialism, how the politics of the post-colonial states served higher education and how

contemporary African higher education governance is shaping productive and positive growth and expansion of a meaningful higher education sector as an imperative to development. Current governance structures face challenges. While the immediate post-independence decades for most states had few numbers enrolling, universities are now faced with a high and diverse student demographic profile. Resources have inevitably been strained. Demands for internationalisation or globalisation as it is often called, have also become a haunting refrain in higher education management. Governments are systematically withdrawing full financial support for institutions while demanding that universities respond directly to the market through the formulation and implementation of 'relevant' academic programmes. These are among the challenges that validate the interrogation of governance in institutions of higher learning, and its impact on industry.

Globally, higher education has become a site for radical and accelerated changes on various fronts. These include academic and financial independence and dependence almost on equal levels, higher enrolment rates and an urgent demand to align teaching and learning to the market/industry. This situation has engendered serious re-thinking and re-evaluation of higher education management approaches that can practically assist institutions in re-positioning relevantly. Hirsch and Weber (2001) draw a distinction between *governance* and *management* as far as higher education is concerned. According to them, governance focuses on the rules and mechanisms by which various stakeholders influence decisions, as well as how they are held accountable, and to whom. The authors further argue that in the context of higher education, governance refers to the formal and informal exercise of authority under laws, policies and rules that articulate the rights and responsibilities of various actors, including the rules by which they interact. The authors acknowledge that in institutions of higher education governance embraces both formal and informal processes. However, on whichever platform the two processes operate, they operate within a framework of policies and rules set by the institutions and, by extension, the regulatory and supervisory frameworks overseen by government agencies. These observations validate the need for studies to re-focus scrutiny on how contemporary governance and leadership approaches in higher education formulate, implement and, most importantly, oversee compliance to these policies and rules, whether informally or formally. The authors raise a most pertinent question, despite these complexities, with regard to the formulation and implementation of visions. Are those put in charge legitimate, and how legitimate is the executive decision-making by these and other actors in higher education? An understanding of this matter will provide insight into the role of HEIs in shaping Kenya's creative and cultural industry, and the nature of what constitutes the creative economy today.

A significant factor in the success of higher education is to clearly articulate processes and see to it that they are aligned with other events and structures. Fried

(2005) states that management refers to the implementation of a set of objectives pursued by an institution of higher education on the basis of established rules. In this regard, management addresses how the rules are applied, which implies concern for the efficiency, effectiveness and quality of the role of internal and external stakeholders. Significant mention is made on two frontiers, (1) the 'how' of the application of rules and policies; and (2) the involvement of stakeholders in the organic composition of institutions of higher education. These are two fundamental elements to consider in any model of governance and leadership when applied to higher education.

De Groof, Neave and Svec (1998) emphasise new management approaches that include the introduction of strategic planning, the setting in place of mechanisms and procedures for institutional self-assessment and the elaboration of more sophisticated indicators of cost control, performance evaluation, the paraphernalia of estimating academic productivity and institutional efficiency. Bleiklie (1998) observes that the realisation inspired the idea of new approaches in public management and administration since the 1980s that higher education, and universities in particular became potential centres for national economic growth. It is this observed potential that makes it crucial for the interrogation of how its structures and processes impact on the industry, traditionally vested with economic development in the country.

Within the context of the development of higher education globally, there was a noticeable need to align teaching and learning to the emerging challenges of post-industrial economies. This forced university to adopt management strategies that could accommodate emerging requirements for economic growth and relevance. One fundamental example the world-over was the need to vest more autonomy and self-control in the university management structures as opposed to the large external control by the state. As Enders (2004) observes, a new management approach in higher education largely meant that the state was shifting from being the control centre to more supervisory and regulatory roles. This effectively created a governance conversation that the author calls as 'multi-level' governance between the state and institutions. The regulatory mandate has, however, implied the indication of what can and cannot be taught in school, thereby influencing the higher education curriculum and its implication. When government's focus is on the sciences and technological subjects, as has been the case in Kenya, the art subjects, the backbone of the creative and cultural industries, are often neglected.

Although there have been deliberate interventions and compromises aimed at de-politicising higher education, there are practically indications that, governments still wield unprecedented power over institutions through the regulatory bodies. Lewin (2011) reports that public universities are getting less funding from state coffers. This has created a shift in leadership approach towards financial

independence, and implicitly calls for a structuring of the governance systems in public universities. From a feminist context, autonomy is construed as 'self-government or self-direction: being autonomous is acting on motives, reasons, or values that are one's own' (Stoljar 2014). Using this as a guide to understanding autonomy within the milieu of tertiary education (while eliminating the feminist dimension in the context of the study), autonomy should be the capacity and competence of tertiary institutions to act on their own without any form of control from the state. The question that begs itself is whether it is really possible to achieve this. If it is to be achieved, do the institutions have the moral and ethical grounding to stick to their original mandate without altering the playing field to the detriment of the key stakeholders? With increased movement towards institutional autonomy, governments are establishing intermediary institutions to supervise and oversee the functioning of the university through policy formulations without interfering with actual leadership and governance systems. Fielden (2008) elaborates this matter by observing that governments have created organs such as Ministries of Education to facilitate mediation between government and institutions. In addition, quality assurance departments and other monitoring organs such as commissions of higher education have been established to serve supervisory and regulatory roles. Kenya's undertaking is explicit in this regard. This means that although allusions to 'autonomy' of institutions of higher learning keep being the subject of discussion, the overall strategy and shape of higher education is still a government responsibility. One case in point is the effect of the legal and engineering bodies' position on the accreditation of programmes in selected universities, which results in institutions being considered as viable or unviable centres of learning in specified disciplines.

As a wider network of funding sources are needed, it is a matter of concern that new stakeholders will come with new expectations and demands on the nature of leadership and governance systems in tertiary institutions. It is for this reason that many people who are sceptical of the autonomy of tertiary institutions voice concerns such as the possibility of state universities getting into a situation where their mandate may be distorted, consequently limiting the broader government's goals of increasing access to higher learning (Wang 2013). The resultant message from this criticism exposes the actuality that the total autonomy of tertiary institutions, whether public or private, will not be fully realised due to questions of having to adhere to government policies and legislation and to undertake their activities with some extent of limitation emanating from the state. Government policies and regulations ultimately influence the changes in leadership directions and governance approaches that tertiary institutions follow.

However, whether or not governments influence the leadership and governance of public universities or tertiary institutions in general, they should grant the institutions the legal statute that allows them some degree of independence to

easily reflect and adjust to changes in the education sector and market demands. It should also be noted that pursuing such neoliberal policies that increase the autonomy of tertiary institutions to the point of making them to be self-sustaining resource generation and gaining their independence from state control is not always objected to by the government. Though the policy and legislation formulated by the state may be an impediment, sometimes the forces of opposition to such overtures originate entirely from other sources other than the government (Kabir 2010).

The continued conversation touching on governance of higher education and the government's role does not exist in a vacuum. It is engendered by persistent calls for 'reforms' in the proper definition of the role of higher education towards national development and the efficacy of strategies employed to ensure that this role is played effectively. In the last three decades or so, universities have been accused of being the mouthpieces of the state. To many, especially the civil society, universities appeared to have abdicated their role a repository of knowledge and centre for innovation. Instead they are seen as shallow extensions of the political class. No meaningful grounds for intellectual cultivation could exist in this kind of setting. Someone had to take the responsibility and calls for reform were directed not at the faculty or students, but to the respective management organs.

Significant mention has to be made regarding to higher education and the inevitable sustainability of systems from the top leadership downwards. Attention is drawn to how governance structures accommodate diversity, de-politicisation, equity and enhancement of a culture of equality among students and staff populations. In short, focus is directed at the adaptability of governing structures to changing situations of organisational operations as well as the demands from increasingly diverse stakeholder demographics (Provan and Kenis 2008). It should be taken into consideration that tertiary institutions are usually formed with social, economic and cultural components of diverse people who have been brought together to achieve a common goal. In this, there are different networks that need to be coordinated and related to each other in a sustainable way that focuses on the overall strategic objectives of the institutions. In this multiplicity of networks within the social and organisational systems and structures of an institution, Provan and Kenis (2008:3) argue that there is an important form of multi-organisational governance. One can deduce from their argument that where leadership undertakes an inclusive approach towards management of people and resources, the governance approach leads to 'enhanced learning, more efficient use of resources, increased capacity to plan for and address complex problems, greater competitiveness, and better services for clients and customers'. Considering the arguments advanced by Provan and Kenis (2008), it should be observed that although governments have continued to be the supervisors of higher education, the institutions are allowed to make decisions on programmes

and growth strategies that are in alignment with the market they serve. Brankovic (2011) states that the way universities are organised and run is affected by the ideologies and policies to which they are exposed and which can penetrate their structures and affect internal dynamics to a varying extent. While Brankovic (2011) addresses the concept of ideology and policy differences in the management of the affairs of tertiary institutions, one should be able to appreciate Provan and Kenis's (2008) ideas about the sustainable use of resources and ability to deal with ever rising complex issues which can only be well grounded in the leadership ideologies to which tertiary institutions' leaders subscribe. Provan and Kenis include the element of pragmatic ideologies in generating efficiency and capacities to address problems in formulating good management policies from the ideologies that shape leadership.

