Journal of Higher Education in Africa
Revue de l'enseignement supérieur en Afrique

Special Issue on

Higher Education Leadership and Management

Numéro spécial sur

Management, leadership et enseignement supérieur

Volume 12, No. 1, 2014

The *Journal of Higher Education in Africa* (*JHEA*) is published by the Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa (CODESRIA), Senegal. The Journal publishes analysis, information, and critique on contemporary issues of higher education in the continent with special emphasis on research and policy matters. The journal accepts contributions in English and French from researchers, practitioners, and policymakers.

La *Revue de l'enseignement supérieur en Afrique (RESA)* est publié par le Conseil pour le devéloppement de la recherche en sciences sociales en Afrique (CODESRIA), Sénégal. La revue publie des analyses, de l'information et des approches critiques des défis actuels auxquels l'enseignement supérieur reste confronté à travers le continent tout en mettant un accent particulier sur la recherche et les politiques d'orientation en cours. La revue publie des contributions de chercheurs, de professionnels et de décideurs politiques, en anglais et en français.

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Subscriptions/Abonnements

(a) African Institutes/Institutions africaines	$100 US
(b) Non African Institutes/Institutions non africaines	$200 US
(c) Individual/Particuliers	$ 60 US

Cover designed by Ibrahima Fofana and Jose Neito
Typesetting by Djibril Fall

CODESRIA would like to express its gratitude to the Swedish International Development Cooperation Agency (SIDA), the International Development Research Centre (IDRC), the Ford Foundation, the Carnegie Corporation of New York (CCNY), the Norwegian Agency for Development Cooperation (NORAD), the Danish Agency for International Development (DANIDA), the French Ministry of Cooperation, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), the Netherlands Ministry of Foreign Affairs, the Rockefeller Foundation, the Open Society Foundations (OSFs), Trust Africa, UNESCO, UN Women, the African Capacity Building Foundation (ACBF) and the Government of Senegal for supporting its research, training and publication programmes.

Le CODESRIA exprime sa profonde gratitude à la Swedish International Development Corporation Agency (SIDA), au Centre de Recherches pour le Développement International (CRDI), à la Ford Foundation, à la Carnegie Corporation de New York (CCNY), à l'Agence norvégienne de développement et de coopération (NORAD), à l'Agence Danoise pour le Développement International (DANIDA), au Ministère Français de la Coopération, au Programme des Nations Unies pour le Développement (PNUD), au Ministère des Affaires Etrangères des Pays-Bas, à la Fondation Rockefeller, à l'Open Society Foundations (OSFs), à TrustAfrica, à l'UNESCO, à l'ONU Femmes, à la Fondation pour le renforcement des capacités en Afrique (ACBF) ainsi qu'au Gouvernement du Sénégal pour le soutien apporté aux programmes de recherche, de formation et de publication du Conseil.

ISSN 0851-7762

Journal of Higher Education in Africa/
Revue de l'enseignement supérieur en Afrique
Volume 12, No. 1, 2014 (ISSN 0851-7762)

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(ISSN 0851–7762)

Deanship, Leadership Dilemmas and Management Challenges Facing the Social Sciences[1] in Public University Education in Kenya

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Abstract

This paper stems from a sense of unease with the current leadership and management of Faculties of Social Sciences in Kenyan universities. Guided by the belief that social sciences must be judged by their sound scholarship and their policy relevance, the paper discusses dilemmas facing deans of these faculties in the execution of their leadership roles in overall university management. The paper is premised on the fact that the university sector in Kenya is experiencing unprecedented change in an effort to meet local obligations and respond to the global higher education agenda.

Résumé

Cette étude résulte d'un certain malaise noté dans le leadership et la gestion actuels des Facultés des sciences sociales des universités kenyanes. Guidée par la conviction que les sciences sociales doivent être appréciées sur la base de leur bien-fondé scientifique et leur pertinence politique, l'étude examine les dilemmes auxquels les doyens des facultés font face dans l'exécution de leurs rôles de leadership dans la gestion globale des universités. L'étude repose sur le fait que le secteur universitaire kenyan connait des changements sans précédent dans un effort de respecter les obligations locales et de répondre à l'agenda global de l'enseignement supérieur.

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Introduction

University leadership in Kenya has enthralled and fascinated a number of scholars (see Gudo, Oanda & Olel 2011; and Sifuna 1998). While focus has been on general university management, academic deanship remains one of those rare topics that have not attracted proper scientific study. Yet, the quest to understand the place of an academic dean in university governance is as compelling as it is urgent.

This paper, therefore, argues that the huge transformations occurring on the education landscape in Kenya are having far-reaching leadership and management repercussions on academic deans as important members of university administration. Consequently, management and leadership styles of faculties of social sciences ought to be transformational. Yet, the training programmes and professional development that are essential for effective university management and leadership at the level of dean are neglected. The paper argues for innovative management and leadership by deans of the social sciences as necessary ingredients for the African university of the twenty-first century.

Deans of social sciences have a responsibility to their own calling as well as to university and national policy goals. As pressure continues to mount for universities to embrace further change, demands made upon deans of social sciences have become greater today than ever before. Owing to monumental leadership and management challenges that deans face, the legitimacy of social sciences is being questioned by some. For many reasons, but largely due to lack of effective leadership and proper management, connections between social science ideas and policymakers are less common today, and the gap may grow unless we rethink carefully the problem at hand. A crisis of leadership and management is compounding the crisis in the social sciences and thus undermining their relevance.

Situating Academic Deans in University Education in Kenya

The history of running university affairs and activities in Kenya has been characterized by three, often confusing, concepts: administration, management and leadership. This statement is perhaps more relevant in the case of the academic dean than any other holder of office at the university. Is an academic dean a manager or a leader? Or both of these rolled into one?

It is not easy to provide a satisfactory answer to this apparently simple question. This is especially so in the case of Kenya whose university education is a heritage of different styles of conducting affairs and serving the needs and demands of the state, society and the market. As a unit, the university is at the centre of these three, and must be effective and efficient in dealing with

them all. To deal with all these matters, universities have a variety of people from different backgrounds occupying an array of positions. An academic dean is one such a person whose roles, responsibilities and relationships in the university deserve scrutiny in the face of forces of change now in vogue in university education.

In order to understand the academic dean, it is important to describe the nature of the university in Kenya and its structure. Like most universities in the world, the university in Kenya is multi-formed and based on three coexisting forms of legitimate corporation: organization, institution, and community.

First, the university is an organization. It is a legal rational entity which employs labour and capital in formal processes and structures to generate the outputs of teaching and research. One instrument that clearly identifies the role of university education in Kenya is Universities Act (2012). According to the Act, in the discharge of its functions and the exercise of its powers under this Act, a university shall be guided by the national values and *principles of governance* set out under Article 10 of the Constitution (2010), and shall in that regard: promote quality and relevance of its programmes; enhance equity and accessibility of its services; promote inclusive, efficient, effective and transparent governance systems and practices and maintenance of public trust; ensure sustainability and adoption of best practices in management and institutionalization of systems of checks and balances; promote private-public partnership in university education and development; and institutionalize non-discriminatory practices.

In order to fulfil its mandate, public universities depend on the Council and Senate. Council is the executive body of a university's governance system, and is responsible for the management of resources. Members of university councils are people from outside the university, often appointed by the government to oversee the activities and operations of the institution on behalf of the government. The Council sets broad policy directions for the institution and follows up on how such policies are being executed by management. On the other hand, Senate is the supreme body as far as academic matters are concerned. Senate is responsible to Council in the execution of its mandate.

Both Council and Senate are guided by university statutes that provide the constitutional framework that allows the university to govern its administrative and academic affairs. The statutes set out the objects and powers of the university, and define the officers of the university. Both organs of the university and instruments of governance have, as their basic concern, the efficiency with which the university as an organization serves the demands and/or the needs of the state, society and the market. Deanship is one such office whose role is defined in the statutes. A dean of faculty is recognized

as a link in university management as they play an important role in policy formulation and implementation.

Second, the university is an institution which maintains permanent and intrinsic values of scholarship and service vested in collegiality. This commitment is reflected in university service charter, philosophy, mission, vision and quality statements. The dean is expected to be actively involved in actualizing these aspirations.

Third, a university is a community that develops relationships between various categories of members and provides social infrastructure and cohesion. University staff and students, alumni, and the public are some of the key stakeholders of a university. It is the responsibility of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, under which universities fall, to ensure that that function is performed as expected. The Commission for University Education, together with regulatory and professional bodies, also assumes important oversight roles. Once again, the dean is called upon to deal with students, staff and the public in the execution of university functions.

Owing to these forms of legitimacy, Lockwood (2010) says the university is multi-formed, pluralistic and fragmented because of the nature of its activities, and inevitable tensions arise out of different values and interests. Coupled with the academic structure of the faculty and forces of change now in vogue in universities, deanship becomes even more intriguing. Some faculties are the basic organizational unit of the academic life of a university while others are made up of departments. Furthermore, faculties are structured and operate depending on their disciplinary foundations, boundary differentiations and relationships with external professions. Deans have their roles and responsibilities depending on the kind of faculties they run.

There have been many attempts to replace the academic discipline as the base unit in Kenyan universities since the 1990s. For example, the development of research directorates separate from the teaching faculties has seen a number of changes that impact on the perception and performance of the dean. This includes: innovations with emphasis on interdisciplinary schools of studies replacing the traditional faculty model; and the reorganization of various elements of teaching and research into a matrix specialization, and then into 'schools'. The thinking informing the switch from faculties to schools, but retaining the dean at the helm, is to reduce overlaps in faculties wishing to control all their taught courses, especially those required by a number of disciplines, such as language, education and psychology. Schools are expected to be more flexible and effective in discharging their academic roles. This transformation from faculties to schools has swept across most public universities in Kenya, and with it the changeover from the traditional dean to an executive

dean, ostensibly and expectedly, with more and real power. However, these structural changes at integrating base units into a single school have been and remain complex and challenging. This is especially so considering advances in knowledge and the need to come up with autonomous schools, thus leading to multiplication and the danger of duplication.

The increasing scale and complexity of the public university is having an impact on the deanship of social sciences in Kenya. Knowledge explosion has led to the imperative need to cross traditional disciplinary boundaries, a factor that calls for the dean's leadership and management of curriculum development for purposes of responsiveness to environmental imperatives and also to ensure quality.

Another factor that impacts on deanship of social sciences in Kenya is the fact that sources of the development and transmission of knowledge are no longer confined to the public universities alone. Private universities and agencies and governmental institutions are quickly diminishing that monopoly. For instance, as of September 2014, there were 21 accredited private universities in the country offering social science courses. On the other hand, the Kenya Institute of Public Policy Research and Analysis (KIPPRA) is one of those agencies involved in a lot of research in the social sciences. What these examples demonstrate is that the social science research function of the public university is being challenged by these competitors. It then falls to the deans of social sciences to understand how to deal with these emerging changes and challenges.

The rapid and major expansion of students taking social sciences and its attendant pressure on resources is yet another force that is changing how the dean operates. In broad terms, typical public universities in Kenya have more than doubled in size since the beginning of this century, with a sizeable number of students enrolling in the social sciences. Equally important is that the expansion has increased the number of full-fledged public universities from seven in 2013 to 23 in 2015. While this number is set to grow with a number of colleges awaiting full university charters, the new universities are coming up with innovative social science courses. Thus, the expansion means that deans will be put to a great strain to deal with limited capital resources, ageing of staff, brain drain and funding of the social sciences, the growth of external competition and increasing public accountability. These are real challenges that confront the dean of social sciences in Kenya.

The development of technology and its impact on the social sciences has increased the importance of the place of the dean. While the impact of technological change varies according to disciplines, the social sciences, like other disciplines, have been subjected to the same change. For instance, almost all public universities in Kenya have initiated open and distance learning pro-

grammes in the social sciences that demand of deans to provide the necessary technological infrastructure. Therefore, the *e*-teaching function of schools and faculties of social sciences offers widened opportunities and requires planning to be focused. Technology is increasing the complexity and choices available in the social sciences and the dean is expected to respond accordingly.

The growing complexity and increasing challenges of the university, both internal and external, give rise to the demand and need for deans of social sciences to be more accountable to staff, students and society. The growth in the scale and importance of the social sciences require deans of faculties to explain themselves more fully as far as quality and relevancy are concerned.

These forces of change impact more upon the executive element of management or administration of faculties. This may account for the propensity for public universities in Kenya to appoint Executive Deans, unlike in the past where they were elected by members of their faculties, or appointed after going through some form of interview.

It is perhaps due to the foregoing complexity of the roles and responsibilities of deans that some commentators use the terms 'leadership' and 'management' interchangeably as if they were synonymous, while others use them in a very deliberate sense to convey that they are, in fact, quite different. Still others regard one (leadership) as a subset of the other (management). The very complementarity and symbiotic nature of capable leadership and sound management, however, as the *sine qua non* of organizational success, has often prevented us from recognizing that there is indeed, a very real difference between the two (McCaffery 2010:78). According to Turner (1998), the difference is exemplified not only in the characteristics and activities of managers and leaders, but also in the perceptions of them in the workplace.

Whichever way one wants to look at the issue, management is a corporate concept that deals with planning and control of resources, implementation of policy and administration of people who are results-oriented. A manager plans and budgets, controls staff and solves their problems, and does things right. In a word, a manager ensures there is establishment and maintenance of order in the unit he/she is heading by focusing on the system and its structure. On the other hand, a leader is someone who accompanies people on a journey and guides them to their destination. A leader focuses on people, sets direction, motivates and inspires them, has long-range perspective, challenges the status quo, produces change and does the right thing. The quest to reach an understanding of leadership – on its nature and essence, its style and meaning, its exercise and practice – is difficult (McCaffery 2010:77-79). The source of the difficulty lies in the fact that leadership is an endless subject (Syrett & Hogg 1992).

There is no doubt that the roles and responsibilities of an academic dean, coupled with the changes taking place in university education, pose challenges which require drawing on complementary sets of competences. It may not be a question of the academic dean being a manager, a leader or an administrator. An academic dean is expected to be capable and proficient as leadership, management and administrative functions are more closely integrated at their level than at the broader institutional level. Deanship deals with a myriad leadership, management and administrative functions. As the academic head of a faculty/school, a dean is expected to provide academic leadership and policy formulation. On the other hand, a dean is also involved with policy implementation and administration of the faculty/school.

Social Sciences in University Education in Kenya

Many universities in Kenya have gradually been opening themselves up to social science disciplines owing to the focus of the disciplines on the needs of the modern world. Even traditional universities that had difficulties in accepting new disciplines are adopting an open and pragmatic attitude towards the social sciences. For instance, the Jomo Kenyatta University of Agriculture and Technology has the following social science courses: Bachelor of Business and Office Management; Bachelor of Business Information Technology; Bachelor of Commerce; Bachelor of Commerce and Business Administration; Bachelor of Community Health and Development; Bachelor of Co-operative Business; Bachelor of Development Studies; Bachelor of Entrepreneurship; Bachelor of Law; and Bachelor of Mass Communication. On the other hand, the Technical University of Kenya has introduced the following social science courses: Bachelor in Music; Bachelor of Arts in International Relations and Diplomacy; Bachelor of Built Environment (Urban & Regional Planning); Bachelor of Commerce; and Bachelor of Economics. Technical University of Mombasa has Bachelor of Arts in Development Studies; Bachelor of Business Administration and Bachelor of Commerce. Masinde Muliro University of Science and Technology has Bachelor of Education; Bachelor of Business Administration and Management Sciences; Bachelor of Economics; Bachelor of Accounting and Finance; Bachelor of Criminology; Bachelor of Social Work; and Bachelor of Journalism and Mass Communication.

The proliferation of the social sciences in public universities of Science and Technology in Kenya is more because of the pecuniary gains the institutions derive from it than the realization of their important role in society. Most, if not all, of the social sciences programmes have been initiated because they are easy to mount, cheap to operate and very lucrative as sources of scarce income, which is so dearly needed. With dwindling funds from the government,

Science and Technology Universities have devised strategies that will ensure that as many students as they can lay their hands on are recruited to join the social sciences, pay for the cheap courses on offer and use the same funds to equip Science, Engineering, and Mathematics and Technology laboratories.

The triumphant progress of the social sciences in public Kenyan universities lies in the fact that the disciplines are recognized to be important in tackling such societal challenges as conflict, crime, loss of civil cohesion, religious radicalization and the need for democratization. Communal, economic, political and social challenges facing the country have aroused unusual interest in the social sciences and this leads to the justification of their inclusion on academic menus of most universities. Consequently, there has been a massive influx into the universities with students hoping to confront those challenges with knowledge, skills and ideas mastered from the social sciences.

The development of social science education has been taking place gradually until the early 1990s when university education landscape in the country began changing rapidly. There have been conferences and recommendations for higher education reform to increase competitiveness. A number of initiatives have been taken with far-reaching consequences for university policy and management in general, and the social sciences specifically. The resulting guidelines published in the Education Act of 2012 and more specifically in the University Act of 2012 have introduced radical measures that will impact historical approach to many academic disciplines, including the social sciences. Dramatic changes have occurred in terms of numbers, cost, scope, diversity, size and complexity of universities that now exist in Kenya. Thus, the country's social science education market is now highly diversified with a wide range of choices.

The drive towards mass social science education stands as one of the watersheds in Kenya's university history. While a few years ago the country had only a small number of public and private universities, which were under the severe and continued pressure of spiralling student numbers, expansion since the early 1990s has truly been monumental. The total number of recognized universities in the country is distributed as follows:

University Status	Number
Public Universities	22
Public University Constituent Colleges	9
Chartered Private Universities	17
Private University Constituent Colleges	5
Institutions with Letter of Interim Authority	13
Registered Private Institution	1
Total	**67**

Source: Commission for University Education, September 2014.

With the establishment of a large number of universities at home, not many students now feel the urge to travel abroad; instead, they prefer to study locally. Consequently, enrolment rose from 75,000 students in 2002 to about 280,000 in 2014. These numbers will drastically increase when the first cohort of the Free Primary Education that was introduced in 2003 will be joining university in 2015. Under the programme, enrolment in public primary schools rose from 6.1 million pupils in 2003 to 8.6 million pupils in 2012. Again with the introduction of Free Day Secondary Education in 2008, the number of students in public schools has increased dramatically. It is with this in mind, and considering the 73 per cent transition rate from primary to secondary, that the Government of Kenya is planning to increase public universities to cater for the anticipated university students.

Another factor to consider is the bewildering number of university campuses and centres that are extending across urban centres in Kenya. In what appears to be cut-throat competition for students and money, both public and private universities are creating campuses and centres that target the same clients and so end up duplicating courses. What is noteworthy for our study is that almost all the newly established campuses and centres consist of only one faculty or several faculties that offer a variety of social sciences disciplines. But more than that, even in almost all of the existing main campuses of mother universities, the Faculties of Social Sciences are among the biggest in terms of enrolments. An explanation for this phenomenon could be that in their wisdom, university managers find social sciences a soft landing in their expansionism drive because they are ‘soft sciences’. This is not the place for

me to discuss this skewed and biased position that has existed since the days of Comte and Spencer, but to agree with Prah (1993:14) that the hard-core of the prejudice lingers on as intellectual atavism of dinosaurian natural scientists, philistinism or sheer ignorance.

As far as research priorities are concerned, the social sciences can be said to have been neglected in Kenyan universities. Despite their centrality in development, the disciplines have not been assisted and promoted in terms of recruitment, staffing, funding and innovation. Most researches in the social sciences are individual efforts. Motivated and committed individual social scientists, guided by personal priorities and interests, are responsible for originating, designing, developing, raising funds, and executing research projects. This contrasts with efforts by the Government and such institutions as the National Council for Science, Technology and Innovation that determine what natural science research they want carried out and how it is to be done.

But the social sciences should be accorded due respect; they should not be treated as cash cows for the nourishment of the 'natural sciences'. To this end, there would be value added if public university management in Kenya promote cross-disciplinary co-operation between all scientists in their institutions. Natural sciences serve in social realities and affect socio-economic change such that social science expertise cannot be totally separated from both. As Prah (1993:15) says:

> The object of study of the social sciences is society writ large. Social Science attempts to understand the structure, nature, and dynamics of human society, its organization, its past, present and future, in as far as this is understandable in its various dimensions of social life.

Also contributing to the complexity of university landscape in Kenya is the number of different types of institutions considered part of higher education. Middle level colleges, professional schools and technical institutions are partnering with universities and institutions in other countries which have set up their own 'branch' campuses in Kenya and which offer newer or developing professions that are dependent on the social sciences. The emerging, networked, invisible global college that operates more like a corporation than a traditional faculty is present in Kenya and competes with existing public universities. The variety of higher education institutions in Kenya are developing ways of doing social sciences which are maintained so long as they do not malfunction too greatly. As long as students, faculty, administration, and sources of funding are not too unhappy with the institution, there simply is no pressure to account for their relevance.

While a significant number of those enrolling in public universities in Kenya is from the traditional post-secondary students, non-traditional students, working full-time, form a sizeable population. There will likely be a host of other new entrants into the University education space in the current globally competitive, highly dynamic environment. Changed demographics have come with new needs and demands and compelled many new conversations and directions in university education. But most importantly, a revolutionary rather than evolutionary university education in social science programmes has significant management and leadership implications. Deans who oversee these programmes have the huge task of balancing global trends with local needs without sacrificing quality and relevance at the altar of quantity and income.

Management and Leadership of the Social Sciences in Public Universities in Kenya

The social sciences have made significant achievements in the development of Kenya. This is as a result of immense growth and development in the institutional base, methodological sophistication, and knowledge accumulation and dissemination. Despite their successes, the social sciences have also faced serious challenges that have necessitated rethinking the way they are managed and those who lead those efforts. This is especially so considering that the disciplines are not immune to global trends in higher education. Across the world, there is a change from elite to a mass system of higher education. Among reasons that account for this change include adoption of egalitarian policies that aim to increase education opportunities to a large population; social demand for investment in education as enhancement of economic growth and individual development; and the growing educational attainment of the world population that demands for continued learning opportunities and advanced educational credentials.

Like elsewhere across the world, there have been sweeping and far-reaching changes in Kenya with consequences on university education since the 1980s. The changes taking place affect all levels of university management, including deanship. These developments and trends have engendered reforms that have come with challenges which in turn affect faculty leadership and management. Effective faculty leadership and management are crucial in realizing the required reforms in a context of increasing autonomy and accountability. Without training in management and leadership development programme in many universities in the country, deans of social sciences may not be suitable to face the emerging challenges.

Kenya's public universities are in transition, owing both to global and continental developments in higher education. These dramatic changes are a

result of a complex interplay between broad social and economic forces and policy intervention. The 2012 Universities Act lays out plans for significant structural and systemic changes in the organization and funding of universities in the country. Responding to the emerging needs of the changing university education represents one of the most fundamental challenges facing faculty management and leadership. With the transformation of university education, the function of the social sciences is also changing. These developments have fundamental implications for the management and leadership of Faculties of Social Sciences.

The changes in university education are impacting social sciences in a variety of ways: among the developments that are discernible include expansion and increasing marketization of higher education and the increasingly heterogeneous student body. These come with differing needs, interests, and circumstances of students, comprehending a complex interaction of factors such as age, gender, disability, employment status and family situation. The task of dealing with new types of learning, including *e*-education, the blurring boundaries between formal and non-formal learning as exemplified by developments such as institution-based partnerships, opportunities for collaboration, assessment and accreditation which takes place outside universities. More specifically, these changes can be viewed as leadership challenges in a way.

Deans, as university leaders, have a role to play in the unfolding transformation. Priorities for leadership and management in university faculties have to be refocused in terms of organizational development and change, leadership styles, planning and monitoring, and instruments and tools. This means that a dean's leadership and management are related to the context in which their roles and tasks are performed. Because there is no 'one single way' to effectively lead and manage a university or faculty, deans ought to have knowledge of the relevant environment in which their faculties operate.

First, the trend towards greater vocationalism or labour market relevance in academic programmes that manifests itself through greater emphasis on the growth of professional programmes calls for changed leadership of faculties of social sciences, allowing them to concentrate on their core mission and clientele. This means greater specialization in and commercialization of research and teaching that is applied and relevant to the needs of society.

Second, is the challenge of flexibility which ought to exist in relation to the organization of study, the curriculum, policies regarding the overall profile and emphasis of faculties of social sciences, and their impact on society. For instance, there is the issue of continuing education opportunities for those learners who do not aim to study as part of a formal degree course. An increasing number of students in the faculties of social sciences are frequently

seeking shorter courses on non-credit programmes. The availability of such courses or programmes in the faculties is thus another indication of their commitment to playing a part in a broader system of education. Significant efforts in continuing professional development ought to be instituted to ensure there are well designed programmes that are increasingly based on market principles. But it has to be borne in mind that there are institutions outside the university sector which also provide the same. The growth of professional continuing education from the periphery of universities into core units reflects the fast turn-over of knowledge and faculties of social sciences have to update their knowledge in a more systematic way. They have to embrace continuing education as part of their mainstream mission.

Third, the expansion and diversification of the student population coupled with the dynamics of knowledge production have resulted in growing complexity and uncertainty. One of the challenges facing faculties of social sciences is the long duration it takes before qualification. On average, students take four years to complete their undergraduate studies. This has become an urgent issue and takes even longer for non-traditional part-time students who may be employed. While faculties expect students to conduct their own studies in a completely independent way, there has emerged a need for guidance and monitoring in a fashion not very different from 'school-like' environment. As a result, not only is the drop-out rate high, the long duration at studies makes students spend too many of their productive years studying and by the time they graduate they are 'too old'. Delayed graduation may be associated with a lack of motivation on the part of the students, and it may also be caused by factors beyond their control, including lack of facilities. Thus, participation and the mode of study that accommodates the particular needs of a variety of learners, including open learning, modular courses, credit transfer, and part-time learning are challenges of management that deans of social sciences have to grapple with.

Fourth, the availability of funding in the form of student grants and loans plays an important role in whether one learns or not. Public university education in Kenya suffers reduced budgets, forcing the institutions to engage in efforts to secure additional funding from alternative sources. With reduced financial resources, faculties of social sciences are hard-hit as a majority of university students belong to them. Alternative financial schemes for the differentiated learners and other support mechanisms like assistance to the disabled and childcare facilities for non-traditional students are incentives of special importance to be considered by deans.

Deans of social sciences have to admit that expansion has serious implications to their leadership roles and management of faculties. This calls

for a change of views and perception of the social sciences at the policy and practical levels. The overall process of expansion of higher education has impacted the social sciences in terms of specialization and differentiation. There is now emphasis on matters such as the need for more attention to students, enhanced performance, establishment of linkages, and the expansion of interdisciplinarity.

Effective leadership and management make the difference in public universities today, by inspiring faculty, staff and students to perform. Consequently, university management and leadership require a particular set of knowledge and skills. In their absence, deans face challenges working in universities that are operating in a complex environment. Knowledge and competence in the effective management of learning, people, policy and resources will lead to delivery of quality and relevant social sciences. Specifically, initiatives have to be instituted around issues of policy reform, institutional strategy making, faculty and university development, change management and various other matters dealing with the governance and administration of academic processes.

In order to effectively play their roles, deans are forced to go through the process of innovation and institutional reform to cope with these challenges. Institutional reform calls for innovation in management and leadership where governance skills are required in the areas of policy reform, institutional strategy making, organizational development, change management and the administration of academic processes. But, in the absence of a deliberate strategic policy and programme, the deans are in real danger of causing crises and decline in the social sciences. What deans of social sciences need are models of leadership and management that can more readily take advantage of the challenges and opportunities offered by the changes taking place. They need to shift their focus from reform that is devoted to fixing the social sciences to rethinking and reshaping them.

Roles and Responsibilities of an Academic Dean

The role of the academic dean is one that is multifaceted, challenging and often ambiguous. This often results in an inability to truly define a dean's purpose (Walker, 200:1). According to DiFronzo (2002), there are several reasons why it is difficult to describe the role of the dean. First, there is the issue that there are many types of deans who work in many different areas of higher education. There are also various types of higher education institutions in which deans can serve. There can be many deans at different levels working in assorted areas and in different capacities. This can make defining the single role quite difficult and confusing. Gould (1964:9) states that there is no such thing as a standardized dean.

Therefore, the lack of focused and sustained research on the role of an academic dean in university education in Kenya may be ascribed to the ambiguity of their roles, responsibilities and relationships. Yet, in universities, as hierarchies of authority, deanship is a managerial position that has been undergoing evolution characterized by change that has come with new roles and responsibilities over the years. Wolverton, Gmelch, Montez and Nies (2001:6) state that a dean's duties have changed over time from being almost exclusively student focused to include a multifaceted array of roles, such a budgeting and fundraising, personnel and work environment management, programme oversight, and external public relations. These changes have resulted in a huge amount of additional administrative work at the level of dean, and the requirement for a wide range of specialist skills in areas that go beyond their training such as marketing, human resource management, management accounting, web development and instructional design. While a substantial volume of this additional workload has been added to that of the academic dean, much of the new work is supposed to be managed by the same individual who lacks formal leadership training. But being academics more than professional administrators, and in response to systemic change in university education, deans face a myriad challenges in the execution of their duties.

The arrival of management in the university is a as a result of the realization that in order to fulfil the academic objectives of the institution in the environment obtaining, there is a need for management rather than just internally focused administration. The development of management is crucial to the ways and means through which universities adjust to major changes in their political and economic relations with the state and society, and to the equally major shifts in the structure of knowledge, the development of technology and the massive increase in the demand for university education (Lockwood 2011:160).

While Kenyan public universities are undergoing reform, management culture does not conform and this leads to relationships characterized by tension and rivalry. This is because most administrative and academic staff approach their work differently. The two groups come from different professional backgrounds whose values and practices, although often complementary, are equally in conflict most times. And while universities are undergoing change, deans assume a wider variety of responsibilities more than their professional administrator colleagues. For deans of social sciences, they are concerned with the primary activities of the university (teaching and learning, research and scholarship, public service) and the support services and infrastructure necessary for those activities (resource availability, allocation and usage, student recruitment and evaluation, provision and maintenance of resources; development of social services for the students).

Management of Resources

University resources are fiscal, facilities, and human. As heads of faculties as cost centres, deans have responsibility for faculty, staff, and students in assuring a positive, high-quality working environment. Deans of social sciences are called upon to handle both resource administration and academic administration. To do this, they need good relationships with specialists so as to deal with the technical financial aspects of resource management related to staff. A dean, therefore, spends time with professional administrative colleagues in finance and planning, obtaining information and necessary advice on staffing, purchase of equipment, space allocation, formulation of research funding applications, and effective usage of time of the academic staff. In this way, the dean becomes an active player in the open and participative process of corporate planning and governance.

The challenge is that resource forecasting and allocation has to be done through processes and means adaptable and responsive to environmental change and opportunities. With reduced funding to universities in general, and to the social sciences in particular, deans do not have both the freedom and the responsibility to manage available resources. And without management skills, crisis management creeps in.

Education Mission

The dean plays a crucial role in shaping the goals and priorities of their faculty consistent with the priorities outlined in the university's overall plan. The dean creates the roadmap for achieving the goals identified and articulated in the planning process.

