DLP
Policy and Practice for Developmental Leaders, Elites and Coalitions
DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

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Learning and Leadership

Exploring the linkages between higher education and developmental leadership

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DEVELOPMENTAL LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

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Executive Summary

Understanding how developmental leadership emerges within society and the processes which encourage this is critical to paving the way for development and inclusive, stable states. This review seeks to explore the role that higher education plays in developing the behaviours, skills and values that are essential for developmental leadership, and whether or not it can provide opportunities for developmental coalitions to form. It recognises that there is a symbiotic relationship between higher education and the broader political, social and economic environment, in which they both influence the development of each other over time.

The research will assess the processes and factors within higher education institutes that may contribute to the formation of developmental leaders, networks and coalitions, focusing on the following areas:

- The subjects studied and competencies developed;
- The approaches to teaching and learning;
- The governance of institutes;
- The development of values; and
- Opportunities and mechanisms of coalition/network building within higher education institutes.

Key findings

- Research indicates that there is a correlation between education, civic engagement and social participation. Increased levels of education are associated with higher aspirations, more diverse perspectives on issues, greater public awareness, respect and understanding of others. In addition it is associated with higher levels of critical and analytical thinking and positive social/civic behaviours such as voting and volunteering (Campbell, 2009; Kirlin, 2002; Kuh, 1995 and White, 1997).

- Government policy and the needs of the economy can have significant influence on the types of skills developed within higher education, as seen with the focus on higher education's role in meeting the needs of the knowledge economy and providing sufficient skills and human capital for economic growth. This has typically led to a focus on science and technology skills. Alongside this, evidence suggests that the subjects studied are highly influential for the development of transferable skills, competencies and values associated with developmental leadership. Research indicates that arts, humanities and social sciences provide a broader educational experience that contextualises learning and often provides more opportunities to develop leadership skills (Brungardt, 1996). In addition social sciences, economics and law are the most common fields of higher education study for African heads of states (Theron, 2011). These subjects tend to encourage collaboration and provide opportunities for students to test and develop their leadership skills; they also encourage historical examination of leadership styles and exploration of ideas beyond students' individual perspectives, as well as consideration of broader social issues. This potential tension between the economic, political and social needs of higher education will be a key area for exploration in the field research and network analysis to see if there is a correlation between subjects studied and developmental leadership in practice.

- The ways in which higher education is taught influences the development and consolidation of skills. More interactive, student-focused pedagogy, such as group work that increases student interaction and critical analysis, is seen to have a positive influence on expanding cooperation, awareness of others and issues of collective good (NSSE, 2010; Stinson and Miler, 1996; Walker, McLean, Dison and Vaughan, 2010). In addition it can provide opportunities for students to practice leadership skills on

a small scale and develop their own leadership style.

- There is debate in the literature over whether or not values can be taught, or if they are acquired during learning via association, habit and example. Some research suggests that the role of the teachers is critical in aspiring positive behaviour within students by modelling good leadership and values associated with developmental leadership. Others suggest that the teaching and learning process can inform behaviours. However, these are also influenced by individual factors and a student's social environment, which if students move to study can be very different from their home environment. The latter is important in exposing students to new ideas and providing the freedom for them to explore these, particularly within newly formed networks.

- Higher education institutes can model effective governance and developmental leadership qualities to students. In particular, opportunities for students to be involved with governance and other extra-curricular activities can be important for the development of leadership skills and to provide opportunities for networks to form.

- The networks formed during higher education can influence the emergence of developmental coalitions, and also help to inform attitudes and behaviours of students, for example perceptions of the value of trust, collaboration and social responsibility. Research indicates that such behaviours, when formed during adolescence, persist into adulthood.

- Historically, student movements have played a critical role in bringing about institutional, economic and political reforms. Some of these have started within higher education institutes and evolved to support democratic and social causes. This is combined with research that finds that those who are engaged in civic activity during adolescence are more likely to remain engaged during adulthood (Kirlin, 2002). This suggests that higher education may provide a critical space for civic engagement to develop.

The emerging findings of this literature review draw attention to the potential ways that teaching, the subject studied, governance of higher education institutes, and social factors including extra-curricular activities and the networks formed during higher education, can be instrumental in the formation of developmental leadership. These will be applied to the final stages of this research programme, undertaking primary research in case study countries to explore how these processes have influenced the emergence of developmental leadership in different country contexts.

01

Introduction

This paper forms part of the second phase of a **Developmental Leadership Programme (DLP)**[1] research study exploring the role of higher education in the formation of developmental leaders and coalitions. It seeks to elucidate on the ways in which developmental leadership emerges and how developmental leaders and coalitions acquire the necessary skills and values for leadership. The initial phase of this research sought to clarify whether or not there was a link between higher education and improved levels of governance as a proxy for the existence of developmental leadership. It also explored the multiple purposes of higher education and the potential ways in which it could support the emergence of developmental leadership.

Building on these findings, this literature review seeks to go into further detail to explore the relationship between developmental leadership and higher education. The analysis goes beyond examining the higher education sector as a whole, to also explore the processes and factors within higher education institutes that may contribute to the formation of developmental leaders, networks and coalitions. In particular it explores the following areas:

- The subjects studied and competencies developed;
- The approaches to teaching and learning;
- The governance of institutes;
- The development of values; and
- Opportunities and mechanisms of coalition/network building within higher education institutes.

In addition to providing analysis of the role of higher education in these areas, it is hoped that the following evidence will provide a theoretical and evidence-based framework for the country-level research methodology and analytical approach during the next stage of the research.

1 The Developmental Leadership Program (DLP) is a multi-stakeholder initiative committed to expanding the evidence base on the political role that leaders, elites and coalitions play in development, focusing on how they shape institutions and influence development outcomes. Further information can be found at www.dlprog.org.

02

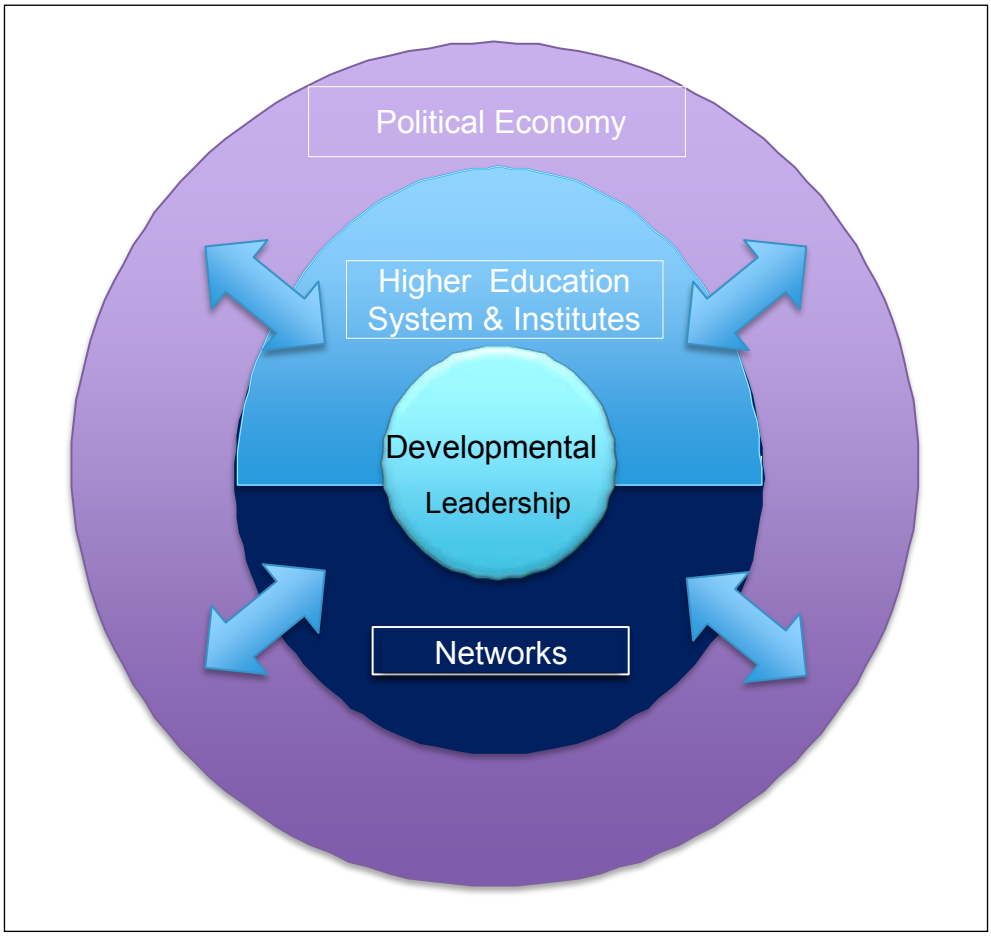
The Influence of the Environment in which Higher Education Systems and Developmental Leadership Emerges

2.1 Symbiotic Relationship between Higher Education and Developmental Leadership

Evidence from Phase 1 of this research indicated that whilst higher education might be an influential factor in improving governance, the mechanisms through which it can achieve these changes are complex and influenced by the political, social and economic environment in which they operate. A core assumption running throughout this research programme is that higher education is necessary but not solely sufficient for creating developmental leadership. Rather, the nature of leadership is also dependent upon its structural context. This assumption recognises a dual perception of structure-agency debates, whereby the structure (institutional, political, social and economic contexts) in which individual (agents) learn and work and lead, can encourage or facilitate their actions. But, in turn, this very structure exists due to the individuals – their actions, resources and rules by which they operate – and therefore there is the possibility for individuals to shape the structure. Thus we are presented with a situation in which the type of leadership that emerges from higher education institutes is influenced by the learning environment and broader external environment, but concurrently higher education institutes and developmental leadership that they encourage have the potential to initiate and facilitate transformational change within the broader political, economic and social context. This dual process is summarised in Figure 1.