Kohler (2011) introduces the challenge of the relationship between higher education and politics. The author highlights two factors:

1. The insistence of the political class in managing access to higher education. In this regard, the author argues that there has been a tendency for the political requirement of what is termed the 'massification' of higher education through open access to higher education while still expecting good quality. It has further been observed that the political project of 'social inclusion' and 'open access' to education (Kohler 2011) was motivated largely by the need for governments to create human capital for industrialising economies and the attendant need for labour-power that would significantly contribute to national development. Despite this intention, concerns were raised on funding. With inadequate funding the requirement for generating sufficient human capital could and might still not be achievable. Besides, the quality of graduates and their relevance to the market has continued to be a question. Consequently, this book finds relevance in locating the role of good leadership and governance in the realisation of certain historical missions that inspired relevance of higher education as an investment for governments. How for instance, are universities revising their approaches to management to make critical and objective self-evaluations and audits of academic programmes, well-guided enrolment strategies, quality assurance in all areas of operation and networking and aligning with the industry?
2. The author identifies and discusses what he terms the 'increasing complexity in steering higher education and research' (Kohler 2011: 4) as yet another political factor that appears to influence changes in governance and leadership in higher education. In particular, the author points out such factors as: increase in transnational stratification in higher education; an increase in participatory demands from within higher education institutions and by external stakeholders and interest groups; and the call for international attractiveness and compatibility as well as quality

assurance. Figure 4.4 provides a summary of two modes, one representing the old order (Mode 1) and the other (Mode 2) representing the new order that has spurred discussions on the urgent need to review governance approaches in higher education.

Mode 1	Mode 2
Emphasis on the individual	Emphasis on teams
Academic control and authority	Research direction shaped by interaction between researchers and users over research direction
Disciplined-based	Problem-and-issue based trans-disciplinarity
Local organisational knowledge base	Organisational diversity, network connectivity draws together knowledge from diverse sources
Quality judged by peer review	Broadly-based quality controlling incorporation academic peer review and judgement of users (e.g. economic and social impact)

Figure 4.4: Impetus for review of governance approaches

Source: Coaldrake and Steadman (1999); Gibbons (1998)

Figure 4.4, clearly outlines fundamental shifts in the operation of higher education. While on the one hand previous operational modes emphasised singularity, individuality, localisation and institutional control over their own academic programmes, emerging modes have changed this. Gibbons *et al.* (1994) state that the new governance systems of organisations and institutions are in contrast with the so called Mode 1 paradigm of scientific discovery, which is characterised by the hegemony of theoretical and experimental science, a divisionary taxonomy of disciplines and by the autonomy of scientists and their host institutions from societal pressures. Implicitly, Mode 1 seeks to individualise operations without necessarily being responsible for community or any other stakeholder demands. Proponents of this mode avoid ‘teams’ as proposed in Mode 2 and, instead, set goals that insulate its practitioners from what Gibbs has termed ‘external pressure’.

This might call for a reflection of the two modules of ‘autonomy’ suggested by Berdahl (1971). The author divides the concept of autonomy into ‘substantive’ and ‘procedural’. To improve operational efficiency, the former gives institutions full mandate to set goals and procedures and implement them fully without

interference from external players. On the contrary, the latter form implies independence to make decisions. However, external regulatory bodies ensure that institutions have less authority in taking decisions but are given more authority to implement them. They are directed on what kind of courses to offer, review, level of human resource capacity and financial prudence among other operational issues. In areas where the institutions are seen to have the autonomy to make decisions without the influence of external relevant others such as the government, the rules and regulations, legislation and other statutory requirements influence the extent of that decision regarding scope and depth. For private institutions, the ideologies of the sponsoring organisation or persons many limit the extent of autonomy for the leadership of the organisation to make decisions independently and implement them.

Nowotny, Scott and Gibbons (2003) observe a fundamental change in knowledge production in the last fifty years. The authors' description of Mode 2 knowledge entails a socially distributed, application-oriented, trans-disciplinary phenomenon that is subject to multiple accountabilities. They also allude to its flexibility in aligning with the changing times and therefore that it is not restrictive to particular disciplines. It is probably in this context that Etzkowitz, Ranga and Dzisah (2012) speak of a 'tectonic shift' in the operations of higher education institutions in terms of revising governance structures, academic programmes, diffusion of new technologies and relationship with the markets among other things, despite challenges that come with that 'shift'.

There is more tilting now towards internationalisation, university–university interactions and collaborations, higher education and external stakeholder beneficial and reciprocal associations, academic quality audits, and a more transnational mandate as opposed to individual institutions' sole mandate. Internationalisation and globalisation in education are different issues dealing with different content matters even though they are related in the scope of trans-border contemplation and the way they encompass many countries in the world. Altbach and Knight (2007) relate the term globalisation to the context of economic and academic trends that are part of the reality in the twenty-first century. Thus, internationalisation includes the policies and practices undertaken by the academic systems and institutions – even individuals – to cope with the global academic environment. In this case, the parameters used to gauge the quality of output of tertiary institutions are increasingly taking on an international style of measurement that needs to reflect the output and performance of these tertiary institutions objectively. Therefore, the global trends in leadership and governance of tertiary institutions become applicable to any entity that wants to have a global recognition, and this increases the need to adopt those policies and practices established by the international education systems in terms of commercial advantage, knowledge and language acquisition, and enhancing curriculum with

international content (Altbach and Knight 2007). The resultant scenario is an extant force emitted from a drive towards globalisation and internationalisation by educational stakeholders who seek to impart changes in the systems and organisational functioning of tertiary institutions. This is achieved by shaping the leadership ideologies and governance approaches, which ultimately describe the governance models that leadership uses in actualising institutional vision and mission statement. For example, Kenyatta University reshaped its vision statement in the post-1999 era to read 'To be a dynamic, inclusive and competitive centre of excellence in teaching, learning, and service to humanity' (Kenyatta University 2014). This clearly shows that the university has situated itself within the perceived global relevance of being helpful to everyone internationally and to serving humanity as its key client. Humanity, in this specific case is contextualised to mean the entire human race on earth. In this way, humanity serves as a global and international phenomenon that brought the need to institute changes to the leadership ideologies governing the university.

All these changes, in their drastic nature, facilitate objective conversations on whether leadership and governance models are also changing in synchronisation. This lends credence to arrival of 'borderless education' one of the results of the revolution in global information technology and communication that has been a key enabler for the paradigm shift in knowledge creation. No single university or indeed the higher education sector as a whole, can claim to be the paramount repository of, and discovery agent for, knowledge any longer (Kwiek 2012). Advancement in information technology has greatly increased the generation and dissemination of knowledge, and the ability of a wider audience of information users access and apply that knowledge to resolve challenges, that ultimately leads to a new quest to build on it and improve the depth of existing knowledge through research. Thus, ICT has made borderless leadership and governance in education a reality that can be achieved through effective communication. While physical communication and travel boundaries have been broken down and altered between countries and continents, the global expansion of the sources of information and knowledge has greatly surpassed this. This 'borderless' communication allows the leadership to build a steering mechanism that uses communication to achieve the objectives of tertiary institutions. Following that, it will yield rich information of the different coping strategies that leaders use to re-align their leadership approaches to the established objectives and inherent changes in them, the market forces, and how leadership re-structures the governance systems and institutional and individual capacities to build new management approaches that would lead to increased autonomy from the state. This must be done while guaranteeing sustainability in resource acquisition and efficient utilisation to cater for their activities adequately. The challenge is for leaders to focus on the original mandate (or justify changes, if any) or the main reason for establishing the institution. In the end, and owing to changing environmental needs in the international

community, the leadership must be able to demonstrate the capacity of their institutions to successfully navigate through the challenging global educational turf in times of change and turbulence.

An analysis of this scenario spurs a re-reflection on the discussions regarding Mode 2 of higher education status currently in practice globally, particularly the issue of focusing on 'teams' rather than the 'individual', as well as universities tending to break boundaries to share knowledge outside its jurisdictions. Consequently, there have been calls for an investigation of how prepared the leadership of higher institutions are to facilitate this 'borderless' interaction and networking. Since universities have their policies and statutes, studies should establish to what extent these internal regulations support or impede internationalisation in terms of research sharing, financing, exchange programmes, student enrolment and sharing of databases on a wide range of issues.

Krabel, Siegel and Slavtchev (2009) observe that internationalisation is now a common practice by the majority of higher institutions worldwide. They speak further of the existence of a general perception that internationalisation can offer valuable benefits to students, faculty and the institution as whole when part of a broader strategy. It can spur strategic thinking leading to innovation in modernising pedagogy, stimulate greater student and faculty collaboration, and open up new avenues for research collaboration. International mobility of scientists and students can also enhance academic entrepreneurship through exposure to new research environments and application opportunities. Therefore, as the evidence of benefits of internationalisation keeps becoming a reality, separating them from governance and leadership is imprudent. It might ultimately hold that collaborating international institutions converge over certain shared beliefs, values and visions so as to facilitate practical internationalisation strategies. This will ensure harmonisation of programmes and sharing of resources and facilities. How such a link serves to entwine amicably the different governance approaches (if any) pursued by the leadership of two different institutions working in collaboration remains a subject for further investigation and is not within the scope of this work. It follows, therefore, that there is a link on how the leadership of one institution can agree to collaborate with another in pushing through a global agenda of sustainability in education, more so at the global level, by using international norms, values and practices to advance such joint ventures.

According to the OECD, a widely practised approach to internationalisation is to partner with higher institutions abroad and there by facilitate staff and student exchanges, collaboration in research and development, international joint degree programmes and the opening of campuses abroad. Opening up wider links through distance learning, globalisation of curriculum, building stronger linkages with local international businesses and closer engagement with the alumni abroad are also growing practices.

Another development in the governance of higher education institutions that has drawn the attention of scholars is the shift from 'steering by law to steering by performance contract' (Barzelay 2001; Pollitt and Bouckaert, 2004; McLaughlin, Osborne and Ferlie 2002). In this scheme, leadership envisages departure from the traditional top-down approach that characterised older governance practices. Instead, institutions are governed by more of a consensus-based approach where consultations across the board are encouraged in order to achieve collective goals and fulfil mandates. In addition, despite the financial implications, institutions enjoy a measure of freedom to set their own targets and anchor them on contractual timelines through strategic plans. Each member of the institution has set targets and must take responsibility for non-compliance through comprehensive accountability, documentation and procedures. A performance contract is monitored through a performance evaluation whose payoff is improved performance of the job by leaders and followers. Performance contract evaluation is a means of verifying that leaders have effectively utilised the governance systems in an organisation to achieve the results that were set for them. It involves the leaders working in collaboration with others and using the powers conferred to them in a manner conducive to, and productive of, the organisation, and pay dividends to the institution's stakeholders. It is a means of checking the leadership quality of an individual or group of persons in harnessing the assets, as well as the financial and human resources of the organisation productively. In other words, they produce results that (i) are within the capacity of an institution to produce; and (ii) fall within the contemplation of the contract between the leader(s) and the institution.