Thus, a dean plays a leadership role in coordinating department chairs, committee chairs, graduate programme directors, and faculty members to accomplish the goals of the faculties of social sciences, which serve the mission of the university. A dean is also expected to maintain a record of scholarship and ensure the integrity, quality, value and relevance of the academic programmes within their jurisdiction. In carrying out these duties, the dean will relate to other management arms by providing leadership necessary for the realization of the short term and long term goals of both the faculty and the university. More importantly, the dean's role is to enhance the stature, reputation, and visibility of their faculty and academic programmes on offer.

Student Affairs

Generally, the student experience of the university of the twenty-first century is radically different from that of the past. Changes in student lives and expec-

tations constitute a formidable challenge to institutions and their managers, including deans. Students as fee-paying clients have every right to expect to be treated as consumers; for higher education is no different to any other service industry (Waterhouse 2002). Students do not interact with their institutions solely and exclusively on the basis of being 'learners'. The multiple roles of the modern student include not only learner, but also citizen, colleague, consumer, scholar and perhaps most important of all, partner. From a student perspective, theirs is a service relationship and we should recognize it as such and strive to provide service excellence to them as customers (McCaffery 2010274).

A dean's responsibility to their students is about satisfying their needs and meeting their expectations as consumers of social sciences. While service provision, facilities, sports and social life of students are matters handled by the dean of students, teaching and supervision of their learning falls under the academic dean. With a mass public university system in Kenya, with a more diverse student profile than ever before, with far greater opportunities for study on- and off-campus, and with the introduction of variable fees, the dean of social sciences has the task of ensuring that students' crowded lifestyles do not affect their relationship with the university and affect the quality of education. Apart from putting in place needed programmes to help students achieve academic excellence, they also have to monitor their academic progress like retention rates, graduation rates, and other indicators of success.

Full-Time Faculty Matters

The extra-ordinary development in public university education in Kenya has brought about quantitative and qualitative changes for the teaching staff. The expansion of the social sciences has led to staff growth, especially at the junior staff level, and this has affected faculty internal structure and quality. While the increase in teaching staff should ideally be a good thing, it presents a more complicated picture. Because the sudden demand of large numbers could not be met satisfactorily in faculties of a number of universities and in certain social science disciplines, junior staff 'force' themselves to be rapidly promoted to senior posts. While qualification for any university academic post is supposed to be mainly, if not exclusively, gained through success in research, too many variables come into play so much so that experience and hierarchical order may not count for much in promotions that take place in some faculties of social sciences. A trend is emerging where patronage, loyalty and non-academic relationships are causing staff to be invented and to rise through the ranks without direct contact with research. In some cases, professorships are determined and decided upon beyond the control of deans of social sciences.

Scholarly and scientific work is, thus, suffering as a result of the foregoing. While the growing importance of professional organizations and academic journals as playgrounds in which reputation is built and sustained cannot be gainsaid, there are distorted criteria for promotion. The recruitment process is not guided by scholarly and scientific factors; rather extraneous considerations count more, leading to dissatisfaction and frustration to those who are overlooked and who eventually take off. In cases where such abuses abound, the dean is not in a position to counter.

Another old problem that still bedevils staff in the social sciences in public universities in Kenya is the relationship between research and teaching. Finkenstaedt (2011:169) argues that just as research is linked to publication, so teaching is connected with examining, and as examinations play such an important role in a meritocratic society, they not only mean work for the examiner, but they also endow them with power. Many teaching staff treat examinations very casually as a result of too many tasks they are performing in and out of universities. This is a challenge that the dean has to deal with.

Academic Accountability

The fulfilment of the requirement for academic accountability is a factor in the development of university management. Along with and through departmental chairs, deans guide faculty in developing annual professional development goals for teaching, scholarship and service. The growing complexity of the social sciences raises the need and demand for accountability. The disciplines need to explain themselves more fully to society in terms of their distinctiveness, their quality assurance mechanisms, and their role in development. The need for faculty efficiency and for full and effective accounting to the students and the public considerably increase the role of deans in management.

Another obvious academic area in administration by the dean is examination, which is most closely linked with teaching itself. The great importance of examinations and degrees in attributing roles to graduates in a meritocratic society has made examining a complicated, time-consuming and sometimes nerve-racking business for the academics of today (Finkenstaedt 2011:169).

Managing staff performance is demanding even in the best of circumstances. It is doubly so in unfavourable climate which prevails in so many academic institutions. It is one of the most enduring and contentious issues as it is frequently perceived as an unwelcome intrusion into faculty academic freedom. Deans in public universities are required to contribute to, as well as implement, their university's performance management. This is a challenge that they are not prepared for due to lack of training.

Deans also exercise supervisory authority in the annual performance reviews of all full-time faculty members in their faculties. This is done through a variety of ways including: making recommendations for staff travel, leave, contracts, renewals, new positions, hiring, and restructuring; developing new academic programmes and providing leadership for systematic and timely review of programmes within their faculties.

Deans of social sciences serve a dual role of scholar and administrator. They answer to a variety of constituents, including faculty, university administration, students, and others who may require their services. Deanship is a demanding work inherent with stress associated with the comprehensiveness of responsibility. If effectively managed, faculties can make a significant contribution to the running of the university. However, deanship is neither a smooth nor an uncontested management process. Consequently, conflict and dilemmas are an inevitable corollary of a dean's leadership and management.

The various demands facing deans often limit their ability to accomplish their primary tasks. Because of the wide variety of roles deans assume at any given institution, generalizing about their work is difficult (Martin 1993). However, Dill (1980) generalizes the duties of deans who hold varying role requirements in differing institutions. These duties include (i) Integrating the interests of various constituencies into a common sense of purpose, including goal setting and strategic planning; (ii) Creating incentives from existing resources to stimulate new and continuing contributions and commitments to the institution; and (iii) Maximizing the institution's efficiency in transforming contributions and commitments of all kinds into educational products and services.

Between a Rock and a Hard Place: Practical Conflicts and Dilemmas

Practical conflicts pervade the life of a dean of social sciences. Many different desires, goals, values, commitments, and obligations too often come in conflict with each other. Fraser and Neville (1993) opine that every leader and manager should anticipate and prepare to handle a conflict. Conflict is not without merit: it can be constructive as much as destructive. This is because, as a source of energy and creativity, conflict allows new ideas to surface and to create positive forces for innovation and change. Handled constructively, conflict enables individuals to examine their ideas and beliefs and to stretch their imagination, thereby providing a wider range of options and the prospect of a more favourable outcome. On the other hand, conflict is unhealthy when it is either avoided or approached solely on a win/lose basis and can manifest in breakdown in communication, deterioration in mutual trust and support, open hostility and revolt (McCaffery 2010: 152).

Raz (2004;172) argues that people face a practical conflict in two situations: when they are in a situation in which they have reasons to perform two acts (or more) such that they can perform either but not both; or/and where they have several reasons for action such that complying with one makes it impossible to comply with another. A dean facing such situational conflicts, therefore, finds themselves in a difficult dilemma. According to Baumann and Betzler (2005:1), among the many different reasons for action that can conflict with one another are desires, preferences, emotions, interests, goals, plans, commitments, values, virtues, obligations, and moral norms. They argue that closer investigation is required in order to explain why exactly an individual is confronted with such a conflict, and what they can do with regard to its resolution.

Deans of social sciences face many dilemmas, whether classic or complex. In their day-to-day operations, choices have to be made between two or more solutions that could be equally construed as right. Ethical and moral issues arise while making decisions in such dilemmas. And the ethical decision-making dilemmas deal with both short- and long-term consequences. The dilemmas arise in various domains, take many different forms, and pose a management and leadership challenge to the dean. Among the dilemmas deans face are administrative, curricular, evaluation, certification, student affairs, and staff matters.

Administrative activities of faculties of social sciences can be viewed in either structural or operational terms. Structural issues concern such matters as the size and number of departments. The leadership of the department is also a structural matter. This is especially so considering their relationship with the dean. While the dean may be desirous and instrumental in starting various social science disciplines, the final decision in establishing administrative units lies elsewhere. Normally, it is the vice-chancellor, at times in consultation with top university management, who decides when it is convenient to set up a department. For instance, in some public universities in Kenya, chairpersons of departments are appointed by the vice-chancellor, whereas the dean is elected. Departments may also have other administrative units whose heads are appointed not by the dean, but by the vice-chancellor. In this arrangement, the chairperson's loyalty lies with the appointing authority and not the immediate supervisor, in this case, the dean. Operational question here deals with how satisfactorily the faculty, as an administrative system run by an elected dean or an appointee of the vice-chancellor, will wield power and authority over chairpersons who are not under strict obligation to receive directives from them.

External groups become involved in both structural and operational issues of the faculty, with different kinds of groups giving attention to different

types of issues. For instance, the deputy vice-chancellor in charge of academic affairs is most likely to deal directly with a chairperson of department in matters related to examinations than a dean of a faculty. The chairperson of a department is the chief examinations officer of their department and not their dean. As might be expected, those administrative activities that most directly affect students are the ones that attract the greatest interest of top university managers. The chairperson of department is more important and relevant here than the dean.

Social science programmes – their curricula, teaching methods and materials – are matters that are better handled at the faculty level. However, in reality, these issues face interference from other quarters in the university. A department that wishes to purchase equipment for teaching, or one that wishes to take students for field-work, have to depend on the procurement officer and finance officer to approve and process requisite funds. Although universities may have procedures and processes to be followed, bureaucratic red-tape may influence the acquisition of the material or even the trip to be made and thus affect curriculum implementation.

On the other hand, whereas professional lecturers are typically regarded as experts in these matters, conflicts arise when issues are raised with the way some lecturers carry out their duties. Ideally, students belong to the faculty, with a majority taking courses from different departments in the same faculty or even different faculties. For instance, an external examiner may disapprove of the way a given lecturer awarded marks in their course. The Faculty Board of Examiners has to make the final decision on the fate of the concerned students.

So, how does a dean avoid conflict? Or deal with it constructively? There are strategies that may be helpful in confronting conflicts and dilemmas. First, a dean has to understand their faculty environment properly, taking into account that conflict results from individual differences and their needs, objectives, values and beliefs, perceptions, motives, expectations and levels of commitment. As McCaffery (2010:153) argues, you should be able to anticipate the degree to which prospective changes or issues are likely to be contentious and to monitor them.

Second, recognize that there is no single best way of handling conflict. Thomas and Kilman (2002) have identified five strategies of approaching conflict: avoiding; accommodating; competing; collaborating; and compromizing. They say that each of us is capable of all the five conflict-handling modes and thus need to select the right one depending on the conflict and the situation.

Third, the best option that offers the greatest potential is that of facing a conflict rather than avoiding it or diffusing it. McCaffery (2010: 158) says that managing conflict assertively means examining its cause by working with

others, attacking the problem, allowing others space, listening actively, and valuing openness; clarifying expectations by focusing on and listing interests and compatible areas, asking and encouraging questions, and being firm and fair; developing options for mutual gain by dividing the problem into smaller and more manageable units, clarifying remaining areas of disagreement, generating new ideas, and involving others; lastly, agreeing on a course of action by relating the problem to work objectives, seeking solutions, agreeing on joint actions, and exploring ways of avoiding repetition of conflict. McCaffery (2010: 159) warns that acquiring and maintaining the skills necessary and applying the most appropriate conflict-handling mode will not be easy. You may well need professional training to help you.

Blending Management with Leadership

The social sciences have been in existence in Kenyan public universities as intellectual and structural entities for long. That the social sciences have over the years undergone turbulence and declined in popularity and prestige is a fact that is least contestable. That they are tolerated more than appreciated is also a fact. One only needs to look at the fate of such disciplines as sociology, anthropology, philosophy, history and political science at public universities in Kenya in terms of theorization, research, establishment, funding, and enrolment. There are systematic biases in the national science and higher education system which explicitly (and sometimes not so explicitly) constrain, weaken and disadvantage the social sciences. These concerns relate to matters of funding, institutional support, reward systems and many other key components of these systems.

The structure of the social sciences in Kenyan public universities is highly heterogeneous. Whereas most disciplines exist as separate departments, for instance History and Religious Studies, some are found as composite departments, for example History and Political Science, and Religious Studies and Philosophy. In some cases, the social sciences appear as 'programmes' and not independent departments. However, the growing acceptance and importance of the social sciences give them a renewed mandate as being both legitimate and desirable fields of study. Any fears of their imminent 'demise' need to be allayed by this fact. However, it would not be an exaggeration to say that every field in the social sciences does have a challenge to some degree.

Despite existing challenges, the social sciences have considerably expanded in Kenya. If the number of new universities and faculties being established is a measure of growth, then the social sciences have grown. However, one needs to be careful and delve into the core businesses of research, teaching and community outreach to really appreciate the status of social sciences in the country. The artificial growth of the social sciences is planned as a key element

in supporting other university programmes, than for their own scientific and professional perspectives. It will not be lost to a keen observer that the social sciences are facing deep crises of leadership and management. They do not enjoy the prestige that natural sciences have, and they are more tolerated than appreciated. As such, they are less of a priority at both national and institutional level. However, the turbulent times that have gripped society now potent good fortunes for these disciplines and favour their regeneration and popularity as they analyse the conditions and possibilities of society and its organizations and failures, with a view to changing them for the better.

The blending of management and leadership roles and responsibilities is essential if deans are to address the dilemmas that face the social sciences. Understanding the dynamics, differentiation and integration of these aspects of governance will help them to be effective in discharging their duties. As Khurana (2002) says, individualism is assumed in most concepts of corporate power, rarely does one individual exercise great power in complex organizations. Yet performance is often attributed to the individual at the top.

Leadership and management live in a symbiotic relationship, with each influencing the fate of the other. While the two are interdependent and intermeshed in the exercise of power, in a university setting, this symbiosis is not always one of mutual amity and support. Instead, it is made up of a variegated complex of exchanges that are sometimes cooperative and other times competitive.

Deans of social sciences have to play an active role in resolving challenges that confront them daily. They have to be strongly committed to continuing the vitality of the scientific mission of these fields. They have the challenge of increasing the credibility of the fields by developing a methodology that gives them greater vitality. The unfortunate decline in theory in the social sciences is yet another area of concern that deserves attention from the deans.

If the social sciences are to impact society, as is expected, deans must transform their leadership. A transformational dean should exhibit such traits and behaviours that inspire and motivate his staff and students to rally around a common vision for the social sciences. Transformational leadership of the social sciences is an important factor at both the faculty and university levels. It is this kind of leadership that will determine the growth and worth of the social sciences.

A dean's transformational leadership will transcend beyond narrow disciplinary boundaries into and across related disciplines. Deans of social sciences should be able to align their faculties with the overall university mission and societal expectations. Social scientists should serve the development needs of society through research, teaching and community service. By setting the

direction and vision of their faculties, deans of social sciences will help them meet new academic and intellectual challenges.

Without powerful leadership and effective management, the role of social sciences in development will remain inadequate. Thus, it is imperative for deans of social sciences to bring about a qualitatively new co-operative relationship with students, staff and society. The traditional leadership of faculties must change if the social sciences are to attain their rightful status in university education. A good partnership, based on shared values and mutual trust, is the foundational stone upon which social science faculty transformational leadership should be anchored.

Conclusion

There are many conflicting demands and influences on the dean as head of a faculty. Leading and managing a faculty in contemporary higher education is a daunting task. Faculties of social sciences ought to be guided by clearly formulated objectives, conditions, obligations, roles and responsibilities as part of the partnership between the dean, staff, students and all those in line of their duties. By setting an example through passion, charisma and the ability to motivate others, a dean of social sciences will allow both staff and students not only achieve success, but also transform their thoughts and actions.

Deans, like other leaders at all levels of university management, ought to be sensitive to, and keep abreast with current challenges besieging university education globally and locally. The successful leadership and effective management of a dean will depend on their ability to reform and transform their faculties. This is especially so considering that deans are an important management cadre who, if well and better prepared, can lead to overall university change and effectiveness. But it has to be noted that university education change is complex, and the deans' best intensions and genuine commitment have to be aligned with the university's mission.

As the African university of the twenty-first century begins to take shape, deans of social sciences are well aware of the challenges facing them and they need to deal with them in a farsighted manner. Just like in the private sector, a new generation of leaders and managers is required in the academy. Thus, the need to redefine deanship of the social sciences is as great as ever, considering their multifaceted roles in African universities that are confronting old and new leadership and management challenges. Whilst deanships differ between universities, they all face similar challenges of the corporatization of university management, commercialization of learning, and commodification of knowledge.

Social science disciplines are not a luxury and, while they adapt to the changing times, they should be at the core of the essential mission of the university and development of Africa. African universities must continue to be key sites for research and production of knowledge that is both responsive and relevant to developmental needs of the continent. While systems and institutions of university education are currently changing on the continent, the social sciences will need to change even more in the future so as to cope with new challenges. The deans have to be concerned with the quality and independence of knowledge generated by the social sciences, especially now that universities are underfunded.

It is recommended that a lot more focus be placed on the leadership and management of the faculties of social science. Investment in training of deans of humanities and social sciences should be a top priority for African universities. The training of deans as academic managers as well as professional administrators will strengthen African universities. Research and development institutions like CODESRIA should continue facilitating deans' interaction through exchange of leadership and management experiences. This programme will support African governments' efforts to develop world-class universities and prepare deans to be successful leaders and managers of institutions of higher learning that are able to respond to changing needs and emerging opportunities. By strengthening African universities, students and staff will be enabled and empowered to meet the needs of a changing world. Strong universities will help Africa grow and develop, and take its rightful place in the global economy.

Notes

1. Social Science is understood and used in this paper to refer to the independent and systematic study of human relationships, behaviour and structures. The fields of study include all those that pass for the Arts, Humanities and Education.

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JHEA/RESA Vol. 12, No 1, 2014, pp. 27-52

(ISSN 0851–7762)

Rethinking Leadership, Management and Career Advancement for 21st Century Deans in the Social Sciences and Humanities at Makerere University

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Abstract

The study investigates Leadership, Management and Career Advancement for Female and Male Deans in Social Sciences and Humanities at Makerere University. The objective is to investigate the gender dynamics of leadership and management in academic careers of deans in Humanities and the Social Sciences and its effect on institutional development. The study is qualitative and quantitative in design, combining both primary and secondary data generated using a questionnaire and face-to-face interviews. The findings indicate that women as well as men face similar challenges in deanship with varying degrees. Factors that motivate male and females into deanship are identified as well as how both male and female deans react to these challenges, and the proposed support for deans' academic growth. This study provides options for university management on how best university governance and structures should enable the deans to discharge their academic mandates in the most efficient and effective way without compromising the deanship and academic growth of both genders. Overall, the study finds that although there are some significant efforts in place to mainstream gender in leadership and management among others, Makerere University structures are still in favour of the male gender. There are supportive structures in deanship but no deliberate efforts are in place to encourage women in deanship. The deans know what it takes to advance

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academically although the environment does not seem to have changed so much to create a level ground for females to compete for leadership positions – something that may negatively impact on institutional development and gender equity in particular. Makerere University needs to rethink its leadership and management strategy to integrate gender fully with a view to becoming more inclusive for institutional development.

Key words: Gender, Leadership and Management, Institutional Development

Résumé

Cette étude porte sur le leadership, la gestion et le développement des carrières des doyens et des doyennes des facultés des sciences sociales et sciences humaines de l'Université de Makerere. Il a pour objectif d'examiner la dynamique genre du leadership et de la gestion des carrières des doyens des facultés des sciences sociales et sciences humaines et son effet sur le développement institutionnel. L'étude est qualitative et quantitative dans la conception, associant les données primaires et celles secondaires générées à l'aide d'un questionnaire et d'entrevues face-à-face. Les résultats montrent que les femmes aussi bien que les hommes sont confrontés aux mêmes problèmes relatifs au décanat avec des degrés variables. Les facteurs qui motivent les hommes et les femmes à postuler au décanat sont identifiés ainsi que la façon dont ces derniers réagissent vis-à-vis de ces problèmes et l'appui proposé pour le développement académique des doyens. L'étude offre des options pour la gestion des universités sur comment la gouvernance universitaire et des structures devrait mieux permettre aux doyens de se décharger de leurs mandats académiques de la manière la plus efficiente et plus efficace sans compromettre le décanat et le développement académique des personnes des deux sexes. Dans l'ensemble, l'étude a constaté que malgré les efforts considérables consentis pour intégrer la question de genre dans le leadership et la gestion entre autres, les structures de l'université de Makerere sont toujours en faveur du genre masculin. Il existe des structures de soutien à la nomination des doyens cependant il n'y a pas d'efforts délibérés pour encourager les candidatures féminines. Les doyens connaissent les critères d'avancement académique même si le contexte ne semble pas avoir change autant pour créer des conditions égales permettant aux femmes de compétir pour les positions de leadership – des fait qui peuvent influer défavorablement sur le développement institutionnel et l'égalité entre les sexes en particulier. L'université de Makerere cherche à repenser son leadership et sa stratégie de gestion pour intégrer pleinement la dimension genre dans un souci de plus d'inclusion dans le développement institutionnel.

Mots clés: Genre, Leadership et Gestion, Développement institutionnel

Background

Governance and leadership in higher education cannot be over-emphasized in preserving the integrity of academic values of the institution while, at the same time, positioning universities to be relevant in the emerging context that requires greater accountability in terms of quality of graduates. The decrease in government funding of universities the world over has made them less able to perform effectively, although it also came with decreased government involvement in the day-to-day governance of the universities. On the other hand, the increased expansion of the institutions in terms of student enrolments, numbers of institutions and diversified curriculum, calls for new forms of academic leadership and engagement. This point was articulated at the European Higher Education Area Ministerial Conference held in Bucharest, in April 2012.The conference considered the importance of active participation of the academic community – students, faculty, staff and institutional leadership – in the governance and development of higher education in a way that is responsive to social change and economic needs.

In Africa, and Uganda in particular, institutions of higher learning are persistently in a state of transition, responding and repositioning themselves in the light of global challenges (globalization, privatization, liberalization) as well as in the light of their social and institutional aspirations. This latter response derives from increasing expectations of governments and the public to support the broader national societal priorities. Institutions are under pressure to support the other Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) which in one way or another all focus on poverty reduction and some of which may compromise academic quality and institutional development. For Makerere University, in particular, its mission statement is 'to provide innovative teaching, learning, research and service [that is] responsive to national and global needs' (Makerere University Strategic Plan 2008/09-018/19, Annual Report, 2010).

Makerere University plays a multiplicity of roles, including supporting national policies such as universal primary education, universal secondary education, directly building the required human resource to support policies for national development as well as focusing on the attainment of its vision 'to be a leading institution for academic excellence and innovations in Africa'. This notwithstanding, Makerere University is experiencing a paradigm shift from a faculty-based system to a collegiate system of governance. This comes with new leadership and management roles where the core responsibility of academic leadership has been decentralized to schools in colleges. The primary responsibility of deans is perceived to be academic; to oversee teaching and research missions of their schools/institutions, yet some of these duties

are highly administrative and increasingly, administrative responsibilities are overshadowing academic roles. The deans are spending their time attending administrative meetings of the college and university, looking for sources of funding for the schools, handling administrative matters of the faculty members as well as students. By the nature of deans' roles and responsibilities, it may seem that the very best faculty members, namely, those with strongest reputations and influence are drawn into the academic governance process, either through formal election or appointment.

Although Makerere University has had a series of reforms at the structural and administrative levels, the process of becoming a dean or any other administrator for that matter has not changed. The process of becoming a dean takes place at the faculty/school level through the following steps:

a. Academic Registrar announces vacant position in a faculty/school through a circular letter requesting for nominations.
b. Interested individuals in faculty/school are nominated; the names are submitted to the Academic Registrar.
c. Academic Registrar sets date for election of dean and communicates same to the faculty/school. Candidates may campaign depending on the culture in the school; for example, the School of Law does not hold elections, they agree on one candidate and the name is submitted to the Registrars' Office unopposed. In other schools, however, two to three candidates run for election and this means they campaign until the date when elections are held.
d. All eligible academic members of the school vote by secret ballot in the presence of a returning officer from the Academic Registrar's office; and a representative for each running candidate.
e. Tallying is conducted in the presence of the electorate and the results announced.
f. The results are submitted to the Academic Registrar's office by the returning officer.
g. The Academic Registrar communicates the results to the Appointments Board of the university and the successful candidate is appointed for a period of four years.
h. The Appointments Board communicates to the college, the school and individual candidate when to take over office.

However, once selected the deans do not go through orientation or induction processes to enable them have fuller understanding of their roles and responsibilities; they simply carry on through trial and error. Because of this, deans are often confronted with issues that tax their effectiveness as academic and administrative leaders within the university governance system. These issues include lack of management training in academic and administrative leadership that may constrain their productivity as academic staff, innovations and institutional development; the method of getting into office may affect and compromise their legitimacy; and some university authorities may resort to appointing deans outside of any legal framework which may not be based on merit. Besides the deans may be caught in the crossfire to protect academic interests of the faculty/school and, at the same time, undertake certain administrative duties on behalf of management which are not directly relevant to the faculty/school. Above all, the academic life of a university takes place within the schools and departments, whereas the deans may not have much to say in matters of budgeting and financial allocations. The tendency in most universities is to devolve most administrative issues to schools while leaving the frustrating matters of financial allocations to the deans (Mama and Barnes 2002).

In African universities, emerging governance models are marked by the growing influence of the business enterprise model as an organizational ideal, a characteristic that most institutions are now requiring of their deans; thus, apart from their role as academics, deans, together with heads of departments, oversee critical units on which the academic life of the institution revolves. In fact, they are the academic engines of the institutions, linking schools and faculty members to university councils and senates, and to the outside oversight bodies. The bodies that deans preside over – the professoriate, faculty, and departmental boards – constitute a critical academic heartland that determines the academic life and direction of the institutions. This is in addition to a variety of constituents, including the faculty, the university management, students, government and the alumni. To be effective, therefore, they must understand and juggle through often disparate interests and conflicting goals in order to serve effectively.

The multiplicity of roles they have to play may impact on the female and male deans differently in terms of their capacity and ability to offer the core functions of teaching and learning, and research missions of their institutions. This, of course, will be in addition to their career growth, administration of the faculty/school and institutional development, among other things. Do male and female deans have similar experiences and challenges in these universities? Universities have been and continue to be male colonies; hence these institutions are masculine and very averse to the academic growth of female

faculty members. One of the questions arising out of this is how do female deans survive in the male dominated structures? Has enough been done to decolonize and de-masculinise the structures, expectations, and horizons of our universities to allow effective leadership? These and many other questions were investigated.

The study interrogates a whole range of issues:

a. The gender dynamics of leadership and management in the academic careers of deans in the Humanities and Social Sciences;
b. How male and female deans integrate academic, leadership roles and responsibilities into personal academic career growth with institutional development;
c. Possible gender differences in the support Makerere University extends to the deans to achieve their roles and responsibilities as administrators and academic leaders;
d. The challenges faced by male and female deans in their academic leadership roles and responsibilities; (v) How the deanship could be made more productive in administration and career advancement.

The research is situated within the discourse of gender and equity in education. Gender is defined within the confines of society and what society ascribes to an individual insofar as positions of responsibility and sex are concerned. Gender relations or social relations of gender have several interrelated types of referent: most obviously, there are the relations between men and women; of women with women, and of men with men (Young 2001.) Whether and how women relate to each other as mothers, sisters, friends, co-wives, competitors, confidantes in solidarity or otherwise are not simply an individual action but constitutes part of the gender relations. Similarly, whether and how men relate to each other as fathers, patrons, sons, brothers, rivals is partly defined by gender discourses of masculinity.

Gender relations also include the relations of categories of women, to social phenomena whether the state, education systems, economic relations, and political systems or the division of labour, or other; and the different relations of groups of men to those same phenomena. Like other forms of relations, gender relations are structured by ideologies and beliefs, practices, property, and resource access and ownership, legal codes and so on. Gender ideologies about femininity (lack of) capacity and (preferably none) autonomy may, for example, be embedded in the construction of who becomes dean or not (Ayesha et al. 1997). Equity in this context is taken to mean equal benefit in access to institutional resources and opportunities. Gender equity is ingrained in the structural, social and political factors that constrain and perpetuate inequalities.

Within African higher education are embedded legacies and circumstances that have shaped formal institutions, ranging from primary schools through to university colleges and technical institutions.

Furthermore, in every context, the impact of gender is negotiated through multiple variables, each one being responsive to particular global, national and local forces influencing basic questions of resources in one locale or the other. While questions of male and female ratios tend to dominate broad-based research on gender and African higher education (driven often by advocacy and policy interests), context-specific studies illuminate the gender gaps in analysing institutional contexts and systems. This study provides options for university management on how best university governance and structures should enable the deans to discharge their academic mandates in the most efficient and effective way without compromising deanship or/and academic growth of both sexes for institutional development.

Methodology

The study targeted the current and former deans, particularly those who had served a complete term and were on the second term,[1] and those who had already served two terms of deanship and were now either principals or deputy principals. The study focused on the social sciences and humanities as well as related disciplines, including deans from the Colleges of Education and External Studies (CEES), College of Humanities and Social Sciences (CHUSS), the College of Business and Management Sciences (COBAMS) and The School of Law. An effort was made to contact all the deans from these colleges; however we only succeeded in reaching eight out of thirteen. Of these, three were females and ten were males. Three of the former deans were serving as Principal and Deputy Principal after they had served for eight years as deans.

The study was mostly qualitative given the small number of targeted respondents. The qualitative method/approach was also based on the need for a more in-depth understanding of the context and the gender dynamics of deanship in Makerere University. Primary data were generated using a questionnaire and an interview guide to conduct face-to-face interviews. Face-to-face interviews were deemed important to understand the complexity of deanship; and to capture and present deans' experiences. Experiences were later grouped under the following themes: motivation to leadership positions, balancing roles, institutional support, and challenges. Secondary data were generated from the University Annual Reports and Fact Books and other relevant documents on leadership and management at Makerere University to support the primary findings. Data generated was basically aimed at compiling information on personal experiences of deans in the humanities and social sciences.

Results

The former and current deans were aged between 45-65years of age. Thirteen deans out of whom three were female responded to the questionnaire. All deans had been heads of departments before ascending to deanship. The position of head of department was elective like the position of dean of school. All deans had a PhD as the minimum academic qualifications in line with the requirement for becoming a faculty member at the University. Guidelines for becoming dean are clear and are made public before the commencement of the electoral process.

Composition of Deans in Humanities and Social Sciences

Makerere University formerly run a faculty system of governance until it went collegiate in 2010. The restructuring was intented to promote effective management of the University and efficiency in financial matters. In addition, the University has been promoting gender mainstreaming consciously since 1998 and has consequently institutionalized. The Gender Mainstreaming Directorate is an administrative unit aimed at institutionalizing gender in administrative functions of the University. The School of Women and Gender Studies is the lead agency and academic unit for gender mainstreaming. However, the restructuring did not improve the number of females in deanship, as shown in Table 1. Increasing the numbers of females in leadership is important because they have a right to participate in administration and management of the university as well as making sure that the voices of women are heard and their concerns addressed.