The balance between the influence of individuals and the influence of the overall structure is fiercely debated (Aston, undated and Ruostetsaari, 2006). Some argue that political elites and developmental leaders have the capability to shape politics and the nature of the debate, whereas others perceive leadership and elites to be predominantly manifestations of the institutions and structure in which they live and work. Reproduction theorists argue the latter – that societies have a tendency to reproduce their constitutive structures and that institutions within society tend to reflect prevalent social, political and cultural attitudes (Wan, 2006). This may have implications for the nature, structure and governance of the higher education system and its potential to facilitate the emergence of developmental leaders and coalitions. For example, attitudes towards women in leadership roles and society in general may be reflected in the types of roles women have within higher education institutes. However, concurrently higher education institutes may influence their surroundings through institute-based research and activities, and the graduates that institutes produce. Walker, McLean and Vaughan (2010) argue that socially conscious graduates can play a significant role in shaping social policy and change within society if they are equipped with the right knowledge, skills and values. Additionally research on the World Values Survey data suggests that education can be influential in supporting change, pointing to "threshold effects" and "blocking factors" that can either facilitate or hold back change (Welzel and Inglehard, 2010). Research in Latin America supports this, contending that universities have promoted democracies and provided space for debate and critical thinking, even in authoritarian regimes (De Moura Castro and Levy, 2000).

Figure 1: Developmental Leadership Framework



2.2 The Relationship between Education and Civic Engagement

Understanding the relationship between education and civic engagement is critical for informing efforts for education to enhance social participation. Putnam (cited in Campbell, 2009: 771) described education as "the most important predictor" of different forms of social participation. There are a number of reasons posited for this relationship, including the fact that education increases knowledge, which can break down barriers to social participation. It can also expand perspectives, values and aspirations and encourage critical and analytical thinking beyond individual circumstances (White, 1997; Kuh, 1995). In addition, education processes may inform values and positive behaviours that encourage civic engagement such as voting or volunteering (Campbell, 2009), and those who engage in civic activities during adolescence are more likely to remain engaged in adulthood (Kirlin, 2002). However, it is also possible that the correlation between levels of education and civic engagement are due to a selection effect, which only shows that that those who would have engaged were also likely to have gone on to higher education studies. This literature review examines higher education systems and institutes in more detail to explore potential ways in which processes in higher education may foster values that encourage civic engagement and the emergence of developmental leaders and coalitions.

03

The Factors that Support the Emergence of Developmental Leadership

To further examine the potential for higher education institutes to produce developmental leadership that can positively influence the broader political, economic and social structure, it is necessary to examine the components of a higher education system and institute in order to identify what an effective higher education system and institute should/could look like if it aims to support the emergence of developmental leaders and coalitions. This section will consider the overall goals of a higher education system and individual institutes and how this frames the learning environment they create and how they are governed and managed.

3.1 The Aims and Objectives of Higher Education

Developing the next generation of leaders is an implicit goal of higher education institutes. For example Yale's mission statement is to: "educate [students] for leadership in scholarship, the professions and society".[2] More broadly, higher education institutes are expected to meet the needs of the knowledge economy and produce graduates who can become productive assets to the workforce, as explored in Phase 1 of this research. They also have an important research function. Government policy can be a key driver affecting the focus of skills development within higher education institutes, influencing the curriculum and courses offered at higher education institutes as seen in Singapore and discussed in Box 1.

Box 1: Higher Education Policy in Singapore

In Singapore there has been a strong emphasis within education and trade policy on providing graduates for economic growth. This has been coordinated and led by the National Manpower Council – a body chaired by the Minister of Manpower with representatives from the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Trade and Industry. This cross-sector body enables oversight of labour-market needs to ensure that education and training remains responsive to market demands and delivers high quality teaching.

Source: Saxena, 2011.

As seen in Singapore, and elsewhere, higher education reforms have largely been in response to globalisation, economic demands and social development. As such, key aspects of reform have been changes in governance of higher education institutes, improved student access to higher education opportunities, and modern curricula with an emphasis on science and technology (Harman, Hayden and Pham, 2010). At an institute level, some higher education institutes have been more responsive in adapting their curricula and teaching approach to meet labour needs (Grubb and Lazerson, 2005). This requires strong leadership and insight within institutes.

2 http://www.yale.edu/about/mission.html

However, many academics argue that it is beyond the responsibility of a university to provide students with enterprise and direct skills training for future employment (Warwicker, 2011). Rather, they perceive the role as being to enhance core competencies and high-level skills such as problem solving, analytical skills, and creativity. This perspective sees higher education endowing students with skills for life, rather than specific training for work.

Encompassing both of these perspectives De Moura and Levy (2000) contend that there are four main functions of higher education: academic leadership, professional development, technical training and development and general higher education. General higher education involves the largest proportion of students. It encompasses subjects and content that typically provide professional skills, but graduates may not find employment in a field directly related to their study. For example, history students are unlikely to have to apply subject knowledge they obtained in their day-to-day employment, but they will have to apply transferable skills. Thus general higher education is seen to foster more general skills that can be applied to a variety of work, social and political settings, and can be influential in the formation of developmental leaders across all sectors of society.

In addition to developing technically proficient graduates, many higher education institutes have focused attention on the development of leadership skills, as seen within the types of courses being offered, the competencies courses seek to develop and the provision of skills-based leadership training (Brungardt, 1996). Specific leadership education and training is seen within academic contexts and defined curricula, but it is also seen in extracurricular activities, which may be administered by student development offices rather than academic departments, and frequently as part of elective careers training. The academic approach to leadership education typically entails psychological and management studies, as well as social science and humanities perspectives. Whilst the former may provide a more theoretical insight into leadership, the latter often contextualises the study of leadership.

3.2 Skills and Competencies Developed

Education is broadly recognised as a critical factor determining an individual's progression to leadership positions, with individuals in leadership roles typically achieving higher than average levels of education (Ruostetsaari, 2006; Burngardt, 1996). Higher education is perceived to encourage critical thinking and exploration of ideas beyond students' individual circumstances and interests. It is thus seen as providing students with "insight into the nature of their own society and therewith into themselves, thus making them better capable of acting in the world" (White, 1997: 7).

3.2.1 Problem solving, critical thinking and an enquiring mind

Walker *et al.* (2010) contend that higher education should teach transformative values whereby students are not only learning technical skills and knowledge, but are led to question how they will use these skills and apply them for the benefit of others. This holistic aim of higher education institutes to develop more than technical knowledge and skills is typically reflected in their mission statements and vision. For example, the University of Cambridge includes within its values the "encouragement of a questioning spirit" and "education which enhances the ability of students to learn throughout life".[3] Similarly, the mission of Yale College (the undergraduate programme of Yale University) includes the development of students' "intellectual, moral, civic and creative capacities" through academic pursuits and social experience, with the aim of cultivating citizens who can "lead and serve",[4] with a focus on providing education that "fosters intellectual curiosity, independent thinking, and leadership abilities".[5]

3 http://www.admin.cam.ac.uk/univ/mission.html
4 http://www.yale.edu/about/yale-school-mission-statements.pdf
5 http://yalecollege.yale.edu/content/yale-college-experience

But, how do higher education institutes structure their learning environment, curriculum and teaching to develop these skills? To further explain how higher education might contribute to the formation of developmental leaders it is necessary to examine in more detail the types of skills and competencies developed during higher education, how higher education institutes foster the development of these skills and how students are enabled and encouraged to apply these skills to consolidate their learning and apply them in their future careers.