Closely tied to this is quality assurance and the mechanisms available to make the leaders take responsibility for the existence or lack of quality in programmes offered and any other administrative procedures that might be in place. Schedler and Proeller (2009) allude to matters of identification and implementation of sound internal strategies of quality assurance. Although studies report on this kind of governance, the emphasis is on transparency. How transparent are the systems that adjudicate these internal audits? How are individual members of staff and those that are in charge of appraisals transparent in the reports they provide? What mechanisms are in place to achieve this transparency? These are issues which studies can only address in the context of the nature of governance, leadership structures and ethics that institutions put in place and which can be subject to external audit and appraisal. However, where these systems are insulated against external audit or effective independent audit systems, they become mere axioms which end up being exercises in futility.

A re-focus on the issues of governance and leadership so far raised establishes a trajectory that defines organisational cultures that influence the direction higher education institutions take and what they ultimately do or do not achieve. Organisational culture permits the analysis of an organisation from various dimensions either in determining how it establishes competitive advantages or

its resultant effects on the organisation's performance (Dauber, Fink and Yolles 2012; Cameron and Quinn 2005). Pascale and Athos (1981) define organisational culture in terms of the ingredient that holds organisations together. It resonates with the cares and concerns of management and what they wish to achieve. It is the base upon which all else rely for direction and operation. At the centre of this process, the authors emphasise an imperative need to cultivate and develop an 'organisational culture'. Within this culture, employees are schooled in certain agreed upon principles and how to fit within their requirements. Employees are told what to do and when to do it. Corporations with weak cultures lack a sense of purpose and direction and are often less successful.

Clark (1983) identifies four types of cultures that directly converse with higher education. They are: (1) the cultures of specific disciplines; (2) the culture of academic professions; (3) institutional cultures; and (4) the cultures of national systems of higher education. In any organisation, especially institutions of HE which have a large student and staff population and involve diverse stakeholders, the governance system must be able to create an organisational culture within which the organisation configures the different background orientation of players to their common cause. Within the established organisational culture created either intentionally or inadvertently by the leadership, each individual can situate their different cultural contexts elucidated by Clark (*ibid.*) in a manner that systematically provides for the operationalisation or materialisation of human intellectual attainment of strategies from the standardised norms and practices which apply to all the people subscribing to the specific institution of HE (Dauber, Fink and Yolles 2012). The consequence of this is that the leadership provides a cultural parameter for the followers to operate in and ensure that their behaviours are consistent with the overall organisational culture. Thus, productivity and a culture that determines how productivity will be achieved, as well as the controlling relations between different people, play a big role in building a strategically realistic movement in the continuum towards efficiency and feeling of belonging. It further propels the standardisation and defining procedures within the organisation.

Scanning through Clark's (*ibid.*) dichotomy of cultures it emerges that higher education leadership and management strategies do not exist in isolation. For leadership and management to be effective and meaningful, they have to be cognizant of other players in existence. These include the disciplines taught in the respective institutions, the various academic professions of members of the faculty, the culture of the institution as outlined in the mission and vision statement and, inevitably, the national design within which the university exists. These are multiple players which require creative and strategic leadership and management approaches to be able to navigate and reconcile a unique diversity of interests and specialisations.

Higher Education as an Enterprise

There are historical documentations of a higher education regime that was solely funded by the state. There are examples also in Africa where students not only received non-refundable loans from the government but also full-board catering and other requirements while in college. This situation seems to have had an endemic institutional association with it, which created a systematic and consistent enrolment pattern in universities. It was a direct incentive to have the best performers getting adequate and professional guidance towards careers that could transform the state and ensure competitiveness. Barber, Donnelly and Rizvi (2013) term it a response to the need to build organisational capacity, become entrepreneurial by involving external stakeholders in their leadership and governance structures and creating and nurturing synergies between teaching, research and their involvement with society. In addition, there were situations where higher education institutions exploited existing platforms in established business enterprises to create entrepreneurship avenues for students and faculty and facilitation of knowledge exchange, innovations and capacity building between institutions and industry.

It is prudent therefore to investigate whether higher education continues to commit to its ideals of research and teaching or whether it has made a deliberate extension and expansion to entrepreneurial affiliations. According to Gibb (2013), entrepreneurial higher education institutions are designed to empower staff and students to demonstrate enterprise, innovation and creativity in research, teaching and the pursuit and use of knowledge across boundaries. They contribute effectively to the enhancement of learning in a societal environment characterised by high levels of uncertainty and complexity and they are dedicated to creating public value via a process of open engagement, mutual learning, discovery and exchange with all stakeholders in society – local, national and international. Though it may be prudent to reflect on Gibb's (2013) position, however, this definition fails to capture the element of institutional capacity building towards self-sufficiency and sustainability. Institutions of higher learning globally are trying to emancipate themselves from dependency on government and sponsoring institutions in terms of getting resources. While they seek to empower staff and students, the institutions of HE must, in their own existence as institutions, demonstrate 'enterprise, innovation and creativity' (Gibb 2013) towards self-dependence. It is only in the pursuit of self-dependence that they can realise sustainability in obtaining resources, and in so doing, diversify the sources both internally and externally.

Funding

The issue of funding continues to excite debates especially in contemporary settings of higher education. Historically, governments had the sole responsibility

of financing higher education operations and infrastructural developments. The call to expand higher education was informed by the reality that sufficient funds would be available to sustain the initiatives. In the last decade, however, institutions of higher learning, in Africa, have found themselves in a situation that requires them to generate a significant percentage of their funding. Their creativity is put to the test in terms of what they could initiate to mitigate financial shortfalls experienced due to reduced or non-allocated funding. Some of the institutions have resorted to recording unprecedented high enrolments against limited resources, introducing courses deemed to be popular with the masses, forging aggressive partnerships with the private sector, and starting enterprise development on various scales of implementation. Table 5 provides some useful pointers on how the funding of higher education has been implemented in selected countries over a period.

We include Table 4.2 in the discussion for the facilitation of comparative analysis. The countries profiled indicate clearly that government sets conditions upon which to base funding. These include enrolment, policy priorities, results and quality, weighting of academic disciplines, teaching output and research programmes, among others things outlined in the Table. In the context of leadership and governance therefore, discussions ought to focus on the ability of the governance structures to creatively determine the requirements of government for funding and consequently put in place policies and strategies that would meet these requirements. Institutions whose governance hierarchies are unable to formulate programmes, directions and visions that converge with national government priorities points to inefficiency and professional ineptitude.

Table 4.2: Government funding conditions

Country	Year	Main features
Australia	1988	<p>Commonwealth (federal) government funding (around 60% of total revenue in 2001) has two main components: (i) a general operating grant largely based on a specified number of student places in the context of an educational profile of the institution concerned; and (ii) funds for research and research training allocated primarily on a competitive basis.</p> <p>Resources are allocated in the context of a rolling triennium which ensures that institutions have a secure level of funding on which to base their planning for at least three years.</p>

Czech Republic	1992	<p>The major part of funding for teaching activities (about 78% in 2002) is based on inputs (the number of students multiplied by the cost of relevant studies). Around 10% is provided on a competitive basis whereby institutions are invited to submit projects in response to state priorities. The government aims to increase the competitive component to 30% over the next few years.</p> <p>Government funding for research has two main components: around 30% (research directly connected to teaching) is based on a formula taking into account: (i) the funds raised by the institution for research and development; (ii) the ratio of professors and associate professors to the total academic staff; and (iii) the ratio of graduates from doctoral and master's programmes to the total number of students in the institution. The other 70% of research funding is provided through a competitive bidding process.</p>
Netherlands	2000	<p>Universities are funded on the 'performance funding model' Thus 50% of the total teaching budget in 2000 was based on the number of degrees awarded in 1999; 13% was based on the number of first-year enrolments; and the remainder was a fixed allocation per university. Universities receive separate funding for research programmes.</p> <p>Universities of professional education (HBOs: Hoger Beroepsonderwijs) are allocated teaching funds by a formula taking into account programme characteristics and teaching output (enrolment and completion rates).</p> <p>The government has foreshadowed plans to merge these two systems from 2005.</p>
Norway	2002	<p>Grants to institutions now consist of three main components:</p> <p>A basic component (on average approximately 60% of the total allocation in 2002) associated with unit cost;</p> <p>An education component (approximately 25%) based on results: the number of completed student credits, the number of graduates (scheduled to begin in 2005), and the number of international exchange students (incoming and outgoing); and</p> <p>A research element (approximately 15%) dependent on performance and quality criteria including: (i) ability to attract external funding; (ii) number and qualifications of academic staff; (iii) number of postgraduate students; (iv) regional and professional policy priorities; and (v) total student numbers.</p>

Switzerland	2000	University funding, which was based on teachers' salaries, student enrolments and cantons' financial capacity, now takes account of the services provided by universities: 70% of basic funding is allocated according to the number of students enrolled for the legal duration of studies, weighted by academic disciplines; and 30% is distributed as matching funds to the contributions that each university obtains from third parties (e.g. the Swiss National Science Foundation and the Commission for Technology and Innovation).
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Source: IMHE and HEFCE (forthcoming); OECD (2003); Norwegian Ministry of Education and Research (2003); Benes and Sebková (2002).

Leadership in Higher Education

Leadership is not just about the leader, but a field of interaction between the leader and those who are willing follower allies. In the present study, the word 'leadership' connotes effective influence not just towards any common goal, but towards superlative, positive results. In this regard, leadership encapsulates the motivation and prominence in the act of influencing and directing individual and group efforts towards a specific predetermined outcome in higher education. Middlehurst (2011) states that leadership in higher education is multifaceted in concept and practice. The authors acknowledge the variance in contexts, situations and cultural practices that situate leadership. Observation is also made to the effect that leadership in higher education, whether at the top or faculty-level, responsibilities of ensuring excellence in academics and engagement with the industry, business and government are inevitable but critical for the ultimate result of success.