Table 1 shows that the status of females in leadership has not changed much before and after restructuring. Not even the restructuring could attract more female leaders into deanship. Out of the sixteen schools created after restructuring, only four are headed by female deans compared to three female deans/directors out of 12 faculties/institutes before restructuring. This represents an increase from 16 per cent to 26 per cent in female representation before and after restructuring. This composition is not different from that of 2008 when women in leadership formed less than 25 per cent of the leadership in faculties (Makerere University Annual Report 2009). One of the challenges that women faced then was actually getting into positions of leadership. This was attributed to a number of factors, including personal characteristics and motivation into the academic career and deanship; perceptions and expectations of deanship; and institutional factors. However, the number of women eligible for deanship in the entire university is small. Table 2 presents males and females in various positions. As already stated becoming a dean requires an individual to be at the level of senior lecturer and above.

Table 1: Composition of Deans and Directors Prior and Post-Restructuring of Makerere University

Before Restructuring			**After Restructuring**		
Faculty	**F**	**M**	**School**	**F**	**M**
Faculty of Social Sciences		x	Liberal and Performing Arts		x
Faculty of Arts		x	Social Sciences		x
Faculty of Economics &Business Management		x	Languages, Literature and Communication		x
School of Education		x	Women and Gender Studies.	x	
Institute of Statistics and Applied Economics	x		Statistics and Applied Economics		x
School of Law		x	Law		x
Institute of Psychology		x	Psychology		x
Institute of Adult and Continuing Education	x		Education		x
Makerere Institute of Social Research		x	Makerere Institute of Social Research		x
East Africa Institute for Higher Education Studies and Development		x	East Africa Institute for Higher Education Studies and Development		x
Computing and Information Technology	x		Computing and Informatics Technology	x	
East African School of Library and Information Science		x	East African Library and Information Sciences		x
			Distance and Lifelong Learning		x
			Economics	x	
			Business		x

Table 2: Teaching Staff by Faculty March 2010 (Before College Formation)

Faculty	Professor		Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer		Lecturer		Assistant Lecturer	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Arts	1	3	3	11	6	11	4	43	20	34
EASLIS – Library & Information Service	0	3	0	0	0	2	2	2	2	2
Computing & Information Technology	0	0	0	1	1	4	0	3	15	22
Economics and Management	0	1	0	0	1	3	2	8	9	32
Institute of Statistics & Applied Economics	0	1	0	1	0	4	2	8	6	10
Institute of Adult & Continuing Education	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	3	6	9
Institute of Psychology	0	1	0	1	2	2	2	4	4	6
Law	0	3	1	3	1	3	3	5	5	11
School of Education	0	1	1	0	1	8	11	25	25	8
Social Sciences	1	2	1	6	7	14	9	17	17	16
Total	2	15	6	23	20	53	38	118	109	150

Source: Makerere University Fact Book 2009/2010 2nd Edition

Females form approximately 24 per cent of eligible members of staff in terms of the minimum position (that of a senior lecturer) which qualifies them to stand for election. However there are other qualifications that are considered, such as whether the individual has held a headship position before. It is very rare for an individual who has never headed a department before to be elected into deanship. In addition, an individual should be 55years or below to qualify for election. After restructuring, only 26 per cent of the females are eligible to stand for elections, just an increase by 2 per cent, as shown in Table 3.

Deans were asked what they considered the attributes of a good dean. Both male and female deans observed that a good dean regardless of sex should be:

> ….Accommodative, considerate, a team player, visionary, a good listener, patient, have good interpersonal relations, have commitment to serve above self, promote transparency, be hard working, and observe university rules and regulations. A good dean is an individual who understands the demands and expectations of the office and develops strategies to fulfil them.

In other words, a good dean should promote a good working environment for all staff as well as promote and work for the growth and development of the institution. It was noted that these were attributes that did not rhyme with an elective post where the electorate may expect preferential treatment in addition to performance and academic excellence. As one of the male deans explicitly put it, the qualities that supported him to become a dean included:

> …good interpersonal relations, good academic record and performance; [being] widely published, good communication skills; personal confidence; high self-esteem, determination, [being] a strategic thinker with an innovative mind, self-motivation. [These are attributes some of which female deans are lacking].

However, other deans who had been in administration for a long time (10 years) observed that these qualities represented a narrow definition because deanship tends to be mechanistic but, of course, once in the office, the deans soon find out that experience, personal academic growth in leadership, ability to enforce disciplines under the unit become crucial. Deans find themselves as resource mobilisers; local and international official spokespersons for their respective units; they also find themselves to be humane, empathetic and practical in solving social and economic problems of their constituencies, including serving as *loco parentis* over the students. It was further highlighted

that these activities constrain the deans' academic roles, as well as their focus on developing innovative academic programmes. The elective mode of accession to deanship is likely to bring forth deans with popular tendencies rather than ability. The constituency tends to vote into office people who will understand them and appreciate their social, economic and other inabilities. This is likely to compromise institutional development.

Besides, deans must have a good carriage, command visibility and respect as well as demonstrate integrity[2] Òand be able to acquit themselves in any academic encounter. Deans are role models for staff and students. Asked whether women are good leaders, male deans noted that, like men, women can be good or bad depending on the environment, contingency and individual personality; but that they are probably more careful than male deans. They said further that female deans are likely to be less radial and more emotional, although one male dean was apt to observe that: 'Women need more training and empowerment and to be given a chance to serve other than just putting them in leadership positions.'

A female dean confided that'…sometimes they do not take us seriously' As if to confirm the earlier statement by the male dean. This again points to underrating of candidates, pointing to the masculine and patriarchal tendencies of male leaders.

Motivation into Academic Career and Deanship

We made an assumption that self-motivation into the academic career and deanship was essential for female and male deans to deal with the challenges they faced. Female deans reported that prior to becoming deans; they had focused on individual and institutional growth, getting heavily involved in the university's management and working committees and the schools' committees and activities. The male counterparts reported that they were curious and committed to serving. A male principal and previously dean said experience and performance made him to vie for deanship:

> I had been [a] part-time lecturer before I decided to be re-designated to faculty staff; I had obtained an upper second degree at undergraduate training and had interest in becoming [a full-time] faculty staff.

Yet another respondent indicated that, as a student leader at undergraduate level, he had worked as administrator, taking several leadership assignments. He said these responsibilities made him acquire leadership skills, enticed him to becoming passionate about teamwork and cultivated a commitment to leadership.

Table 3: Academic Staff by College by Rank 2012/13 (after College Formation)

Colleges/School	Professor		Associate Professor		Senior Lecturer		Lecturer		Assistant Lecturer	
	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M
Computing & Information Science	0	3	0	2	2	5	2	4	23	24
Humanities & Social Sciences	2	9	7	17	12	22	12	43	29	53
Business & Management Sciences	0	1	0	1	3	7	4	15	17	37
Education & External Studies	0	2	3	4	3	10	11	22	18	31
School of Law*	0	4	1	4	1	1	1	8	12	12
Total	2	19	11	28	21	45	30	92	99	157

*The School of Law has not yet gone through structural transformation, but is in the process of becoming a college.
Source: Makerere University Fact Book 2012/2013

At least 10 male deans had gained prior access to public offices that exposed them to leadership; they were able to articulate intellectual and social issues; and had prior access to opportunities for attending conferences, receiving fellowships and grants. These acted as training grounds for them to take on higher administrative offices. All deans affirmed that keen interest for the job and commitment to serve the institution, ability in terms of leadership skills and experience, encouragement and support from colleagues and assertiveness motivated them into becoming deans. In addition, they mentioned that awareness of the institutional environment and its needs were critical issues that required attention at the schools. Whereas some deans felt that they had skills to perform as deans, other deans were motivated by curiosity to see what leadership at the deanship level would be like and how they would manage others. The female deans reported that they had a passion to serve; they considered themselves open and transparent, wanted to follow their dream and actually searched for opportunities that would take them to the place of their desire.

Several deans claimed that the way to the deanship opened to them in a number of ways: for some it was through promotions and re-designations from administrative to faculty staff that made them possible candidates. For others it was through training and having the right qualification. As one dean put it: 'I happen to have a PhD in Management, which is leadership added value'. At least two male deans had their opportunity to become dean brightened by receiving training that was related to the deanship functions, including supervision of graduate training programmes, networking and communication. Comparing their performance with those who did not have benefit of previous training or management experience is outside the scope of this study. It was observed, nevertheless, that female deans, unlike their male counterparts, network less between their female and male peers, even though networking was cited as one of the key attributes that could propel one into deanship.

Balancing Roles, Academic Growth, and Institutional Development

Time allocation and use is a critical factor in effective leadership and personal academic growth. Time allocated to leadership and management roles negatively affects the research productivity of the faculty. Both female and male deans said it was difficult to integrate personal academic growth in leadership and management as well as institutional development. Deanship took most valuable time that would be used to carry out research, attend conferences, and write and publish papers for personal academic growth. This was further aggravated by the sex of the dean, the male deans noted. The female reproductive roles, such as caring for the nuclear and extended family; attending to domestic chores and children if they still needed close attention; guiding the

growing adults in the home, tending the sick and playing some community roles. All these roles compete for the dean's available time. Women, therefore, need to prioritize and apportion time, by planning their time and adhering to the schedules.

All serving and former deans noted that deans' time is difficult to plan because of the various assignments they have to attend to. An experienced former dean put it this way:

> An ordinary day for a dean requires that the dean attends to the students and parents or guardians, faculty, university administration, alumni and stakeholders, including people from government, non-government organizations, private sector and people from the general public who may have a concern. The dean is required to attend management meetings within the colleges and represent the colleges on University management meetings and coordinate between both the college and the main University administration. The dean is also a link between the stakeholders of respective schools, including the faculty, administrative staff and students. The dean sources for faculty; is responsible for the general supervision and administration of the affairs of the faculty, institute, college or other academic body and as such is responsible for the promotion and maintenance of efficient teaching and research in the relevant unit as well as institutional development at that level.

As in other universities, research is rated highly in academic advancement and recognized as the main avenue for personal academic advancement. However, the more time spent on leadership and management roles, the less time is available for research; and this can affect or delay personal academic growth. All deans interviewed found integrating institutional development and family roles into deanship very cumbersome. In other words, the opportunity cost of deanship to personal academic growth is very high and, in most cases, inversely related to institutional development.

Three deans intimated that a supportive family, especially the spouse, is very crucial for the success of the dean. This requires understanding, working closely and having ongoing discussions about the job requirements, demands, and time commitment. These have been found to be crucial ingredients in a successful deanship. As a male former dean put it, a dean must:

> ...strive to provide for them; meet their demands; dedicate Sunday for the family or some other time for the family and be available whenever you have the time.

> Another dean said:….instead of spending a lot of time in the office, I made an office at my home.

Yet another one had to forgo his family in order to satisfy the job demand as he had to work from 7.00am to 7.00pm. These are but a few of the circumstances that few female deans would like to endure to succeed as deans given all the family responsibilities they shoulder. It was further observed that institutions see the dean as an individual and not as a social being with a spouse. This plays up often when the dean is invited for functions, usually it is one person -- the dean alone -- that is invited; yet for the deans to succeed in office everyone close to them, beginning from the spouses, would have to pay a price. Deans' spouses play a big role in the success of any deanship.

To aid institutional development, a male dean observed need for a dean to secure donor/development partners' support, introduce innovative and relevant programmes and review old ones as well as support colleagues in their quest for further studies and academic growth. These expectations from the dean normally weigh heavily on their well-being. A female dean affirmed:

> …institutional development requires one to devote extra time and effort to the institution; support from colleagues is very crucial; and so too is the need for patience to study the academic faculty, identify areas of specialties among the staff and try to weave them into productive working teams.

Challenge of Satisfying a Variety of Constituencies

Serving multiple constituencies all with different demands and expectations puts pressure on deanship. Three of the male deans satisfied these constituencies by giving mandatory services to students: they allow for full time accessibility, listen to their problems and try to respond to their problems where possible. They also provide counselling services to students, encourage them to communicate through circulars on particular issues of concern, and keep them aware of possible challenges that may crop up in a public university.

One must be seen to be fair and just as well as firm. One male dean noted:

> …some challenges arise out of the limited knowledge of the constituency; for example, to the students, the dean is a role model, a counsellor, who should be able to address academic, social challenges ... and/or even financial challenges. Deans are sometimes adjudicators between parents and their children, especially as higher education is becoming a private good where parents are expected to pay. Misappropriation of

> tuition by the student may require the intervention of the dean. This requires a person who knows how social and economic system[s] work to protect his constituents. Of course, it requires time and experience to deal with such students.

At least two male deans observed the need for deans to work closely with colleagues in the school, consult with college principals, and be open to parents and students. Furthermore, they canvass the need to establish working teams, delegate and involve colleagues in tasks, have an established school strategic plan to support the deanship, remain focused, and have regular evaluation of their activities and performance. All deans said that skills development in deanship was crucial, as highlighted in one of the female's words:

> Besides, extra skills are needed for effective leadership and to become better deans, including skills such as financial administrative orientation; knowledge transfer processes; negotiation skills and conflict management; these are essential in deanship and grantship writing. Finally deans require an induction, a formal orientation for at least one month in administration before they assume offices of deans. Short leadership courses for existing deans would suffice especially for deans that come through the electoral process.

Institutional Support and deanship

In terms of leadership, deanship is supported by the university structures and a wide array of policies and guidelines that are in place. The dean has an office where all the functions of deans are executed with the support of his staff.[3] However, deanship is technocratic with set rules and regulations.

An elected dean in particular has to weigh between efficiency and loss of confidence from the electorate. One of the male deans admitted:

> …restructuring has broken down the barriers and created space for deans to have an opportunity of bringing in innovations. Deans are presiding over fairly new faculty who are ... more liberal both in ideology and university structures. This allows deans to be more innovative and creative. There are more linkages between the institutions and national engagements than previously; therefore deans become more relevant to national and institutional development and discipline growth.

Under the collegiate system of governance, the principal is the overall head of the college, assisted by a deputy. A college is composed of schools which are

headed by deans. Under the deans are heads of departments (known as chairs) who head the academic programmes. Below the heads of departments, are the lecturers. Information flows back and forth this structure in support of a deanship. Information flows through the deans to the deputy principal. This structure is crucial for the dean's effective leadership and for individual growth.

Most of the projects and collaborations with the school go through the deans' offices. This provides an opportunity for the dean to lead the project implementation teams. Some of these projects are research based and, therefore, provide opportunities for the dean to publish. Besides, funding opportunities become available through the deanship which the dean can take advantage of. Organizations may seek faculty support in projects, policy development, analysis, and evaluation. This provides opportunities for deans in personal academic growth among other things.

Interestingly, financial support may be extended to deans of schools who generate a lot of private funds through institutional development programmes, private projects from government ministries and non-government organizations, and not through the University budget. Only one female dean reported that the college supported their travel and training needs. There are institutional development funds that the dean can take advantage of, especially for research and travel to present papers at conferences. The above, notwithstanding, the deanship robs deans of their valuable time that could otherwise be fruitfully used for academic development.

All deans agreed that regulations are in place that allow for them to go on annual leave for a total of 30 working days, just like any other member of staff. Deans can also organize and go on sabbatical leave. This provides opportunities for academic and career advancement through interaction and exposure to other experienced scholars. All these provide avenues to publish. Besides, it provides room for networking and sharing ideas on academic and personal development issues.

However, there were no privileges that the University extended to deanship for academic advancement as a result of the incumbent's gender. Deans point out that to make the deanship more productive, serious thought has to be given to re-defining the characteristics of deans and identifying the person who should measure to the standard. A responded argued that candidates should ascend to deanship after they have gone through academic growth.

All deans observed that integrating all the functions is extremely difficult and recommend that the university should grant the deans resources, including grants, fellowships and subventions to finance career development. In terms of leadership, it was agreed to shorten the term of office. The Makerere University's term limit is currently four years. Five deans mentioned that the

institution should create a deanship fund to support deans to do institutional work or elect people who already have the funds. As deans put it:

> ...the university facilitates the deans financially to perform the work they do as deans. There is need for access to support services, including those provided to the Deputy Vice-Chancellors; and provide regular and reasonably paid activities, and provide paid assistants and or coordinators. …there is need for commitment from university management to enable deans implement their respective strategic plans; to provide them with refresher training and monitoring and evaluation services.

In order to serve the community effectively, respondents observed that the University should create an enabling environment for service or outreach to take place. They further said that public dialogue and community-based studies should be pursued with increasing productivity of outreach services.

The female deans proposed the need to create a forum for deans to meet and share their concerns. Currently, deans only meet in Senate where they only discuss academic matters, including students' academic and welfare issues; academic staff issues and management of academic programmes, and so on.

Besides institutional support, support for the dean from the faculty is vital, as this would necessitate collegial working relations between the dean and the faculty. A female dean and three male deans argued that there is a need for faculty staff to perform their roles with minimal supervision, as well as participate in and ably represent the dean on university committees and functions where possible to allow the dean to spend the time to carry on with their academic growth. They all observe that this would be possible if the faculty staff is well tuned on self-motivation. Male deans observed that their colleagues support the deanship by taking the lead to develop proposals, participate in the school's activities and accept more assignments from the dean.

Furthermore, the deans emphasized the need to exercise some level of self-initiative and innovative ways of doing the business of deanship, including initiating projects in the schools; and attracting funding from NGOs and donors to support research and academic activities in order to enhance academic advancement. They also canvass engaging research assistants' services and organize regular seminars to promote academic growth in the school.

Finally, whereas the male deans noted that they faced no particular challenges as male deans (one actually said, 'My manhood has not created any problem for me').They noted, however, that Makerere University structures and institutional culture are covertly gendered on the assumption that there are no qualifying females for deanship. They argue, therefore, that providing

more opportunities for women to excel would break the structures. The establishment of a fully-fledged School of Women and Gender Studies and a Gender Mainstreaming Directorate is a positive step by the university. The male deans observed that the Gender Mainstreaming Directorate should drive itself and be more visible among the academic units to ensure more females get leadership positions.

The female academics said mentorship sessions, gender mainstreaming of functions and policies and gender training would help improve on the gendered nature of structures in the university. They noted that some of these steps had been taken by the university although they were yet to be implemented fully to bear fruit.

Discussion of results

Gender issues in deanship, academic growth and institutional development

It was observed that deanship at Makerere University is dominated by males as the University structures are still gendered. The collegiate system of governance brought with it four colleges under social sciences and humanities, namely, the College of Humanities and Social Sciences (five schools), School of Law in transition, the College of Education and External Studies (two schools), College of Business and Management Sciences (three schools) and the College of Computing and Information Science (two schools).

Out of 15 schools of social sciences and humanities, only three had female deans, this is surprising since women the world over are concentrated in the social sciences and humanities and more so at Makerere University, one of the first to mainstream gender into the education structures. Ayesha et al (1997) qualify the limited number of women in leadership positions by pointing out that women tended to be concentrated in the middle and lower ranks of the academic ladders, most of them at ranks of lecturer. Indeed this is displayed in Table 2 (before restructuring) and Table 3 (after restructuring) where129 male and 147 female academic staff, respectively, occupy the positions of lecturer and assistant lecturer. The transformation processes can increase the number of females in positions of leadership only if there is a pool of eligible and interested candidates. It is a fact that in a number of colleges the eligible female candidates for deanship were not there to begin with. To become a dean, the minimum requirements are that the individual must hold, at the very least, the position of senior lecturer and fall below the age of 55 years.

Ayesha et al (1997) explain that women are grossly under represented on strategic decision making committees, such as the research board that awards

funds for research on the basis of applications forwarded from the faculties; on the academic staff, promotions committee on which deans of faculty are the representatives; and the academic appointments boards which are constituted by the chairpersons of departments. They further observe that apart from under-representation of women, even with respect to their proportion of academic staff, there is evidence of the under-qualification of women in comparison to their male colleagues in terms of completing their doctoral studies. In the current study, there are only 64 female doctoral degree holders occupying four ranks of professor, associate professor, senior lecturer and lecturer, compared to 99 females with a master's degree at a rank of assistant lecturer. If these 99 female holders of Masters of Arts degrees are supported in their doctoral studies, it would boost the number of females eligible for leadership positions in the university. The female deans further explain that the female faculty face a number of barriers, including under-rating by their largely male colleagues and at times by fellow female staff.

Rudo Galdzanwa corroborated this in Ayesha et al (1997) by pointing out that this arises out of the colonial past education policies. The barriers to females getting into positions of deanship are also institutional, historical and social-cultural, such as limited access to education for the girl child, negative perception of women and their entering into the masculine and patriarchal spaces, and the negative perceptions of women leaders. Rudo Galdzanwa (1997) further said that women education was geared towards improving their performance as housewives and to tie them to agriculture in rural areas. These factors account for the absence of eligible and competent female representation in academic spaces, including leadership positions. Bunting (1994), Lumumba (1993) Rodu Galdzanwa (1997), and Chivaura (2000), on the other hand, attribute poor ratio of women to men academics and gender gaps to a range of factors such as colonial legacies in education at all levels of society, national forces that lead to democracy, structural adjustment programmes on government budgets and the unpredictable dynamics of gender itself among others. These factors coerce women and girls back into conservative domestication and appear to be less welcome in male dominated spaces and, particularly, in institutions of higher learning as in this case.

These factors further provide an explanation for the case of Makerere University where male deans planned to enter leadership positions early. The headship of departments has been one of the training avenues for acquiring the necessary skills for deanship. Furthermore, the male deans have more experience than their female counterparts and, therefore, are more informed of the requirements, rights, obligations and expectations of deanship. The male deans also understand the university structures and how to use informal

networks, policies and regulations to advantage. They know who, how and when to approach relevant individuals within the universities structures for support. In short, the male deans know that successful deanship is influenced by the dynamics and interactions of people and institutions. They use this knowledge to network with colleagues and play politics within the academic space. As such, they are able to make their ideas known and accepted by their colleagues and they manage to convince their constituencies of their capabilities to lead their units to success. In so doing, these male deans are successful in making themselves visible and their work recognized and appreciated, thus wielding more power in leadership. The male deans also know that self-initiative is essential for upward movement to deanship, as opposed to the female faculty's disinterest in taking up deanship or leadership positions in the university, which has been mentioned as one of the strong barriers to women's upward movement in the academic space. It was further reported that it is easier for male deans to talk to their families and inform them of the challenges of leadership, and their families, especially the spouse would listen, and they would be given the required support; this is quite unlikely for the female deans. The female deans, just like their fellow female instructors, have to fulfil all family responsibilities without any interference from the university leadership duties and obligations. Male deans reported no specific male-related challenges to deanship apart from the general challenges of administration. On the contrary, feminists have repeatedly pointed out how the triple roles of women and the non-supportive environment disadvantage them and retard their academic growth and their entry into leadership positions.

It has been said that the female deans are not strategic even when they are in deanship positions; they are often relegated into submission and providing university management with information whenever required to do so. They rarely use their leadership position to access other powerful positions, a response that the male deans interpret to mean being less active or even not being qualified for the leadership position women hold. This is corroborated by the male deans who insisted that female deans should be trained:'…women needed training and empowerment to be given chance not to just position them for mockery.' Yet the female deans on their part noted:'…Women can make good leaders, but in a male dominated world, women must work harder, be patient, be ready to face harsh criticism, and be tolerant.'

This mindset and approach feminizes even the schools under the leadership of female deans, a situation that is not appealing to the constituencies of these female deans. Thus, according to male deans, constituencies prefer male to female deans, as Mama (2003)and ACU (2000) have argued ; that at no time have women been formally excluded from Africa's post-independence uni-

versities but rather the historical, socio-cultural and attitudinal factors play an upper hand in their upward mobility. They note that despite the apparent equity in access and affirmative action, universities have remained highly male dominated spaces both numerically and culturally; and that gender inequalities in Africa's public universities make a mockery of all the proud nations' political and policy commitments to gender equality and justice because as the leading institutions of higher learning, they are rightly expected to lead and not lag in the realization of people's aspirations for full democracy and for social justice.

Research is an important aspect of career growth in institutions of higher learning as it determines promotion at every level in the academic advancement. The female faculty further emphasize the issue of family roles as being one of the major barriers to integrating academic growth and deanship. Even with an understanding spouse, the duty of family care, household chores, extended families are a responsibility of the woman irrespective of her status in society. As one counsellor put it:

> ...women's particular role in society which entrusts them with the care of children and elders in the family makes them scared to take risks. …she thinks about the future of her children, or the family...a man thinks of his stomach eventually…where a man will quickly jump on the adventure irrespective of doubts and mystery, a woman will first try to think through it. (*New Vision* Tuesday 12th February 2013).

Women tend to be able to combine intuition and logical thinking. They are aware of the implications of others and their actions and they think more carefully about the resources needed to accomplish a given goal. This is an extra burden that may contribute to less motivation for females to compete and venture into more responsibility and stress-inviting positions, something that is outside the ambit of the institution. The male gender is aware of this apparent weakness and exploits it through overt and covert disapproval of women taking responsible positions, something that the institutions may not influence.

Becker (1964) in human capital theory argues that efficient specialization can often lead to extreme arguments of biological determinism, with some arguing that higher levels of testosterone makes men more willing to engage in competition than women. This is contrary to the declarations and resolutions of the African higher education establishments such as Tannanarive (UNESCO, 1963), AAU, (2005), the Kampala Declaration on Academic Freedom and Social Responsibility of Intellectuals (CODESRIA 1991 and Kabonesa, unpublished) and a great many grand university mission statements that indicate that it is not about competition but the persistent institutional inequalities which

reflect a lack of commitment to gender issues and taking them seriously in the intellectual sphere The university is affected by external political and social environment which Dzodzi Tsikata (2002) argued that it is interpreted and translated into the lives of individual women academics and gender differences to the detriment of their career attainment. Women who take up employment are faced with demanding academic careers, gender unfriendly institutional environment and equally demanding reproductive roles.There is need for a deliberate effort to integrate the influence of the gender roles in assessing the ability and capacity of female gender in institutional processes and strategies and strike a balance. Rudo Galdzanwa (2002) has argued that the demands of academic culture under excruciating economic and social circumstances have shown that one of the ways women have sought to improve the quality of academic life has been through challenging social harassment, now recognized to be a widespread occurrence within higher education institutions. This suggests that the only way to compel institutions to take gender equity seriously is to make gender one of the performance indicators of institutional ranking.

Conclusion and recommendations

The study has investigated leadership, management and career advancement for female and male deans in social sciences and humanities at Makerere University. The objective was to investigate the gender dynamics of leadership and management in the academic careers of deans in the humanities and social sciences and its effect on institutional development. It focused on the challenges male and female deans face in their academic leadership roles and responsibilities; how they integrate academic, leadership roles and responsibilities into personal academic career growth with institutional development; the gender differences in the support Makerere University extends to the deans to help them achieve their roles and responsibilities as administrators as well as support for academic career growth; and how the deanship could be made more productive in administration and career advancement. The study was qualitative and quantitative in design, combining both primary and secondary data generated using a questionnaire and face-to-face interviews. Options are provided to the university management on how best university governance and structures should enable the deans to discharge their academic mandate in the most efficient and effective way without compromising deanship and/or the academic growth of both genders.

Overall, the study finds that women as well as men face similar general challenges in deanship with varying degrees. However, women have gender-specific challenges related to their other roles as mothers, wives, care givers and home managers. Factors that motivate malesinto deanship are related to

personal growth, power and visibility; while females are motivated by the need for personal growth and a strong conviction to serve the community. The study suggests that since the challenges that female faculty face outweigh the motivation factors for competing for leadership positions in institutions of higher learning, support should be extended to deans for academic growth. Although some significant effort is in place to mainstream gender in leadership and management among others, Makerere University structures are still gendered in favour of male gender. There are supportive structures in deanship but no deliberate efforts are made to encourage women to vie for deanship. The deans know what it takes to advance academically although the environment does not seem to have changed much to create a level playing ground for females to compete for leadership positions, something that may negatively impact on institutional development and gender equity in particular. Makerere University needs to rethink its leadership and management strategy to integrate gender fully with a view to becoming more inclusive.

Notes

1. A term is a period of four years, and deans normally serve two terms (eight years) only.
2. These qualities were however mentioned to come with age, expressions, dress code, body build and experience. Some of these qualities are missing in potential female candidates.
3. Personnel is recruited, remunerated and fired when there is need on the deans' behalf.

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JHEA/RESA Vol. 12, No. 1, 2014, pp. 53-68

(ISSN 0851–7762)

Faculty Governance: Opportunities and Challenges after the Egyptian Revolution – The case of the FEPS, Cairo University

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Abstract

Higher education had always been a top priority in Egypt since the 1952 revolution. In this paper, we will have an overview of the higher education system in Egypt highlighting the main challenges facing this system and the possible areas of reform. Governance of the Faculty of Economics and Political Sciences (FEPS) will be discussed as a case study. Finally, a set of recommendations are mentioned to conclude this paper.

Résumé

L'enseignement supérieur a toujours été une priorité absolue en Egypte depuis la révolution de 1952. Dans cette étude, nous aurons un aperçu du système de l'enseignement supérieur égyptien faisant ressortir les principaux défis du système et les possibilités de réforme. La gouvernance de la Faculté des Sciences Economiques et Politiques sera examinée comme étude de cas. Enfin, cette étude se conclut par une série de recommandations.

Introduction

In almost all human communities, education is considered the cornerstone, the most powerful mechanism of social mobility and the navigator guiding us towards the future. Education is the pillar of development and advancement of nations; it is the powerful locomotive of humanity. Worldwide Higher Educa-

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tion – both public and private – comes as a top priority for human development as it constitutes the central hub for creating the mental capabilities that help produce knowledge and make the best use of it. For institutions of higher education to realize and to successfully deliver their educational, research and knowledge functions in the twenty-first century, they should be capable of responding effectively and efficiently to the ever-changing needs of education and training besides keeping in pace with all changes that higher education has witnessed and adopting knowledge-based functional tools and methods .

In this paper we will tackle the governance issue as one of the main components that can help restructure higher education system. Governance does not refer to what institutions do, but rather to how they do it; the ways and means by which an institution sets its directions and organizes itself to fulfil its purpose. Thus, the adopted definition of governance in this paper is 'the distribution of authority and functions among the units within a larger entity, the modes of communication and control among them, and the conduct of relationships between the entity and the surrounding environment' (Ricci 1999).

In higher education, the term 'governance' is used to describe the different structures, processes and activities involved in the planning and direction of the institutions and people working in tertiary education. Therefore, governance processes deal with multiple dimensions of an institution: how it coheres; how it exercises authority; how it relates to internal members (students and staff); how it relates to external stakeholders (government, business, local community, and international institutions); how it makes decisions; and how far it delegates responsibility for decisions and actions internally. The structure of governance includes the role of institutional governing boards, the procedural rules, the policies for resource allocation, the arrangements for performance management, as well as monitoring and reporting. Good governance facilitates decision making which is rational, informed, transparent, and which leads to organizational efficiency and effectiveness.(Trakman 2008).

Higher Education in Egypt: An Overview

Higher education systems are getting more complex due to the growth in the number of public and private institutions, so that the task of managing and monitoring the sector is becoming more specialized and demanding.