3.2.2 Beyond the individual – skills for public good

Gardner (2007) suggests that actively engaged citizens need to be disciplined in their approach to learning and problem solving; have the ability to synthesise information; be creative and questioning; remain respective and empathetic – seeking ways to work with others – and ethical, looking beyond individual desires, interests and needs to consider those of broader society and notions of the collective good. These are all competencies that are equally applicable to developmental leaders, and should be fostered within higher education learning processes.

Some are more dismissive of the importance of educational content in civic engagement and the development of values. Rather they attach more credence to the types of people accessing higher education and the overall educational experience (see Nie, Junn and Stehlik-Barry (1996) as discussed in Campbell, 2009). Saxena (2011: 126) argues that "values cannot be taught in a classroom, but are picked up by association, habit and example; they are best transmitted by those who live those values and influence others – in other words, by supervisors, managers and leaders in an organisation. Strong, competent and honest leadership engenders, inspires and motivates similar positive behaviour". Similarly Walker *et al.* (2010) call for a focus on the process of skills development and capability formation, and identification of an institute's educational philosophy. This suggests that teaching and management approaches are paramount in encouraging the emergence of developmental leaders. It also implies that higher education institutes wishing to support developmental leadership need quality assurance processes that go beyond teaching content and course specific learning outcomes to also consider broader development of skills and values.

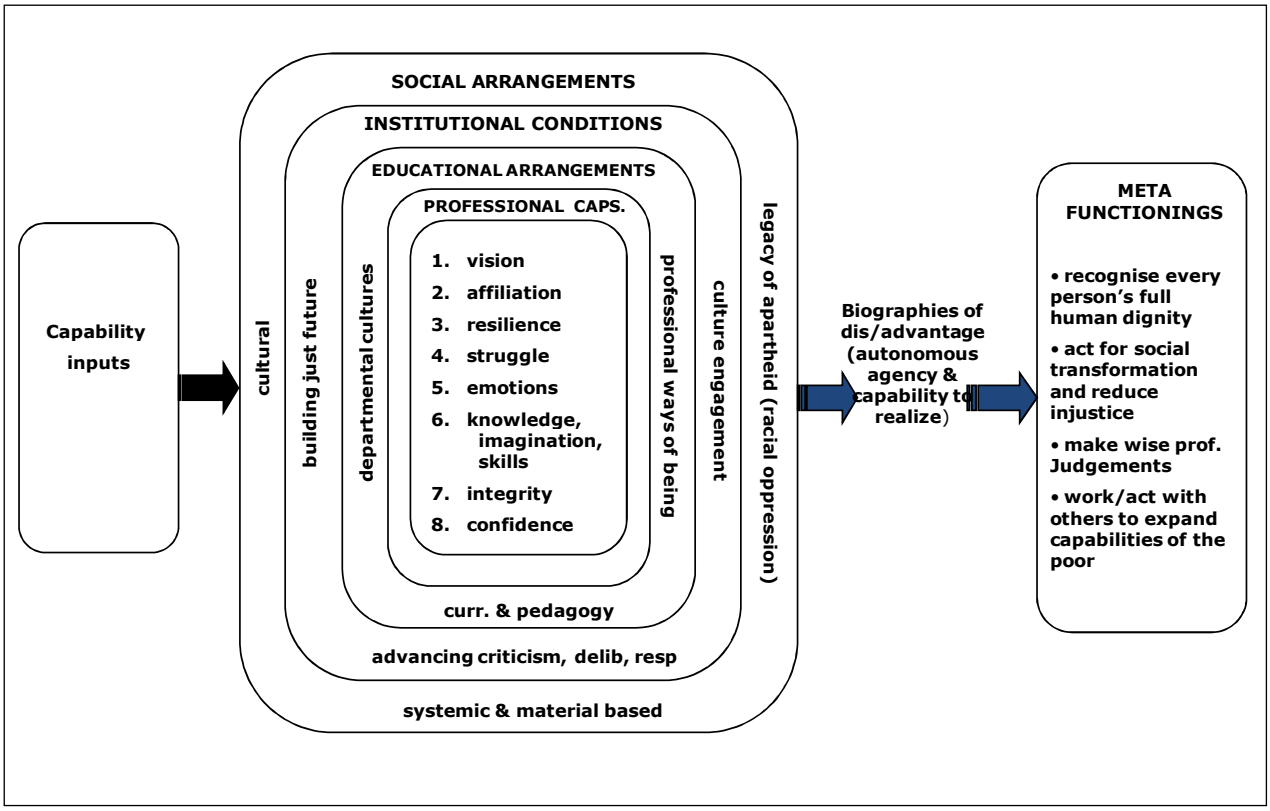
However, Trow (2007) argues that with the expansion of higher education, institutes have lost their focus on developing moral values and personal character, with course content, delivery and assessment emphasising technical skills. One exception to this is the strong emphasis placed on ambition within some higher education institutes, with Trow (2007) indicating that elite organisations which focus on ambition, successfully instil such values and go on to produce a high proportion of leaders within society. Kuh (1995) contends that creating such ethos is a combination of intangible qualities including the institute's enacted vision and philosophy, that is transmitted into a belief system shared by the majority of faculty members, administrators and students and so becomes mutually reinforcing.

Recent surveys of higher education institutes in the USA indicate that they are beginning to respond to this more holistic way of thinking, establishing institute-wide learning goals that establish expectations for the skills and abilities that students are expected to obtain. These goals are cross-curricular and common across subject areas, emphasising core sets of skills that are deemed essential for students (NSSE, 2010). This could represent a step towards more consistent educational philosophies within higher education institutes, as called for by Walker *et al.* (2010). They call for higher education institutes to consider more strategically how core values are promoted across all subjects and embedded within the approach to teaching and institutional ethos.

In their study of the development of 'public good professionals' in South Africa, Walker *et al.* (2010) develop a framework to map the various components that are instrumental in the formation of capa-

bilities that enable professionals to work for the public good (see Figure 2). They rationalise that these capabilities are not only formed through teaching and learning processes but also influenced by factors at an individual level and the social arrangements in which a student lives and studies. For Walker *et al.* (2010) these capabilities are critical for higher education institutes to help produce individuals who have the appropriate knowledge, skills and competences to become developmental leaders who can work for social transformation and to further issues for the public good.

Figure 2: Human Development Public Good Professional Capabilities Index



Source: Walker *et al.*, 2010: 8.

The meta-functions proposed by Walker *et al.* (2010) refer to the overarching behaviours that are seen as central for all graduates if they are to become public good professionals, "transformative agents", or, for our purposes, developmental leaders. The above framework depicts the formation of these capabilities as an interaction between educational arrangements, university conditions, social arrangements and individual traits and experiences. The key educational arrangements that higher education institutes can influence to encourage the development of these capabilities are the curriculum, pedagogy, departmental cultures and the ways in which professional conduct is encouraged. Critical university conditions include the institutional culture, response to criticism, deliberation and responsibility, social engagement and contributions towards building a positive path for development. Social arrangements consider the effects of the political, economic and social context in which institutes are situated and how these may shape the values developed.

3.2.3 Skills for leadership

In a similar vein to the above framework, Brungardt (1996) posits that leaders are born with attributes that make them effective leaders, but that their upbringing, education and experience also nurture leadership qualities. He goes on to question how influential education is in the formation of developmental leaders. In addition to formal education, he identifies three further external influences on the

emergence of leaders: childhood and adolescent development and experience, work experience, and specific leadership education and training. No relative weighting of importance between these four factors is suggested by Brungardt (1996); however, he does contend that different factors are more influential at certain stages of life. For example, during adolescence and young adulthood (when students are typically engaged in higher education) young people are beginning to observe and recognise effective and ineffective leadership. Thus having good role models and demonstrations of leadership is significant in informing the attitudes towards leadership styles.

In addition, having opportunities to practice different leadership styles can be influential. Higher education can afford students such opportunities as part of their formal education, via group work, but also through extra-curricular activities such as groups and societies, sporting activities, voluntary work and student governing bodies. Indeed some students consider extra-curricular activities as the most significant higher education experience (Kuh, 1995). Kuh (1995) found that peer interactions and leadership responsibilities were the most commonly given reasons for changes in personal competences (social competence, self-awareness and autonomy), and leadership responsibilities were mostly strongly linked with the development of practical competencies – with nearly half of respondents in a survey of US graduates saying that this was the most significant factor in improving practical skills. Kirlin (2002) contends that extra-curricular activities also give individuals the opportunity to participate in activities that require cooperation, interaction and collective decision making, which can then be applied in leadership and civic contexts. However, not all students appear to benefit equally from experiences; the gains seem to be dependent on individual student and institute characteristics (Kuh, 1995).