Kouzes and Posner (2003) (quoted in Middlehurst (2011)) provide five general key principles of exceptional leaders (Table 4.3), which we particularise as leadership in higher education.

Table 4.3: Key principles of exceptional leaders

Action	Description of result
Challenge the process	Experiment and take risks, learn from mistakes made
Inspire a shared vision	Vision is the force that invents the future
Enable others to act	Effective leaders turn followers into leaders
Model the way	Lead by example, live your values
Encourage the heart	Celebrate achievement

An analysis of these factors projects the tenets of leadership already discussed, namely: transformation, investment and recognition of human resources being led, shared visions throughout the organisation as a network, recognition of reward for performance as well as ethics. Higher education leaders are required to understand their role of stewardship not just for academic growth but also for decisions that will develop/enhance the careers of those they lead. Their visions should have a wide perspective that incorporates staff, students, the business community, government and the communities around the institution. Sensitivity to community and environment activates a vision for service and product delivery that in turn creates enterprise for the institution. Therefore, to appreciate transformed leadership in higher education in Kenya, it is prudent to provide some history of leadership transformations that have taken place, not in policies and approaches first, but in leadership recruitment.

It becomes necessary to examine the practice of leadership and governance in other places on the globe in order to explain the nature of leadership in Kenyan universities. The former UN General Secretary, Mr Kofi Anan once observed that the university must become a primary tool for Africa's development in the new century. He indicates that universities can: help develop African expertise; enhance the analysis of African problems; strengthen domestic institutions; serve as a model environment for the practice of good governance, conflict resolution and respect for human rights; and enable African academics to play an active part in the global community of scholars (Annan2005). One important aspect that this observation brings out is the issue of the 'global community of scholars'. It re-defines universities not in the context of localised communities but families that are called upon to transcend their very localisation and to take advantage of an increasingly globalised world. Leadership and governance therefore need to be guided by the objective of strengthening their respective domestic cultures and structures. Subsequently, leadership should be able to use this strength to negotiate for space and visibility on the international platform. Internal and external strengthening should strive to uphold fundamental tenets of respect for human rights.

But what should universities really reflect? To consider the sentiments of Ross (1976) as quoted in Oanda, Chege and Wesonga (2008:76), one realises that:

in the medieval period, universities were bestowed with three interrelated functions: that is research, teaching and public service. During the medieval era, universities were celebrated as sites of intellectual discovery and excitement, places for adventure and discovery of new ideas and theories. The university communities (students and professors) were united by and devoted to knowledge and learning.

Though this has not necessarily changed, in the light of the focus of this work, Ross's statement by Ross is extended to include the role of the university community to use knowledge and learning to participate in the production of

wealth in communities; by creating players who will not wait to be employed. Universities must not only be able to facilitate the production of wealth in the communities, but they must also, of their own accord, produce wealth in their own enterprises as a move towards diversification of their sources of income and funding. For any institution to achieve this, university leadership and governance structures must be seen to champion the cause of the creation of new ideas. Leadership should, in the context of research, teaching and public service, facilitate academic inclusivity with respect to the disciplines that allow learners to discover and apply new ideas. Leadership should be cognizant of the varying capabilities among learners. Insistence on specific disciplines and specialities will be detrimental to the much needed 'excitement' in learning and a democratic atmosphere that allows for the 'discovery of new ideas and theories' at free will. This speaks directly to an observed attitude towards the creative and performing disciplines in an educational environment that appears to favour technical and scientific study and education. As Marilyn (2006:58) observed:

Leaders are key to how organisations function, and there is little doubt that the leaders who are needed to guide postsecondary institutions in tomorrow's complex environments have to think about their work differently than did their predecessors. While the how-to guides have their place in the leadership literature, they no longer provide sufficient grounding for effective action. Today's postsecondary leaders need to guide their institutions into the future while providing the authentic insights that come from critical reflection about and deep understanding of organisational culture and values.

We perceive this to refer to a leadership that draws its focus from the environment dictated by the needs of the country. The pulse of Kenya today is not agriculture or tourism as in times past. Today the country's heart-beat is the consumer industry, and that includes the creative and cultural arts. We should be able to place a premium on how the knowledge industry, the universities, through their leadership impact on the development of new aspects of the knowledge economy, and specifically education, innovation, information and communication technology and creation of knowledge within the institutions and the community. In this way, leadership in post-secondary institutions will help fulfil what many have envisaged of higher education.

Tade (2010:3) would appear to emphasise this position when he observes that:

Higher education further contributes to how the energies and products of science, technology, and the improvement of material conditions are mobilized for the well-being of individuals and groups. It provides a people with the tools and capacities for their collective and individual self-definition and empowerment, and for interpreting their relationships to themselves, to others, and to nature and their material and other environments.

We specifically pick out the point on ‘improvement’. Leadership and governance of higher learning institutions should be able to create an environment that resounds with opportunities of ‘improvement’ for both students and faculty. In the ideal situation, the environment within the institutions of higher education, the leadership and governance should be able to make the university community come up with innovative ways, generating new opportunities which may be totally extant from the mere basis of ‘improvement’. Universities, in particular, should be able to improve capacities while empowering their own to be able to interact effectively with global realities. Leadership should ensure a comprehensive discovery of oneself (student or faculty) in terms of their environment, their specialities and possibilities beyond what they have or what they see. They should also be made aware of their potential and what they can contribute to research, academia and the community in which they live. This is only possible if a reflective, decisive and visionary leadership and governance exists in a particular institution.

Models of Governance and Leadership in Higher Education

Rhoades (1992) observes that although there are various models of governance in higher education, the way they are defined and distinguished exposes obvious overlaps. We observe that given the change dynamics already discussed, institutions could find themselves benefiting from these overlaps, depending on their positioning and missions. This study presents some models proposed by scholars particularly as applied in higher education.

The Collegial Model

In this model, academics are not only employed to perform teaching duties but to carry out administrative duties as well. As de Groof, Neave and Svec (1998) observe, this model explores the use of internal academic personnel who understand the environment in which they work and who will, apart from the classroom, ensure the principles they teach, and for which they were hired, are upheld both on academic and administrative fronts. There has been evidenced in most universities that even though other personnel might be hired to carry out administrative duties, a member of academic staff will be in charge to ensure compliance. Clark (1983) states that this model is rooted in ‘discipline’ because the university is an organisation that specialises by subject or knowledge domain. Suffice it to say that the collegial model draws a direct correlation between theory and practice. It suggests that what a person can teach, they can also apply in real life situations. Consequently, universities have tended to pick from among their own staff men and women who can take up administrative governance duties that enable them to put into practice what they theorise in classroom situations.

The Managerial Model

De Groof, Neave and Svec (1998) equate the managerial model with the bureaucratic approach to management and governance. While in the collegial model there is a level of collective responsibility in governance by all members of staff, depending on qualification, the managerial model domesticates the power to make decisions and set standards and direction to a limited hierarchical structure. While not dispensing with the existence of other members of staff, this model gives more power and strength to a central command unit that directs all other functions of the rest of the players and stakeholders. This command is not accidental. Rather, it finds expression in established laws and regulations which not only constitute the small cadre of decision makers but also empower it to be in charge of all administrative issues affecting the institution.

In the context of higher education the model recognises the dual existence of academic and non-academic members of staff. On the one hand, members of academic staff are recognised on their professional backgrounds in terms of the disciplines studied and from which they contribute to the university in the form of teaching and research. Unless specially appointed to an administrative position, they remain recognised in as far as their role in teaching and research is concerned. Any matters about policy decision-making is not within their mandate. They can only await instructions on the implementation of what the hierarchy has directed. This reinforces the top-down approach in which orders are directed downwards to reporting staff and the feedback flows upwards through the hierarchy to the decision-makers who direct the activities of the organisation. On the other hand, the non-academic staff would be assigned duties in the general administration and clerical categories including finance, procurement and maintenance based more on availability and interest than academic competence in the areas they serve. Even when their academic competence corresponds to the duties they offer such as auditing, these are not translated into classroom pedagogy. They remain administrators answering to the established managerial bureaucracy.

De Boer (2003) sees in this model a complete departure from participatory involvement of all stakeholders in decision-making. Instead, an executive wing is responsible for providing leadership in all matters with no necessity for inclusivity in terms of consultations. The other members outside this executive circle can only be relied upon for implementation. Technically this creates a two-faceted approach, one in which policy decisions are formulated by the insider management team while the other one deals with the implementation of the decisions emanating from the policies formulated. The author further argues that this mode of management has left academics to serve the peripheral roles of advisors when called upon to do so occasionally. On the flipside, management organs have gained more powers and visibility as the 'directors' of a collective cause of which everyone else must ensure compliance.

The Market Model

The environment is the main feature in this model. Studies describe it as a quasi-synthesis of the collegiate and managerial model with the latter appearing to have a higher degree of influence. Managers make decisions as direct responses to the dynamics of the environment in terms of the student population and the market for programmes launched and implemented. Another significant feature of the market model is positioning based on competition. In the context of higher education, institutions are aware of competition from peers and therefore strategically position themselves to counter such competition to avoid losing out. We emphasise that the market model has become even more applicable in the circumstances of government's reduced funding for higher education. The consequence has been a call for managerial model subscribers to respond by devising alternative means of raising funds to sustain operations. The most assured way of raising funds remains student numbers. With the increasing space and approval frameworks for the establishment of universities (public and private), competition for students is a real phenomenon. The market model, therefore, becomes the most sought-after managerial tool to ensure sustainability, relevance and profitability among institutions of higher learning, especially in Africa. It is a model which, in our view, has premiums. It inevitably leads to the review of academic programmes to make them more popular to a student population (local and international), and to the improvement of infrastructure and more compliance with regulatory standards to avoid any penalties that can impede competitiveness. It also adjudicates on the premises of responsiveness to the needs of communities since universities also exist to serve communities over and above academic delivery of teaching and learning. The dynamics of the market demands that university management responds realistically to the needs of student, donors, collaborators and even government in the pursuit of relevance and usefulness. In a situation where leadership and governance structures are in dissonance with this body of stakeholders, the university risks losing the anchorage of the market. The contrary presents the university with a platform to grow together with the market. As Clark (1998:5) puts it:

Ambitious universities, and universities concerned about their marginality, and even their survivability, cannot depend on old habits of weak steering. They need to become quicker, more flexible, and especially more focused in reactions to expanding and changing demands. They need a more organized way to refashion their programmatic capabilities. A strengthened steering core becomes a necessity.