The demand for higher education has grown tremendously in Egypt due to the increase in the number of entrants to universities every year from 1.4 million students to 3 million students between 2000/2001 and 2010/2011. Accordingly, the enrolment rate, higher education has increased in the age group (18-23 years) from 25 per centin 2001/2001 to around 33 per cent in 2010/2011.The public investment in higher education is L.E 4.1 billion in

the 2012/2013 plan. The trend of the public spending on higher education is represented in Table 1.

Table 1: Public Spending on Higher Education

	Percentage of the Total Public Spending	Percentage of the Total Spending on Education	Percentage of the Gross Domestic Product
2001/2002	5.3	33.1	1.8
2003/2004	5.3	31.3	1.6
2005/2006	3.1	25.4	1.1
2007/2008	3.2	26.8	1
2009/2010	3	24.6	0.9
2011/2012	2.3	21.4	0.72

Source: CAPMAS, *Annual Statistical Book*, 2011.

From Table 1 it becomes quite clear that the demand for higher education continues to grow as governments acknowledge their role in promoting economic development. Public spending on higher education as a percentage of the total spending on education and public spending on higher education as a percentage of the gross domestic product (GDP) keep declining. This definitely has negative implications on the resources available for providing a good education system.

In this context, various national conferences were held to discuss the aspects and strategies of reforming higher education. Furthermore, the World Bank and the OECD allocated grants for reforming the public universities in Egypt through the so-called Higher Education Enhancement Project (HEEP). HEEP aims at laying the foundation for improving the quality of the higher education system in Egypt, through legislative reform, institutional restructuring, the establishment of independent quality assurance mechanisms and monitoring systems. The first component would support government's efforts to restructure the governance and management system, to create the right conditions for improved sector efficiency and quality. The second component would improve the quality and relevance of university education through the establishment of an information technology (IT) integrated computer, network infrastructure and finance in-service training to develop competencies in the application

of computer technology, particularly in teaching methodologies. Finally, the third component would improve the quality and the relevance of mid-level technical education by consolidating middle technical institutes into technical colleges in addition to designing relevant curriculum and training instruction and strengthening academic administration and management.

Vision and Strategy of Higher Education in Egypt

The most important component in the governance of higher education system in Egypt is to try to answer the major questions such as: What is the purpose of higher education? What targets should be set in terms of participation in higher education? How will these targets be achieved? What is the role, if any, of the private sector and the community? It is extremely important to set this vision especially during a transformation process that requires adopting a brand newapproachof doing things, especially after the 25 January 2011 revolution and the dawnof a new system.

The vision guiding higher education in the country is mainly based on helping Egyptian universities to rise to a distinguished level that situates them among the most notable international universities (top 250 universities) and maintain their leading stature among Arab universities by promoting the quality and efficacy of higher education. These objectives are to be achieved through technical advancement, establishment of E-universities, activating the role of educational institutions in scientific research in order to build knowledge economy and linking the education output with the requirements of development plans and labour market.

The vision statement of Cairo University, that the Faculty of Economics and Political Science belongs to, is to be one of the best international universities renowned for its authenticity and leadership in the formation, spreading and application of knowledge to enrich the lives of individuals, the society, institutions, and the surrounding environment. Cairo University's mission is to be accomplished through a commitment to international standards of excellence in the fields of education, research and community service as well as the integration of personnel, technology and business systems and the development of the university's human resources.

Autonomy as a Core Pillar in Education Governance

The ability of any university to deliver on its mandate and achieve its objectives depends on its organizational structure. it also depends on the integrity and efficiency of its administrative system, its capability to promote higher education and scientific research and its ability to compete with other higher institutions locally and internationally.

A central consideration in this regard is the relationship of institutional governance to the state, primarily the extent of institutional autonomy and its effect on institutional performance. Institutions necessarily have to develop new capacities for internal governance when the focus of responsibility for decisions about student admission, staffing, curriculum development and the use of financial resources is shifted to the institutional level.

As for relations between the university and the state, it is evident in the literature that different models exist. In 1983, B. R. Clark identified three dimensions that affect the autonomy of the university: state authority, market forces, and academic oligarchy. ToJ. Enders, the variety of stakeholders that might affect the aspect and degree of reform includes academic heartland, students, central administration, head of the university, boards, society stakeholders, private agencies and the government (FabriceHénard, Alexander Mitterle 2010).AnOECD publication entitled, 'Education Policy Analysis' (2003) determined four aspects of measuring auniversity's autonomy: freedom to moderate its internal affairs, relianceon state for funding, efficiency of the higher education system as whole, and the capability of its leaders. The European Union Tempusin February 2010 defined governance according to the sharing of power and responsibilities among involved stakeholders focusing on the legal, policy and reporting frameworks. However, the report shows that the 'regulatory state model' is the dominant model in the EU universities, as the state plays a major role in running higher education institutions (John Reilly and ArdJongsma 2010). Apparently, there is no best model for governance of universities.

Neave and van Vught(1994) observea continuum in the relationship of government to higher education institutions from a 'state control' model to a 'state supervising' model, that is a shift from intervening to influencing, or from 'rowing' to 'steering'. Fielden suggests that this shift is made necessary by the larger scale and complexity of contemporary higher education systems (Fielden 2008).

Over the past two decades in OECD member states and other countries, reforms in higher education governance have taken place in the context of generalized changes in public sector management. The dominant trend has been toadopt'new public management' (NPM) approaches in programmes of public service and higher education reform (Ferlie et al.1996).

Based on a survey of OECD countriesin 2007, ByunKiyong from the Korean Ministry of Human Resources Development has summarized the recent changes as : (a) Causing a significant change in the role of central government from direct control (by rules and regulations) to indirect involvement ('steering at a distance' using contractual policy and/or an incentive system based

on performance assessment); (b) Increasing procedural autonomy but less substantive economy in terms of strategic priority setting for universities; (c) Strengthening the administrative and leadership functions within universities, thus weakening the traditional 'collegial' principle (shared governance by the academic leadership); (d) Placing greater emphasis on external involvement (i.e. industry, government) in university decision-making so as to introduce a service philosophy; and (e) Placing emphasis on 'competition between service providers' and 'consumer choice' to promote a market orientation of universities (Byun 2008).

It is recognized that the state is not the best arbiter of how individual universities should operate. As a result, the old model of total control from a central Ministry of Education (MOE) is proving unsustainable in the long term and is being replaced throughout the world by other models. The management of very complex academic communities cannot be done effectively by remote civil servants, and the task should be left to institutions themselves. Giving them autonomy recognizes that their management needs are different and allows them full exercise of their academic freedoms.

Management of Higher Education in Egypt

University and Higher Education in Egypt is that type of education provided in universities or higher specialized institutes. The duration of study extends from two years in middle technical institutes to four, five, or six years in university colleges and higher institutions. Master and PhD degrees require at least two and three years of study, respectively.

Higher education in Egypt has a long history which dates back to 998 AD, that is some years after building Al-Azhar mosque in 969 AD. Al-Azhar, founded by the Fatimids, is considered the oldest operating university in the world. Al-Azhar University was initially founded as a university that issued academic degrees and had individual faculties for Islamic Law and Jurisprudence, Arabic Grammar, Islamic Astronomy, Early Islamic Philosophy, and Logic.

At the beginning of the twentieth century, Cairo University was founded as a Civil University on 21 December 1908 and transformed to a Public University in 1925. It was modelled after French universities being divided into separate faculties – initially four – later expanding to 23. Several schools preceded the establishment of the university, which later formed the nucleus of the University. Examples include School Alengkhanp, which was founded in 1816 by Mohamed Ali; School of Medicine, which was one of the first medical schools in Africa and the Middle East.

Up till 1957, there were five universities open to the general public in Egypt; two of which are located in Cairo (Cairo University and Ain Shamas

University). The others are located in Alexandria, Assiut in the Upper Egypt and the last one, a private university, is The American University in Cairo (AUC).

The growth of higher education in Egypt started in 1957, after the establishment of Assiut University to increase access of Upper Egyptians to higher education. Later, in the 1970s, government took further steps to consolidate higher education by opening seven new universities throughout the country. Among these are Al-Minya University, which was a former branch of Assiut University.

In 2009/2010, the total number of students' enrolment in public higher education universities was 1,932,774 while the number of students in the private universities was 60,148. At the same time, there were 77,193 staff members teaching in the public higher institutions as against 3,796 in private institutes (CAPMAS 2011).

The Legal Framework of Higher Education in Egypt

The scope of higher education laws varies according to national policies and priorities. However, there are common basics in all the laws, and they include:

1. The powers of the Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE).
2. The powers and responsibilities of the governing bodies.
3. Statements on accountability and the powers of the ministry.

By analysing the various laws and regulations guiding the Egyptian universities since the first decree was promulgated on 11 March 1925 till the current law number 49 of 1972 and its subsequent amendments, the organizational principles can be stated as follows:

- Each university has its own legal identity.
- Article number 8 states that every university has its own independent budget that is prepared according to the same patterns that are followed in preparing the budgets of other public entities.
- The state guarantees the independence of universities in order to link the university education with the community needs and production.
- The Supreme Council of Universities is an authorized autonomous public body which is responsible for the management of universities. Members of the Supreme Council of Universities are responsible for planning, coordination and supervision of higher education. The Supreme Council of Universities is chaired by the Minister of Higher Education. Its membership is drawn from the Presidents of Egyptian state universities (17 universities)alongside five other members who are highly experienced in matters of university education and public

affairs. These serve for two renewable years by a decree of the Minister of Higher Education. There is also a Secretary of the Supreme Council of Universities.

- The terms of reference of the Supreme Council of Universities are:
  - Delineating and planning the general policy and guidelines for higher education and scientific research in universities, with a strong commitment to realizing the State's needs and meeting its national, social, economic, and scientific objectives.
  - Facilitating, through coordination, the processes of study, exams, and academic degrees in universities.
  - Coordinating the activities of faculties and institutes and corresponding departments in universities.
  - Coordinating among the academic staff through promotion system.
  - Organizing students' admission policy in universities and determining their annual number.
  - Outlining the technical, financial, and administrative regulations related to the accounts of the Research Special Units in universities.
  - Laying down the executive bylaws of universities and the internal regulations of faculties and institutes.
  - Laying down the system related to the university performance adjustment and development.

- The University Council, headed by the University President, is comprised of: the University Vice-presidents, the deans of the faculties and institutes that are affiliated to the university and four members (at most) with profound experience in higher education affairs.
- The University President is responsible for managing the university's scientific, managerial, and financial affairs. S/he is also responsible for executing the university laws and regulations, and the decisions of the University Council and the Supreme Council of Universities within the framework of the laws and regulations. The University president has to submit a report at the end of every academic year to the Minister of Higher Education to enable him assess the educational and research affairs of each university in order to make recommendations for future development and better performance.
- The Faculty Board is headed by the Dean of the faculty along with the membership of the Vice-deans, the Heads of Departments, a Professor from each department, one Associate Professor and one Lecturer if the faculty has 10 departments or less and two Associate Professors and

two Lecturers if the faculty has more than 10 departments. The board should also include three members at most who have special awareness about the subjects that are taught in that faculty or institution.

- According to the law, the university is governed in a decentralized way through its different boards including: the university council, the faculty board, and the department council. However, in practice, the Egyptian universities are governed in a highly centralized way with the Minister of Higher Education on the top of that organizational structure with most of the decisions related to the budget and financial issues being approved by the president of each university, aside the day-to-day running expenses.

Within the aforementioned laws and regulations, there are main challenges in the institutional governance reform in the higher education system, as highlighted below:

- The president used to appoint university presidents by decree based on nominations from MOHE. But after the revolution, another law was passed which allows the election of university presidents through the electoral college.
- The Central Accounting Office (reporting to the President of the Arab Republic) supervises the accounting of financial performance through an official assigned to each institution, but this person does not have the responsibility to inform or assist the institution's leadership in assessing the institution's financial performance.
- Institutions can own lands and equipment, but they are regarded as government property; therefore, the university cannot take a decision to sell or replace a piece of land or building without a prior approval from the Cabinet of Ministers.
- Institutions can spend budgets to achieve objectives but budgets are allocated for specific line of items where the ability to shift from one budget line item to another is very limited specifically since these line items come from diverse resources (e.g. staff cost come from the Ministry of Finance and the investment budget comes from the Ministry of Economic Development).
- Institutions can recommend their academic structure and its executive regulation but the decision rests with MOHE and SCU.
- Universities recommend enrolment levels, but the decisions are taken by the SCU and MOHE. The highly centralized process of student selection and placement severely restricts students' choices and results

in students being assigned to disciplines or professions that bear little relationships to their career aspirations or abilities. Enrolment controls are also the result of the need to manage excessive demand for certain universities (e.g. Cairo University) and an imbalance among faculties and professions.

In such a tightly controlled system, an institution's president and other institutional leaders cannot reasonably be held accountable for an institution's performance. With all the focus on controlling the pieces, no one is held accountable for the performance of the whole. The establishment of Boards of Trustees, as in the recent reform of technical colleges or new accreditation requirements, will have limited impact on institutional operations because the institutional presidents and governing councils do not have sufficient authority to take decisions about even basic issues.

The role of pressure groups in the universities – such as 'the March 9th Movement for the Independence of Universities', through the demonstrations and strikes by the faculty, bureaucrats and students – have forced the military rule and the transitional governments to amend the Law of the Organization of Universities of 1972. The main mandate of reform strategies before the revolution was the improvement of human capital and innovation in order to meet the demand of the labour market and to enhance national economic competitiveness. Therefore, these strategies focused on the capabilities of graduates, such as creating study programmes in foreign language and training programmes. University governance, in terms of the selection and the capacity of its academic and administrative leadership and the resources allocation, was not in the core of any pervious reform strategies.

In spite of national and international strategies, actual reform has revolved after the revolution of 25 January 2011. The revolution opened a wide spectrum for all segments of the society to express their demands using alternative tools. The pivotal amendment was to usefillthe positions of president of universities, deans, and the heads of departments through elections. This amendment has tremendous impact on university independence as it allows different criteria for managing the academic institutions based on merit and not on political loyalty, which the previous regime applied. Furthermore, competitiveness became a significant principle in the university. For example, candidates for a leadership position must provide in their electoral programmes effective solutions and reliable strategies for overcoming the challenges of their institutions. Also the process of election allows all members in the institutions – faculty members, bureaucrats and students – to openly discuss the ideas and merits of each candidate. What is more important, all leadership positions became

accountable and elected leaders have to keep all members in the institution updated on the aspects and degree of achievements and challenges. However, the election process may lead in large faculties to cronyism; besides, it may cause lead to a measure of hypersensitivity among the staff members.

Towards Good Governance in the Faculty of Economics and Political Science, Cairo University

The Faculty of Economics and Political Science was established in 1960 to serve as the only faculty in Egypt that provides top-quality specialists in economics, statistics and political science. It has three distinctive objectives: (i) Carrying out theoretical and applied researches and studies; (ii) Providing consultative studies and researches on state and society and offering consultations to decision makers; (iii) Participating in community services and helping to develop cultural and environmental awareness.

By applying the electoral process to fill the position of dean in the Faculty of Economics and Political Sciences in August 2011, the candidates provided electoral programmes for the first time, which represented their perspectives in governing the Faculty academically and administratively. Moreover, this method allowed the dean to develop a comprehensive programme to run the Faculty.

By the law, the dean is in charge of managing the affairs of the faculty, including scientific, administrative and financial affairs, according to the law and regulations, and reports directly to the University Council. Apparently, therefore, the law delegates the dean to manage, and NOT to govern the faculty.

The experience of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science is to widen the responsibilities of the dean by investing the gained legitimacy through election and the agreement of the faculty members on the Faculty Development Strategy which depends on three pillars:

1. Modernizing and developing the academic framework to cope with international standards through:
   (a) Improving the efficiency of the cadres of faculty members, especially the young faculty.
   (b) Improving the quality of the faculty graduates.

2. Developing administrative and institutional capacity of the faculty.
3. Developing the role of the faculty in the society and increasing its participation.

How to achieve these pillars is critical under the rigid legal framework that allows the state, represented by the University Council, to intervene in academic and financial matters.

To overcome that, it became necessary to start with developing a proper institutional framework that depends mainly on a high degree of participation from all the faculty members at the different levels and a high degree of transparency. Thus, a group of committees were formed to manage and monitor the administrative and financial affairs. These included Committee on the Budget and Financial Matters, Committee on the Development of the Organizational Structure, and the Council of Assistant Lecturers and Teaching Assistants.

For the first time, membership of these committees was made up of faculty members of different age groups and academic specializations from different departments. The method brought different perspectives to every debate and helped to find the best solutions. This helped immensely in enhancing the administrative capabilities and preparing the relatively junior academics.

Additionally, two important committees were formed. The first is the Nominations Committee, which is responsible for setting and reviewing the criteria of occupying the leadership and administration positions in the Faculty. The second is the Governance Committee, which is concerned with:(i) Setting the regulations of governance (including: rights and duties – disclosure and transparency, accountability, avoiding conflict of interests – and responsibilities of the board of directors) criteria that will be enforced in the faculty after the approval of the faculty board; (ii) Setting the rules that regulate practices/ code of conduct of students, staff members and faculty administration in all organizational and institutional structures in the faculty (including but not confined to departments, sections, agencies, centres, units, and branches) and to be presented to the faculty board for approval; and (iii) Working to preserve the name and status of the faculty locally and globally. The Nomination and Governance Committees are significant tools for preserving the gains of applying the electoral system in the university and to develop the capacities of the academia and its administration.

With regard to academic affairs, other committees were formed such as the Committee for Development of IT Infrastructure, Committee for the Development of Postgraduate Studies and Committee for the Enhancement of International Publishing of Scientific Researches.

The role of the Faculty of Economics and Political Science has exceeded the academic and research domains. It now involves effective participation in the discussion of domestic environmental causes and problems and helps to create developmental awareness among different classes of people. Moreover, the faculty reinforces a meaningful dialogue process between the university and the society by:

- Participating in building its capacity as an educational institution – as individuals, departments or research centres. Many of the social issues plaguing the Egyptian society are thoroughly discussed – in conferences, seminars and workshops which seek to present documented evidences and recommendations to the authorities concerned.
- Bringing to bear on the societal needs the benefits of scientific researches as a way of guiding the government and its agencies.
- securing the participation of students and the faculty members in volunteer public service activities.

However, there are various challenges that hinder the gained administrative autonomy of the faculty. For instance, the number of new students admitted centrally through the Admission Office of Egyptian Universities every year ignores the faculty's capabilities and market needs for its graduates. Consequently, the Faculty has to accept a large number of students that far exceeds its capacity. This naturally affects the quality of provided education. As a direct consequence of this, the number of unemployed university graduates has been rising above that of any other group as noted between 1997 and 2006. It was the unemployment of this educated class that fired the flames of what is now referred to as'Arab Spring'. many are wont to blame this development on two factors: an excess of graduate supply over the demand of the labour market, and over-production of graduates in the social sciences. Lack of financial independence is considered another challenge as the faculty cannot reallocate money to an area of priority once the university has allocated it to a particular item. However, the established committees became able to manage the non-state fund individually and in transparent way but still with some limitations.

In a nutshell, the consequences of the Egyptian revolution have contributed in providing these academic institutions with the most competent people through the election process. However, there is still a great need to increase the autonomy of faculty and to minimize the supervision of the state to maximize the margin of freedom in governing the faculty effectively.

Conclusion and Recommendations

Egypt should take deliberate, gradual and transparent steps to achieve a more effective balance between institutional self-regulation and overall public control of the scale, structure, quality and cost of its higher education system. The direction of reform should involve greater responsibility and discretion for accredited higher institutions, less central regulation and detailed supervision of their activities.

The role of the Supreme Council of Universities should be abolished (as in the developed countries) so as to achieve university autonomy and find an alternative mechanism that provides an appropriate climate for development and innovation.

The administrative ladder should be reduced such that the stages of the decision-making process would be decreased to the greatest possible extent so as to reduce the time, effort, and money needed to take an administrative decision. Thus, the university should be managed in a decentralized way, starting from the Departmental Council, then the Faculty Board, ending with the University Council, which should be on the top of the organizational structure instead of the Supreme Council of Universities and the Minister of Higher Education.

Every university should be free to prepare its own law according to its own circumstances, vision, and objectives which vary from one university to another according to own immediate environment and needs. In addition, every University should have a degree of autonomy to design its own executive regulations**.** Moreover, the University should be independent not only managerially but also financially according to its own plans and time schedules with the complete coordination between the academic departments and the boards of the faculties.

On coordination between universities, if any university feels that it needs to cooperate with another university in any of the scientific fields, they can have bilateral agreements, and not collective agreements similar to the one imposed by the Supreme Council of Universities.

The Government of Egypt should develop a single legal framework for higher education covering all sectors: public universities, technical colleges, and private institutions (both for-profit and not-for-profit). This legal framework could have responsibility for a range of functions related to achieving responsiveness, coherence and sustainability in Egypt's higher education system. These functions would include: strategic planning; information collection; analysis and reporting; the administration of funding special programmes whether they are national or international, including student scholarships, loans and strategic investment funds aligned with national priorities; advice to the Minister regarding the establishment of new institutions and institutional branches; and the methods of institutional financing and associated accountability reporting. The implementation of these recommendations would lead to consolidation of those functions currently exercised by the Supreme Council for Universities (SCU), the Supreme Council for Private Universities (SCPU), the Supreme Council for Technical Colleges (SCTC) and the functions of the Ministry of Higher Education relating to the operation of institutions. There should also be a single quality assurance and accreditation body.

It is also very important to analyse the specializations and gaps of market needs and set the priorities of establishing faculties, programmes and degrees to fill the gap between graduates and the market needs.

Furthermore, it is important to take a serious decision about rationalizing free education to all and preventing very poor students from enjoying this privilege.

Thus, efforts in the upcoming period should be dedicated to designating a new formula for higher education in the Egyptian universities that agrees with the accelerated changes that Egypt witnessed since the revolution of 25 January, taking into consideration three central pillars. The first one concerns developing the educational process by constantly updating the regulations and curriculum development, keeping in mind the new international trends and labour market requirements. This process should also benefit from distinguished international experiences in this respect and make use of all tools and capabilities that this era can provide. The second pillar must take care of the continuous training and development of the faculty members through advanced technologies to help them acquire new effective methods of improving their occupational and professional skills. The third pillar is concerned with administrative development. In this instance, a comprehensive strategy is needed to impart advanced management methods and tools into current and upcoming leadership of the faculty.

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JHEA/RESA Vol. 12, No 1, 2014, pp. 69-92

(ISSN 0851–7762)

Rethinking the Role of Universities in Africa: Leadership as a Missing Link in Explaining University Performance in Uganda

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Abstract

The subject of this paper is the place of leadership in redefining the role of the university in Africa in general and Uganda in particular. The 'African University' today, like any other university, has clear mandates and roles; research, teaching and community service, clearly laid down on paper in many of the universities' manuals and strategic plans. But, in reality, these roles are not performed at all or are performed in a manner that may not warrant clear roles. Increasingly, it is observed that less quality teaching, less research, and less community service are being done. This situation calls for rethinking what role should universities play. While many explanations have been offered for the declining performance of the university, in this paper I contend that leadership plays a significant role not only in influencing escalation of crises but also in averting them, especially in Ugandan universities. The paper answers mainly three research questions: (i) How do changes and transitions taking place in the university sector affect the role of universities in Uganda? (ii) How does leadership respond to the challenges faced by universities? and (iii) What are the challenges faced by leadership and how do these challenges influence their response to university challenges? Using different documents, and basing on the behaviour approaches to study organisations the study makes an analysis of the role of leadership in the functioning of the university. The paper concludes faced with many challenges, universities have changed course and focus and that they need rethinking their roles. It is concluded that the

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role of leadership has been overlooked yet they occupy a central role in the performance of the university.

Résumé

Cette étude a pour objet l'analyse de la place du leadership dans la redéfinition du rôle des universités africaines en général et de l'Ouganda en particulier. Aujourd'hui, l' « Université africaine », à l'instar des autres universités, a des mandats et des rôles ; à savoir la recherche, l'enseignement et le service communautaire clairement définis sur un document dans beaucoup de manuels et plans stratégiques de ces universités. Mais, en réalité, ces rôles ne sont pas assumés du tout ou ils le sont d'une manière qui ne garantit pas des rôles clairement établis. On constate de plus en plus qu'il y a moins d'enseignement de qualité, moins de recherche et moins de service communautaire. Cette situation exige un réexamen du rôle que les universités devraient jouer. Alors que plusieurs explications ont été servies quant à la baisse de performance des universités, je soutiendrai dans cette étude que le leadership joue un rôle non seulement dans l'influence de l'escalade des crises mais aussi dans la prévention de celles-ci, notamment dans les universités ougandaises. Cette étude répond principalement à trois questions liées à la recherche : (i) Comment les changements et les transitions en cours dans le secteur universitaire affectent-ils le rôle des universités ougandaises? (ii) Comment le leadership répond-il aux difficultés que rencontrent les universités? et (iii) Quels sont les défis auxquels font face les universités? A l'aide de divers documents, et suivant des approches basées sur les comportements utilisées pour étudier les organisations l'étude fait une analyse du rôle du leadership dans le fonctionnement des universités. En guise de conclusion, l'étude établit que face aux multiples défis, les universités ont opéré un changement de cap et de centre d'intérêts et ont besoin de repenser leurs rôles. Il est conclu que le rôle du leadership a été ignoré en dépit du rôle central qu'ils ont joué dans la réalisation des performances universitaires.

Introduction

The subject of this paper is the place of leadership in redefining the role of the university in Africa in general and Uganda in particular. The 'African University' today, like any other university, has clear mandates and roles: research, teaching and community service, clearly laid down on paper in many of the universities' manuals and strategic plans. But, in reality, these roles are not performed at all or are performed in a manner that may not warrant clear roles. Increasingly, it is observed that less quality teaching, less research, and less community service are being done. Offering of short courses have permeated

university training agenda more than the core programmes of universities; consultancy work has overtaken research work; the teaching and training approach does not quite befit the mode of teaching at a university (there is limited lecturing and tutoring) and other roles such as, community service and outreach have been abandoned and equated to student internship and placement.

Universities are at the heart and stand at the apex of higher education; they are rightly regarded as drivers of development. Through their mandates of doing research, teaching and community service, university staff and students bring to light new and emerging challenges facing society – poverty, malnutrition, disease, maternal and child health, etc – and develop new technologies to ameliorate them. Through research findings, proposed solutions, technical innovations and responses, societies transform. According to Assie-Lumumba (2006), universities have been the principal agents for the growth of scientific knowledge that has become the dominant force in the modern world. Particular emphasis is put on universities as research and training institutions, a character that makes universities distinct from other higher institutions of learning.

Recent developments in the scale and scope of expansion of the higher education sector make it difficult to delineate universities from other higher institutions of learning and separate their roles from those of other institutions. For example, while there is clear distinction in the naming of these institutions, in practice and with regard to what they do, there is no clear distinction between them. For example, vocational institutions focus on tailor-made short courses, but so are universities. Also, university education, higher education and tertiary education are used interchangeably as if they mean and refer to the same thing; as a result, a number of universities today are just universities in name. Hence it is difficult to make a clear distinction between a university, a technical college, and teacher training college, and vocational institute. Considering the nature and character, the programme orientation and mode of delivery of these programmes, Kasozi (2003) asserts that some of the universities are glorified high schools.

There is also the contention that university education is in crisis and in a state of stagnation and irrelevance (AAU 2004); and that African universities are no longer relevant to the African economies. This is in regard to the nature of programmes offered, the nature of graduates produced and the relationship between universities and society. It is also argued that many universities in Africa are but a shadow of their past glorious days lacking academic staff, major infrastructure and teaching materials (Hanson and Leautier 2011). It is my contention that university education and universities as institutions have particular boundaries and mandates which are clearly distinct from the mandates of other tertiary/higher education institutions.

From this background it becomes necessary, therefore, to seriously rethink the role of the university. We need to recognize that the term 'university' goes beyond simply the 'name'; it connotes certain functions and roles which must be fulfilled, and therefore we need redefine these roles. Is there a role for leadership in redefining the roles of the University? This paper thinks that leadership can play a role – a role it has largely failed to play in the past at least within the African context.

Various explanations have been given for the low performance of universities in Africa: high staff turnover, poor government funding, commercialization and privatization of higher education, increased consultancy work, and massification (Mamdani 2007; Kasozi 2009; Musisi 2003). It is true that the functioning of the university is not without challenges; there is the challenge of staff turnover and minimal financing of higher education by government.

Staff turnover contributes to limited staff not only in terms of numbers but also in terms of the qualifications and skills set of staff at the senior level to deliver academic programmes; hence assigning the important role of teaching and training to junior staff who cannot adequately deliver an academic programme also takes them away from tutorials where they would probably be most appropriately deployed. Financing higher education has multidimensional impacts. Apart from the direct impacts such as lack finance for infrastructural development, there are the indirect consequences from the alternative financing strategies such as privatization and commercialization. Commercialization and privatization are beginning to influence the university to move away from the production of knowledge for the sake of knowledge to the production of knowledge for its usefulness. The former implies that universities must pay attention to both basic and applied knowledge, and the latter that universities produce knowledge only because it is required. Clearly, therefore, knowledge production in universities at the moment is in danger.

Universities face yet other challenges. The World Bank in 1995 challenged the relevance of university education and suggested that investing in university education has limited return on such investment and thus proposed to governments to increase investment in primary education. Universities were then advised to design alternative funding strategies, which then to the commercialization of university education. Commercialization opened the door of university education to new stakeholders, including the business community, parents, students and donors, in addition to government. These stakeholders also make their own demands and have a new perspective of how to make university education relevant. Government, the main funder, demands accountability in the use of resources, open standards curricular relevance and that universities should generate their own incomes; politicians,

the civil society, students, donors, etc are all pushing their sectional interests and demands. Clearly, these demands have impacted greatly on the functioning and performance of universities in Africa, and Uganda in particular. Given the challenges facing universities, it has become imperative to rethink the role of universities and the responsibility of leadership in this regard. There has been little consideration of leadership as a focus of investigation. This study proposes that when investigating higher education in addition to other crises, leadership should be taken on as a new dimension and it this dimension that is the focus of investigation in this paper. Thus, this paper investigates not only the way leadership may influence escalation of crises but also how leadership can help to avert them, especially in Ugandan universities. The paper will seek to answer mainly three research questions:

a. How do changes and transitions taking place in the university sector affect the role of universities in Uganda?
b. How does leadership respond to the challenges faced by universities? and
c. What are the challenges faced by leadership and how do these challenges influence their response to university challenges?

An Exploration into Theory of Leadership and Organizations

Organizational performance heavily relies on leadership, however explaining university performance in Uganda has not put leadership in a strong perspective as an explanatory variable for much of the failures (poor performance on research, training and community outreach) registered. Instead, a lot of emphasis has been on resources, massification and other factors. We need to put leadership in perspective and consider it as an integral part of factors explaining university failure. But first, an understanding of leadership has to be developed.

What is Leadership and how does it Relate to Organisational Performance?