In the leadership and management literature, core skills and competencies for effective leadership include: cooperation, competition, and influence tactics, alongside critical thinking, team work, planning and organisational skills, decision making, taking responsibility and delegation (Brungardt, 1996). Whilst they can be encompassed within the formal curriculum, these skills can also be exercised and imparted through extra-curricular activities (student societies/clubs, student-government, volunteering, work placements, competitions, etc.) and through specific training opportunities (for example, careers or employability training or through university-provided advice/training to leadership teams in student societies). In addition, many Masters level qualifications focus explicitly on leadership development, hoping to equip an already promising elite group with the necessary skills and knowledge to take the individuals within that group to higher levels of leadership. There are also specific leadership development programmes such as Yale University's World Fellows Programme, as described in Box 2.

Box 2: Yale World Fellows Program[6]

Yale's World Fellows Program is an international leadership training scheme, which has been accepting students since 2002 and aims to equip up to 18 emerging leaders from around the world every year. The curriculum includes seminars on leadership strategy and ethics, and theories of leadership, plus broader topics facing developmental leaders today, including globalisation, development theory and policy, politics, economics, governance, democratization, public health, international law, the environment and technology. In addition fellows receive weekly professional skills training, including effective leadership, public speaking, negotiation, writing for publication and media interview techniques.[7] Networking is strongly encouraged, both within the Fellows scheme (with an annual alumni conference and regular college dinners), and with the broader Yale community (via guest lectures, meetings with students groups, a student liaison scheme and campus-based living).[8]

6 www.yale.edu/worldfellows/index.html
7 http://www.yale.edu/worldfellows/program_curriculum.html
8 http://www.yale.edu/worldfellows/program_activities.html

Whilst the above example provides a more holistic perspective of leadership in the context of political development, economics, etc., Lyne de Ver and Kennedy (2011) contend that many of the leadership development programmes focus on individual characteristics of good leadership in an organisational context such as company management, rather than focusing on leadership for development or institutional formation. Thus the political nature of leadership and notions of 'shared' leadership for public good may be absent from such programmes. This broader perspective of leadership is reflected in a number of leadership programmes with a developing country focus, as seen in Box 3.

Box 3: Conceptions of Leadership

"By leadership, we mean the will and capacity to use one's own personality and abilities to guide, inspire and develop fellow human beings to achieve excellence in any area of endeavour."

Mandela Rhodes Foundation

"Leadership is "rooted in the principle of ubuntu/botho which encompasses the ideas of humanity, compassion and service to others."[9]

The Oprah Winfrey Leadership Academy

Leadership is being a change agent and requires "dynamic, innovative principled leaders" with the skills and tools to transformation their communities and help others achieve their full potential.[10]

LEAP Africa

Source: Lyne de Ver and Kennedy, 2011: 6.

To support this more holistic view of leadership for development, Lyne de Ver and Kennedy (2009) argue that an effective 'leadership for development' programme should also provide students with an understanding of the importance of fostering coalitions and working politically. This is encapsulated in the testimonial from the participant of the AVINA (Leadership for Sustainable Development Programme) in Latin America:

> "I believe that lasting social change and sustainable development come not from individual leadership but from collective action, a mobilization of the community. But sometimes the community needs help defining a vision, a strategy as an organizational framework for social change. I believe the role of a leader for change is to help spark the imagination and vision of the communities where s/he works, and then to help those communities develop practical models for making that vision a reality." (Lyne de Ver and Kennedy, 2009: 6)

3.2.4 Subject-specific skills

The subject studied during higher education does appear to affect the type of skills learnt by students. Some academic research suggests that study of liberal arts, including social sciences and humanities provides the broadest educational experience to best develop leadership skills, because it more frequently contextualises learning, rather than focusing on the theoretical aspects of leadership (Brungardt, 1996). Arts and social science subjects often also entail more group discussion and interaction within class, which typically result in higher levels of student interaction and debate outside of the classroom (NSSE, 2010). In addition, the comparatively higher number of teaching hours associated with science subjects means that students of these subjects have less time to devote to social and extra-curricular activities which may foster leadership and other transferable skills (Kuh, 1995).

9 http://owla.co.za/values.htm
10 http://www.leapafrica.org/VisionandMission.php

A study undertaken for the Developmental Leadership Program on the profile of African heads of state found that law, economics and social studies were the most popular fields of study for African leaders (Theron, 2011). An increasing number having a background in law or economics and this appears to have an association with civilian forms of leadership – i.e. leaders who came to power through legitimate means and respect constitutional presidential term limits and periods of economic growth. Theron (2011) hypothesises that studying law is likely to result in leaders with better understanding of governance, the rules of law and constitutional principles.

3.3 Approaches to Teaching

3.3.1 Opportunities to put skills into practice

Assuming leadership qualities can be learnt, what is the most effective way to teach them? Evidence suggests that the development of leadership skills requires practical consolidation of learning, rather than specifically designed leadership training (Brangardt, 1996; Elmuti, Minnis and Abebe, 2005). For example the Ohio University MBA programme utilises a problem-based learning approach, which uses projects and work situations as the forum in which students learn and apply leadership and business concepts and skills. There is an emphasis on communication, collaboration, teamwork, initiative, creativity and personal responsibility. The approach adopted by Ohio University was in response to generic criticisms of business education being too removed from business practice, and to improve skills development, particularly communication and inter-personal skills (Stinson and Milter, 1996).

Having opportunities to put leadership skills into practice enables students to hone these skills in a safe environment, allowing them to test different leadership styles and assess their effectiveness (Brungardt, 1996). Several MBA programmes have designed their curriculum and provided an overall learning environment which provides students with such opportunities, for example through problem-based project work, business competitions, student-led groups, student conferences, internships and work placements (Net Impact, 2010). Such approaches enable teaching to go beyond conveying content and information to applied understanding.

However, it should be remembered that experiences do not always result in learning and application. Here higher education institutes have a potential role to play in structuring learning environments to enable students to become reflective practitioners who consciously learn from experiences and develop their leadership skills. For example, providing leadership training to students involved in student government or academic, sporting or social societies can strengthen leadership skills. Similarly, structuring assessment to recognise learning and balancing active learning with theoretical understanding is important to embed experience in knowledge (Elmuti *et al*., 2005; Stinson and Milter, 1996).

In addition it is also necessary to remember the importance of concepts of leadership beyond individual skills and how the learning environment can shape this (Lyne de Ver and Kennedy, 2011). For example, going beyond specific problem-based scenarios that are context specific to understanding how leadership creates change and the political and societal aspects of leadership. The latter may be best taught through historical examination of leadership, ethics and politics to challenge views and perceptions of leadership.

3.3.2 Student-focused pedagogical approaches

Outside of leadership courses, using student-focused pedagogical approaches is critical to skills development, for example classroom discussions, group work, presentations and inquiry-based learning. One student said of her experience of classroom discussions and being encouraged to voice her own view:

"it develops you into a public person, to speak for other people, to speak in front of people" (Walker *et al.,* 2010: 41).

Within classrooms, the ways in which subjects are taught can be influential in the soft skills that students develop. For example, the national student survey in the USA found that students who were taught using group activities and worked on group projects were more likely to participate in other activities on campus, to think more critically and to have a broader appreciation of diverse opinions (NSSE, 2010). Similar findings were made by Walker *et al.* (2010), who found that project work enhanced the development of leadership capabilities. Thus teaching approaches have the potential to reinforce skills and attitudes developed during formal teaching.

It is thought that in addition to consolidating learning, more problem-based, positivist pedagogies encourage more active learners, who are encouraged to initiate action, independently seek solutions and take responsibility (Stinson and Milter, 1996). Problem-based learning also requires a very different teaching approach, with staff taking on more of a coaching role rather than lecturing. In turn this requires a different skills set and attitude.

Curriculum revision processes can be influential in broadening the skills acquired by students, with open discussions of teaching approaches enabling lecturers to move beyond meeting teaching and learning requirements to consider development of competencies so that teaching is more transformative rather than a transfer of knowledge (Walker *et al.,* 2010).

More generally, a teaching approach that deals with diversity and encourages discussions of differences of opinion in the classroom can be influential in encouraging openness, fostering positive values, enabling students to formulate informed opinions and improving awareness of others. This is thought to be because it makes the student more active in the learning process (Juedes, 2010).

3.3.3 Mentoring and the "teacher" as role model

Mentoring has been found to be particularly important in facilitating the emergence of leadership skills (Brungardt, 1996; Stinson and Milter, 1996). However, evidence suggests that university professors are taking on less of this role as access to tertiary education has increased (Trow, 2007). Taking on a mentoring role may be unfamiliar for some teachers, who may not have the time or training to confidently mentor all of their students. To address this, some universities have explored using their graduates and alumni networks to mentor current students (Net Impact, 2010).