It is clear therefore that the market model of governance demands a review of traditional management approaches. It is more demanding in that it requires managers to reconcile with rapidly changing dynamics of higher education and demands to deliver from an equally growing and informed society. In addition,

there appears to be a fading regime of a monopoly on university education in Kenya with an increased presence of private universities. This in effect resounds with what Clark advises, especially to public universities, to become 'quicker', 'flexible' and 'focused' in the dispensation of their respective mandates.

Higher Education Governance in Kenya

Nyaigotti-Chacha (2004) traces the history of higher education in Kenya to 1922 when Makerere College was established as a Royal Technical College of East Africa to address the higher education needs off the East African region comprising of Kenya, Uganda, Tanganyika and Zanzibar (now Tanzania) as well as Zambia and Malawi. Perhaps due to the overwhelming task of providing technical education to a vast region, prospects of other higher education institutions became a requisite. In 1963, the constituent colleges in Nairobi, Dar es Salaam and Makerere set a stage for the establishment of fully-fledged universities, creating the University of Nairobi, University of Dar es Salaam and Makerere University in 1970. These universities have now evolved into the autonomous and competitive units that they are through different and sometimes similar leadership and governance strategies.

The Pre-2002 Period in Higher Education in Kenya

The expansion of university education occurred through the establishment of regional universities in Kenya, beginning in earnest in the early 1980s. Before then the University of Nairobi had been Kenya's representative and pioneer of higher learning institution in East Africa joining the legacies of University of Dar es Salaam of Tanzania and Makerere University of Uganda. Although the Kenyan expansion was a product of Acts of Parliament, the state had unprecedented stakes in the management of the institutions through the Presidency. The Presidency played the role of Chancellor, the highest managerial rank in overseeing the management of all the institutions established. The immense sole powers of the Chancellor to single-handedly appoint Vice-chancellors prompted a managerial hierarchy that was entirely subservient to the appointing authority who was not just a Chancellor – more of a part-time engagement – but an imperial President of the Republic.

Consequently, this situation provided a site for a cautious decision-making process in higher education that had to seek consent from the state for anything to function. Second, appointees to the positions of Vice-chancellors were perceived as ruling party loyalists and operatives who had gained power through patronage and not merit. Their role was primarily to serve the Chancellor directly or through state machinery using the universities' resources and intelligentsia. Major university events, developments, admissions and programmes were dictated, not

by institutional leadership vision, but by the state. Some new universities were established in areas perceived as strongholds of the President and named after him. The President appointed Vice-chancellors of his choice who are answerable not even to the Presidency but to the person of President.

Perhaps the most crippling of these arrangements was the shrinking of democratic space within the universities. Lecturers and students soon became targets of a lethal spy machinery that could even mix with students in lecture halls, ostensibly as students but in effect searching for anyone who would say anything that against or criticise the state and dictatorship. The consequence of this situation was an academic environment that substituted the ethos of democracy with everything that was an affront to liberties, freedom of expression, association and community. As Aseka (2005a:2) observes,

The regime designs, manipulates and carefully implements social policy in a manner that is consistent with the preservation of existing power relations. Political systems therefore protect the support bases of the ruling regimes. They guard against possible loss of patronage which uncontrolled democratic transitions might engender. These tendencies therefore correlate with authoritarianism. Even the so-called democratic regimes have demonstrated disturbing authoritarian instincts. Possibilities of democratic despotisms emerging are very high.

Although this citation mentions politics predominantly, the connection that created the disjuncture between state operatives and objectives of higher education are vivid. There was a trend not to support growth, networking, digitalisation and meaning in higher education but, instead, to place expression under watch and check through pronounced authoritarian mechanisms. History has names such as George Anyona, James Orengo, Ngugi wa Thiong'o, Mtua Makau, Ali Mazrui among other university lecturers who had to flee into exile because they were perceived as a danger to the state through the content of their lectures.

Post-2002: Some Transformation

After the Kenya African National Union (KANU) left power through an electoral defeat in 2002, a new regime took over under the National Rainbow Coalition (NARC) with Mwai Kibaki as President. The change in regime occasioned a shift in the management of public institutions which resulted in them changing their leadership and governance approaches to be reconcilable with the new regime's leadership and governance strategies. Among the President's first major projects was to cede responsibility of Chancellor to appointees. Each University had its own Chancellor, thus relieving the State House of that responsibility. The effectiveness of this decision has been under scrutiny since the appointees do not go through a competitive process. In fact, most of them have historical narratives as long-time friends of the President. It was interpreted as a reward

scheme for political supporters and confidantes. University Councils were also given voice and relevance through autonomy and regular rotational strategies of hiring, retention and completion facilitated by limited appointment tenures as opposed to the perennial ones under the previous regime. However, the shift from government to governance in higher education institutions does not necessarily guarantee responsiveness and autonomy (Brankovic 2011). The success of higher education institutions in responding to society and the state is based on internal leadership and governance. In this view, it is crucial to discuss elements of some of the structures responsible for leadership and governance in higher education in Kenya with a view to assessing effectiveness and relevance.

In Kenya, the structure of leadership and governance appears to be similar in most public universities albeit with minor variations in either the titles of the positions leaders hold or in the duties they are assigned to perform. In each public university there is a Vice-chancellor who serves as the Chief Executive Officer (CEO). This role is assisted by an average of three Deputy Vice-Chancellors covering the following dockets: Administration, Planning and Development; Finance, Academic Affairs, Research and Extension; and Student Affairs among others. In some universities, these responsibilities have been collapsed into three positions depending on the needs of the respective universities. The top hierarchy persons are assisted in the day-to-day running of the University by Registrars in charge of various portfolios aligned to their superiors. However, the structure that has a direct bearing on nurturing students in the university is the faculty/school which is headed by the Dean. In this particular case, from the traditional academic perspective it would be the school of arts and social sciences or in some cases it could be the faculty or college of humanities, arts and social sciences. The Principal and Dean of college and faculty, respectively, have the first opportunity to put in place academic programmes that engender creative and innovative learners. Further more, they may also be the persons who present to the university management the blue print of development and growth of learner talent through specific programmes. We chronicle the existence and functions of the most common designations of leadership and governance and the realities of their functioning within university set-ups.

University Councils

The world-over, universities have institutions of Councils that serve the institution in corporate governance and not the direct management of institutions. Direct management is a preserve of Vice-chancellor, Management Boards and Senate. University Councils engage in the securing of resources, major infrastructural budgets, monitoring, the recruitment of senior members of staff and ensuring, through empirical investigations, whether established goals and timelines in strategic plans are realised. In Kenya, University Councils have the ultimate

oversight of the person who assumes office of the Vice-chancellor after competitive selection in which a maximum of three qualifiers, that may include the incumbent, are presented to them for consideration. The Council is also the organ that appraises a serving Vice-chancellor and recommends the term renewal or (rarely) dismissal of a non-performing incumbent without reference to any other authority. Considering leadership conversations in higher education, this is the management organ that strategically invites debate on issues, dynamics and logistics in governance in HE through the documented literature.

Chancellors

As earlier stated, one political regime domesticated the Chancellorship of public universities and made the institution part of a controlling strategy of higher education from a political mindset. A succeeding political regime ostensibly depoliticised the Chancellorship but raised even more questions when appointees to the positions were not just perceived as but were known leisure, business and political associates of the President. Chancellors have long been perceived as ceremonial heads of universities. The only time they are seen as active participants in university community engagements is notably at the conferment of degrees during graduation ceremonies which takes place once or twice a year. Zimmerman (2012:10) alludes to a consistent synergy apposite to institutional management. He posits that:

Organisations have routines, practices, processes, missions and cultures which condition how problems are defined, information is shared, goals are identified, options are generated and, ultimately, how decisions are made. This lends itself to trying to understand how one would need to think in the most creative and optimal manner about the decision with the available institutional arrangements.

Zimmerman thus advocates a leadership that is actively (emphasis on active) cognizant of routines, practices, processes, cultures, problems, etc., on a significant routine basis. Admittedly, briefings by juniors can be frequently and routinely made. Reports can be written for study and actions recommended. However, Chancellors find themselves in this kind of detached and 'part-time' scheme of management by design or default. How much do they know of the cultures, since they might well know of administrative processes from briefings and laid-out rules of engagement? The universities' main stakeholders are students. How much do Chancellors know and engage in finding out students' practices, behaviours and cultures that are or might not be compatible with university plan sand operations? Do students know what they advocate or stand for as a Chancellors? How do staff and students get to understand the role of the Chancellor in the overall University setting? Who in the University community is actually accessible to the Chancellor? Who do Chancellors consult and who listens to

them from among the University community that they lead? The Chancellors' leadership appears shepherded and insulated from the mainstream stakeholders. Their terms of service are not clear, with no indicators of who appraises them and what their appraisal indicators might be. Their visibility resembles that of a community leader who only appears at a few functions that involve government and polity. When Vice-chancellors, 'management' and government threaten not to fund students of certain disciplines, as has happened with the arts, their voice of reason against such decisions is unheard, and one wonders if the decision is an amplification of their personal position.