Leadership is a process of influence whereby a leader makes an impact on others by inducing them to behave in a certain way. The leader is considered to bear influence on the behaviour of a group towards the attainment of goals. Leadership, according to Jones, George and hill (1998: 403) 'is the process by which a person exerts influence over other people and inspires, motivates, and directs their activities to help achieve group or organizational goals'. And this person who inspires, motivates directs others to achieve organizational goals is the leader.

According to Lwakabamba (2008: 2), leadership is a set of attitudes and practices – a way of working with people and a way of looking at what it means to work effectively in an institution. Lwakabamba argues that leadership is distinct from taking command; on the contrary, leadership is taking responsibility, sharing responsibility – being prepared to take decisions, building consensus, having trust relationships and understanding that individuals in the organization must grow together. In this sense, leadership respects the value of each individual's contribution to goal attainment and the working together of individuals as a group so as to achieve organizational goals. In consideration of the value of each individual to the organization, it is proposed that every individual in the organization has a leadership role and that leadership, therefore, takes place at all levels of the organization and not just at the top. This argument however does not devalue the responsibility of leadership and their role at the top of the organization. It is thus argued that top leadership in the organization is responsible for overseeing that the organization moves into the right direction. Thus, in a university setting, top leaders – the rector, the vice-chancellor, etc – are responsible for running the university and ensuring that universities keep moving in the right direction. Leadership at this level increases the ability to meet all challenges facing an organization. Leadership role is to influence all the working teams and leadership at other levels (faculties and institutes) to work towards the attainment of university goals – research, teaching and community service. It is such influence that increases organizational success. The success of the university is thus measured in terms of quality research and publications, quality teaching and quality community service. It is the role of leadership to define organizational goals and also give a sense of direction for others to follow (Bryman 1999). For this to be done, however, it is expected that leaders should possess certain traits, and also behave in a certain manner. Here the behavioural and trait models help us to understand what leaders must do to be effective.

The trait model provides that leaders must possess certain level of intelligence to deal with complex issues; they must have expertise and knowledge for them to take good decisions, self-confidence and dominance help leaders to influence subordinates, integrity and honest help them to earn respect, trust and confidence from their subordinates; and finally they must exercise some level of maturity so that they can act selflessly, control their feelings and admit when they have made mistakes. For Klitgaard (2008), key traits of leaders are a 'thick skin' and nerves as 'sewer pipe'. In this respect, the leader should be able to withstand whatever pressures they are confronted with. Sewer pipes are expected to be thick for lack of this quality makes them burst thus contaminating the environment and this should be guarded

against. Taking this analogy, the university leadership should be one that can have such a character. Universities in Africa are depicted as facing different crises, on the one hand, it is this character that makes leadership withstand such crises and positively confront them. On the other hand, it is lack of this character that makes African university leaders fail to steer their institutions in the right direction, thus plunging them in different crises.

The behaviour model, on the other hand, provides that leaders should show subordinates that they trust, respect and care about them, and also must take steps to make sure that subordinates do their work as required (Jones, George and hill 1998: 409-410). It is argued that leaders should have certain competences defined as personal traits, behaviours, skills, values and knowledge; that leaders should be equipped with administrative competences; flexibility, anxiety control, time and adaptive management and positive attitudes towards people, innovative, motivating, honesty and diplomatic. In addition, leaders should possess competences of social responsibility which include being sensitive to the changing environment, cultural sensitivity, analysis of demands and knowledge of economic situation.

It should be noted that universities are complex organizations serving a constantly changing environment. There has been increased demand from community for universities to adapt to social realities: universities in the 21st century are under pressure to move away from remaining the ivory towers of the 1960s and 70s. Thus, leaders must know how to move universities to address social challenges and yet remain successful as universities. Successful universities must stick to the core goals of a university. It has to be noted that while the university's goals are clearly defined as research, teaching and advancement of new knowledge and community service (Halvorson 2010), these goals have shifted and there is a need to redefine them if universities have to be successful. This is the task of leadership. Returning to Lwakabamba's conception of leadership, it should be noted that leadership goes beyond one person – the chief executive of the organization – to include all other people in the organization, including heads of departments, dean and lecturers. Moreover these are the prime implementers of university programmes. Universities are complex organizations which follow the principles of autonomy and independence. The autonomy given to the university is to enable lecturers define what they want to teach and determine the nature of research they can do; and this reinforces the argument that everyone is a leader.

It is argued that corporate performance is not only a reflection of administrative competences but also depend on different forces which may reduce and muffle a leader's impact. Apart from internal controls within the organization, the environment of the organization imposes heavy limits on a leader. But the

leader's role is to confront these forces and steer the organization to success: it is in doing this that leadership competences, especially the competence of social responsibility, becomes evident. The performance of a university is partly a function of the competition in the environment – public universities face stiff competition from the private universities, students and other multiple stakeholders make demands in addition to internal governance challenges of the university. We ask how leaders confront these challenges. Thus, analysis of an organization's success and performance depends on leadership roles: a leader motivates, encourages, plans and empowers, and these have stronger influence on the organizational output. This discussion shows that an organization's progress over time is moulded by leaders' traits as well as by constraints in the organization's character and environment, but the leader must confront these challenges for the organization to succeed. How a leader confronts these challenges may be reflected in the way leaders play their roles, such as the motivation role, the planning role and the empowering role.

Universities today are heavily dependent on their environment for resources; hence the environment imposes heavy limits on the operations of the university. Thus, it is argued that the constraints on the organization's activities may be explained by the resource dependence model (Pfeiffer and Salancik 1990) which depicts organizations as open systems which must engage in transactions with their environment if they are to survive. To survive, according to the resource dependence model, organizations depend on the environment for resource provision and organizations must interact with resource controllers who, because of resource possession, wield power over the organization. But organizations must find ways of regulating the behaviour of their members to make them contribute effectively and efficiently to the production of their primary outputs. The role and the ability of the leader in resisting the external forces and guiding the organization to sail through these forces become paramount for organization's success.

Universities are facing a number of challenges, including the challenge of identity loss or image loss. Today, universities may not be distinguished from other technical colleges or even high schools (Kasozi 2003). As presented in the introduction, challenges which the university is facing, include decline in research; there is more focus on consultancies than scientific research work, there is a focus on short term tailor-made training programmes; and community service, the third role of the university, is conflated and equated with community placement and internship of students. This is an absurdity. Service activities constitute the extension of university expertise for the socio-economic and political improvement of the life in the community. It is distinct from professional service and is in most cases a voluntary exercise (Mwiandi 2010).

In the light of challenges facing universities, the need for a leadership with creative, innovative competences, skills and commitment to expand and attune the roles of universities has never been greater than today. Addressing these challenges requires a cadre of leaders with sound knowledge of university operations. Leadership will need to encourage and actively pursue institutional policies that foster conditions that develop and support quality teaching and research (Hanson and Léautier 2011). Before discussing different challenges facing the university, let me first address the roles of leadership.

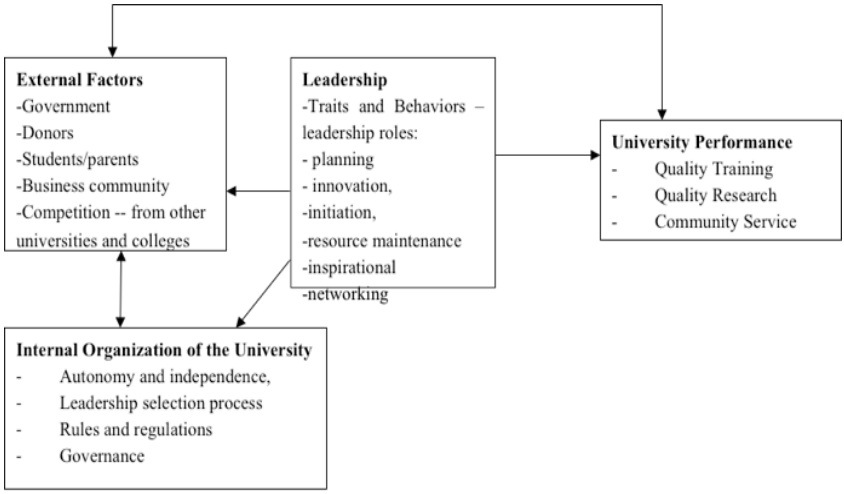
Roles of Leaders in a University

The role of a university leader can be inferred from our earlier depiction of a leader. A leader of a university must plan and initiate programmes, and should inspire others to follow. A leader foresees new research areas, and influences others to venture into those areas. Inspiration, however, does not simply come; rather it comes with what the leader does. A leader cannot inspire others to conduct research unless one also conduct research. Inspiration, therefore, comes with the involvement of the leader. Once a leader succeeds in inspiring others, we can therefore say that the leader has succeeded administratively.

The leader's role is also that of maintaining institutional resources, mobilizing and creating others. Leaders need entrepreneurial skills because they are expected to allocate resources in a manner that sustains university missions and roles. As controllers of resources, leaders should schedule and allocate personnel time and financial resources, in accordance with the roles and goals of the university. Scholars, however, have argued that university leadership, especially in Uganda, have not succeeded in this initiative. At Makerere, for example, Mamdani has discussed extensively the success of Makerere University leadership in mobilizing financial resources (Mamdani 2007), but NCHE (2007, 2006, and 2008) has shown that financial allocation to the core business activities of the university; research and all those activities that would increase university performance in this area, such as library, were negated or received the least share of mobilized resources. As indicated elsewhere, one of the key challenges universities face is financial allocation. Muriisa (2010) has thus argued that it is this challenge that limits university's performance.

Klitgaard (2008) summarizes the role of the chief executive – the president of the university – as maintenance of existing institutional resources and the creation of new resources; has ultimate managerial responsibility for a large area of non-academic activities; is responsible for public understanding; and by the nature of the office is the chief person who speaks for the institution. In these and other areas the president's work is to plan, to organize, to direct, and to represent.

Hypothetical Framework: The Role of Leadership in Influencing the Performance of Universities in Uganda



This model places leadership at the centre of all other factors influencing university performance. Based on the previous discussions, the model shows that leadership influences the way universities are structured (internal organization and control), it influences how external pressure is absorbed by the organization and all leadership has an overall influence on the performance of the university. The model is, however, a simplification of what really takes place as actual practice may be somewhat different. It has to be noted that variables are linked to each other in a complex web and the relationship may not be as clear-cut as put in the model. But the model provides a basis for analysis of what takes place in universities and how this affects effective leadership.

The Role of Universities

Universities play three key roles: research, teaching and service. Over time, however, these roles are so muffled that it is now hard to make a distinction between what universities and other higher institutions do. Research for the sake of knowledge has been replaced by research for its usefulness; professors are chasing consultancies and commissioned research, universities are ceasing to do research and are becoming 'teaching factories' (Halvosen 2010, 211). Universities are expected to do research-based teaching and dissemination of research-based knowledge. As we shall present later, quality teaching is no longer guaranteed in the universities, the traditional approach to knowledge dissemination characterized by teaching and tutorials is almost gone. Service

– what Mwiandi (2010) calls the third mission of the university – is in the form of research-based professional service offered to communities. Community service offered by professors and university community is usually on voluntary basis; but it is the remunerated outreach programmes that now dominate in the name of community service. Like good research and quality teaching, voluntary community service is almost no more. The only community service still in place now is student placement and internships in the industry. Professors themselves almost have no time to offer professional service because they are engaged in consultancy work; they are busy moonlighting. These issues are some of the salient issues that confront the leadership of our universities. How has leadership approached these issues in universities? The key question that professors are asked now is how much money they have brought into the university, not how much they have contributed in terms of knowledge and service. Promotions are no longer seriously based on research but on the ability to fundraise for the university.

In this paper, I argue that the functioning of a university is strongly influenced by external and internal pressures, but leadership has a role of balancing these pressures and steering the university onto the right course. Ideally, therefore, the argument raised in the paper is that effective leadership is challenged by the need to balance the internal and external pressures. In the following segment, I discuss how university and leadership contribute to the demise of African/Ugandan universities in the way they play their roles.

Teaching

The African university is supposed to be an engine of sustainable development. Indeed, the creation of universities in post-colonial Africa aimed at developing African countries. The development of the university fitted well in the whole development agenda of post-independence African states; to develop institutions for national development. Investments in industry, agriculture, health, etc., all had the same aim; they were for national development. Thus development of the university fitted perfectly within this framework and the universities were considered an indispensable agency for state building (Assie-Lumumba 2008). Universities were established principally to aid the new states build up their capacity to develop and manage their resources, alleviate the poverty of the majority of the people and close the gap between them and the developed world (Sawyer 2004: 2). It is within this framework that politicians and other stakeholders demand for relevance. The demand for relevance has overshadowed the role of universities as providers of solutions to today's and future problems. Governments demand that universities should produce the human resource the economy demands; students and parents demand that

universities should provide education programmes that would guarantee employment after graduation; while the market (business and corporate sector) demands that universities produce graduates that would solve their problems without further training; thus firms no longer focus on general ability but on vocational skills as basis of employment. Responding to these demands, the higher purpose of universities as research institutions – doing research and training researchers – research based training (Mamdani 2012) is avoided. It is within this framework that skills-based training and vocationalization of university education and changing traditional technical schools and vocational institutes in most African universities are being turned into universities without paying attention to the qualities and demands of universities (see, for example, Mwiandi 2010; Muriisa 2010).

I argue that the university's leadership role of planning and directing has failed in this regard. It should be noted that today's university programmes are defined by the market, and leaders are swayed in all directions as long as the market does exist for these programmes, and as long as they can mobilize money for universities no matter how. For Halvosen (2010: 211) 'knowledge shopping', that is anything that makes up for lack of public funding or student loans, like fee-paying students, professors doing consultancies and chasing for commissioned research, or universities securing their finances through patents and parking fees is, first of all, driving the way research universities[1] work, more than the ideals of research-based teaching, and the dissemination of research-based knowledge.

Leadership, Reform Process and Decline in Quality Teaching

Universities in Africa are depicted as being in crisis; crisis of funding, lack of adequate facilities and major infrastructure to stir their countries' development. The contribution to development is muffled by the current neo-liberal approach to university service provision. Within the neo-liberal approach, universities in Africa, and Uganda in particular, have resorted to producing only saleable programmes. Universities have changed their curriculum, introduced brand-name courses, and as part of a solution to the lack of teaching space caused by increased enrolment, have started parallel programmes such as evening, weekend and classes running late into the night. These changes have different implications for the quality of teaching. It is stated that the quality of education has deteriorated (NCHE 2007) following the entry of sub-standard providers (World Bank 2008). Furthermore, it is stated that neo-liberalism has resulted in increased – but not always healthy – competition between departments and faculties, as evidenced at Makerere University, resulting into duplication of programmes of even poor quality (Mamdani 2007).

Liberalization of university education, particularly its privatization, was introduced upon the recommendation of the World Bank which made government to reduce investment in this sector, thus drastically limiting funding for this sector of education. In the 1980s, whenever government faced financial problems, the university's budget automatically faced cuts. The financial cuts continued in the 1990s with World Bank's calling for governments to direct funding to primary education. According to Mamdani (2007: 7), in 1990-1991 when government effected the 30 per cent mandatory cut, the university had also to share the misfortune. As priority funding of lower education took effect in 1990s, the viability of investing in higher education for social, economic and political development became questioned. The World Bank argument was that investing in higher education increases social inequality which should be redressed by minimizing public spending in this sector and prioritizing the funding of primary and basic education for equitable and cost effectiveness (World Bank 1995: 12). The Bank prescribed that:

a. Institutions should be encouraged to differentiate the education system to move away from the single-tier system to allow private programmes and programmes offered at different times of the day – hence, daytime and evening programmes were introduced;
b. Government and university authorities should diversify funding sources, allow cost sharing and reform the public funding approach to take care of role performance;
c. Universities should redefine their relationship with government, and focus more on quality, responsiveness and equity (World Bank 1995).

Introducing marketable, relevant and sustainable programmes of study became the character of the privatization process; curriculum change and design was done in favour of the market – with students and government demanding for relevance. Commercialization of higher education attracted more students and the expansion of number of students paid no attention to the teaching and research facilities. Open competition for saleable courses and programmes became the defining characteristic of university departments as pioneered by Makerere University (Mamdani 2007). Hanson and Léautier (2011) have argued that universities are caught between their traditional missions – pursuing truth through research and excellence in teaching – and excelling in market-driven programmes. Confronted with challenge of declining finances, Makerere University's leadership focused on engineering the reform process. Privatization was aimed at bringing greater benefits to staff and the institution in general in terms of the financial resources it would bring. Privatization of education

went hand in hand with commercialization of education. The practice started with Makerere University has now affected almost all universities. It should be noted that commercialization was more of a challenge than privatization. In a bid to produce saleable programmes and to be 'relevant', universities ignored disciplinary divides and foundations and opted for vocationalization of academic programmes; a travesty that proper leadership would have been expected to handle. But, as already noted, being prone to financial crisis, the main concern of the university leadership was finance. And this overshadowed all the quality challenges that came along with commercialization of programmes. The responsibility of not safeguarding disciplines and quality cannot be blamed on any other agency involved in the reform process but on leadership (Mamdani 2007).

In 2006, the National Council for Higher Education reported that private universities were spending 0.4 per cent of their budgets on research and more than 50 per cent on infrastructural development. Another National Council for Higher Education report on 16 universities, four of which are public (Makerere, Mbarara, Kyambogo and Gulu), shows that 1.1 per cent of budget was spent on research and 70.2 per cent on staff welfare (cited in Kasozi 2009: 145–146). Even the little that is allocated to research often gets diverted to other uses that more crucial to the survival of the universities (NCHE 2005). Also, research inputs such as books, equipment, subscription to journals and recruitment of qualified academic staff are very limited (Ajayi, Goma and Johnson 1996). As indicated, the consequence of minimal funding of university education is the concentration of effort on the welfare of staff and students instead of focusing on the core activities of the university. The leadership of the university pays greater attention to generating funds than the core missions of the university. The result is minimal research activity, low-quality teaching and virtually no service to community by universities.

Ideally, good leadership is expected to guide universities as they advance into new ventures – corporate organizations – as well as on how they allocate their funds. Universities need leaders with discretion: people who can change the inclement environment, lobby governments to change the legislation in favour of a privatization that maintains university autonomy and academic freedom. In the African setting, university leadership is confronted with leadership selection. Most top executives of universities in Africa are appointed but must be seconded or confirmed by government (Hanson and Léautier 2011). There is limited commitment by such leaders to move universities in the direction that may not be in agreement with government's decision. Governments may chose to close programmes and leaders emerging from this scenario cannot be expected to put up any resistance because of their inclination

to appease government. In addition, most appointments of vice-chancellors of the universities are based on the business plans they have drawn for the universities and their track record for fundraising; it is not so much on their academic credentials anymore (Sawyer 2004).

It has been argued that the leader of the institution must look at the institution not in the context of the pressure but must seek to align its vision and mission with the changing environment (Hanson and Léautier 2011). In the era of commercialization of education, universities are driven in all directions by multiple stakeholders; hence there is no longer talk of academic freedom or autonomy since universities have to produce only what is demanded and saleable. With the increasing stakeholders in higher education there is increased demand for relevance, but the question to ask is: whose relevance is being talked about? (Brennan 2007). Universities should be in a position to define what is relevant and what is not. It would take a visionary leader in this scenario to seek to maintain the university vision and mission while responding to pressures and demands from society. Such leader would first attempt to scientifically predict the impact of external pressures on the functioning of the university and work out strategies to meet them. Relevance defined from each stakeholder's point of view makes universities less focused on their purpose. It is no wonder that Smith (2007) argues that universities in the south are having a crisis of purpose. The crisis of purpose goes along with loss of academic autonomy and freedom which universities once enjoyed. The reason for this loss of autonomy is the demands and pressures from the many stakeholders. With multiple pressures, the universities, therefore, tend to give up their autonomy in trying to be relevant and responsive to multiple demands. Thus, Kasozi (2003: 116) points out that given that universities access public and private funds '…to train students who will seek jobs in a changing and competitive job market, to tap research funds at home and abroad, to justify their existence to the public and to set internal mechanisms of control, they have no option but to give up part of their institutional autonomy by subjecting themselves to external judgment on agreed quality indicators'.

The role of the leader in this regard is to resist changes that may impact negatively on roles and mission of a university. Theories about leadership contend that the leader should take a responsive role, which is concerned with adapting the organization to demands and constraints imposed by its environment. The role of the leader is to obtain information on the state of the environment and estimate its implications on the organizational functioning of the university; that is what defines where to draw the line and resist external pressure. Thus, Sawyer argues that universities must reclaim their glory as places of scholarship and debate. But for this to happen university leadership

must take the initiative and resist the pressure to concede the core values of the university in the quest for the 'survival of the institution' (Sawyer 2004: 26). Leaders must resist conceding everything for the sake of survival. The task of leadership is to convince the public and government that the core value of the university goes beyond teaching and production of skills for the market, 'that indeed, the longer term interests of society are best served by the university as a thinking and learning space'.

Leadership and Declining Research

While research decline has already been alluded to before, it is imperative place particular stress on the trend of research going on in universities now. Although universities are part of the higher education system, what distinguishes them from other institutions of higher learning is that universities offer training and advance new knowledge while other tertiary institutions focus basically on training. According to Assie-Lumumba (2006: 9) training connotes the acquisition of technical skills aimed at performing specific tasks without necessarily an opportunity or the requirement for the learner to acquire competence in critical thinking, broader knowledge and character to understanding the wider education and societal contexts. But the pressure on university education has almost made this character impossible to maintain even in universities. Since the 1970s, universities in Africa and particularly Uganda, have seen unprecedented declines in research, training, and community service.

African universities have registered a decline in research and research based-training. Current indicators show that the contribution of African universities to international referred journals was registered at less than 2 per cent, and most of them coming from Egypt and South Africa (Muriisa 2010). In Uganda where over 30 universities are registered as operating, only Makerere University appears on the list of 50 best universities doing research. But the listing also appears one-sided since on the 100 best universities contributing to research in humanities and social sciences, Makerere University is not visible. This is not surprising, however, given that the challenges confronting the arts and social sciences in this institution have been clearly elaborated by Mamdani (2007). The decline in research outputs of the university has largely been attributed to public financing and financial governance (Muriisa 2010).

This paper challenges notions of decline of financing since there is enough evidence showing that while public financing of universities in Uganda has declined over time, overall university finances have increased over time; that universities have reaped highly from private financial contribution resulting from student fees, international donor transfers and other non-public financial sources (Mamdani 2007). With the increase in financial resources from other

sources and limited research outputs, Muriisa (2010) contends that good financial practice and transparency are to blame for the abdication of the core roles of the university. In this paper, I argue that beyond good financial practice there is the indisputable role of leadership as the central factor in financial planning. Moreover, studies have shown that declining public funding does not necessarily lead to a decline in research and scholarship (Ajayi, Goma, and Johnson 1996; Clark 1998, 2001; Geiger 1986). These researches show that the growth of research universities in Britain and United States took place despite a decline in public funding for universities (Clark 1998; Geiger 1986). In the United States, for example, there was a cutback in federal funding of research in the 1980s, and the universities responded by seeking other sources of funds, notably from industry, something similar to what has taken place in Uganda recently.

In Uganda, public funding reduced but money from other sources such as private programmes increased (Mamdani 2007). In spite of the increase in funding, research outputs did not increase. There are a number of reason why research did not increase; priority spending on the students' and staff well fare, limited time for researchers to do research since much of time is dedicated to teaching and brain circulation – what Mamdani (2007) refers to as moonlighting – since most new universities do not have capacity in terms of staff and the few qualified staff, especially at PhD level, keep moving between universities. Leadership theories present that leaders should have competences and knowledge skills and, as earlier indicated, leadership in universities involves a multitude of persons, including lecturers, who must do research. Without a staffing profile with the requisite capacity (holding PhDs) it is hard for universities to successfully pursue a research role. It is argued that university leadership follows a set of principles akin to shared governance which partly recognizes that 'faculty and professional staff are in the best position to shape and implement curriculum and research policy…' (Klitgaard 2008: 4). Thus, the top executive of the university have limited power to influence decisions. This argument agrees with Lwakabamba's argument that leadership takes place at all levels of the organization and every individual in the organization shares responsibility in leading.

Taken beyond the level of every individual in the organization, it should be noted that most of the top positions in some of these universities are filled with people without PhDs. Tables 1 and 2 show, for example, that staff establishment of Mbarara University of Science and Technology as of June 2011 and January 2015 was only about 30 per cent of the approved establishment. It is especially bereft of the required staffing at the top leadership positions (from senior lectureship to professorial grades). The tables that the positions that

should direct and influence research are clearly not filled. Staff establishment is dominated by people who do not have the required training of doing research. How can such staff inspire others? It is argued that knowledge workers respond to inspiration and not to supervision. Without knowledge and required training (at PhD level) to do research, leaders cannot inspire others to do research. To inspire others, one must lead by example and lead by doing, so that others and subordinates can follow the leaders' paths. With this limitation, inspirational leadership in universities is seriously lacking.

Table 1: Approved vis-à-vis available academic staff establishment at Mbarara University 2011 June[2]

Category/Rank	Approved	Available	Shortfall
Professor	69	3	66
Associate Professor	76	8	68
Senior Lecturers	102	25	77
Lecturers	162	99	63

*Source***:** Mbarara University (2010) as cited in Muriisa (2013).

Table 2: Approved vis-à-vis Available Academic Staff Establishment at Mbarara University as of January 2015

Category/Rank	Approved	Available	Shortfall
Professor	69	10*	59
Associate Professor	76	16*	60
Senior Lecturers	102	39	63
Lecturers	162	85	77

Source: Mbarara University Human Resource office Documents-Staff establishments
** The above staff includes expatriates*

Table 2 shows that staff increase did take place especially at the level of professor, associate professor and senior lecturer where the biggest increase did take place. Another observation shows that there was a decline in the number of lecturers from 99 in 2011 to 85 in 2014. A close examination shows that the rate of decline is the same rate of increase in the number of senior lecturers

(14). The implication of this is that staff establishment did not widen, rather it was as a result of internal promotions. Thus one can therefore say that staff increase at various levels was vertical rather than horizontal which would result into increasing staff numbers through recruitment of new staff. It should also be noted that Mbarara University follows a simple motivational strategy of promoting staff who may not be necessarily competent to handle research. Immediately they complete their Master's programme, they are automatically promoted to the rank of lecturer, a position long abandoned by Makerere University in favour of obtaining a PhD to be promoted to this rank. This may also apply to becoming a senior lecturer especially by appealing to the human resource manual which allows management to waive any condition for promotion. Appendix 5.0 of Mbarara University Human Resource Manual (HRM)[3] states thus 'In exceptional circumstances, the Appointments Board may waive any of these *(conditions to be fulfilled e.g. number of publications in the case of academic staff)* requirements' (MUST Human Resource Manual, pp. 74). The human resource manual, therefore, provides room for manoeuvre and manipulation.

Leadership and Governance of the University

Governance is the process through which organizations, such as universities, direct and controls their functions and relate to their stakeholders in order to achieve their missions and objectives. It relates to the process of decision-making and processes through which decisions are implemented, or otherwise. The implementation of decisions depends on the internal organization of the organization. If organizations are not well structured, this may pose a challenge to leaders and implementers of programmes. Thus, Thomas (2003) points out that internal organization – structure, size of the organization, age of the organization, etc – all matter and exerts influence on the leadership. But leadership may have a role to play in influencing the internal structure of the organization. Recently, Makerere University changed its organizational structure to adopt the collegiate system. Mbarara University of Science and Technology's Faculty of Development Studies with all its Undergraduate programmes, was replaced with the Institute of Interdisciplinary Training and Research (IITR) with an argument that Teaching and Research will improve. The leadership of the New Institute undertook a new turn and produced two new undergraduate programmes; a gamble that the top leadership has now overruled in the interest of research and teaching of the undergraduate service course (this is a course in development studies taught to all other undergraduate students in other faculties and institutes). We are yet to see whether the college system and the restructuring at Mbarara University may have influence on scholarship and

overall university performance. For effective performance, universities need leadership that can organize universities in a manner that allows unhindered scholarship and knowledge generation. Obanya (2007: 36) clearly states that the major problem facing African higher education institutions has been that of putting their homes in order, by instituting effective management, by developing and nurturing strategic plans, by resisting political interference, by frequently re-examining themselves, by investing in quality issues, and by practical engagement in national development issues. This may take place when leadership issues are given consideration, especially given the fact that leadership has responsive, discretional and symbolic roles; roles that impact greatly on scholarship and performance of universities in general.

Conclusion

In this paper, I have presented that universities in Africa and Uganda in particular are confronted with many challenges that have created a new crisis. I have indicated that a lot of these challenges have been discussed, for example, in Zelesa and Olukoshi (2004). Different conferences including the UNESCO1998 Paris conference, have discussed how African universities can be reformed to improve scholarship, training and community service. In all these endeavours, little consideration has been given to leadership challenges.

Universities in Africa and Uganda in general have faced skilled manpower and leadership challenges. From brain drain to brain circulation, clearly African universities do not have enough skilled manpower to confront the challenges of African Universities. This paper has argued that the available skilled leadership, confronted with increased internal and external pressure has paid much attention to outside focus – knowledge economy than support for research, quality teaching and community service. I have presented that universities are under pressure (internal and external) to perform according to government requirements, and to produce according to market demand. Society – government and the market – has given up their role and they look up to the universities for finished products (university graduates) for them to be successful. I have presented that the relevance of universities is thus measured by universities' ability to produce these finished products.

I have argued that confronted with different challenges, universities have changed focus; from research-based teaching to market-based vocational teaching; from research for the sake of knowledge to commissioned research and short-term consultancies; and from community service to internship and student placements. Given this change of direction, it is concluded that the universities should rethink these roles and retrace their steps. It is in this light that the paper draws its argument that proper leadership is the central thing

missing since a focused and thoroughbred leadership – working as planners, resource mobilizers, initiators of university programmes, and serving as role models – is what would ultimately put the universities back on course. The paper thus concludes that leadership is as important as any other crisis facing the universities in Africa and Uganda today. Proper leadership remains the missing link for effective and visionary performance of universities. It is thus recommended that universities' performance may not improve until leadership is given critical attention.

Notes

1. Research universities are clearly distinct from other universities in a sense that research guides the operations of such university but universities themselves as a precondition for their existence must do research, research based teaching and knowledge dissemination, to make them distinct from skills-based training institutions.
2. By this date, there were no fresh recruitments and promotions
3. http://www.must.ac.ug/sites/default/files/Human%20Resource%20Manual.pdf 11/08/14
4. Added explanation

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JHEA/RESA Vol. 12, No. 1, 2014, pp. 93-110

(ISSN 0851–7762)

The Social Sciences at the Crossroads: Challenges and Opportunities at Addis Ababa University

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Abstract

The social sciences are at the crossroads in Ethiopia. This is because government's overt policy favours the scientific and engineering disciplines and this translates to allocating more money to them. This could lead to acute shortage of research funding for MA and PhD programmes in the social sciences and lack of investment in infrastructure, resulting in shortage of office space for staff and shortage of classrooms and offices for PhD students. In the long run, this could lead to much lower support for staff development with fewer and fewer students choosing social science fields. But the social sciences can convert these challenges into opportunities. One way of doing this is to emphasize quality education – this being the key issue identified in recent debates on the nature and direction of higher education in Ethiopia. The saying 'small is beautiful', which in this case can be stated, 'small is viable', is applicable to the future of the social sciences in the Ethiopian higher education system. A manageable student size, both at the undergraduate and graduate level, can help the social sciences to provide relevant and quality education for their students.