Muir (2011) contends that it is not just the content or approach to teaching that is relevant, but also who is teaching. He argues that to engender aspiration amongst students to progress within education and adopt leadership roles, it is important for them to have relevant role models within higher education institutes. This includes having a mix of teachers from different ethnic backgrounds and genders.

3.3.4 Social interactions and informal experiences

Some research suggests that students' attitudes and values are shaped more by their informal experiences than formal academic activities (Dey, 1999; Goethals, Winston and Zimmerman, 1999; Juedes, 2010). Informal student interactions and processes of socialisation shape students' opinions, values and attitudes. Comparatively, Dey (1997) argues that most colleges and universities do not make a significant, conscious effort to shape student values, and that the number of social interactions between students can dwarf institutional effects. Astin (1993 cited in Juedes, 2010: 65) goes further stating: "The single most powerful source of influence on the undergraduate student's academic and personal development is

the peer group."

However, Dey (1997) also finds that overall institutional ethos and values can have an influence in determining the direction of student attitudes. For example, if a student attends a politically liberal institute, their views will tend to become more liberal, whereas if they attend a politically conservative institute they will tend to become more conservative. In addition, the overall political and social context will have an influence, and can sometimes counter the institutional influence of the higher education institute, particularly if students live off campus or only study part time.

3.4 Approaches to Governance of Higher Education

Education research has outlined the role of governance and management in creating world class universities. Salmi (2009) reviews the literature and finds that there are some basic features which world class universities posses, such as:

> "...highly qualified faculty, excellence in research, quality teaching, high levels of government as well as non-government sources of funding, international and highly talented students, academic freedom, well-defined autonomous governance structures, and well-equipped facilities for teaching, research, administration, and, (often) student life." (Salmi 2009: 19)

Salmi uses the research to define a framework for a world class university which includes appropriate governance as one of the three major components; the other two are concentration of talent and abundant resources.

The Economist (2005) referred to the tertiary education system in the United States as "the best in the world" and associated this success not only with wealth but with its organisation. The article quoted limited government in the planning of universities, competition between universities for students and research grants and the usefulness of universities in solving real life problems as main factors for the success of universities in the United States.

Higher education governance in some countries does not exhibit developmental leadership. Developmental leadership requires individuals with a range of skills being represented in a number of different sectors to influence the government. Evidence suggests that governance mechanisms within higher education institutes, such as levels of transparency, meritocracy and shared governance, are influential in graduates' attitudes towards governance, with higher education institutes and staff demonstrating models of governance which may then be reflected by their students (Brannelly, Lewis and Ndaruhutse, 2011). However, internal management and operations of higher education institutes are not always positive and may not provide affirmative models of developmental leadership. In some instances, practical experience may also be misaligned with taught content (Heuser, 2007; The Task Force on Higher Education and Society, 2000). Yet, Masten (2006) indicates that higher education institutes can provide effective models of democratic practice.

It is therefore interesting to analyse whether diversification and freedom to influence are reflected in university governance arrangements.

3.4.1 Political appointments and external representation

Fielden (2008) analysed both external representation and selection of universities chair and board members and found:

External representation

- In Tanzania, it is recommended that there are between 11 and 21 board members in any university and up to 80 percent should be appointed externally to the university.
- In Denmark and Norway, over 50 percent of board members must be appointed externally.
- In England, the law states that at least 50 percent of board members in universities created in 1992 must be appointed externally and that there should be between 12 and 24 board members.[11]

Selection

- In Ireland and the UK, the board has the right to appoint a chair without needing ministerial approval. By contrast, in much of the rest of Europe, universities put forward potential candidates, but the appointment of external board members is usually done by Ministers.
- In the Netherlands and Sweden, the respective governments appoint both the chair and board members to serve for a three-year term.
- In Australia, the government sought to appoint all external board members (they have the right to appoint one or two members in some universities) but there was fierce opposition from the vice chancellors and the idea was abandoned.

3.4.2 Up-to-date and relevant legislative frameworks

Governance arrangements are attributed with determining the responsiveness of higher education systems to changing needs and knowledge, and are seen as crucial in enabling institutes to keep pace with change and maintain their relevance. In a survey of higher education institutes in 49 countries in Sub-Saharan Africa, 76 percent reported a legislative framework being in place (Saint, 2009). However, in 13 of these 37 countries legislation was over 20 years old and designed for a significantly smaller sector and a very different higher education system. Yet legal frameworks provide the parameters for governance and management, and are important in enacting policy reforms and encouraging responsiveness.

3.4.3 The divergence between formal policy/legislation and day-to-day practice

However, good governance processes and autonomy arrangements are not enough in themselves to instil values and a positive ethos that can encourage developmental leadership. Higher education institutes must go beyond governance and management processes to also ensure that activities reflect the values they wish their students to develop. In particular Salmi (2009: 28) contends that world-class higher education institutes should provide:

> "inspiring and persistent leaders, a strong strategic vision of where the institution is going, a philosophy of success and excellence, and a culture of constant reflection, organizational learning and change."

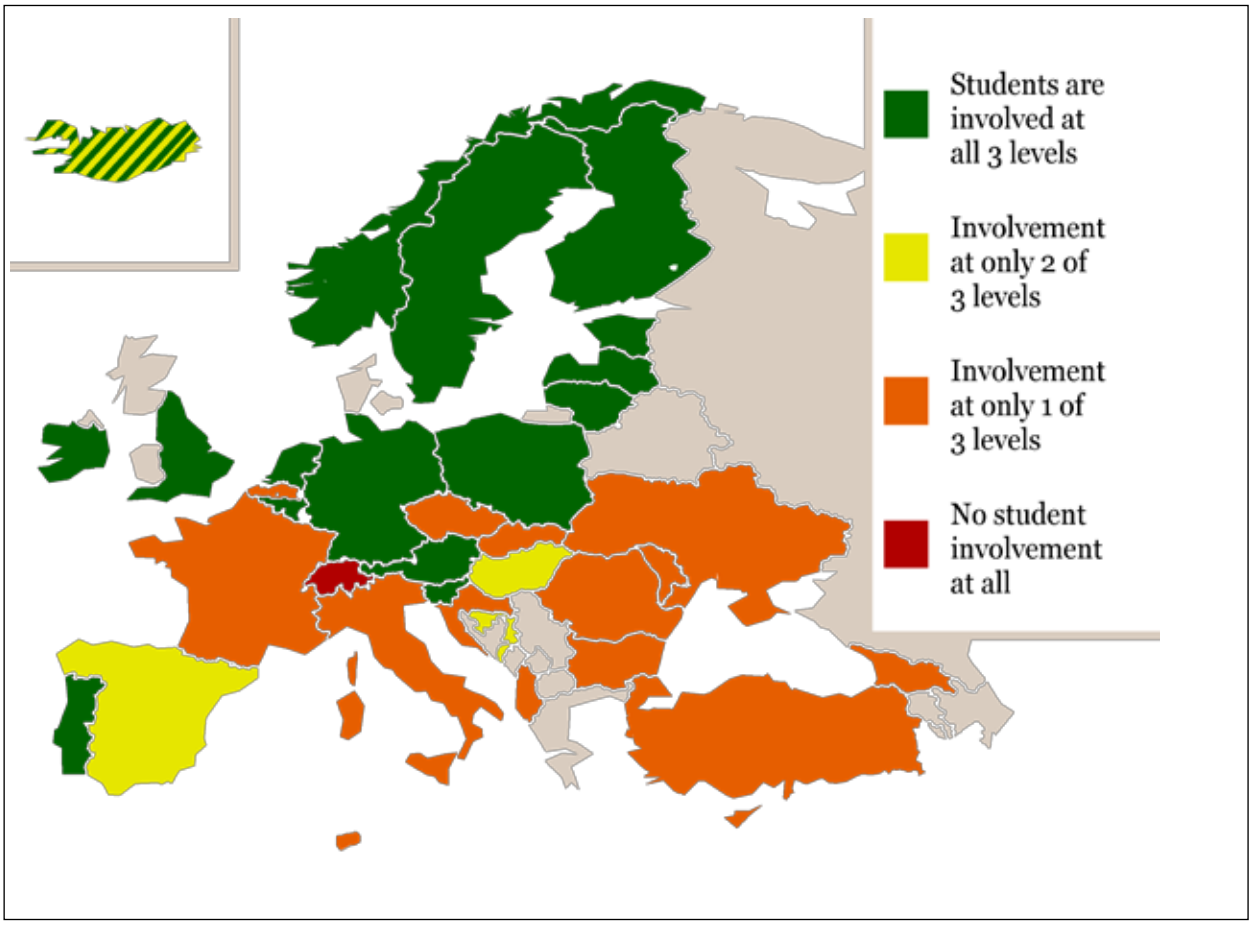
3.4.4 Student involvement in decision-making processes

Very few higher education systems involve students in their organisational learning through the quality assurance mechanism. The National Unions of Students in Europe (ESIB, 2007: 15) found that:

> "there have been significant changes and developments of quality assurance systems across Europe, including steps forward with regard to the involvement of students in quality assurance activities. However, the involvement of students is still far from being broadly well established throughout the whole EHEA [European Higher Education Area]. Whilst many countries have a coherent system of external quality assurance in place, there seems to be a lack of coherent frameworks for internal quality assurance mechanisms, which are often completely left in the responsibility of institution."