Vice-chancellors

Integrated in to this era of appointing someone else other than the president into the position of Chancellor emerged a new paradigm, the process of competitively hiring Vice-chancellors. Professional recruitment companies such as Manpower, Price Waterhouse Coopers, Ernst & Young among others have been contracted on different occasions to carry out these exercises. This is seen as a welcome introduction to leadership in institutions that were micro-managed by the state for a long time. It is perceived as a hopeful beginning to a more responsive leadership that designs and manages its own programmes for posterity, and only answering or proposing to Council its intended development plans for approval. However, though the system now has elected deans of faculties, control over the Senate appointed by the Vice-chancellor continues to raise concerns. In addition, the fact that Council possesses the monopoly to pick a candidate from among three qualifiers presented to it by recruiting professionals raises exigent questions of fairness. Is this yet another question of absolute patronage rephrased in a quasi-democratic irony of a recruitment process? With the Council's monopoly powers, where is the guarantee that the least qualified is not selected based on historical patronage, business links or even family or ethnic relations? These might sound hypothetical concerns. Middlehurst (2011) provides some indicators that could be used in the vetting of candidates to the position namely:

1. one's own knowledge of experience of leadership as well as credibility and knowledge;
2. self-awareness with regard to capabilities of areas you intend to lead;
3. an analysis of the internal and external contexts of leadership in higher education;
4. understanding of leadership role;
5. routes to leadership including the developmental activities and selection practices.

Drawing on Middlehurst (2011) is not accidental. It raises pertinent questions that determine a leader and governor, and what they prioritise based on the resources

available. If, for example, one's knowledge and experience will favour certain disciplines while discriminating against others or if internal and external contexts view some disciplines as irrelevant and a waste of time, then exclusivity emerges.

Deputy Vice-chancellors

Ideally, the Deputy Vice-chancellors (DVCs) hold imperative positions of power in universities. They play key 'oversight' roles over sectors of administration, finance and academics. Traditionally most universities have three deputy Vice-chancellors. Since 2012 a trend appears to be taking shape where all universities are increasing the number of DVCs by deliberately fragmenting existing positions to create new and sometimes overlapping positions of additional DVCs. Some universities now have a DVC (Academic) and a DVC (Research, Innovation and Outreach) a position derived partly from the academic division and directorates of outreach and international collaborations. Regarding leadership, governance, independence and authority, these subdivisions have little impact on the research discussion of this study. It is the location of the centre of power, the central command and its relation or influence to these obviously semi-autonomous units, however many, that needs attention.

It is our argument that it would be imprudent to appoint officers who cannot make independent decisions. Without democratic latitude of decision-making by appointed officers, the whole scheme of a devolved administrative structure embodies an intellectual and pedagogical vacuity. When we consider the thoughts of Zimmerman (2012) on decision-making we might begin to redefine and reconsider delegation, deputation and representation, and ask whether they are viable and economical methods in governance and leadership:

Natural cognitive limits often exacerbated by time limits and intense pressures affect how well we define the problem, specify goals, gather data, think about alternatives, understand risk, consider trade-offs, and assess consequences – all before making a decision to, for example, start a social enterprise or implement a national economic policy or respond to the building of a nuclear weapon. But our decisions are also bounded in other ways. We make decisions when the need occurs, experience and training shape our perceptions, our emotional states frame our interpretations, and context influences our interpretations, attributions, and predictions. (Zimmerman 2012:8)

Zimmerman further quoted John F. Kennedy, 'The essence of ultimate decision remains impenetrable to the observer – often, indeed, to the decider himself.' In reality, two psychological systems are at play: conscious, deliberate cognition and unconscious, intuitive reasoning. Alternatively and in more colloquial terms, we use not only the brain but also our gut.

When we put all these thoughts into modern-day leadership and governance science and art, disparities of times and centuries emerge. How much 'power' do

DVCs exercise? How many decisions do they make that are overturned by the VC even when they are meaningful? How many decisions do they fail to make until 'the VC is back'? How many times do they have to consult the VC on simple matters, such as the renovation of a roof, which is placed right under their docket? How many constructive ventures that need financing such as research and conferences get held up because the VC is not in and the DVC (Finance) or any acting DVC cannot put a signature of approval beyond a certain limit of amounts? So, which description of 'power' do they enjoy? Questions of validating the economic and practical purpose of the DVCs need to be raised. Their independence and extent of the exercise of governance power needs to be re-visited by reviewing the statutes. An analysis need to be carried out on whether simply having many officers whose voice and jurisprudence exist out of their personalities and offices is a viable project of higher education institutions. It is necessary to join Zimmerman in asking questions like how does a DVC's training, emotional state, interpretation of situations, attributes, and predictions influence decision-making outside of the VC's influence, direction and jurisdiction? On what parameters can their independence be judged given the power and influence of the appointing authority? How much latitude do they have to be able to make personal interpretations of situations and to act decisively as a consequence of those particular interpretations?

The Senate

Apart from Management Boards, Senate comprises of Deans, Directors of Institutes and Colleges, heads of departments and student representatives. They constitute the University Senate, a policy and decision-making organ of the University. Although its membership is drawn from senior academic staff from all disciplines represented, the fact that they are the Vice-chancellor's preferred appointees' makes contemplation of autonomous decision-makers questionable. It is not until recently that the position of Dean was made elective, even though some are competitively appointed. Schools now have an opportunity to vet and elect candidates from among their own faculty based on the progressive visions the candidates provide. Despite this development, their numbers on Senate is still insignificant compared to their appointed colleagues from departments and Directorates. In a university that has ten schools and over fifty departments and directorates, the realistic representation of Deans regarding voting power on decisions remains a figment of the imagination. The appointed officers hold sway in crucial decisions affecting the university.

Student Government

Every university has a student leadership body elected from among the student population. There was a time in the history of higher education in Kenya where this leadership was deemed a threat to national security and, in some cases, banned by the government. Political overtones in its leadership approaches and

theories outweighed academic gains and welfare of those they served. However, the situation appears to have been contained, evidenced by the reduced number of student unrests. Perhaps the most critical question would be to establish, beyond perceptions, the extent of independence of these bodies given that they do not run their own budgets. They depend on the direct facilitation of university management. In addition, those who follow elections closely have tended to allude to the strategic manipulation of the outcome by university leadership to have conformers in office and perceived radicals left out. Second, only two of the student leaders sit in the Senate making it practically impossible to influence any meaningful decision beyond making recommendations. The constitutions of student leadership might be well thought-out masterpieces of democracy, positive agitation and comprehensive representation. Studies need to establish empirically whether this leadership has any premium beyond the names it bears.

Higher Education Leadership and the Creative and Cultural Industries

Leadership in higher education should be able to facilitate the impartation of knowledge and relevant skills to recipients on how to apply that knowledge in post-education circumstances. Marilyn (2006: 22) posits that:

in a knowledge economy, tertiary education can help economies keep up or catch up with more technologically advanced societies. Higher education graduates are likely to be more aware of and better able to use new technologies. They are also more likely to develop new tools and skills themselves. Their knowledge can also improve the skills and understanding of non-graduate co-workers, while the greater confidence and know-how inculcated by advanced schooling may generate entrepreneurship, with positive effects on job creation.

This can be extrapolated within the concept of leadership and governance to help us understand how leadership styles and governance structures in the post-secondary institutions can provide a platform upon which to determine the objectives of a wide range of careers, including creative and cultural arts activities. The import of this is the need to interrogate the role of university management and faculty leadership in appreciating and acknowledging the need to target subjects such as the creative arts, which can feed into a vibrant entertainment and cultural industry. There would then be the need to create the link between new and existing technologies and research into the creative arts, specifically music, theatre and film, to improve the skills and knowledge of learners so as to prepare graduates who will play the roles specified above. Leadership and governance should strive to prepare graduates in the creative industries with skills in entrepreneurship among many other innovations and inventions that do not necessarily call for formal employment. The industry is capable of creating millions of job opportunities if those involved are well prepared through a pragmatic education in the universities.

Having noted historical and political voices in higher education management and chronicled the emerging transformation strategy, our study sought to establish management attitudes and subsequent leadership trends in the development of the creative and cultural industries through the new-found freedom of decision-making. We begin by showing those who have been in charge of some of the older public universities in Kenya. As we review the styles of leadership we notice that most of the top leadership in those universities has been under officers with an inclination to disciplines other than the liberal arts. This will form a foundation of sampling the activities of some of the former and current leaders with evidence of having either promoted or stifled the growth of the creative disciplines. The sample will be guided by historical evidence of creative arts activities that have been visible in the institutions.

Table 4.4: Vice-chancellors of some public universities in Kenya

Institution	Vice-chancellor	Specialisation
University of Nairobi	1964–71 – Arthur Porter	Medicine
	1971–78 – Prof. Josephat Karanja	History
	1978–85 – Prof. Joseph Maina Mungai	Medicine
	1985–91 – Prof. Philip Muinde Mbithi	Sociology
	1991–2002 – Prof. Francis John Gichaga	Civil Engineering
	2002–05 – Prof. Crispus Makau Kiamba	Land Economics
	2005–14 – Prof. George Magoha	Medicine (Surgery)
Kenya University	2015 – to date Prof. Peter M. F. Mbithi	Veterinary Surgery and Medicine
	1985–87 – Prof. Peter Gacii	Physics
	1987–92 – Prof. Philip Mwangi Githinji	Mechanical Engineering
	1992–2003 – Prof. George S. Eshiwani	Mathematics Education
	2003–06 – Prof. Everett Standa	Education
Moi University	2006–16 – Prof. Olive Mugenda	Consumer Economics
	1999–2002 – Prof. Raphael Munavu	Organic Chemistry
	2002–07 – Prof. David K. Some	Agricultural Engineering
Maseno University	2007 to date – Prof. Richard K. Mibey	Mycology
	2001–10 – Prof. Frederick N. Onyango	Physics
	2010–16 – Prof. Dominic Makawiti	Biochemistry
Technical University of Kenya	2016– Prof. Julius O. Nyabundi	Horticulture
	2013 to date – Prof. Francis W. O. Aduol	Surveying

From our earlier comments on the leadership using the opportunity of being at the helm to provide appropriate space for the growth of the creative and cultural arts, we can narrow these narratives to two areas known to us. The first is the development of departments providing academic programmes in the fields of music, theatre and film studies. Second, we can single out institutions that have provided opportunities outside of the academic realm to give space for talent development. It is evident that the University of Nairobi, Moi University, Kenyatta University, Maseno University and the Technical University of Kenya listed in Table 4.4 have fully-fledged departments and units that provide academic programmes in music, theatre and film studies or components of these.