Résumé

Les sciences sociales sont à la croisée des chemins en Ethiopie. En effet, la stratégie ouverte du gouvernement a favorisé les disciplines scientifiques et l'ingénierie et cela se traduit par l'allocation de plus de fonds à celles-ci. Il pourrait en résulter un manque criant de financement de la recherche pour les programmes de Master et de Doctorat en sciences sociales et le

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manque d'investissement dans les infrastructures qui aura pour conséquence le manque de locaux pour le personnel et le manque de salles de classes et de bureaux pour les d'étudiants de 3ème cycle. A long terme, il pourrait en résulter un appui beaucoup moindre en ce qui concerne le perfectionnement du personnel avec de moins en moins d'étudiants choisissant les domaines des sciences sociales. Mais les sciences sociales peuvent transformer ces défis en opportunités. Pour ce faire, il conviendrait de mettre l'accent sur l'éducation de qualité – ce volet étant la question centrale identifiée récemment dans le cadre de débats sur la nature et l'orientation de l'enseignement supérieur en Ethiopie. L'adage bien connu « tout ce qui est petit est mignon », qui pour ce qui concerne le cas présent peut être résumé par « tout ce qui est petit est viable », peut s'appliquer à l'avenir des sciences sociales dans le système de l'enseignement supérieur éthiopien. Un effectif d'étudiants suffisamment gérable, aussi bien pour les deux premiers cycles que pour le troisième cycle, pourrait permettre aux sciences sociales de garantir à leurs étudiants un enseignement pertinent et de qualité.

Background

Higher education is largely a twentieth century experience in Ethiopia despite the highly sophisticated Christian-and Quran-based schools that have long been existing in the country (Amare 2005; Mekasha 2005). With the founding of the University College of Addis Ababa (UCAA) in 1950, this premier University in the country had its modest beginning at Arat Kilo Campus (Habtamu 2008).At the time, the core teaching faculty were expatriate staff from USA and Canada. In 1962, the University College was upgraded and renamed Haile Selassie I University, after the then emperor of Ethiopia. Following the overthrow of the Imperial regime in 1974, the University was renamed Addis Ababa University (AAU). It remained the only national university for a decade, serving as an umbrella institution for the different agriculture-and health science-related colleges established in various parts of the country at different times, including Alemaya College of Agriculture, Awassa College of Agriculture, Gondar College of Health, and Bahirdar Teachers' College.

The dominance of this University as the only national university came to an end in 1985 when Alemaya Agricultural College was upgraded to Alemaya University. With the coming to power of Ethiopian Peoples' Revolutionary Democratic Front (EPRDF) after defeating the Marxist-Leninist Mengistu-led government in 1991, the late 1990s ushered an era of expansion of university education in the country with many existing colleges being upgraded to university status by end of the 1990s and beginning of 2000s. The list includes Jimma University, Hawassa University, Bahirdar University, and Gondar University. Most of them were created by the merger of existing colleges (Ashcroft 2004).

New Universities were established in the 2000s.Among these second generation universities were Dire Dawa University, Dire-Dawa; Jijiga University, Jijjiga; Semera University, Semera;Wellega University, Nekemte; Debre Markos University, Debre Markos; and Debre Birhan University, Debre Birhan. A third generation of Universities is already being created, including Debre Tabor University in the Amhara region. Currently there are 31 public universities under the management of the Ministry of Education[1] (MOE 2010).

Following the establishment of universities in the different parts of the country, higher institutions' intake capacity has increased remarkably. Annual undergraduate programme admissions into public universities increased from 36,405 in 2004/05 to 147,037 in 2009/10 (M0E 2010). Similarly, undergraduate enrolment increased from 180,117 in 2005/06 to 434,659 in 2009/10. As expected, public expenditure in the education sector also increased from 5.990 billion Birr in 2005/06 to 15.719 billion Birr in 2009/10, the latter representing 25.4 per cent of total government spending in that fiscal year (MOE 2010). Recent statistics also suggests a more robust expansion of higher education in Ethiopia, with undergraduate enrolment reaching 494,110 in 2011/12 academic year and postgraduate enrolment rising to 25,660 during the same period (MOE 2012). Nevertheless, Ethiopia's higher education enrolment ratio is one of the lowest (1.5 %) compared to, for example, Sudan (7 %), Egypt (38 %), or even Sub-Saharan African average (3 %) (Teshome 2004).

Most of the new universities established their respective social science faculties which, in most cases, is a replication of the structure and curriculum of the Social Science Departments of Addis Ababa University. The establishment of several social science programmes in the different universities at the same time has created acute shortage of instructors and books in the different universities, especially at the undergraduate level. Some of these universities had to send newly recruited graduate assistants to Addis Ababa University to obtain teaching materials by photocopying from books and lecture notes used in the University.

Addis Ababa University has been quite supportive of the newly established universities. To alleviate the problem of shortage of teaching staff faced by them, the University has expanded its postgraduate programmes to create room for the young staff in the new universities to pursue their Master's degrees. To play the role thrust upon it by its premier status successfully, postgraduate enrolment in different disciplines during each session at Addis Ababa University often runs into three digits and, in some cases, some programmes were forced to admit two batches in a single academic year. Thus, Addis Ababa University was overstretched to meet the demands of the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Capacity Building – the two government agencies responsible

for implementing a programme of national capacity building especially in the fields of engineering, medicine and agriculture. This, of course, has affected the quality of higher education in the country.

Meanwhile, government is not the sole provider of higher education in the country as active private sector involvement dates back to the upgrading of Unity College to Unity University College in 2002 (Derese 2008). Several private university colleges were subsequently established from the 1990s through the2000s.These include Kidist Mariam University College, Alfa University College, Admas University College, Rift Valley University College, etc. Currently, there are 56 accredited privately-owned higher institutions in the country. Although none of them has become a full-fledged University yet, some are however looking forward to this upgrading once they fulfil the appropriate requirements set out in the higher learning regulations governing the establishment of universities.[1]

It should also be stated that most of these new institutions have focused on business and management sciences, as well as health and law. A few have started undergraduate programmes in social science disciplines, such as sociology and anthropology; and some have even started offering MA programmes in the social sciences. An example is Kidist Mariam University College which offers an MA in sociology following its accreditation by the Indira Gandhi National Open University. The Rift Valley University College is also in the process of starting the first full-fledged MA programme in Sociology. One main issue of concern there, among others, is that the proposed teaching staff is largely made up of non-sociologists.[2]

Objectives and Research Questions

The main objective of this study is to explore the challenges and opportunities facing the social sciences at Addis Ababa University, taking into consideration the government's recent policies in education and their impacts on the future of the social sciences. From this general objective, the following research questions are formulated:

- What are the challenges facing the study of social sciences in Addis Ababa University?
- How can the social sciences remain relevant in the face of the government's challenging education and training policies?
- What is likely to become of social science scholarship at Addis Ababa University?

Method

The data used in this study was generated using qualitative research approach. Various qualitative research tools were used to generate relevant data. These include interviews, document reviews, direct observation and personal experience. Departmental heads, programme coordinators and assistant deans in the social sciences were interviewed to obtain their views on the status and future direction of the social science studies at Addis Ababa University.

Data on student enrolment and staff disposition in the College of Social Sciences was obtained from the Associate Registrar's Office and the Dean's Office, respectively, while university admission and enrolment data at the national level was obtained from Education Statistics (Annual Abstracts) produced by the Education Management Information System of the Federal Ministry of Education.

The activities of the College of Social Sciences were revealed largely through direct observation and personal experiences of the researcher. The former approach was used as an ongoing qualitative data gathering tool that enabled the researcher to assess the views of staff and students as events unfolded.

The paper also draws on the author's extensive experience in the College of Social Sciences, first as student (1983-1987) and then as a faculty member serving in various capacities: Assistant Dean (1997-2000), MA Sociology programme coordinator (2006-2007), Chair of the then Department of Sociology & Social Anthropology (2007-2008), Chair of the Department of Sociology (2009-2010) and Dean of Faculty of Social Sciences (2010-2012). This rich experience, both administrative and academic, in addition to the teaching and research experience, gave the researcher valuable insight which shaped his thinking about the various issues in the College of Social Sciences.

Finally, the collected data was organized and analysed thematically. All the issues that emerged from the different approaches were used to create themes describing the challenges and opportunities facing the study of social science disciplines at the Addis Ababa University.

Overview of the History of the Social Sciences

The Faculty of Arts, which was established in 1952, preceded the College of Social Sciences by two decades, the latter having been established in 1978. During the first decade of university education in Ethiopia, most social science courses were offered as electives for students majoring in the Arts. It was only in the second decade (from 1960 and onwards) that social science departments such as History (1960-61), Geography (1961) and Social & Political Science (1962) were established as proper academic divisions which then began to

offer courses with the aim of graduating students in their respective fields (College of Social Science Bulletin 2007). The teaching of social sciences in Ethiopian higher institutions continued throughout the 1960s and early 1970s even though the name 'social science' was not used until late 1970s. By 1978 all the cognate social science disciplines were formally organized into the College of Social Sciences.

As originally constituted, the College of Social Sciences was quite broad. Among the major divisions under its banner were the Departments of Accounting, Economics, Geography, History, Management, Philosophy, Political Science & International Relations and Applied Sociology. Its canvas was however reduced in 1992 when the Faculty of Business and Economics consisting of the Departments of Economics, Accounting, and Management was established. In 2008 the new Department of Social Anthropology, which was then part of the Department of Sociology and Social Anthropology, was established and in 2010 the Department of Archaeology and Heritage Management was created out of the former Department of History and Heritage Management.

However, the new university organization, following the implementation of the Business Process Reengineering plan (BPR) (in 2010 left the College without the Department of Philosophy, which was forced to join the Faculty of Humanities, despite repeated appeals from staff and students to let it remain within the social sciences. The college was also renamed Faculty of Social Sciences and was placed under an umbrella administrative organization – College of Social Sciences and Humanities, comprising three Faculties – Humanities, Languages and Social Sciences.

Each faculty was headed by a dean and allowed to retain its academic autonomy, while a college director was appointed to oversee inter-faculty academic integration and administrative issues including the appointment of support staff, finance and purchasing. The appointment of college directors over faculty deans created anomalies in terms of the undefined/under-defined role of the former in faculty affairs. In the new University structure the two positions were connected by dots (…) and became equally answerable to the Academic Vice-President and this made the director's position somewhat redundant as only the deans had an executive role in dealing with faculty matters.

This apparently awkward structure lasted only two years. The appointment of a new University president at the beginning of 2011 led to the restructuring of the University in 2012 – this time the restructuring was more streamlined and more focused in terms of integrating the various allied disciplines. The social sciences emerged bigger and stronger by incorporating a school and an institute. The Department of Philosophy was returned to its 'rightful' place as member of the Social Sciences family, and School of Social Work as well as

Institute of African Studies joined the Social Sciences to be become 'College of Social Sciences'.

Academic Units

The core academic units of the College are the seven departments, one school and one institute. Listed in their alphabetical order, they are Department of Archaeology & Heritage Management; Department of Geography & Environmental Studies; Department of History; Department of Philosophy; Department of Political Science & International Relations; Department of Social Anthropology; Department of Sociology; School of Social Work; and African Studies Centre.

All of them have undergraduate and postgraduate programmes except the African Studies Centrr which only runs an MA course in African Studies (see Table 1).

The programmes are offered in three modalities: regular (day), evening, and summer. The regular programme is common to all the departments/school/institute while the evening programme is mostly available at the undergraduate level. The Department of Geography & Environmental Studies and School of Social Work have recently begun to offer an evening MA programme. The summer programme is traditionally intended for geography and history teachers who would like to upgrade their education from diploma to degree.

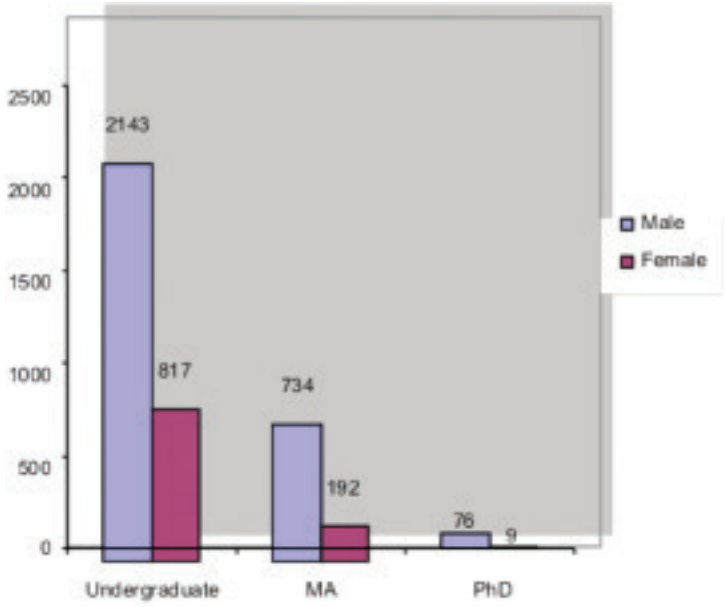
Table 1: Social Science Departments and their Programmes

Department/School/ Institute	Programme (√)		
	Undergraduate	MA	PhD
Archaeology & HM	√	√	-
Geography & ES	√	√	√
History	√	√	√
Philosophy	√	√	-
Political Science & IR	√	√	√
Social Anthropology	√	√	√
Sociology	√	√	√
Social Work	√	√	√
African Studies	-	√	-

Source: Compiled by the author from the respective departments.

While student enrolment in the College has been fluctuating over the years, close to 4,000 students were enrolled in the various departments and programmes in 2011/12 academic year.

Figure 1: Student Enrolment by Sex and Programme, 2011/12 AY



Source: Associate Registrar's Office, College of Social Sciences

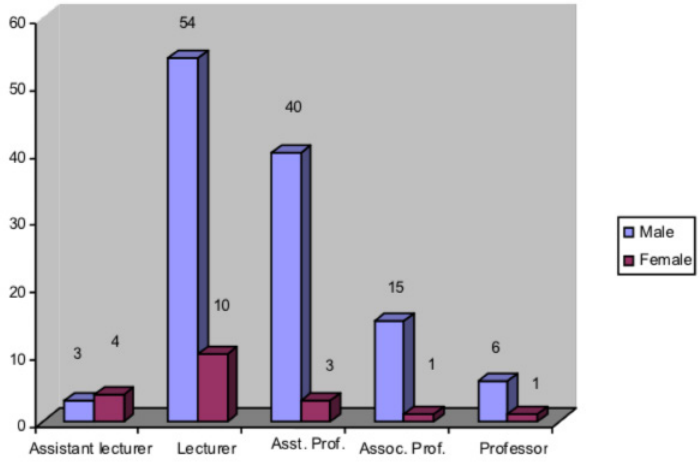
From Figure 1, it is clear that girls' education lags behind that of boys at all levels of the higher education system. However, the disparity between the two groups widens from undergraduate level (only 28 % are girls) to MA (21 %) and then PhD (11 %). It should also be noted that the expansion of PhD programmes occurred only in the last five years in response to government's push for local capacity building through the training of university instructors at that level. The Department of History, however, has had a long-running PhD programme spanning more than two decades.

Staffing

The social science departments of the Addis Ababa University are better equipped with experienced faculty, some of whom have established an excellent reputation in their respective fields, particularly in history and political science. Currently there are 137 teaching staff with various aca-

demic ranks ranging from assistant lecturer to professor. Professors and assistant professors with doctorate degrees or equivalent qualifications make up half of the teaching staff.

Figure 2: Faculty by Sex and Rank as of December 2012



Source: Dean's Office, College of Social Sciences

As shown in Figure 2, men dominate the teaching staff as only 14 per cent of the faculty in the social sciences are women.[3] Moreover, the women occupy the lowest ranks: 74 per cent of them (14 out of 19) have academic ranks of lecturers or assistant lecturers. Individual heads of departments recounted the deliberate efforts they have been making to recruit women lecturers but they hardly stay. They are often tempted away with more rewarding positions in government, international organizations and NGOs compared with their male counterparts. While this suggests that the employment market has become more liberal and women-friendly, it must not be forgotten that the number of qualified women for these positions are relatively small, so it is easy to absorb them.

Challenges

Social science education at AAU has faced a number of challenges. Some of these challenges are political and/policy related; while others relate to the inability of the university to retain qualified staff due to low salary. A University that is grappling with resource constraints could hardly be expected to start embarking on the expansion of graduate programmes, but that is precisely

what has happened at Addis Ababa and that, of course, has implications on the quality of education being offered. The different aspects of these challenges are discussed next.

Oppressive Regime

The first challenge of the social sciences came during the revolutionary period when the Marxist-Leninist government targeted western-educated young social scientists as enemies of the revolution because of their active participation in the student movements of the 1960s and early 1970s. The military regime suspected the fledging Social Science Departments at Addis Ababa University of harbouring anti-establishment elements. The government agents did everything they could to suppress the faculty through the imprisonment of faculty, expulsion of expatriates, and the harassment of teaching staff irrespective of their areas of specialization. This development seriously hampered the growth of higher education in Ethiopia in general. The red terror campaign targeted opposition forces and carried out the mass killing and imprisonment of young educated people. This consumed some of the brightest and most dynamic change agents among the social science students who were actively involved in the student movements. Therefore, the social sciences had to go through a period of hibernation and dormancy to survive the turbulent years of the late 1970s.

The troubled relationship between the Addis Ababa University and government continued through the early years of the present EPRDF-led government. The beginning of the EPRDF reign was marred with suspicion, fear and harsh measures towards Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) in general, and Addis Ababa University in particular *(*Derese 2008: 315). The tension reached boiling point when the government summarily dismissed 42 university professors in April 1993, 17 per cent of them from the social sciences suffered a heavy loss thereby.

Over the years, government's attitude towards the social sciences does not seem to have improved much, and the involvement of some social scientists in the opposition camp partly contributes to this rocky relationship between the government and social sciences. This has had a negative impact on the morale of staff and affected the learning process.

Brain Drain

In the aftermath of the 1974 revolution, a policy of Ethiopianization of the teaching faculty at AAU occurred. To that end, young graduates were recruited as graduate assistants to fill the gap created by the departure of expatriates. As home-grown graduate programmes were largely absent in those days, many of the newly recruited staff had to be sent abroad for further education. Howe-

ver, not all returned after completing their education to resume their teaching duties. Some stayed away in the USA and Europe in search of opportunities for better pay and living conditions. This trend has continued to this day with many social science departments still finding it difficult to attract those who have been educated abroad mostly with PhD qualifications.

In the last 12 years, every social science department has lost at least one staff member, and some have lost more than 50 per cent of those who were sent abroad for further education. The Department of Sociology, for example, was able to regain only 38 per cent of those who went abroad to pursue their MAs and PhDs. The Department of History lost three of the four young staff it sent to the USA for their PhD training after completing their MA locally in the late 1990s.[5] Some other departments (e.g. Sociology, Political Science & International Relations, etc) provided financial support for the training of their staff abroad through project money. Unfortunately, most of these migrant academics have not been able to maintain contacts with their respective home departments. In the end, the departments that sent them abroad have benefited very little from them.

But not all needed to go abroad before leaving their teaching posts. Some have resigned from the job unexpectedly. All these deplete the stock of human capital formation in the social science departments of this premier institution.

Table 2: Brain Drain and Attrition of Academic Staff, 1990-2011

Department	Reasons			
	Fail to return from abroad	Resigna-tion	Disci-plinary action	Dismissal
Archaeology & HM	1	-	-	-
Geography & ES	4	2	1	-
History	4	2	-	
Philosophy	2	1		2
Political Science & IR	3	1	2	3
Social Anthropology	2	9	-	2
Sociology	5	2	-	-
Total	21	17	3	7

Source: Compiled from the respective departments.

Sharing the Cost of Higher Education

Until recently, higher education in Ethiopia used to be entirely public-funded. The trend only changed in 2003/04 when the government introduced a cost-sharing system[5] between the students and the public. This means that students would have to be market-oriented in their choice of fields of study. Their inclination would be to enter into professional fields such as law and business to get good-paying jobs after graduation rather than pursuing the more academic subjects such as sociology or history. Students would have to consider the cost of attending a three-year or four-year bachelor degree (in terms of time, energy, expenses, etc.) against the potential income they would expect to earn after graduation.

The recent history of the job market in the social sciences has been that most students are not likely to get jobs following graduation and even when they do, the jobs available for social science graduates may not earn a good income. Because of this, the share of social sciences in the overall intake of the student populations has been negatively affected. Besides, the cost-sharing scheme appears to partly debar students from poor backgrounds attending higher education (Shimelis 2004) and this in turn would negatively affect enrolment levels in the social science fields.

70/30 Education Policy

Recently, the government introduced the 70/30 education policy designed to increase the intake capacity of engineering, natural science, health, agriculture and related subjects in higher education. All public universities and colleges have to allocate 70 per cent of the admissions to students who would major in the above subjects. The remaining 30 per cent is allocated to business, economics and other social sciences (including law, humanities, languages, education, etc).

It is interesting to note that the social sciences are classified in Band 6 as 'other social sciences' along with humanities and education. As a result, their share in the allocation of new undergraduate students has been substantially reduced. This would have implications in the allocation of budget, staff development and utilization of infrastructure such as office buildings and computer facilities. One such change has been the allocation of social science classrooms to pre-engineering classes while the various social science departments have been forced to use staff offices, documentation centres, computer labs and the like to conduct postgraduate classes.

Quality Vs Quantity

In recent years the government has been pushing towards a policy of mass production of tertiary degree holders, as stipulated in the Higher Education Proclamation Number 351/2003 (FDRE 2003a). To this end, the number of universities has significantly increased to 31 and student enrolment in public universities and colleges has reached more than half a million. In order to meet the growing demand for instructors, the Ministry of Education ordered Addis Ababa University to open as many graduate programmes in many fields as possible[6] and to train as many graduate assistants and lecturers with masters and PhD degrees respectively.

The various social science departments within AAU had to increase their intake capacity of candidates for their respective MA programmes and had to introduce sub-specializations within the various programmes. At one point, some departments (e.g. Geography & ES, Social Anthropology, and Political Science & International Relations) had to admit students twice a year (one in September and another in February) and finding thesis advisors (for as many as 50 to 60 students for each batch) became a headache for departmental heads and programme coordinators. In some departments, each advisor had to supervise as many as 15 MA theses and in many departments it was common to find a lecturer supervising 6-10 MA theses. This has affected the quality of supervision given to students and, ultimately, the quality of education students received. Meanwhile the departments were also ordered by the university to develop PhD curricula and open PhD programmes to train staff for the new universities.[7] Some departments did not have the necessary staff to run a PhD programme, yet they had to comply.

The undue emphasis on postgraduate programmes has also affected the undergraduate programme. Most of the experienced and senior faculty members have been devoted to postgraduate programmes. Consequently, new and less experienced recruits with MA qualifications are now teaching the undergraduate classes. The participation of senior professors in conducting undergraduate courses has been kept to the minimum, mostly confined to advising final-year students with their senior essay projects.

Poor Infrastructure

The rapid expansions in the postgraduate programmes have not been accompanied by provision of improved physical facilities (e.g. buildings) and information technologies (e.g. high speed internet) which would facilitate the teaching-learning process. This is especially the case with the social sciences where all postgraduate programmes (9 MA and 5 PhD programmes in the

College) have to be accommodated within facilities[8] built for the undergraduate programmes. There is one social science building built during the late 1970s but it is now being used by other colleges such as Education and Languages. Some of the lecture rooms have been also vacated to accommodate the ever increasing number of students entering engineering fields.

Consequently, currently there exists an acute shortage of classrooms for postgraduate programmes. Some instructors teaching in the graduate programmes are forced to conduct classes in their offices (for smaller size groups), documentation centres, labs and stores. The existing postgraduate rooms (initially built for large size undergraduate classes) are not equipped with LCD and computers. Instructors have to carry these facilities to and fro every time they conduct classes. The equipments are sometimes not easy to set up and, in any case, they consume much of the lecture time. There is also shortage of office space for instructors and sharing an office (2x4 M^2) for up to 2-3 people has become a common practice. Because of this instructors have to advise students in turn.

Opportunities

Article 6 of the higher education proclamation (351/2003) states that the role of higher education is to train citizens who can serve their country without prejudice to ethnicity, religion and political views. The social sciences, because of their level of understanding of the principles of multiculturalism, diversity and equity are best positioned to inject in citizens a sense of fairness and justice in the provision of public services such as education, and health. Despite the fact that some of the challenges discussed above can be sometimes overwhelming, there is a window of opportunity for the social sciences to convert some of these challenges into positive advantage.

Expansion of Postgraduate Programmes

The expansion of postgraduate programmes has created an opportunity for the various social science departments to enhance their staff development efforts through staff training. The university has actively supported staff development especially for the PhD programmes in two ways: (1) By encouraging graduate assistants (those with BA degree) to pursue their MA locally; and (2) By encouraging lecturers with MA to enrol for PhD programmes at home or compete for government-sponsored PhD programmes in places such as India. These two approaches have helped the social sciences to strengthen their staff development profile.

Besides, the expansion of postgraduate programmes in the social sciences has enabled the various social science departments at the Addis Ababa University to play a leading role in the training of staff for the new universities at MA and PhD levels. This has increased their profile and presence nationally as candidates come from various disciplinary backgrounds in the younger universities, many of which are organized regionally.

70/30 Education Policy

Earlier, it was indicated that the 70/30 education policy that gives priority to engineering and science subjects is likely to weaken social science education nationally as most students are forced to join the science stream starting grade 11 in the high school. However, this too can have a positive contribution to the social sciences in the country. This means that the social science can now concentrate on quality instruction as there would be fewer students in each department and fewer students per batch. For example, admission into sociology department has been reduced by 30-40 per cent in the last three years. As a result, an average class now stands at 50-60 students per batch, down from 80-100 a couple of years back. Reduced class size would enable departments to offer quality education as staff-student ratio increases. Instructors would also have more time to supervise students, give assignments and mark papers and give feedback to their students in time.

Rich Human Capital-base

As noted earlier, social science departments at AAU are provided with a relatively developed human capital in the form of teaching faculty where close to 50 per cent of the faculty have PhDs compared to a mere 10 per cent of senior faculty nationally. They have produced prominent historians, geographers, philosophers, political scientists and sociologists who have made tremendous contribution to national development. Many of them have written books, teaching materials and policy dialogue papers which are used by social science students and others outside the field.

The social sciences have accumulated more than half a century of teaching and research experience that has provided inputs for the establishment of new social science departments in the emerging universities. Many social science professors also provide mentorship for young social scientists who are assuming leadership and lectureship roles in the new universities. A good example has been the contribution of senior faculty members to the design and development of various social science departments (e.g. participation in curriculum development workshops) in the new universities.[10]

Therefore, the social sciences at AAU should continue to play their leading role in the organization and delivery of social science education in the country. They should continue to put to use their rich experience by actively participating in programme development, programme reviews and by making their scholarly work available to young social scientists through publishing, organizing workshops and conferences. However, the brain drain resulting in part from government inability to improve the working conditions of university professors is continuing to pose a threat to AAU's effort to retain senior faculty (Teshome 2004).

Diverse Cultural Landscape

Ethiopia is a diverse country, as reflected in its cultural, linguistic, historical and ethnic outlooks. There are over 80 ethnic groups in the country, each having a distinct history, language and culture. Social science knowledge is important to understand the mosaic nature of Ethiopia and to convert this cultural asset into a positive force for the development of the country. Promoting multiculturalism and pluralism through social science education will help fight seclusion, marginalization and unfair treatment of the minority groups especially, which, as Habtamu (2004:10) notes are threats to democracy, national unity, peace and development.

To address Habtamu's fears, therefore, the various social science departments could employ two approaches. The first is to offer courses (including gender, ethnicity, and nationalism) that contribute to understanding and promoting multiculturalism. The second one is that the College of Social Sciences is made to serve as the sole coordinator of the university-wide course – Civic and Ethical Education – that teaches students about civic duties and ethical responsibilities as citizens.[11] The latter provides an opportunity for the faculty in the social sciences to instil the virtue of building a multicultural society in all students as a vital process of their university education.

Concluding Remarks

As things stand now in Ethiopia, there is no doubt that the social sciences are at the crossroads. The government has an overt policy that is skewed in favour of the scientific and engineering fields. As a result, there would be less government funding for social science education. This could result in acute shortage of research funds for the social science programmes, and lack of investment in infrastructure. It could result in shortage of office space for staff, and classrooms for students, etc. In the long run, staff development could be so affected that fewer and fewer students would want to be in the social science fields.

But the social sciences can convert these challenges into opportunities. One way of doing this is to emphasize quality education – this being the key issue identified in recent debates on the nature and direction of higher education in Ethiopia. The saying 'small is beautiful', which in this case can be stated, 'small is viable', is applicable to the future of the social sciences in the Ethiopian higher education system. A manageable student size, both at the undergraduate and graduate level, can help the social sciences to provide relevant and quality education for their students.

Notes

1. There are four government higher education institutions outside MOE's jurisdiction – Ethiopian Civil Service University, Defense University College, Telecommunications and Information Technology College, and Kotebe College of Teachers' Education.
2. The Higher Education Relevance and Quality Assurance Agency (HERQA) is responsible for giving accreditations for higher education institutions.
3. Only one (out of the four nominated instructors during HERQA's assessment for accreditation) was a sociologist.
4 The national average is that only 7 per cent of the faculty positions are held by women in Ethiopian universities compared, for example, to Morocco (24 %), Tunisia (33 %) and South Africa (36 %) (Habtamu 2004:11).
5. The government attempted to curb the problem of brain drain by requiring staff to produce exit visa and enter into a bond with the University before leaving the country (Baye 2008). But both measures could not halt brain drain.
6. Under this system, students would be given loans to cover meals, accommodation and medical services which they would have to pay in the form of graduate tax from salary or other incomes obtained after they graduate and start to earn a salary.
7 Today the AAU offers some 280 graduate programmes (graduate diploma, specialty certificate, MA/MSC, and PhD).
8. Some departments (e.g. Sociology) that reluctantly started their PhD programmes were scolded by the University president at a meeting of all department heads held sometime in 2007.
9. The social science building which has served the Faculty exclusively since the late 1970s is now shared by departments from Education and Languages.
10. The author himself participated in a number of national workshops on curriculum development leading to the establishment of various social science departments (e.g. Sociology) in the new universities.
11. The role of civic and ethical education in curbing corruption in public institutions was raised at a recent meeting organized by the Federal Ethics and Anti-Corruption Commission. However, poorly developed curriculum and inadequately trained teachers were some of the serious concerns identified to be undermining the role of civic and ethical education in building an ethical citizenry.