11 In the UK, there are two different governance systems for universities: one for those established before 1992 and another for those established after 1992.

Figure 3: Map of Student Participation in Quality Assurance



Key to levels: national, institutional and faculty/programme/departmental level
Source: ESIB, 2007: 18.

Some universities however, have ensured students are part of their vision for the university and have empowered students within the organisation. The Associated Students of the University of California, Los Angeles (ASUCLA), was created in 1919. According to its website,[12] the ASUCLA has evolved into a four-part organisation typical of many student associations in North America, Europe and Australia:

- Undergraduate Students Association, the elected representatives of 23,000 undergraduate students;
- Graduate Students Association, which represents almost 11,000 graduates;
- Student Media at UCLA which includes several student magazines and a daily newspaper, a radio station and yearbook group; and
- Services and Enterprises, which includes the Students Union, Event Services, restaurants and shops.

3.4.5 Gender, nationality and other diversity amongst university leaders

Our hypothesis is that it is also important that leaders of higher education institutes are from diverse backgrounds in terms of gender, nationality and education reflecting the diversity that the university wishes to reflect in its student population. Goodall (2006) surveyed university leaders in the top 100 universities as identified by the Institute of Education Shanghai at Jiao Tong University (SJTU) Index. He found that:

12 http://www.asucla.ucla.edu/about.asp

- The location of the university does not necessarily reflect the nationality of the president: 80 percent of the top universities are in the US and the remainder are in the UK. However, the leaders come from four countries, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the US.
- Female leaders are underrepresented in the top universities. However, it is more common to find female leaders in the top 20 universities (there are 6) than in the remaining 80 universities (where there are only 9).
- All presidents of the top 100 universities have a PhD with the majority having reached the presidency through following an academic path.
- Presidents come from a variety of disciplinary backgrounds: 52 percent from the sciences, 37 percent from the social sciences and only 11 percent from arts and humanities. The percentage of presidents who come from the latter category has been declining since the early 1990s.

The fact that women are generally underrepresented at the top universities is also reflected in many leading businesses. For example, in the UK only 13.9 percent of directors on FTSE 100 and 8.7 percent of FTSE 250 are women.[13] Mirella Visser, founder of the Centre for Inclusive Leadership in the Netherlands, outlined how the practice of quotas for women on the board was widespread.

> "Spain, Italy, France, Belgium, Holland and Norway already have them, with targets for women on the board varying from 20-40% by 2015. The EU is also serious considering bringing in a Europe wide 40% quota."[14]

The UK has a target of having females make up 25 percent of board members in FTSE 100 companies by 2015. A study by Catalyst (2004) found that companies with the highest proportion of women on their top management teams outperformed companies with the lowest proportion of women on their top management teams and this held true for the two financial measures that were analysed. The study attributes some of this improved performance to a better understanding of the company's consumer base. This is a lesson which could also be beneficial to higher education institutes.

3.5 System-level Levers

The government and bodies responsible for overseeing higher education can play a key role in setting standards, establishing core competencies to be developed during higher education and regulating the sector to ensure that higher education institutes contribute towards the emergence of developmental leaders and coalitions as well as economic growth.

3.5.1 Level of autonomy of higher education institutes

Alongside international efforts to provide consistency in standards and comparability in the qualifications awarded (for example, the Bologna Process), within countries there have been moves away from line ministry control towards the greater legal autonomy of higher education institutes (Saint, 2009). This has meant more freedom in curriculum, research agendas, management and budgeting and the state adopting a more supervisory role (Harman *et al.*, 2010). This has led to increased evaluation against self-defined criteria rather than institutional criteria established by a regulatory body. Instead the role of government has shifted to a validation role (Altbach, Reisburg and Rumbley, 2009). This role is often undertaken by a higher education council or commission who will typically also have responsibility for advising on policy and financing approaches, to collect and publish higher education statistics (Saint, 2009). Research from the US indicates that systems with a more decentralised system are associated with higher levels of productivity and resources at higher education institutes (Knott and Payne, 2004).

13 http://www.womenboardmembers.co.uk/downloads/violet-sunday-times.pdf
14 http://www.centreforinclusiveleadership.com/index.php/en/

In Singapore, the Civil Service College is a statutory board which has oversight of state-provided training programmes, consultancy and advisory services and research activities related to the civil service. The Civil Service College is described as playing a "central role in forging values and ethos, building competencies and nurturing leadership capacity in the Singapore Public Service" (Saxena, 2011: 105). In addition, it also plays an important network role, bringing together civil service employees from across different government departments. It provides learning and knowledge sharing opportunities both within the civil service, but also with leaders in the private sector. Such networking events are also seen as provide an environment for dialogue to "exchange views, build shared ethos and perspectives" (Saxena, 2011: 105).

In systems where higher learning institutes have greater levels of autonomy, obtaining coherence between national expectations and vision for the higher education system and an individual institute's goals can be a difficult balance to achieve. To some extent, the shift towards greater autonomy for higher education institutes has been influenced by rapid increases in enrolment as well as concerns for efficiency (Saint, 2009). For example, in China higher education enrolment increased by nearly 10 million between 1998 and 2004, with annual increases exceeding 25 percent (Wan, 2006). As the number and size of higher education institutes increases to meet demand, more decentralised decision-making has enabled the sector to be more responsive. It is often hoped that allowing market forces to operate in this way will enable higher education institutes to produce graduates who meet the needs of the economy. Governments can encourage such behaviour through performance-based funding. However, this is dependent on higher education institutes themselves having the necessary vision and leadership to be responsive to change. This drive to meet the needs of the knowledge economy may also sideline the less technical and more holistic components of higher education which the evidence presented above suggests is key to producing core competencies for social engagement, leadership and employability. Thus there is still a potential role for government in ensuring a balance in the forms of higher education delivered within public institutes. Indeed Saint (2009) argues that the state still has an influential role in holding institutes to account (often using performance-based funding allocations) for maintaining standards and meeting broader societal (as well as economic needs).

3.5.2 The link between political, social, economic environment and drivers for change within higher education systems

As highlighted in Section 2, the context in which higher education institutes operate can be highly influential on the ways in which they individually operate and thus for their potential to foster developmental leaders. This is discussed by Torres and Schugurensky (2002) in relation to higher education institutes in Latin America. Here they contend that the political context is becoming increasingly influential in terms of the level of autonomy universities have, as well as financing arrangements and expected accountability and reporting mechanisms. This has led to a number or institutes reforming their organisational structure to focus more on external demands for academic excellence, efficiency in operation and rates of return on investments. Torres and Schugurensky (2002) contend that this has been at the expense of focus on social transformation. Similarly Walker *et al.* (2010) discuss how the high value being placed on technical skills for the knowledge economy and associated reforms within higher education may be displacing a focus on equity within education.

3.5.3 Other system level considerations

It is also important to consider the link between secondary and tertiary education institutes, to ensure that the former are providing students with the appropriate skills and competencies needed for when they transition to higher education institutes. Education at secondary level provides an important foundation of critical thinking skills and other competencies such as communication and problem solving (World Bank, 2008). Ensuring oversight of this transition process and good working relationships

between secondary and tertiary levels of education is critical. Systemically this is particularly important as higher education may be coordinated through its own ministry, so high-level strategic links may not be automatically in place.

04

The Development of Networks

Network analysis has been studied for hundreds of years. For example, in 1736 Leonard Euler investigated the uses of seven bridges which connected two land masses to find a single route which used each bridge only once, using a graphical representation (Newman, Barabasi and Watts, 2006). Newman *et al.* (2006) argue that the science of network analysis has changed in recent years to focus on real world networks: both empirical as well as theoretical, dynamic rather than static networks and on both the typological objects and frameworks on which dynamic systems are built.