However, Tade (2010) suggests that for the leadership and governance in higher education to achieve any practical results there is a need to address the cultures of dependency and mediocrity. By implication, the nature and type of knowledge and the experiences provided for the learner should not restrict them to training with the expectation that someone will provide a job at the end. Neither should the training or knowledge provision restrict itself to traditional forms; it must be multi-disciplinary to meet the needs of the learners. Leadership, therefore, should aim to create programmes which develop individuals who can construct knowledge in forms that can be consumed by the communities and the contexts in which they operate. This may call for the leadership to take responsibility for establishing departments that do not just pursue knowledge in its traditional forms. Our intention is not to romanticise the view that good leadership can transform the creative and performance arts into departments that will produce merchants of wealth. We remain cognizant of the fact that leadership alone within the current context of economic constraints in universities in Kenya may not be enough. Certainly, there are other factors which would need to be taken into consideration. However, there is a lot that leadership in the institutions can set out to achieve; through the transformation of modes of inquiry, restructuring content and placing these within the context of societal needs. Tade (2010:23) indeed observes that ‘from the perspective of knowledge production, some of these changes are affecting the modes of scholarly inquiry, the constitution of disciplines and their boundaries, and the relationships among institutions, knowledge systems, and other parts of society’.

In our most considered opinion, leadership in the universities may need to consider and re-examine the existing formal and informal sources of knowledge about the creative and performing arts. Unlike other genres of knowledge, the development of music, theatre and film emerge from the most unlikely sources. This may call upon the leadership to adopt governance structures that may not conform to the traditional norm because with globalisation and internationalisation the sources of this information are becoming increasingly diverse and some are even complex to locate in the milieu of the creative industries. The creative arts have the tendency to ignore traditional approaches of appropriating, structuring

and disseminating information. They also thrive on sourcing knowledge from environments which may not meet the criteria required of those to teach in the institutions of higher learning. The leadership needed to support this type of learning may not exist in the institutions of higher learning as structured today, but we argue that appropriate new forms of governance structures must be cultivated.

The stories chronicling the periods when the Vice-chancellors listed in Table 7 were in office tell varying narratives of how each contributed to the growth specifically of the academic programmes in the disciplines of music, theatre and film studies. There is enough evidence that the pursuit of creative industries in the universities leads to the production of entrepreneurs who use the creative industries as a source of their livelihood and create employment opportunities for others. Their inclusion should not be for pedagogical dimensions only but towards the development of self-sustaining individuals, especially students. The narrative from Kenyatta University, on the one hand, would appear to have created many characters that today control to a large extent the entertainment industry in Kenya. On the other hand, the Moi University narrative shows that the products have found a lot of space in the media industry. Kenyatta University's, Vice-chancellor Prof George Eshiwani was undoubtedly a man who fostered the creative and cultural industries. His efforts express themselves today in the entertainment industry and the education sector where graduates of Kenyatta University hold significant positions. In Moi University, Prof. Munavu also created the department of creative arts and theatre studies and, in addition, setup a committee to run a festival of arts. His successors did not see the need to carry on with this and so put the academic department under the wings of the department of literature, scrapping the festival of arts in the process. It is open knowledge that even though other universities today organise cultural events, Kenyatta University remains the inspiration for these ventures, but the quality of the culture week festivals is becoming questionable as the leadership in many universities does not appreciate the potential that the creative disciplines have both as a marketing tool and as an avenue for increasing the revenue base of the institutions. Below we profile three Vice-chancellors and how their approaches to leadership and governance have influenced the direction of the creative activities, and evaluate what can be postulated as the future of creative disciplines in the higher levels of learning.

Profiles of Former Vice-chancellors and their Roles in the Creative and Cultural Activities

Prof. George S. Eshiwani

Prof. George Stanley Eshiwani, a professor of mathematics education, headed Kenyatta University as Vice-chancellor from 1992–2003. During his tenure, the

President of the Republic was the automatically designated Chancellor as dictated by the university statutes and the constitution. Consequently, Prof. Eshiwani was answerable directly to the President. A lot can be said of his administrative strategies and the appraisal of the Kenyatta University he inherited and where left it. However, regarding passion for developing and expanding the space for creative industries, the former Vice-chancellor was a cultural strategist who was relevant to discussions on the role of higher education leadership in the creative industries.

He did not pursue a creative arts agenda for academic exploits alone but did so with a view to ensuring that creative and cultural activities in the university later became productive in terms of showcasing talent and cultural diversity. It was during his tenure that students were sponsored by the university to exploit opportunities in the creative industries. Student groups such as Kenyatta University Travelling Theatre at some point during his tenure were able to generate income and fund their own activities countrywide. This was in line with using the creative industries as a means of self-support for both students and staff.

Perhaps the first indication that the Vice-chancellor was keen on developing the creative disciplines was when he transformed the department of Creative and Performing Arts Centre from being an affiliate of the Department of Literature to a full Directorate. This managerial decision enabled the creation of a structurally functional unit within the organisational structure of the university. In the creative and performing arts, decisions were decentralised to a more relevant managerial approach with leaders at the centre drawn from individuals with professional experience in the arts. Prof. Eshiwani was able to create an office that was able to exercise its powers in executing the mandate of promoting the creative disciplines within the academic and socio-cultural establishment of the university. The people who have been appointed over time to manage the Centre include Austin Bukenya, David Mulwa and Wasambo Were, all with proven national and international track records as participants and policy shapers of the national creative industry through pedagogy and practice.

The Creative and Performing Arts Centre became a pinnacle of creative activities guided by the principle of identifying and developing talent among students and staff. Apart from theatrical activities involving staff and students, music activities were soon introduced through the formation of a university band. Where required talent was evidently lacking, the university made efforts to recruit seasoned musicians on contractual terms. As a result, Kenyatta University became the first university in Kenya to own a band which operated independently of the Department of Music. This band served as part of identity branding for the university, provided entertainment during functions as well as an income generating commercial enterprise. In parallel developments, the Vice-chancellor spearheaded ambitious initiatives aimed at laying strong foundations for a vibrant

cultural wing in the university. One significant initiative in this direction was the establishment of a Culture Week festival as part of the university almanac. Through this, not only were spaces opened for students and staff to expose talent in fashion, design, dance, narrative, poetry, drama and traditional cuisines, but interaction with international cultures became possible via visiting guest artistes. Academically, culture became a subject of research and exchange through seminar presentations. With his authority, the university invested millions of shillings in facilitating the consistent running of the festival annually. This budget catered for costumes, construction of performance spaces, residential rehearsals, honoraria for guest performers, publicity and marketing, meals and accommodation for participants, among other costs.

In another significant step, he facilitated the construction of the Culture Village to showcase Kenya's cultural landscape through housing, artefacts and traditional cuisine, the latter at the Mugumo Restaurant. He also facilitated the employment of a full-time professional traditional dance troupe that was an integral part of the Culture Village. Members of the troupe serve as instructors, guides and entertainers. All these creations of his were put under a full directorate separate from the Creative and Performing Arts Centre. The Vice-chancellor ensured a systematic development of creative and performing activities for students and staff. One of his last initiatives was the insistence that the student choir participate in music festivals consistently. He also established a staff choir should be composed of members of staff from different departments.

During his tenure, programmes in theatre arts were developed with the contributions of theatre expert from the University of Dar es Salaam, Prof. Emmanuel Mbogo. This was after the realisation that the existence of theatre arts activities merely as a unit in the literature studies programme was not sufficient in the context of a large number of students enrolling for it. Besides, the travelling theatre required substantial support from academic activities. These and many more are indicative of Prof. George Eshiwani's contribution as a Vice-chancellor who promoted the creative disciplines in many ways.

Prof. Everett Standa

Given his background as a poet and literary scholar, many were hopeful that Prof. Everett Standa, the Vice-Chancellor of Kenyatta University from 2003-2006, would use this advantage to enhance the development of the creative disciplines in the university. Art practitioners particularly celebrated his appointment in the hope that he would further the cause of the arts community his predecessor had initiated. Admittedly, in the initial stages of his tenure, Prof. Standa carried on the artistic legacy Prof. Eshiwani had left. The Culture Village and Mugumo Restaurant remained operational. Culture Week remained part of officially recognised University calendar events. However, certain drastic

measures emerged directly complicating the momentum for the growth of the creative and performing arts. Specifically, the university embarked on a structural reorganisation of departments ostensibly to cut operational costs. The most affected were the creative arts departments with the new department of theatre arts being abolished barely a year into operation.

The Creative and Performing Arts Centre was also abolished with some of its functions passed on to the Department of Music. A systematic strategy to dispense with the Culture Village Dance Troupe began through the redeployment of the dancers to different departments as support staff, depending on their academic qualifications. This effectively made it difficult for them to sustain synergy in rehearsals, innovations and performance. The Culture Week was suddenly interpreted as a students' affair and its budget drastically revised downwards. Activities such as post-Culture Week tours were done away with as part of the new cost-cutting measures. Residential rehearsals that had helped performers to prepare adequately were also stopped. Students had to create time within their busy semester schedules to create, rehearse and perform during the event, a situation that seriously affected quality. Signs of a dwindling creative and performing arts arm of the university were becoming evident.