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JHEA/RESA Vol. 12, No 1 , 2014, pp. 111-132

(ISSN 0851–7762)

Understanding the Factors that Influence Leadership Effectiveness of Deans in Ghana

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Abstract

The paper describes and examines the factors that influence leadership effectiveness of deans and the concept of competence of deans using the evolution of deanship as a welfare system to a system of accountability in Ghana. The study explores what defines leadership competence in Higher Education in Ghana and how the process of becoming a dean can influence effective performance. Using a qualitative approach, data was collected from 38 respon Three public Universities in Ghana were used for the study. Data was collected from 38 respondents using interviews and survey methods. The respondents include a vice-chancellor, a pro-vice-chancellor, deans, and faculty members. The paper explores the respondents' perception of a competent dean and identifies two categories of competence: *technical competence* and *leadership competence.* Generally, leadership competences are put ahead of technical competences for effective deans' performace. Five core themes for leadership competences were identified and these include *personal competences*, *visionary competences, administrative competences, people competences* and *networking competences*. Also, three processes of becoming a dean have also emerged in Ghana. These are the *elective,* the *selective* and the *appointive* processes. The study finds that the effectiveness of deans is largely influenced by inadequate leadership competences and grooming, absence of clearly defined and well communicated job descriptions as well as performance management practices that seek accountability of deans in Ghana. The study recommends the

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appointment of deans through standard recruitment practices, rather than election or selection. It also recommends leadership assessment and training for leadership competences before a dean takes office.

Key Words: Leadership, Competence, Deans, Effectiveness

Résumé

Cet article décrit et examine les facteurs qui influent sur l'efficacité du leadership des doyens des facultés et le concept de compétence des doyens des facultés avec l'évolution du décanat comme système de promotion sociale vers un système de reddition de compte au Ghana. L'étude vise à déterminer ce qui définit les compétences de leadership au niveau de l'enseignement supérieur au Ghana et comment le processus de nomination des doyens des facultés peut influencer la performance efficace. A l'aide d'une approche qualitative, trois universités publiques du Ghana ont été ciblées dans l'étude. Les données ont été collectées à partir de 38 personnes interrogées par interviews et à l'aide de méthodes d'enquête. Parmi les personnes interrogées, il y avait un vice-recteur, un pro-vice-recteur, des doyens des facultés et des membres du corps enseignant. L'étude vise à déterminer la perception des personnes interrogées vis-à-vis d'un doyen compétent et identifie deux catégories de compétences: les compétences techniques et les compétences de leadership. En général, les compétences de leadership l'emportent sur les compétences techniques en ce qui concerne la performance efficace de la fonction de doyens de facultés. Cinq thèmes clés relatifs aux compétences de leadership ont été identifiés notamment les compétences personnelles, les compétences visionnaires, les compétences administratives, les compétences des hommes et les compétences de mise en réseau. Tous les trois processus de nomination des doyens des facultés ont aussi vu le jour au Ghana. Il s'agit des processus électif, sélectif et de nomination. L'étude relève que l'efficacité des doyens des facultés est en grande partie influencée par le manque de compétences de leadership et de confiance, l'absence de description de postes clairement définis et bien communiqués ainsi que des pratiques de gestion des performances qui requièrent la reddition des comptes des doyens des facultés au Ghana. L'étude recommande la nomination des doyens de facultés selon les processus de recrutement standards, plutôt que par élection ou sélection. Elle recommande aussi l'évaluation du leadership et la formation en matière de compétences de leadership avant que le doyen ne prenne fonction.

Mots clés: Leadership, Compétence, Doyens des facultés, Efficacité

Introduction

Leadership effectiveness is a topic that continues to stimulate considerable attention in common and scholarly literature (Waldman, Ramirez, House & Puranam, 2001). Contemporary trends and the effects of globalization, massification, commoditization and other challenges in higher education, have made the quest of effective leadership and governance even more relevant in the academia. Developing an understanding of what constitutes effective leadership, however, has been a complex undertaking. Bryman (2009) and Cameron (1986) maintain that the debate has ranged from the belief that leadership is a 'useless concept' particularly in the academia where competence or the professional nature of academics as well as the task structure can substitute for or neutralize the effects of leadership making it a useless concept; to Day and Lord's (1986) assertion that, after controlling for confounding errors, differences in executive leadership explained as much as 45 per cent of an organization's performance. Views on the effects of leadership on performance have generally been divided between 'Individualists and Contextualists'. The Individualists support the position that leaders have a significant and possibly crucial impact on the performance of the organizations they lead. The Contextualist, on the other hand, emphasize that the contributions of individual leaders are limited by situational factors. Ulrich, Zenger and Smallwood (1999) acknowledge the importance of individual leadership attributes; however, they conclude that without a connection to organizational results, these attributes are insufficient in helping to explain leadership effectiveness because they are often based on 360-degree assessments which attempt to establish a link with individual leader effectiveness by focusing upon relationships between these instruments and criteria such as supervisors' assessments of promotability, performance appraisal ratings, actual promotions, and desired organizational outcomes (Fleenor & Bryant, 2002; CCL, 2000). On the other hand, from a phenomelogical perspective, the Individualists argue the importance of leadership and, in particular, the leader's role, by citing cases like the seminal contest between the Norwegian and the English in 1910 in which the Norwegians and English engaged in a dramatic and highly publicized race to the South Pole. This contest has been described as an epic contest, and the contrast between the performance of the Norwegian team led by Roald Amundsen and the English team led by Robert Falcon Scott provided a real-life study in leadership and team performance. Scott's leadership incompetence cost him the race, his life, and the lives of three team members (Fleenor &Bryant 2002). The question, however, is whether leadership competence can make such difference in higher education institutions? Does leadership competence affect deanship

effectiveness in Universities in Ghana? What defines leadership competence in Higher Education in Ghana? How does the process of becoming a dean influence effectiveness? Using the experiences in three universities in Accra, the study sought to explore these questions.

Significance of Leadership Competences for Deans

In recent times, concerns over the competences of deans have come to light (Bryman 2009). This has resulted in a number of initiatives to groom deans in leadership competences, which in the past has not been a key consideration for appointing an incumbent. Deans are traditionally chosen using three key approaches, namely, through *appointment, selection* or *election*. Oftentimes, deans are chosen based on academic rank and experience in a university, not necessarily as a leader. As a middle to top management position in the faculties or schools, deanship requires leadership competences to be effective. Deans, therefore require more leadership competences (conceptual plus relational skills) than technical competences, according to Katz skills-mix typology. Consequently, a number of initiatives have been introduced in recent years to address this shortcoming of present-day deans. Typical examples of recent leadership initiatives for grooming deans for managerial leadership competences include the Management Development (MEDEV) Programme of the Association of African Universities (AAU), the International Deans Course (IDC) supported by DAAD and the CODESRIA Deans Conference 2012, which are all very different in scope and content. From a heuristic perspective, the differences observed in the content of these leadership training initiatives as well as the differences in the concept of leadership in the presentations made at the CODESRIA Deans Conference at Johannesburg in January 2013 suggest that there is no consensus about the notion of *leadership competence* of deans. Subsequently, the notion of what should constitute the set of leadership skills and competences for deans also seem to be a mixed bag. It appears that the relationship between the process of becoming a dean and the competences required for deanship leadership effectiveness have not received adequate attention from researchers, notably in Africa.

A recent study on the factors affecting the quality of leadership in higher institutions of learning in Ghana suggests that though both the individual and contextual factors have significant influences on quality of leadership, personal factors and situational factors have much stronger and significant influences than organizational factors (Alabi and Alabi, 2010). This can be explained by the fact that man controls all the other organizational factors, so the effects of man may actually transcend that of the organizational structures and systems. Even among the four situational factors that Alabi and Alabi (2010) tested in

the study, the most significant proxy was leader-member-relations, which further explains the importance of people-related skills in quality of leadership in higher institutions in Ghana. While personal and situational factors were both significant at 1 per cent level in the baseline study, organizational factors was significant at 5 per cent, which implies that personal and situational factors have stronger influences on quality of leadership in higher education in Ghana than organizational factors. Notable is the fact that for both personal and situational as well as organizational factors the dominant factors are *competence* and *commitment of leaders*; and for personal and organizational factors, *competence* and *commitment of members*. It was against this background that this paper sought to explore the factors that can influence the effectiveness of deans and to test the influences of the two key factors conceptualized from the base line study and abstraction – *Competence of Deans versus the Process for becoming a Dean,* the former being a personal factor and the latter an organizational factor. Additionally, the study sought to explore what defines the notion of leadership competence for deans and to identify which competences deans require to be effective.

Specifically, the questions the paper seeks to explore are:

- What defines competence of an academic dean?
- Which competences can influence a dean's leadership effectiveness
- Between a dean's competence and the process of his selection, which can have stronger influence on effectiveness?
- How does the process of becoming a dean affect commitment and, consequently, effectiveness?

Leadership in Higher Education

Alabi (2011) reports Bolden's (2008) argument that leadership is a relatively new concept within the higher education sector and is thus harder to define. Bolden also reports that Hefce (2004), in setting out a strategic plan for the UK higher education sector, defined leadership as 'Agreeing strategic direction in discussion with others and communicating this within the organization; ensuring that there is the capability, capacity and resources to deliver planned strategic outcomes; and supporting and monitoring delivery. As such this definition embraces elements of governance and elements of management' (Hefce, 2004: 35). Bolden further argues that such a definition, however, offers little insight into how leadership is actually demonstrated in higher education. Furthermore, it neglects the long and heated debate on the nature of leadership that makes it an 'essentially contested' concept which makes it more difficult to clearly conceptualize in education.

Filan and Seagren (2003: 21) said, 'the context of the higher education leadership mantle is dynamic, complex and multidimensional'. The elusiveness of the leadership notion has enticed researchers to interpret, capture and analyse the essence of leadership in higher education from different perspectives. Although these studies identified leadership as a concrete and observable phenomenon, no consensus has yet been reached on the exact characteristics of a successful leader in higher education (Buller, 2006: 159). The concept of *leadership in higher education* thus presents numerous opportunities for further investigation.

Dimensions of Leadership Effectiveness

In line with Houston and Dockstader (2002), Alabi and Alabi (2010) conceptualize quality of leadership as the ability to achieve a vision and continuously improve the human, economic and social capital of the organization or outfit in a sustainable manner. Every leader who wants to give quality leadership must first have a vision, mobilize resources to achieve that vision and use the resources prudently to achieve and improve upon what is achieved (Zhu, Chew and Spangler, 2005). Leadership in this context is, therefore, not limited to human aspects of influencing or inspiring commitment towards the goal alone. This view suggests that effective management skills should be a requirement for quality of leadership. This is contrary to the views of an empirical work reported by Owen (2005) who suggests that management skills, such as planning and organization, failed to register in a list of leadership qualities mentioned by a group of 700 top leaders and followers interviewed.

In defining quality leadership, Montgomery (2005) stressed visibility of the leader and nine other elements which include need for a *two-way trust*, *teamwork*, *clear objectives*, *equally clear communication, self-belief, back-up with adequate resources, insistence on good performance, humility, and controlled aggression towards the opposition*. From his perspective, an effective leader has to articulate a vision and communicate that vision clearly for members and stakeholders to buy into it. To him, vision, self-belief, results focus, courage, integrity, teamwork, communication, attentiveness, and commitment cannot form a conclusive whole. He says the perfect blend cannot be achieved without visibility, which is defined as how a leader demonstrates his or her possession (competence) and exercise of all the powers required over time. Additionally, Owen (2005), also emphasizes that key behaviours expected of top leaders include ability to motivate others, vision, honesty and integrity, decisiveness and ability to handle crisis and conflicts. Yukl et al. (2000) have identified 14 categories of leader behaviour, including planning and organizing, problem solving, clarifying, informing, monitoring, motiva-

ting, consulting, and recognizing. Others are supporting, managing conflict and team building, networking, delegating, developing and mentoring, and rewarding. Another study by Fleenor and Bryant (2002), used a 360-degree feedback instrument that solicits ratings from several sources (e.g., self, boss, peers, direct reports), to collect effectiveness data for the managers in a study. Fleenor and Bryant used a 22-scale benchmark on six 'derailment' main scales (which was adopted from CCL, 2000: 3) to measure problem areas that can stall a career as indicated below:

1. *Problems with Interpersonal Relationships* – insensitive, cold, aloof, arrogant.
2. *Difficulty in Molding a Staff* – over-manages, unable to staff effectively.
3. *Difficulty in Making Strategic Transitions* – unable to think strategically.
4. *Lack of Follow-Through* – overly ambitious, untrustworthy.
5. *Overdependence* – overdependent on advocate or mentor.
6. *Strategic Differences with Management* – unable to adapt to a boss with different style.

The results of the Fleenor and Bryant (2002) show that, for self-ratings, all of the derailment scales are significantly related to the Denison scores. However, all of the indicators with the exception of 'problems with interpersonal relationships and difficulty moulding a staff' are consistent.

However, these attributes are characteristics of leaders and do not necessarily describe conditions necessary for effective leadership. Leadership effectiveness is seen as ability to move people to achieve results in a consistent manner (CCL 2000).

Deans as Effective Leaders

Research on deans and their leadership effectiveness is sparse. Effective leaders are often described as being visionary, equipped with strategies, a plan and desire to direct their teams and services to a future goal (Mahoney, 2001). Effective leaders are also required to use problem-solving processes, maintain group effectiveness and develop group identification. They should also be dynamic, passionate, have a motivational influence on other people, be solution-focused and seek to inspire others. Bryman (2009) conducted a meta-analysis in 2009 and reports that a US study by Rosser et al. assesses the degree to which deans were viewed as effective among faculty in a university. A research instrument was developed by a committee covering a variety of constituencies, including the researchers. The committee agreed that deans' effectiveness should be assessed through seven domains. Bryman further

opines that these domains are interesting in their own right, because they suggest the kinds of dimensions that are typically viewed as key to leadership effectiveness. They are:

- ***Vision*** and goal setting (includes emphasizing teaching and research excellence, encouraging faculty development, providing leadership for initiatives) similar to the baseline study used for this study.
- ***Management of the unit*** (includes managing change, delegating work, problem solving)
- ***Interpersonal relationships*** (includes awareness of faculty professional and career needs, being accessible)
- ***Communication skills*** (representing academic unit to administrators, representing administration to heads, clear reports and correspondence)
- ***Research, professional and community endeavours*** (includes maintaining own research agenda, teaching, personal growth opportunities)
- ***Quality of unit's education*** (advancing programmes effectively, handling accreditation issues, ensuring fair tenure and promotion procedures)
- ***Support for institutional diversity*** (includes supporting equal opportunities, and mentoring women and under-represented groups).

Secondly, the domain in which they performed least well was 'research, professional and community endeavours', suggesting either that the press of duties and responsibilities on deans results in them neglecting their own self-leadership, or that their move into a predominantly administrative and political role results in them leaving certain areas of academic activity behind them.

Creswell and Brown are cited by Bryman (2009) to have reported the findings of a qualitative study of 33 US departmental chairs who had been identified as having excelled in their roles as heads. They identified six discrete roles that emerged out of an examination of specific examples that the interviewees gave of helping a member of academic staff to grow professionally:

- ***Provider***: Facilitating the scholarly work of staff through arranging resources and informing/enabling/adjusting workloads and schedules to smooth the progress of the scholarly activity of staff.
- ***Advocacy***: Championing the cause of staff within and beyond the university.
- ***Mentorship***: Acting as models for research activities, sharing knowledge and expertise about publishing and funding, and commenting on others' work.
- ***Encouraging***: Identifying what kinds of encouragement are needed for staff.

- ***Collaborating:*** Collaborating with staff over publications, etc. This occurred least frequently (12 out of 33 chairs) because it is time-consuming.
- ***Challenging***: Prodding and inspiring others towards better performance and monitoring progress.

Creswell and Brown also report that the degree to which these roles were employed varied according to the stage of career of a member of academic staff. The roles of providing and enabling are consistent with the finding that initiating structure is important to the head's role; and mentorship, with its emphasis on modelling behaviour, being consistent with idealized influence.

Benoit and Graham are also mentioned to have reported the findings of a similar kind of study in the USA. These findings derive from an examination of the leadership of 13 departmental chairs who had been identified as successful by their peers. They distinguish between four groups of roles: Administrative, Leadership, Interpersonal, and Resource development. The leadership roles are obviously of particular interest in this context. Bryman concludes that the four most *prominent aspects of leadership roles among* these successful leaders were: (i) Being visionary; (ii) Being an internal advocate (promoting the department to internal audiences); (iii) Undertaking external liaison (advancing the department through contacts with external constituencies): (iv) Treating faculty with respect (ability to represent faculty or department to central administration, ability to say 'no' when necessary, enthusiasm for the department, ability to handle difficult people , possessing a strategic vision for department , ability to foster a collegial department, distributing faculty work equitably, and personal carriage, especially the possession of the key attributes of integrity, honesty and fairness.

Definitions

Effective Leadership, in this study, is defined as ability to work with or through people to achieve the mission and vision of the faculty and the university in a manner that brings about continual improvement.

Operationalizing the Competences of Deans

The study perceives two types of competences of deans: ***technical competences*** and ***leadership competences***. Technical competences refer to qualification, rank and professional respect; while leadership competences are measurable patterns of behaviour essential for managing mission and vision, people and results and to be identified and operationalized by *personal or self-competences*, *competences for working with others* and *performance competences*.

Methodology

Study Design

To gain insights into these questions, a qualitative exploratory design was employed based on mixed method approach involving surveys and interviews. The design was largely informed by an action research strategy which aimed at improving institutional systems and effectiveness of deans. The original objective of the institutional process was to develop functional job descriptions to guide deans in their leadership roles and to serve as the basis for accountability of their leadership in the University of Professional Studies, Accra (UPSA). The study used an open-ended survey approach and in-depth interviews (both face-to-face and telephone) to elicit information on what Heads of Department and lecturers believe should be the set of competences that effective deans should possess. Deans were also asked to identify the set of skills they believe they need to be more effective and the key challenges they face in leading their faculties and schools. The view of the Vice-Chancellor was also sought in the process. Survey data was then collected from two other institutions, one additional public university and one private university in Accra, to enhance understanding of what was considered key characteristics and factors for effective deanship leadership of tertiary institutions in Ghana.

The study also explored questions about the process of becoming deans and how this could affect their effectiveness . The information was collated and grouped by common themes to isolate key competences perceived by academics as being most important for enhancing the effectiveness of deans. Qualitative techniques are normally employed for gaining understanding into social phenomenon.

Population and Sample

The sample frame for the study was made up of the Vice Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, all Deans, all HODs, Programme Coordinators and all lecturers who have been in the University for at least two years. In all, data was gathered from 39 participants made up of the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor, four Deans from Faculties of Accounting and Finance, Management, Communication and Information Technology (IT), and the School of Graduate Studies, three HODs, two Programme Coordinators and three lecturers from each of the three faculties and the Graduate School making 12 lecturers in all. In addition, there were two Deans each from the two other universities, one Vice-Dean, and five lecturers each and an emeritus professor with more than forty years of experience in the two public universities in the study.

Results

What defines competence of an Academic Dean?

When asked the question 'Who is a competent Dean?' a myriad of concepts were thrown up. The following are extracts of some of the responses:

- A competent dean is one who is conscious of the various departments of his institution and who seeks to promote the various units; one who is a team builder and handles conflicts well; one who has networks with various institutions both local and international and one who uses his influence to bring resources to promote teaching and research.
- A competent dean is one who does efficient management of the faculty, ensures collaboration with Heads of the Departments and other Units of the Faculty, encourages faculty members to publish and be promoted and seeks the general welfare of the staff of the faculty
- One who provides academic leadership, cares about the members of the faculty as well as students of the faculty
- A person who is able to marshal resources from internal and external sources within the mandate of the university to manage the faculty effectively
- A competent dean is one who provides good leadership and direction to his /her faculty and liaises well between the Vice-Chancellor and publics.
- A dean who understands the needs of the faculty, and is able to harness the resources needed to lead the faculty effectively.
- A competent dean is one who is able to provide leadership for his faculty as well as combine both material and human resources of the faculty for overall realization of the goals of the faculty and university.
- A competent dean is one who realizes and communicates an understanding that his or her role is most often that of facilitating, the triumphs of the university, colleagues, alumni, students and staff.

Based on the above, the study defines a competent dean as:

> One who does efficient and effective management of the faculty, develops and communicates a strong vision for the Faculty, is able to work with others to achieve the goals of the faculty and aspirations of members, ensures team work and collaboration, resolves conflicts within the faculty, has international and local networks, is able to mobilize needed resources to accomplish the goals of the faculty and is able to create visibility for the faculty.

Characteristics of a Competent Dean

In all about 21 characteristics and competences isolated and grouped under the two categories were identified. These are *leadership competences* and *technical competences.* Five core themes for leadership competences were identified, including – *personal competence*, *visionary competence, administrative competence, people competence and networking* competence). About 84 per cent of the respondents indicated that technical competence, typified by professorial rank, academic qualification and years of experience and is a key requirement for deanship but that alone was not enough**.** Leadership skills were cited three times more than technical skills. All respondents (100 per cent) mentioned one or more of the four leadership competences as opposed to only 84 per cent of respondents who mentioned technical competences. People competences or competences for working with others received the second highest mention, followed by administrative competences. However, being *visionary* is the single most cited characteristic (cited 18 times in all the questionnaires). This is why, unlike other studies, this study considered visionary a theme on its own. Administrative competence was mentioned 21 times in different forms, and networks appeared four times.

All the respondents underscored the *importance of people competence, or competence for working with others,* as the most important competence and the one with the highest frequency. The analysis revealed that working with people was isolated about 46 times from the 39 questionnaires, because it was repeated in other instances and in other forms. The key factors for working with others include working with superiors (VCs and Pro-VCs), working with peers (deans of other faculties), and working with junior colleagues (HODs and lecturers) as well as relating well with students. Communication, listening, trustworthiness, loyalty, team playing, interpersonal skills, approachability, affability, fairness, firmness, gentleness, humility, democratic, etc, were among the frequently cited, with communication, team skills and conflict resolution and negotiation topping the list.

One most important areas that was mentioned by all respondents including the Vice-Chancellor, Pro-Vice-Chancellor, HODs and Lecturers were soft skills to resolve conflicts, solve problems and negotiation skills for managing meetings. Soft skills also topped the list of the working with people of competence).

HODs and Coordinators cited – (the Dean must listen to others, try to understand others, be patient, respect members in the faculty, including students, must know how to address people use communication skills effectively, and be flexible. This represents about 54 per cent of that category). Others included (functioning as role model and change agent, keeping his word, and keeping his promises no matter the challenges).

Administrative Competences

In respect of Administrative Competences the most commonly mentioned were research, curriculum development, skills for programme accreditation, strategic leadership and accounting. Some HODs said it is embarrassing to find at the end of the year that no publications or few publications comes from their faculty in general or to see accreditations documents being taken forth and back many times. In respect of research, others mentioned that the dean must be able to support or organize support for others in the department to publish and, therefore, be promoted. Almost all HODs expressed some concern about the fact that the administrative roles of deans undermine their ability to publish; hence they suggested that the deans should form groups or teams for research and publication purposes or organize some sort of support for research. Administrative roles mentioned included (that deans must have a vision of how they want to see their Faculty or School to develop and the strategies adopted to position the faculty as such, develop annual work plans and budgets that work, source for the funding, attend numerous meetings and make the Faculty visible. Some lecturers said it is so difficult to meet the deans in their offices to discuss anything: they are almost always in meetings. Human resource management is another administrative responsibility of deans. One Dean noted that he had to appear in court for the non-confirmation of a staff's appointment because the Human Resource section of the registry did not prompt the appraisal of that staff on time to discuss the non-performance report of an probationary employee exactly at the end of the year, thus resulting in a lawsuit. From this example, it became obvious that deans must have some knowledge of human resource and legal matters.

Other interesting findings in the area of performance were: course preparation skills and IT skills to be able to use moodle effectively, skills in quality assurance, particularly documentation and records management, resource management, financial management skills, i.e., budgeting, financial statements preparation and sourcing for grants or winning grants). Others skills in the administrative competence category are that the dean must be the Liaison Officer-in-Chief of the faculty, the face of the faculty, and the mouth piece of the faculty. The Vice-Chancellor, on his part, stressed Quality Assurance competences as lacking and cited developing Standard Operating Procedures (SOPs) at faculty level, monitoring and follow-through of planned activities, feedback and follow-up actions as well as documentation). Other critical skills for deans that the VC and Pro-VC mentioned are conflict resolution, grievances management, and facilitation of peace, which some lecturers also mentioned). The VC added that when there is no harmony or peace, effectiveness is undermined, teamwork also breaks down and performance suffers.

Personal competences mentioned include the following: that the dean must be visible, confident among his peers, must keep his promise, be credible and trustworthy, know his/her strengths and weakness.Credibility and trustworthiness topped the list in this category.

Summary of the key Competences identified

Two categories of competences were identified. These are Leadership Competences and Technical Competences

Leadership Competences

Administrative, people, visionary, networking, personal competences

Personal Competences

Honesty, trustworthiness, credibility, self-awareness confidence, self-respect.

People Competences

Competences for working with others include: Respect, patience, listening, soft skills - conflict management, negotiations skills, facilitation of peace and harmony, and being a change agent and role model. To support the importance of this competence area, the Vice-Chancellor said ' leadership is a symbiotic relationship between leaders and followers in order to achieve the goals of the organisation'. It does not only depend on the leader, it is what both leaders and followers do together to achieve the vision and mission.

Administrative Competences

Planning, organizing human and other resources needed, financial management (budgeting, financial statements, grants or sourcing for funding, HR and legal matters,).

Visionary Competences

Strategic thinking, that is, creatively positioning the Faculty for the future and to be visible, innovation, conceptual skills, providing direction to faculty members, and developing a sense of purpose for members of the faculty.

Networking Competences

This involves ability to establish the requisite social capital, local and international networks, exchanges and collaborations for exchanges. This involves national and international networks. The deans must have networks with various institutions, both local and international and he must use his influence

to bring resources to promote teaching and research and the overall visibility of the faculty**.**

Technical or Performance Competences

These include research grants skills, research and publication skills, curriculum development, course preparation, use of ICT in teaching and learning, instructional competencies for pedagogy, quality assurance, public relation, marketing, liaison performance competences.

Which Competences influence a Deans Leadership Effectiveness?

The Competences identified in line with studies cited in the literature include the following

- Vision and strategy development
- Clearly defined roles and responsibilities, performance management and accountability systems
- Effective communication.
- Results- or goal-oriented
- Team skills.
- Follow-through and follow-up
- Decision-making, negotiation, conflict management and problem solving
- Quality assurance, documentation and records management
- Develop and communicate job descriptions, annual work plans and appraise performance of faculty members.
- Management systems and focus on improving teaching, learning, research and community service.
- Competence of members.
- Project management skills. Use goals, milestones, and control mechanisms to measure and manage performance.
- Human resource management skills.

The Vice-Chancellor indicated that the lack of a quality manual or a comprehensive management guide which provides clear job descriptions to all category of staff, standard operating process for key processes and major policies pulled together in a reference working document is a major drawback for governance and accountability of deans. In his words, 'Deans must have job descriptions which can be used as a basis of accountability for their stewardship, otherwise how should we judge their effectiveness?'

How does the process of becoming a dean affect commitment and consequently effectiveness?

How are deans chosen in Ghana and the University of Professional Studies, Accra (UPSA)

Three processes of choosing a dean have emerged in Ghana. These include the *elective, selective and appointive* Deans. For example some public universities like the KNUST, still use the elective process where faculty members vote to elect their deans. The second is the *selective process*, which is what is practised at the University of Professional Studies, Accra. The University of Ghana, Legon, has introduced the appointive system where a search committee advertises for interested faculty members who are qualified to apply. Applicants are screened through an interview process by the search committee. The process of becoming a dean in the University of Ghana has evolved from the elective, to selective and now to appointive deanship system. *Appointive deanship* is an executive position with clear terms of reference. An executive dean has a managerial role and cannot be promoted to a higher academic rank within his/her tenure of office, which is normally three years. The *elective deanship* is normally for two years with a possibility of re-election, while the *selective deanship* is for three years with the possibility of renewal for another term, based on satisfactory performance. Unlike the appointive deanship, both selective and elective deans are academic deans, combining academic work with the managerial and leadership roles. As such, academic deans are expected to teach, research and publish, and can be promoted to the next higher rank, while still in office as deans.

The University of Professional Studies, Accra (UPSA) subscribes to the selective process. To become a Dean in UPSA, one must be an Associate Professor and member of that faculty. In a faculty where there is no Associate Professor, a Senior Lecturer may be considered or a qualified person from a cognate faculty may be considered. Deans are appointed by the Vice- Chancellor in consultation with the Heads of Department for a term of three years, with the possibility of a second term upon satisfactory performance. Although the requirement does not expressly prescribe the years of experience a candidate should have in academics or in an administrative position, but in practice, the candidate should have been a Head of Department (HOD) before or held an equivalent administrative position as an academic. This is a latent but potent working requirement. Deans are then chosen from the University on the basis of technical competence rather than their leadership competence because there is no clearly defined system of critically assessing the leadership ability of candidates. The Vice-Chancellors use their discretion to choose those they believe

would help them achieve their vision for the University in consultation with the Heads of Department. There are no clearly defined requirements for deanship in the Statutes of the University, except for the process of selecting a dean.

Which Deanship Process do Respondents Prefer?

The results indicate that about 57.2 preferred election and 42.8 preferred appointment whether by selection or by advertisement and recruitment provided that the recruitment is done internally. Worthy of note is that all the deans and vice deans preferred appointment, while 82 per cent of lecturers preferred election. Obviously, the preferences seem to be coloured by the self-interest or position of the respondents.

Some respondents posit that appointment of deans should be based on recommendation from the HODs as well as on experience and performance or contribution towards the development of the faculty and university.

Respondents who prefer the selection process believe that it is important for the Management or VCs to have people they can trust or work with to achieve their vision. Arguable, one respondent indicated 'when deans are elected, there is the likelihood that a popular candidate without the requisite skills and competences will be chosen to the detriment of the faculty and the university at large'. Another respondent stated, 'This will promote progress because the management will feel comfortable working with a person they can trust'. Another respondent remarked, 'it enables the president to work comfortably with the team he thinks fit for the faculties'. A Professor Emeritus who had been in a faculty in the University of Ghana for over forty years and the University of Professional Studies for about three remarked, 'The great virtue in the selective process lies in the fact that the Vice Chancellor can really decide on the best team to lead the university with because he knows the professors and their capability. If he selects cronies, then he cannot succeed. It is important to have people a leader can work and relate well with to prevent unnecessary conflicts'. He also cited a case in the University of Ghana in 1976, where a senior lecturer in the Faculty of Arts and full professor contested for the Deanship and the Senior Lecturer was elected. According to him, this created a series of leadership challenges in the faculty. To start with, the faculty was divided right after the elections. Another case he used to support his position for the selective process is a similar situation which occurred in the Economics Department where a lecturer was selected over a full professor, because the lecturers outnumbered the professors in the department. He said the elective process is a popularity contest, but popularity has the test of merit'. The Prof. Emeritus then concludes that Vice-Chancellors should have the free hand to choose those they believe they can work with

to achieve their vision and be held accountable for their performance. Other respondents who prefer the selection process said it would promote progress because the management would feel comfortable working with a person they can trust. The argument against the selective process, however, is that it could breed cronyism or sycophancy. Moreover, even though it can reduce conflicts among senior members of the faculty, it also has the potential to result in the formation of cliques.