Jackson (2003: 1) notes how network structures are used in a variety of situations:

> "The set of economic situations where network structures play an important role is wide and varied. For instance, personal contacts play critical roles in obtaining information about job opportunities. Such networks of relationships also underlie the trade and exchange of goods in non-centralized markets, the provision of mutual insurance in developing countries, research and development and collusive alliances among corporations, and international alliances and trading agreements to mention just a few examples."

The process of bringing about change and transformation for development goes beyond one individual and the influence of a strong leader. It also requires a process of negotiation and the formation of alliances between the state and other actors in society to provide a critical mass of power and interests to promote and sustain change (Brautigam and Diolle, 2009). Thus coalitions and networks are an essential component of development leadership. The following section examines the roles of networks, their formation during higher education and their influence in bringing about social, economic and political change.

4.1 Interactions within Networks

Given the important role networks play, unsurprisingly there has a great deal of research in terms of interactions within networks. Social and economic networks have attracted substantial research and a number of high profile books have been written on the subject including *The Tipping Point* (Gladwell, 2002) and *Linked: How Everything Is Connected to Everything Else and What It Means for Business and Everyday Life* (Barabasi, 2003). There is however, more limited research into how networks form (Jackson, 2003). The Developmental Leadership Programme recognises the need to develop networks and coalitions and provide greater understanding on how they form:

> "Like leaders, elites also seldom act in isolation, but commonly work with other elites (domestic or foreign, public or private) to achieve outcomes which they could not achieve on their own, especially with respect to overcoming collective action problems and achieving positive or negative developmental or policy outcomes. When leaders and elites cooperate to achieve ends they could not achieve on their own, one can usefully talk of coalitions being forged. Whether formal or informal, long lasting or transient, vertical or horizontal, coalitions are far more common in the everyday politics of human communities than is conventionally recognised in developmental research or

> policy statements. But why and how they form, and when, how and why they become developmental rather than predatory or collusive coalitions, is therefore of the greatest importance for development theory and operational concerns." (Leftwich, 2009: 5)

These development coalitions could be formed at higher education institutes. However, analysis of networks in higher education has mainly focused on learning communities with several research papers finding generally positive relationships between learning community involvement and engagement, academic success, and successful college transitions (Inkelas, Daver, Vogt and Leonard, 2007; Pasque and Murphy, 2006; Pike, 1999; Stassen, 2003; Zhao and Kuh, 2004). Pike, Kuh and McCormick (2008) also found institutional characteristics were related to the strength of the relationships between learning community participation and student engagement.

Although there is limited information on networks forming at higher education institutes, an examination of graduates of a single university, Oxford, shows that it has educated a number of leaders. This includes the current British Prime Minister as well as 26 former ones; 47 Nobel Prize winners; 20 Archbishops of Canterbury; and around 50 Olympic medal holders. Oxford has also produced a significant number of current political leaders, with a number holding key posts in Cabinet (including the Foreign Secretary, Home Secretary and Chancellor of the Exchequer). In addition 117 Oxford graduates were elected to Parliament in the 2010 General Election, and a further 140 sit in the House of Lords. The reach of Oxford University's role in producing leaders goes beyond its own borders – it has educated 30 international leaders and in 2011, one US State Governor, two members of the House of Representatives and three members of the US Senate had been educated at Oxford.[15]

The role of education institutes in fostering coalitions may also extend to secondary level. A paper examining the roles of coalitions in the development of Mauritius found that a surprisingly high number of key decision-makers and stakeholders who were instrumental in bringing about change after independence were all educated at the same government-run secondary school (Brautigam and Diolle, 2009). Indeed the school was described by one Mauritian as "the nursery supplying Mauritius with its leaders... thinkers, researchers..." (Brautigam and Diolle, 2009: 29). Similarly a study on Botswana's elite finds that they studied overseas together or within a handful of elite schools (Sebudubudu and Molutsi, 2009). Both studies do not attribute the influence and resilience of these coalitions only to old-school ties, but also to the moral values and ways of thinking that graduates from the education institute are likely to share, which helps to form a common system of political and social values. Evidence from Botswana and Mauritius suggests that the role of education institutes in developing networks and coalitions is particularly significant in smaller states where individuals are more likely to graduate from a small number of key schools and universities, as this helps consolidate networks and the ties between individuals (Brautigam and Diolle, 2009; Sebudubudu and Molutsi, 2009). This emphasises the need to analyse the relationship between attending a prestigious university or education institute and the types of roles the graduates eventually undertake on leaving, as well as the education ethos of institutes. The network analysis to be undertaken in the next phase of the research will further explore this relationship and the attitudes formed at university in particular country contexts.

4.2 The Importance of Higher Education in Influencing Networks in Adult Life

Social capital research has found links between attitudes and behaviours in adulthood being influenced by youth experiences. Stolle and Hooghe's (2004) research analysing the Youth-Parent Socialization Panel Study 1965-1982 found that adult indicators of social capital are significantly influenced by what happens during adolescence, and this claim applies both to the attitudinal (values, like generalised trust) and the structural (i.e. participation in formal or informal networks) components of social capital.

15 http://www.ox.ac.uk/about_the_university/oxford_people/famous_oxonians/

Higher education therefore can play a role in forming social capital and influencing attitudes and networks in adult life. Students are often exposed to new ideas and concepts at higher education institutes and have greater freedom to act due to fewer ties and responsibilities. Allberbeck (1972 cited in Gill and Defronzo, 2009: 205) state that:

> "...it is the social structural situation of students who, in comparison to members of other social groups, are freer from occupational and family constraints to engage in activism in pursuit of moral ideals, which is the essential condition for the development of student movements, not a supposedly inherent youthful rebelliousness. In addition to the uniqueness of their structural situation, students in higher educational environments are often exposed to new ideas which make them more likely to participate in movements."

Kluver (1998 cited in Gill and Defronzo, 2009: 215) noted that:

> "...students in countries characterized by a Confucianist cultural system, like South Korea, tend to view themselves as being a conscience for their larger societies. Since university education prepares them to play important roles in their developing nations, many see their temporary situation as students, relatively free from family and job responsibilities, as providing them with both a unique opportunity and responsibility to engage in morally motivated political activity."

4.3 The Links between Student Movements and Social and Political Activism

Student movements demonstrate the characteristics identified by social movement research:

> "Social movements...are best conceived...as the regular if informal patterns of relations between multiple actors, through which resources and symbols are circulated, solidarities and identities are reinforced, and different protest actions and organizations come to be perceived as part of the same collective project." (Diani, 2008: 3)

The majority of studies of student movements focus on relatively moderate forms of student activism in Western states. These were typically regarding institutional reforms and policies, or those which aimed to change leaders within organisations such as government officials, rather than calls for radical regime or political change (Defronzo, 2007). Examples of student movements in developing countries have focused on alternative political or economic systems as students become more aware of alternative approaches. For instance, learning about alternative political and economic approaches to their own can lead students to question the approaches currently used. In contrast to many student movements in Western economies, the focus is not on institutions but changes to the wider system (Gill and Defronzo, 2009). This may also indicate that students could benefit from studying overseas and learning about alternative political and economic systems first hand, as seen in the Botswana elite who studied abroad (Sebudubudu and Molutsi, 2009). It may also allow cross-country collaboration in the years after higher education. In addition, researchers have found students are often the leading advocates in society calling for change. Altbach (1989) also points out that since few developing nations have fully functioning democratic systems, students are often viewed as 'spokespersons for a broader population' and 'a conscience of their societies', which can facilitate movements originating among students expanding to mobilise larger populations.

Gill and Defronzo (2009) outline a number of leaders who have also formed close ties with students including major revolutionary leaders such as Fidel Castro (Cuba), Carlos Fonseca (Nicaragua), Chris Hani (South Africa) and Mao Tse Tung (China).

There are also a number of examples of the development of revolutionary networks within the contexts

of student movements including the 1915-19 New Youth Movement in China, and the Fedayeen-e Khalq (Martyrs of the People) and the Mujahadeen-e Khalq (Islamic Army of the People) during the early stages of the Iranian Revolution (Gill and Defronzo, 2009). McAdam (1989) used survey data on the 1964 Mississippi Freedom Summer and found that students who participated in high-risk activism were more politically active throughout the sixties than those who did not participate and remain so today.

Figure 4 below shows student activism movements are evident throughout history in a variety of different country contexts. There are a number of movements which started as students wishing to change higher education institutes and evolved to support more democratic/social causes. For example, the Optor movement started at the University of Belgrade to protest against laws restricting freedom the expansion. It then expanded to support a wide movement of political change within Serbia. The movement is also believed to have strongly influenced the later Rose and Orange revolutions in Georgia and Ukraine respectively. The recent uprising in Egypt also shows how traditionally unrepresented groups in Arab politics such as women have been able to actively participate in activism as they become more educated and empowered. Fifty percent of university students in Egypt are now female.