Prof. Olive Mugenda (Kenyatta University, 2006–16)

Prof. Olive Mugenda took over as the Vice-Chancellor of Kenyatta University in 2006 and remained in office till 2016. Although she had been part of university top management as Dean, as well as acting and substantive DVC (finance and planning), she was seen largely as an 'outsider' in matters of promoting creative activities. As the custodian of the university treasury, budgets for cultural events were brought under undue scrutiny with a view to taming what suddenly became a budgetary 'burden' to the University. The reorganisation of departments in terms of mergers and the abolition of others, especially in the creative arts, was done under the supervision of management in which she was a senior player in charge of finances, planning and development. Upon assuming power, she focused her energy on how to accommodate the passion for the creative industries in the overall university. Perhaps the most significant pointer to the uncertain future of the creative arts segment at the university was the demolition of the Culture Village together with the Mugumo Restaurant. The dance troupe was further rendered obsolete with members required to attend to their administrative duties full time.

Currently, a modern administration complex stands right where the Culture Village used to be. When there was evidence that for the first time in the history of the university an amphitheatre was finally being constructed, those in the creative disciplines celebrated that they were finally going to have a home for their activities. Unfortunately, this was not to be. Today the facility hosts more meetings and exhibitions than any artistic activity. In fact, it is not open to artistic ventures

such as concerts, rehearsals and deliberations. Harambee Hall, which has been serving as the university official theatre space, provokes stiff competition pitting lectures against artistic activities. On a positive note, the Culture Week festivities continue to be an integral part of the university almanack. Although members of staff carried on with the tradition of constituting organising committees for the event, a directive was issued requiring a more student-oriented event than ever before. The framers of this thinking argued that Culture Week should be largely a student affair with limited partnership from guest artists. In this new approach of making Culture Week more student-oriented, the University reduced the quality of the performances and items exhibited during the Culture Week festivals.

The School of Visual and Performing Arts has continued to operate with its constituent departments of music and dance, fine art and design as well as theatre arts and film studies. Management has kept a steady support for the choir which represents the university at the annual Kenya Music Festivals. Recently, perhaps as an indication of a change of heart, the Vice-chancellor took systematic measures to revive the band, the staff choir and dance troupe through the appointment of coordinators directly briefed on revival measures. However this does not imply regenerating the creative activities, because the scope of preparations for Culture Week has been reduced in terms of the period for preparation, financial resources allocated and number of external teams allowed. All these continue to dwindle.

Regarding of leadership and governance, under Prof. Mugenda the University lacks a structure that clearly propagates the concept of leadership investment in opportunities. By equating the creative activities to areas of expenditure with no returns on investments, the leadership fails to attract the best talents that can be used to generate income. The university has a rich pool of alumni who went through its creative programmes under the leadership of Prof. Eshiwani. It is regrettable that the development of staff based on their contribution to that field is no longer practised. This shows a failure to invest in human resources as a strategy of diversifying income sources through the creative industries.

Is the current spectrum of higher education leadership willing to assume an ethical responsibility of supporting creative arts like other disciplines? Are they willing to facilitate their inclusion in university missions and visions? Does the academic lens of research output and contribution by creative artists to universities' missions and visions activate a realisation of the prudence of their inclusion in mainstream university leadership? University leaders need to be flexible in equipping, empowering and recognising the creative disciplines, not just through the creative specialisation and pedagogy, but by the inclusion of participants and mentees in institutional leadership beyond resource allocation and mere mention. Such a move would spell the most positive and affirmative pronouncement of a revolution towards a transformative, inclusive and concerned higher education leadership for positive strides in the creative and cultural industries.

Conclusion

New organisational forms require new approaches in leadership to deal with emerging problems that inherently come with the changes. The networks within the governance structure of an institution of higher learning are formal and must co-exist with the emerging informal institutional and individual ones to achieve the overall objectives of the institution. This happens within the very 'formal hierarchy, polycentric and temporary power allocation' based on the 'formal power resources, and interdependence of the network participants' in each institution (Winkler 2006; Huxham and Vangen 2000). Suffice it to say that entrepreneurial institutions of higher education must be designed to undertake empowerment on two fronts. One is to improve the capacity of students and staff to actualise their potential and demonstrate the pursuit of knowledge, its dissemination and consumption not only within the theoretical realm of research, learning and teaching but that extends beyond the institutions. Secondly by being useful to the external world beyond the institutions, the university demonstrates that it generates pragmatic solutions applicable in the context of overcoming the challenges encountered in the greater socio-economic, cultural, political and scientific dimensions of the global community.

From the above statement, institutions of higher learning become the vehicles that propel development in African countries. Regarding of understanding African challenges, these institutions become cornerstones for consolidating the intellectual energies needed for the continent's development through resolving challenges. Viewed from this perspective, the intellectual energies are the vibrant debates, discussions and exchange of ideas that are subject to scrutiny and refinement, a process that continuously interrogates the knowledge we have with a view to shaping a better world for African development. Owing to this unique role institutions of higher learning in African must model their leadership and governance environment to serve 'as a model... for the practice of good governance, conflict resolution and respect for human rights, and enable African academics to play an active part in global community of scholars' (Annan 2005). For African countries, the university communities must remain committed to knowledge and learning, a commitment that can only be sustained through vibrant leadership focused on meeting the challenges of the contemporary world, a world situated at a crossroads of dynamism in the social, scientific, economic and political aspects of learning global community.

The problems bedevilling the world are diverse; the solutions lie in a high standard of research designed, planned and undertaken by institutions of higher learning. As the problems evolve, the challenges multiply and African universities must move in synchrony with new environmental challenges in the discovery of new ideas and theories that are practical in resolving the challenges. This places the institutions of higher education in a situation where they need provide visionary leadership that is grounded on good governance principles and structures. Consequently, the productivity of the universities towards meeting challenges within the communities

and offering solutions is a function of leadership efforts that are entrenched in concrete and firm governance systems that are both orderly and functional. It is only in this way that the leadership and governance of post-secondary institutions can facilitate the performance of tasks mandated to the universities by the relevant stakeholders in successfully reflecting the needs of contemporary African societies. Higher education is required to move from a focus on producing an employable graduate to work towards knowledge exchange. The objectives and experiences that characterise teaching and learning should ensure that we give 'our students an education for life and making them productive members of their communities and societies' (Goldstein, Miller and Courson 2014:3). In this way, HE opens the road towards self-determination, an objective that would be achieved through training in the creative disciplines and adaptation of sound leadership styles and governance structures.

As the world becomes increasingly dynamic and complex, multifaceted forms of leadership and governance structures and systems evolve at all levels of society. Though not new, these multifaceted forms of leadership are a response to the evolving complexity of new challenges that the leadership must resolve through time and space. Within this search for creativity, institutions of higher education should focus on making themselves sustainable, and that includes exploring the creative disciplines as a pertinent mechanism towards self-sustainability.

From the foregoing, university leaders have demonstrated a lack of insightful evaluation and appreciation of the real worth of creative disciplines in the context of cultural preservation, revenue generation and pedagogy. While Kenyatta University was a trailblazer during the leadership of Prof. George Eshiwani, and to some extent Moi University during the period Prof. Some served as the Vice-chancellor, there is no university in Kenya that can be highlighted as a beacon of using creative industries for income generation and learning per se.

The pursuit of the creative disciplines by the universities is strongly supported where the economic gains far outweigh the costs. Where arguments are advanced that creative industries have no role to play in the educational context of universities, it is purely conjecture grounded on ignorance. Creative industries are reflections of society and offer rich material for academic discourse in terms of research. Further more, they broadly fit into many spheres of knowledge. They provide 'a people with tools and capacities for their collective and individual self-determination and empowerment' (Tade 2010:3) and should not be negated as being inconsequential to the enterprise of higher education. This should be noted in the assertion by Aseka (2005b) that a leadership regime formulates, influences and prudently makes use of social policy. In this context, it would be to safeguard against the tendency to neglect creative disciplines. The leadership must be dynamic and the governance structures and practices responsive to the continuous internal and external environmental changes that arise in the environment of the institutions of higher learning. Bradshaw

and Hayday (2007) justify this by stating that 'there is an exciting opportunity to create new models which are hybrids of existing and emerging models with the selection of the best model based on contingency approach'. In the case of institutions of higher learning that are currently diversifying their sources of funding, leadership models and governance systems must be able to offer a policy that clearly elucidates governance systems and power relations within the hierarchical structure of an organisation. A governance structure that facilitates knowledge transfer (Oakley and Selwood 2010:4) will make higher education in Kenya relevant.

The organisational culture must be able to allow people from diverse backgrounds to reconcile their different perspectives and approaches to a standardised way of undertaking different functions, which forms the basis of overcoming subjectivity in the interpretation of directives and executing them in relation to leadership, governance and power relations in institutions of higher education. Power therefore, becomes distributed on the basis of need with the sole objective of making the different functional units of the organisation interdependent in terms of output and independent in terms of their capacity to improve their own efficiency within the settings of the boundaries imposed by the institution (Coston 2009; Bradshaw and Hayday 2007). This points directly to collaborative approaches in HE governance, where strengths and values of individuals are recognised and consolidated towards achieving the set objectives.

With that in mind, higher education is a concern about marginality, and the endurance to remain in existence and relevant to global society. Clark (1983) opines that for higher education to be relevant the institution of higher education must have the capacity to be resilient and survive by embracing new leadership and governance approaches. These new leadership and governance designs must be highly responsive, versatile and quick to respond to new environmental dynamics. This enhances the institutions' nature towards having 'routines, practices, processes, missions and cultures which condition how problems are defined, information is shared, goals are identified, options generated, and ultimately how decisions are made' (Zimmerman 2012:10).

Consequently, decision making in the context of leadership must be able to use creative imaginations that can overcome the limitations imposed by time and resources in overcoming challenges and realising the objectives of higher education in society. Efficiency in decision-making is increased by a delegation of powers and authorities which reduce the time lapse occasioned by excessive bureaucracy. The leadership must define the objectives and problems encountered in a clear and concise manner. With an efficient organisational culture embedded in the behaviours of human personnel working in an orderly fashion within the organisational structure, leadership and governance systems can supply the quality products demanded inherently within the aims of higher education in the socio-economic development of many countries.