On the other hand, those who prefer elections believe that the university should be a democratic environment. Additionally, they argue that elected deans will have the support of their colleagues although they may not have the support of their superiors. They believe that a democratically elected leader will seek the welfare of the faculty members and 'reflect the voice of the faculty'. A respondent said electing the dean means that faculty members have a hand in who becomes their leader, and thus engender cooperation from colleagues as well as prevent dictatorship or autocratic rule.

A respondent who prefers appointment said: 'You face a panel which is impartial and you prove to the panel that you can do the job, and the panel will recommend you based on qualification and merit. This approach is based on competence and merit'. Another respondent who shares the same view said 'The dean will be well scrutinized and grilled to be sure he has all the competences needed'.

Many have described the elective process as a welfare system that is political vis-a-vis the appointive system which is seen as an accountable leadership concept. In the elective process, the dean's first commitment is to the welfare of the constituents who put him in office, particularly in the face of possible re-election after two years. In the selective process, however, is believed to have a potential to induce suffering from autocracy or biases and cronyism. However, the VC argued that selective system is preferable since higher education is more about accountability and it is the leaders' stewardship and leadership that will be put to the test.

What has Stronger Influence on a Dean's Effectiveness: Competence or Selection Process?

In answering this question majority were of the view that an ineffective process or a flawed process is likely to yield a flawed choice no matter the candidate's competence. There is no doubt that with the current process technical competence is weighed above leadership competence. However, others believe that an incompetent dean has too little time to learn and build capacity on the job. Leadership competence should be introduced into the selection

or recruitment process or before deans take office. Clearly defined criteria for deanship including qualification, experience, rank should be defined and communicated widely to the university community. A leadership assessment programme should be introduced into the recruitment process. The assessment of leadership competence should not be limited to a competency based or behavioural interview as is often the case even with the appointive process. Universities in Ghana should have leadership development training for all deans upon appointment and the training should cover key competences identified in this study – leadership, soft skills, strategic leadership, human resource issues, financial management for leaders, project management, performance management, quality assurance, public relations and communication skills.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The study identified two categories of competences of deans, namely, technical competence and leadership competence. Technical competence is defined by qualification, rank and professional respect. Five dimensions of leadership competence were identified, including personal competence, people competence, administrative competence, visionary competence and networking competences. Leaders with a realistic and well communicated vision, good problem-solving skills, and people skills should also have a good personal skill, be resilient and learn how to navigate the situation well enough to achieve desired goals. The study recommends the appointment of deans through standard recruitment practices, rather than election or selection. It also recommends leadership assessment and training for leadership competences before a dean takes office.

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JHEA/RESA Vol. 12, No. 1, 2014, pp. 133-150

(ISSN 0851–7762)

The Academic Dean and the Challenges of Meeting Changing Expectations in a Competitive Higher Education Environment in Africa

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Abstract

This article seeks to provide guidelines for leadership decisions and practices that university deans can follow to be effective in their institutions and be relevant in an increasingly competitive African milieu. The paper provides an overview of academic leadership by faculty deans and assesses the degree to which they demonstrate leadership in addressing contemporary challenges and expectations. The paper shows how academic leaders must hold and convey ideas and knowledge that could shape managerial thought and practice. It also emphasizes that they must develop a human resource network inside and outside their departments and university and at levels – be they local, national, and international. Academic leadership needs to have a structured approach to faculty and staff promotion and development, and it should be placed on a priority list. Deans need to use technology and communication channels effectively to improve access to knowledge. The educational programmes must be dynamic and streamlined to meet the demands of the job market as well as the aspirations of all the stakeholders, including the external stakeholders.

Résumé

Cet article vise à fournir des lignes directrices pour les décisions et les pratiques de leadership à suivre par les doyens de facultés d'université pour être efficaces dans les institutions qu'ils dirigent et être pertinents dans un contexte africain de plus en plus compétitif. L'étude donne un aperçu du leadership académique des doyens de facultés et évalue le niveau de ce

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leadership face aux enjeux et aux attentes contemporains. L'étude démontre comment les leaders universitaires doivent détenir et transmettre les idées et les connaissances qui devraient façonner la pensée et la pratique managériales. Il souligne aussi que ces derniers doivent développer un réseau de ressources humaines au sein et en dehors de leurs départements et leurs universités et à des niveaux – aussi bien local, national et international. Le leadership académique doit avoir une approche structurée vis-à-vis des facultés et en ce qui concerne la promotion et le développement du personnel et devrait être placé sur une liste prioritaire. Les doyens de facultés doivent utiliser la technologie et les canaux de communication pour améliorer l'accès au savoir. Les programmes éducatifs doivent être dynamiques et rationalisés pour répondre aux exigences du marché de l'emploi ainsi qu'aux aspirations de toutes les parties prenantes, y compris les acteurs externes.

Introduction

Higher education is undergoing a paradigm shift as a result of historical changes in the society. The top segment of the educational ladder which traditionally exhibits a measure of conservatism and low competition appears to have suddenly become highly competitive. Collis (1999) identifies a number of the drivers of this change in higher education as new technologies, particularly the Internet, a change in the nature of the employment contract from lifetime employment, cost increases that outstrip productivity growth and thus lead to a continuing rise in the real price of education. the other factors he identified are exponential increases in the rate of accumulation of knowledge and the consequent fragmentation and specialization of the academia, globalization of academic and education markets, and new competitors entering the business both as stand-alone institutions and as companies training their own.

Deans juggle multiple roles and try to meet a myriad of expectations from diverse stakeholders. Squeezed from above and below as well as from inside and outside the university, deans are caught in the jaws of conflicting cultures, pressures and priorities. Constrained by traditions and tensions inherent in the role, they are increasingly accountable for outcomes over which they have little influence and less control (Gallos 2011). The Dean of the Faculty is a senior member of the University's academic administration, and is directly responsible for the recruitment, retention, and development of a university's faculty. The Dean oversees departments and programmes in the divisions within college or university. The Dean of the Faculty exercises significant control on the University's intellectual life and academic future through his hiring decisions, faculty support, and strategic initiative. The Dean supervises and approves all faculty searches and departmental hiring plans; works with

university governance committees in hiring, reappointment, promotion and tenure. He also convenes small discussion groups of departmental heads and other faculty members on academic issues and initiatives; and serves as the faculty's advocate on the University Council or other regulatory bodies. The criteria for appointing the dean vary from county to county and even from one university to another. Included among the strategies used are election, direct appointment and competitive interviews. Regarding qualification, it is required that a deanship candidate must be of the rank of senior lecturer and above with leadership qualities. More often, however, the deanship candidate must be a seasoned professor, distinguished in his field and noted for administrative competence. In essence, deans are classic middle managers: They have enormous responsibilities, little positional power, insufficient resources and limited authority.

Effective leadership in any organization is a crucial component of overall organizational success. While many aspects of management and leadership are common to most organizations, colleges and universities present special challenges both in their fundamental character and in practice. The combination of faculty and non-academic personnel in leadership roles in the same organization can create ambiguity and confusion. This is particularly an issue when units of the institution seek to achieve the highest possible level of performance, cooperation and mutual trust among and between them (Rowley and Sherman 2003).

Gmelch (2002) established that there are three activities deans must perform to lead effectively: building a community of scholars; setting direction; and empowering others. Overall, deans were found to be balanced in their approaches to leadership, with deans in comprehensive universities more likely to describe themselves as community builders than deans in research universities. It was further revealed that after about 10 years deans tend to disengage in direction setting behaviour, a finding that may have implications for institutional development.

The academic deanship is the least studied and most misunderstood position in the university system. The work of administration and the pursuit of scholarly endeavours result in a paradoxical situation which cause many academic leaders to burn out from the strain of trying to be effective administrators, on the one hand, and attempting to protect the academic autonomy and independence of the faculty on the other(Gmelch, Wolverton, and Marvin 1999). Much of the work of colleges and universities gets done at the academic departmental and faculty level. Yet, most institutions of higher learning pay little attention to either the preparation of departmental leaders or recognize the enormous work they do.

Deans usually come to their positions without some form of formal leadership training, without prior executive experience, and without a clear understanding of the ambiguity of their new roles. They assume their duties without due recognition of the metamorphic changes that occur and without an awareness of the toll their new position may take on their academic and personal lives. In spite of all these, the deans are expected to steer the academic leadership and offer direction to both students and lecturers to the best of their abilities. They are, therefore, expected to promote scholarship, protect higher education from stagnation and interference, and provide a sound basis for hiring and advancing the faculty to meet the demands of the university economy. Given the weighty responsibilities of a dean in piloting a faculty aright, therefore, there should be operating alternatives to the conventional way of thinking and running faculties (Gmelch 2000).

The alarming growth in population and the high rate of unemployment in Africa have made many people to question the quality of education students receive in higher institutions of learning. This is a challenge to the deans and the faculties. Up skilling should not just allow people to get a better job: it should enable them to shape the jobs of the future and actively contribute to an innovative economy (Waters 2012). To make the required impact on the African economic scene, quality graduates are needed in their large numbers to come into the job market with relevant qualifications as well as transversal and transferrable skills.

Deans need to be flexible, to specialize and to unlock the potentials of the people they lead in order to address the challenges of the twenty-first century. They are expected to offer transformational leadership that focuses on:

- Improving the quality and relevance of educational programmes to increase graduate employability and to meet the demand for people with high-end skills. This stresses the importance of adapting programmes such that each graduate, whatever their discipline, has a good mix of sector-specific and cross-cutting skills to enable them thrive in a labour market.
- Improving the quality of graduates and improving their skill sets for upward mobility and removing the obstacles that hinder their mobility.
- Encouraging higher education institutions to develop a stronger role in supporting sustainable growth in their regions and beyond.

Theoretical Framework

The present study uses the theoretical framework of transformational leadership to understand how deans mentor lecturers, influence students and develop pro-

grammes, monitor quality and initiate innovation with the aim of addressing future challenges. Sometimes lecturers may not be fully conscious of their transformational leadership qualities, but keen observation and mentorship will reveal this. An example of transformational leadership could involve using a deanship to stimulate and inspire lecturers and students to accomplish great things and develop capabilities required to manage prospective challenges. Transformational leaders seek to challenge the process and practice. They accept and embrace challenging opportunities that motivate others to greatness.

Transformational leadership is at work when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees and followers; when they generate awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group; and when they stir their employees and followers to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the group (Bass 1990). Deans should demonstrate transformational leadership behaviours by empowering teachers to rise above their personal expectations and help create and encourage a belief in their common goals. According to Bandura (1993), the stronger the faculty's shared beliefs in their instructional efficacy, the better the academic performance of students. High levels of perceived collective efficacy are associated with a robust sense of purpose that helps groups see setbacks as temporary obstacles to be overcome rather than evidence confirming their inefficacy (Goddard & Skrla 2006). Agreeing with these views, Ross and Gray (2006) argue that transformational leadership contributes to collective efficiency of lecturers by setting feasible goals, clarifying standards, developing a collaborative school culture, and linking actions of lecturers to student outcomes, and principal influences.

A leader can make a significant impact on the product of the organization. He or she can improve the educational and research infrastructure, and thereby improve the products of these efforts. Deans can foster the development of faculty, staff and students to improve the quality of work as well as the morale of everyone involved. Improving the quality of education and student mentoring can result in higher student retention and more successful graduates, which is a key factor in how deans are judged. Deans can also be a catalyst for organizational change. If you have something special to bring to your unit, including improving diversity, increasing the focus on teaching and learning, developing centres, or increasing interdisciplinary work, leadership provides an opportunity and resources for effecting such changes. Transformational leaders passionately believe that they can make a difference by envisioning the future and creating an ideal and unique image of what universities can become (Kouzes & Posner 2002).

Academic Leadership

As academic leaders, deans exercise their authority within settings that have markedly different institutional purposes, cultures and expectations than a typical business organization. Leadership operates within the framework of purpose: vision, shared values, and common cause. The leader does not have to create the vision, but there must be one, and it must be shared by others who willingly commit themselves to the common cause (Diamond 2000). Scott Cowen, President of Tulane University, laments the decline of the academy as the largely unchallenged bastion of intellectual leadership. He says: 'As academic leaders, we must be the purveyors of ideas and knowledge that shape managerial thought and practice. Executives and organizations should be looking to universities and their faculties to provide the direction and knowledge necessary for organizations to adapt to the changes they are undergoing. All too often, however, we have been looking to industry to give us direction rather than vice versa. Deans therefore must reclaim the intellectual edge if they are to demonstrate continued leadership in the learning domain and provide value to the students and the organizations they seek to serve'.

Leadership is thus crucial if faculties have to make a change in this century. As Bennis (1985) puts it in Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge, 'business short of capital can borrow money, and one with a poor location can move. But, a business short on leadership has little chance for survival.' Brown (2011) suggests that advocacy and leadership bring about genuine change by using evidence-based practice and current research to convince people of the value of the changes you want to make and to make sure that the changes you are making align fully with the institution's overall ambitions. In showing transformational leadership in universities deans are expected to keep abreast of national and international developments in assessment, learning and teaching, prioritizing innovations and good ideas that form the context in which they are working and also to model good practice in their own teaching and assessment.

Programme leaders play a pivotal role in universities by ensuring that strategic imperatives are translated into action rather than leaving them as rhetorical ambitions. Deans, as senior managers, should work closely with programme leaders. This can be a very powerful partnership that can bring about real change in universities (Brown and Denton 2009). Effective academic leadership needs to use communication skills, organizational culture, and shared values in order to fulfil mutual trust. Consequently, the interests of faculties, staffs, and leaders converge toward common organizational aims. Leaders should not only direct reciprocal communication, but also provide

an effective communication network inside and outside universities. Mutual trust and respect provide an appropriate context and move the organization toward individual and collective goal attainments. Academic leadership should be transformational and collaborative, emphasizing participation, delegation, and teamwork. Driven by the dynamic nature of the academic environment, recommendations for acceptable management based on an increased utilization of teams and workgroups with multidisciplinary collaboration at local, regional, and international levels should offer a decreased reliance on traditional authority arrangements.

Faculty Development

Leadership is about evoking high individual performance in others and, if effectively exercised, it will result in a team of people who enjoy clear purpose, shared values, who are empowered by knowing that their initiatives are aligned with and supported by team members, and who believe that there is mutual benefit deriving from their individual commitments in turning their common vision into reality (Diamond, 2000). In order to succeed at new teaching, research, and leadership tasks, faculty development is essential (Bikmoradi 2008). 'Management is about human beings. It's task is to make people capable of joint performance – to make their strengths effective and their weaknesses irrelevant' (Drucker 2011).

Successful organizations tap into individuals' intrinsic motivation, thereby enabling a self-sustainable commitment to quality and continuing improvement. The idea is to foster initiative, leadership and accountability throughout the organization – leadership that does not depend wholly on organizational position and formally designated authority. Deming strongly debunks reliance on extrinsic motivators – reward and punishment, fear and incentives – as short-term, non-sustainable practices that rob people of their self-esteem and dignity. Although we believe that extrinsic motivators do influence behaviour, we see them as only one component of many structural elements that must continuously be aligned with mission (Diamond 2000). This is what John W. Gardner Excellence means when he said, 'When an institution, organization or nation loses its capacity to invoke high individual performance, its great days are over'.

Academic work is facilitated through inspired and shared clear vision, goals, and strategies, consistently pursued and communicated with integrity, an understanding of individual needs, and energetic commitment. Academic leadership needs to develop a human resource network inside and outside the departments and university and at the local, national, and international levels. These networks could create an effective academic leadership on learning,

teaching, and research processes (Bikmoradi 2008) An effective and efficient reward system with appropriate and on time feedback should be able to improve output of academic work, according to possible results of an efficient evaluation system focusing on staffs, departments, and school performance. Academic leadership needs to have a clarified programme for faculty and staff promotion and development, and it should be placed on a priority list and agenda.

A campus culture that values collegiality and civility is among the most important contributions a university can make. Academic departments recognize the desirability of a collegial environment for faculty members, students, and professional employees and that such an environment should be maintained and strengthened throughout the university. In an environment enhanced by trust, respect, and transparency faculty members can be revivified so they can play an active and responsible role in academic matters (Cipriano 2012)

What deans should strive for in the academy is a healthy and respected sharing of ideas and concepts where people feel free to express their divergent and oftentimes conflicting views. In fact, many historians consider this concept to be one of the hallmarks of higher education. Facilitating a culture of collegiality can be the synergistic agent of good relationships among members of a department – which all too often is severely missing. In addition, deans should ensure that academic citizenship is demonstrated through the service that faculty members perform on various types of committees, in their professional organizations, through their uncompensated civic engagement, and through other professional efforts that benefit the community. Furthermore, it is manifested in excellent teaching when faculty members go above and beyond their contractual obligations to act as mentors to their students, and in superior research when they participate in collaborative efforts, scholarship networks, and multi-institutional academic partnerships (Buller 2010).

Research and Instruction

Every year, millions of students enter universities and other higher institutions. They are ready to start a new chapter of their lives and hope to acquire the knowledge and skills that will equip them for future careers. Many arrive with fresh memories of the teachers who inspired them to go on to higher education – and the teachers they are about to meet will be just as important for their success. Yet relatively few countries invest systematically in efforts to improve the quality of university teaching. Instead, university excellence is mostly conceived of in terms of research performance, as confirmed by the growing influence of current university rankings, based mainly on research output (Vassiliou and McAleese 2012).

Drucker (2011) observes that 'the single most important thing to remember about any enterprise is that there are no results inside its walls. The result of a business is a satisfied customer, the result of a hospital is a healed patient, and the result of a school is a student who has learned something and puts it to work ten years later. Inside an enterprise there are only cost centres. Results exist only on the outside'. Educational institutions are so focused on getting students in the door that they lose sight of how to prepare young people to succeed in today's tough labour market. As a matter of fact, it looks like education providers are much more motivated to focus on getting youth onto campus and less focused on how to prepare youth to exit.' (Millar 2012). Reflecting on this, John Dewey, an educationist and a philosopher, says, 'One might as well say he has sold, when no one has bought, as to say he has taught when no one has learned'.

It is time to re-evaluate the idea of the university. A careful examination of the mission statement of almost any institution of higher learning, shows that teaching and research are listed as important but not necessarily related functions of the organization. In other words, relatively few mission statements present learning as a goal to be achieved through independent inquiry and research; even fewer describe discovery, integration, and application as results actively sought through teaching. Once again, the focus is on the activity rather than the result, and that perspective shapes everything that is familiar about the modern university (Buller 2012). In almost all universities you will notice that:

- Departments are organized around disciplinary methods (activities) rather than important questions being asked or issues being explored (results).
- Individual courses are defined by 'seat time' and contact hours (activities) rather than competencies gained and knowledge developed (results).
- Degrees are granted largely by the number of credits earned (activities) rather than the amount of growth achieved or improvement attained (results).

Chu (2006) says an academic department should be regarded as an 'open system' in which both the stakeholders and beneficiaries are numerous: faculty members, students, alumni, parents of current students, accrediting agencies, prospective employers of graduates, non-government organizations, funding agencies, and so on. Re-evaluating the idea of the university will mean approaching it not as a closed system in which professors teach and

conduct research, but as an open, organic network that includes a vast system of constituents and stakeholders. It is rapidly becoming accepted that there are alternative models for describing how students learn. It should be equally clear that alternative models also exist for describing how universities and university systems produce benefits for society. In what is perhaps the most comprehensive approach to promoting research while advancing instruction to date, Jenkins, Healey, and Zetter (2007) describe six effective strategies that deans can adopt to make timely progress in attaining this goal.

1. Work through individual disciplines to develop a clearer understanding of how teaching and research intersect in their own practices and methods.
2. Review areas where current culture seems to inhibit the cross-fertilization between teaching and research, and revise policies where appropriate. Assessment data, student surveys, organizational audits, and comprehensive programme reviews can all provide helpful information in this regard.
3. Develop an institution-wide set of curricular goals for promoting research among all students, even at the undergraduate level.
4. Modify staffing policies so that future hires are likely to support the full integration of teaching and research.
5. Revise strategic planning goals and categories so that teaching objectives and research objectives better support one another.
6. Incorporate a fully integrated approach toward teaching and research into institutional culture. For instance, incorporate assessment of research knowledge into curricular assessment, encourage research clusters to become teaching teams, and give research-wide visibility to students at all levels of the institution.

Deans could properly consider 'high impact learning' which comes from Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh and Whitt (2005)'s work with the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) . They are particularly beneficial for students in terms of academic and personal growth, career development, and a wide range of desired learning outcomes (Kelly, 2011). There's something unique about high impact learning. It seems to have a greater impact than what we're used to. The type of learning tends to be very intense, not simply students walking into a lecture hall and hearing a lecture but students being required to learn on multiple levels. They're creating new knowledge, implementing it in real-life settings, and reflecting on the implications for themselves and the community.

The survey shows that 'transversal skills such as the ability to think critically, take initiative, problem-solve and work collaboratively will prepare individuals for today's varied and unpredictable career path'. It is teaching that primarily influences student outcomes, enhances graduate employability and raises the profile of African higher education institutions worldwide. This should be the core business of the deans. Learning at the postsecondary level includes not only the knowledge and skills that students gain from their formal course work but also the discoveries they make through their independent research. In other words, the revolution begun by Robert Barr and John Tagg (1995) has changed the way we look at what students do at a college or university, so why do we still insist on looking at teaching, research, and service as separate *activities,* rather than evaluating the learning that *results* from all three?

Programmes

Many challenges confront universities and to thrive, or even to just survive amid these challenges, requires that the academic unit be continuously aligned with the changing needs of the constituencies it serves: its students, alumni, employers, its university, and the larger academy (Diamond 2000). No academic unit can be successful for long if it isolates itself from the knowledge of its constituencies' changing needs or fails to maintain value-adding relevance within its scholarship, education programmes and services. Escalating demands for change and accountability reflect growing dissatisfaction with the way university graduates are prepared for the challenges and continuing development that will characterize their lives and their professional careers. There are vigorous calls for innovation in curriculum, learning methods and education programme delivery and this should be the concern of deans if they have to excel as academic leaders.

Statistics in universities suggest that the share of the working population with a degree or above is going to increase, so universities do not only need to ensure it is producing more graduates but also that the graduates produced have the competences and skills that are in demand (Dennis Abbott as quoted by Osborn 2012). People will need to move around more and that's one reason to produce graduates who are much more versatile. African universities must align more closely with labour market needs to ensure that graduates have the skills and knowledge demanded by employers. As Sharma (2012) has observed, 'In the continent higher education is expanding rapidly and when you expand so rapidly misalignment between higher education and the labour market grows'.

Higher institutions are under pressure to reform, to provide adequate skills and knowledge for the evolving labour markets. This is increasingly important in countries which are moving towards middle-income status and aspiring

to become knowledge economies, thereby increasing the demand for higher skills. The problem is that the workplace is no longer a stable, hierarchical structure. So the most important skill in the 21st century is adaptability. The current scenario is that universities are not accustomed to taking responsibility for employability. That stance is rapidly changing and universities must get ahead of the curve; deans must elevate employability as an issue for students to start considering in their first year of study. Empowering and preparing citizens for a greater role in development and innovation should remain the main purpose of faculties. Deans must enter into collaboration with industry, the private sector and the civil society to improve labour market links in enhancing training programmes.

To ensure that everyone who desires higher education can go in, and that universities equip their students with the right skills, requires a change of culture. The curriculum must be designed to meet the needs of a diverse student body and provide skills that are sought after by employers (Vassiliou and McAleese 2012). Universities need to use technology and communication channels effectively to improve access to knowledge. The educational programmes must be dynamic and streamlined to meet the demands of the job market as well as the aspirations of all the stakeholders, including the external stakeholders.

Innovation

Albert Einstein once said, 'The world that we have made, as a result of the level of thinking we have done thus far, creates problems that we cannot solve at the same level of thinking we were at when we created them'. African universities have not adequately prioritized innovation and creativity as an important learning outcome. Policymakers and educators need to do more to build faculties' capacity to compete and innovate by investing in critical skill sets and basic research. Institutions as well as government agencies have failed to sustain and nurture innovation in the colleges and universities. Results of scholarly research on teaching and learning are rarely translated into practice, especially for those working at the grassroots level in fields such as teacher preparation and math and science education

If universities were re-structured according to interdisciplinary emphases and topics, it would foster innovation more efficiently. At a time when innovation occurs increasingly at the intersection of multiple disciplines (including business and social sciences), curricula and research funding remain largely contained in individual departments. At present, the standard division of faculty labour into three categories of activity – teaching, research, and service – is so common that most academics

regard it as fundamental to the very way in which higher education works (Buller 2012). The fact is that broadening the definition of scholarship and recognizing that important learning takes place throughout the university, while being important first steps, simply don't go far enough in helping institutions address what faculty members actually do in their work today.

Innovation may be observed when faculty members discover and apply new knowledge, develop or perform creative works, and engage in entrepreneurial activities either in their discipline or in service to the institution. In addition, innovation may be regarded as including educational improvements that lead to enhanced student learning, original ways of serving their community or profession, and programmatic advances that make a college or university more distinctive.

Universities will not survive the next 10 to 15 years unless they radically overhaul their current business models. Maslen (2012) observes that a challenging report released by the international professional services company, Ernst & Young, claims that the current university model – a broad-based teaching and research institution with a large base of assets and back office – will prove unviable in all but a few cases. Academic deans will need significantly to streamline their operations by incorporating new teaching and learning delivery mechanisms, 'a diffusion of channels to market, and stakeholder expectations for increased impact'. The report identifies the main drivers of change it says will inevitably bring about a transformation of higher education. These are:

- The democratization of knowledge as a consequence of massive expansion of online resources.
- The contestability of markets and funding as a direct consequence of declining public investment and the adoption of market design policies to fund and regulate higher education.
- Digital technologies changing the way courses are delivered.
- Global mobility of students and staff.
- Integration with industry to differentiate programmes (through work-integrated learning) and to support and fund applied research.

Maslen observes that current university models are living on borrowed time and that government funding is tight and is going to be tighter still in the next couple of political cycles. While they are not exactly businesses, they will have to run like businesses. They need to be lean and mean. Deans should critically assess the viability of their institution's current business model, develop a vision of what a future model might look like, and develop a broad transition plan. Academic units must choose (1) which market segments their graduates

will target; (2) what the nature of their programmes will be (undergraduate, MBA, specialized Master's, PhD.); (3) what competencies they will focus on (leadership, technology, systems expertise, international); and (4) what learning methodologies (lecture, experiential, distance, cooperative, service) they will employ. Making choices like these will enable the academic unit to focus its always scarce resources in recruitment and deployment of faculty, in the development of learning processes, in the application of technology, and in building alliances both with external constituencies and within its university (Diamond 2000). In *The Transformation of Management,* Michael Davidson said, 'Strategy implementation is more about commitment than correctness. An excellent strategy with adequate implementation will always lose to an adequate strategy with excellent implementation'.

Quality

Sawahel (2012) says that while quality assurance is developing rapidly in African higher education, it is still at a formative stage in many countries, and only 19 out of 55 states have a national quality agency, according to a report just published by the European University Association. Some long-standing academics would still remember that universities once enjoyed a highly honoured status in the society. That was a time when society intuitively embraced the academy's mission and supported it generously, largely without questioning what went on within the closed walls (Diamond 2000). As the challenges of this century begin to bite, many in higher education view themselves as being under siege: this is because higher education's relevance in preparing individuals for living a life and earning a living in society is being challenged.

The quality of teaching in higher institutions is key to unlocking the full potentials of students and creating a healthy economy and society. High calibre teachers and the institutions and systems that support them clearly impact on these challenges. Its starting point is that higher education is ever more crucial in creating and sharing the high-end knowledge and skills Africa needs. Excellent higher education is a source of competitive economic advantage and, at a time of crisis, a key to sustainable economic recovery (Vassiliou and McAleese 2012). Higher education is also a major driver of social progress as it trains graduates to respond creatively to challenges. At the same time, competition between universities increases as the quality of higher education improves around the globe. The knowledge economy means that the nature of jobs will change dramatically and that graduates will need constantly to update their knowledge and acquire new skills.

Universities are experiencing growing expectations and increased accountability for the outcomes they produce, i.e., credible evidence that their students

are learning, that their scholarship is relevant and value-adding, and that their service is more than just time spent, but actually produces results that are beneficial to the institution's stakeholders:

- The clamour for accountability is loudly heard in public policy arenas and in decisions, from trustees having stewardship responsibility for the institution's effectiveness, and from individual, business and foundation donors who underwrite a substantial portion of the university's costs.
- Paying customers, i.e., students, parents and employers, are increasingly looking for outcome measures, comparative statistics and assessments that will inform their decisions about where to buy.
- Accreditation processes, peer rankings and media rankings send universities scrambling to compile credible evidence of their comparative worthiness in the competition for recognition and respectability.

There are substantial risks for the university that finds its measures of success being dictated solely by the pressure to satisfy these external demands for outcomes measurement (Diamond 2000). First, there is the risk that the success measures may be driven by fickle, changing sets of priorities from ever changing sets of stakeholders, and thereby become unfocused, unconnected, and possibly even inconsistent, with the specific mission of the university. Second, there is the risk that the university's chosen measures will be focused on outcomes alone, and may largely ignore the drivers of those outcomes (the essential core processes of the university).

Academic leaders should take the initiative by adopting measures of success that are truly useful management tools for their institutions and that have credibility with the institution's external stakeholders – measures that genuinely inform decisions about enrolments, faculty hiring and development, programme and curriculum development, and resource allocations(Diamond 2000). Given the complexity of the academic enterprise, and the diversity of its customers and stakeholders, multiple sets of measures are required. These measurement sets may be quantitative, including monetary and statistical data; qualitative, including peer review and customer/stakeholder judgments; and/or comparative, including benchmarking against peers and tracking performance results over time.

Conclusion

The current challenges require deans to do things differently, shedding smaller and inefficient activities and concentrating on more strategic initiatives in their leadership through helping institutions to modernize their educational offerings

and their ways of working, and bringing about specific Knowledge Alliances between higher education institutions and businesses, promoting innovations in designing new curricula and qualifications, and fostering creativity and entrepreneurship.

In addressing the challenges of the 21st century, deans will have to show willingness to challenge the system in order to turn ideas into actions and to get new products, processes, and services adopted. They should seek out challenging opportunities that test their skills and abilities and look for innovative ways to improve their organizations in readiness for the future. Transformational leaders are always willing to change the status quo (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh and Omary 2009). Deans, as veritable transformational leaders, must reclaim the intellectual edge if they are to demonstrate continued leadership in the learning domain and provide value to the students and the organizations they seek to serve.

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