Figure 4 Timeline of Student Movements

1918	The Coroda movement by Argentine students contributed to greater secularisation of public higher education and increased student politicisation and activism.
1920-1947	Indian students supported Indian independence.
1960s	Students in the United Sates supported both the Civil Rights movement and anti-war movement.
1987	The National Council of University Students, which was founded in 1987 after the reform of the electoral system, worked for reunification of the Koreas and for further democratising reforms.
1989	Students in Beijing and across China protested initially for economic reform and later for political reform. The protests led to military action, arrests and restricted media coverage.
2000	Optor a Serbian youth movement started as a movement in the University of Belgrade campaigning against repressive university and media laws. The movement expanded and is credited for galvanising support amongst Serbians which led to presidential change.
2003	The Rose Revolution against electoral fraud in Georgia and the Kmara movement involved student activists and led to new elections taking place.
2004-2005	The 2004 presidential election was believed to have been rigged due to corruption, voter intimidation and electoral fraud. The Orange Revolution led to a second round of elections in the Ukraine. Extensive work behind the scenes was undertaken by student activists.
2011	Egypt saw youth movements and women joining protests in Tahrir Square. University educated women played a role in organising and reporting the events.

Sources: Anders and McFaul, 2006; BBC, 2005; Bernasconi, 2008; Cohen, 2000; Lee 2006; Lipset and Altback, 1967; Nathan, 2001a and 2001b; Van Aken, 1971; and Wolf, 2011.

The question to be explored in the next phase of the research is how to support the networks developed in higher education institutes and ensure that these potential leaders of the future continue to be involved and advocate for the values outlined above.

05
Conclusion

The recent trends in access and delivery of higher education have the potential to shape the processes in which higher education may contribute to the emergence of developmental leaders and coalitions. In light of the evidence presented above and indications from existing studies, this section outlines the effects that such changes and trends may have. In addition this section identifies a number of gaps in the available literature that will be of interest to explore in the next phase of the research. The paper concludes by summarising the key questions to be explored in the field research and case study analysis.

5.1 Changes and Trends in Higher Education

Enrolment in higher education has increased rapidly. Globally over one quarter of the age cohort were enrolled in higher education in 2007, equivalent to 150 million students which is double the number enrolled in 2000 (Altbach *et al.*, 2009). It is projected that by 2025, 14 percent of the world's population over the age of 15 will have attained higher education, with the fastest levels of growth predicted in Asia (Wils, 2008). This is placing pressure on the higher education sector to rapidly expand capacity. The increased demand has led to an increase in private sector provision as well as public sector provision. This has implications for quality assurance and regulation of the sector. In addition there is potential for higher education institutes to have adjusted teaching approaches to cope with larger student cohorts which may have resulted in larger class sizes, reduced contact time and have implications for the quality of learning.

As access to higher education increases and middle classes expand in countries this can create a strata of 'sub-elites' who can compete with more established elites and hold them to account or their actions (Skelcher and Torfing, 2010). This can help establish a new generation of developmental leaders and positive coalitions with the potential to shape the societies in which they live. In principle, the increased number of individuals accessing education could have increased the diversity of students, resulting in higher education institutes that were a more diverse melting pot of students from different ethnic and socio-economic backgrounds. This has the potential to increase awareness and expand opinions and values of students. Many countries have put measures in place to try to encourage more inclusive and equal expansion in access, for example financial support for those from disadvantaged backgrounds or lower admission requirements for women to increase female enrolment (Altbach *et al.*, 2009). However, whilst the student population may have become more diverse in some higher education institutes, this has not necessarily been the case globally. Overall inequality between and within higher education systems has increased over recent decades, with the proliferation of higher education institutes and rapid pace of reforms. Many newer institutes and those in the global South are struggling to establish themselves internationally, when faced with competition from historic universities with proven track records and research capacities. This has led many to specialise in particular subjects and areas of skills development (Altbach *et al.*, 2009). Branch campuses overseas and partnerships have become more common to expand the research and research potential of universities.

The expansion of higher education provision has led to reforms in the structuring, governance and financing of higher education institutes, as discussed in section 3 above. Increasingly powers have been devolved to institute level and the central government's role has shifted to that of regulator and coordinator. Rapid education expansion has also prompted changes in curriculum and teaching approaches,

and the types of courses being delivered. Altbach *et al.* (2009) note the particular popularity of professional courses and institutes who specialise in business and information, communication and technology. Such specialisation has implications for the types of graduates being produced. Whilst graduates with the necessary professional and technical skills are needed to meet the needs of the growing global economy, graduates with more generalist knowledge and a balance of skills and competencies who can take up leadership positions are also needed.

Levels of education serve to position individuals within their social networks, with higher levels of education affording more influential leadership positions (Campbell, 2009), as discussed in section 4 above. However, as higher education systems move towards mass access, individuals may experience 'education inflation', which means that as educational levels have risen within societies, individuals require more education to remain at the top of class hierarchies or to achieve and maintain leadership positions. Where an individual has studied also becomes increasingly important. Brezis and Crouzet (2004) concur with this, contending that in higher access systems the earning potential and career path of a graduate is not only determined by the award of a degree, but is also influenced by the prestige of the institute from which they graduate. This has implications for the types of connections individuals are likely to make during their time in higher education, with the result that some higher education institutes may provide a more fertile breeding ground for developmental coalitions than others.

However, Brezis and Crouzet (2004) also warn that even with meritocratic selection processes, students from elite schools and backgrounds are more likely to meet entrance requirements sustaining an elite presence within certain higher education institutes, particularly more prestigious, elite institutes. They provide examples from the UK where the proportion of business leaders graduating from Oxbridge has been disproportionately high, linked to pre-tertiary education background and connections. So whilst coalitions may form, they are not likely to be inclusive or representative of society as a whole. Similar findings were made by Bergh and Fink (2009) and Boliver (2011), who perceive certain levels of inequality and elitism to be characteristic of higher education systems and a reflection of the society in which they are based. The result of this bias is a less diverse student group within higher education institutes, and a "non-circulation of elites" within society. There is potential that this could stifle the diversity of developmental leaders.

5.2 Gaps in the Literature to be Explored in Further Detail

More than 2.5 million students are studying overseas, and it estimated that this could rise to 7 million by 2020 (Altbach *et al.*, 2009). The majority of international students who typically enrol in higher education institutes in Australia, Europe and North America are from Asia. One study indicates that studying overseas can help broaden students' world outlook, and can be a key place for coalitions to form (Sebudubudu and Molutsi, 2009) with evidence from Botswana indicating that friendship groups with other students from the same host country persist on return and can be influential in employment opportunities, partnerships on projects (business and community-based initiatives) and invitations into political parties and other alliances. However, beyond this study there has been limited research on the effects of studying aboard in the formation of values, awareness of social issues and how this affects whether or not individuals return home and how they contribute to their home society. It is hoped that network analysis within the field research will provide an indication of the influence of studying abroad in the formation of networks and emergence of developmental leadership within home countries.

The majority of the literature examining the role of higher education and leadership addresses leadership from an individual and managerial perspective, and is in the context of higher education institutes within more developed countries. Whilst there has been some research in recent years on the social returns of higher education and its contribution towards the public good (e.g. Walker *et al.,* 2010), this is

a relatively new area of research, particularly within developing countries, and an area that this research hopes to contribute.

In conclusion, the research presented above provides a framework for assessing the various components of a higher education system that can influence the formation of developmental leadership and coalitions. In particular, the field research will seek to explore in further detail the following key issues:

- Do universities include leadership in their mission or vision statements?
- What values do universities perceive to be critical to leadership and how do they try to instil these within their own institute?
- How does the approach to and content of teaching (in theory and in practice) reflect the diversity of skills and competencies that universities wish to develop to both meet the needs of the labour market and to engender qualities of developmental leadership within students?
- To what extent do inter-university partnerships, universities' research outputs and links with industry influence the emergence of developmental leaders and networks?
- To what extent do non-academic components of higher education influence the emergence of developmental leaders and networks?
- To what extent are governance structures at universities representative of wider society and to what extent are they influenced by government?
- In what ways do university leaders represent the diversity of intake and how do they provide strong leadership to ensure values are instilled?
- What are the other networks outside of higher education which appear to be significant in the formation of developmental coalitions?

It is hoped that further research and case study analysis undertaken in the next phase of this research will provide useful evidence for governments and donors seeking to target investments in higher education in ways that encourage the emergence of developmental leadership.

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