

Case-study I

**Successful women
leaders in the South
Asia context**

By Iftikhar Hassan, PhD

About this case-study

This paper summarises the results of a series of case-studies of several successful professional women from five countries in South Asia. Factors such as personal life, education level, characteristics, home life, and the factors the women themselves thought were most important to their success, are discussed in this summary report.

I Introduction

This report provides a summary of a series of case-studies of successful women in Laos, Pakistan, Malaysia, Bangladesh and Indonesia. The studies were sponsored by the Asian Development Bank in 1994, with the expectation that the women's personal profiles would enable policy makers and planners to identify factors which encourage women to progress in environments which are generally not very responsive to women's educational needs. A basic assumption was that education affects women positively, and it was hoped that the level and kind of education that would allow this to happen, could be determined from the research findings.

I.1 Background

Most of South Asia has an agrarian patriarchal culture. The feudal traditions and grossly uneven distribution of wealth, both in rural and urban sectors, continue to persist in spite of industrial development. A period of rapid progress and development has been experienced by all the countries since the middle of the century, when most became independent of foreign rule. But women, along with other weaker sectors of society, are lagging behind in reaping the fruits of freedom. For example, Pakistani women continue to lag behind men in all indices of development in the region, in spite of a very respectable rate of growth in annual Gross National Product (GNP).

The government policies for human resource development in the participating countries, especially in the field of education and health, are very positive, but during implementation the weaker sectors of the society do not seem to get access to the services due to various structural factors.

This under-development of women is a complex phenomenon which is reflected in the ratio of women to men in all fields, including management positions at higher education level. According to the UNESCO Commonwealth Report on Women in Higher Education (1993),

the global picture is one of men outnumbering women at about five to one at middle management level and at twenty to one at senior management level.

The situation is much worse in the countries under study where women are far fewer than in the global picture, especially in non-traditional sectors like law, business and the military or police forces.

In patriarchal societies women are considered secondary to men. Girls are brought up in a different way than boys, and values of being nurturing, sacrificing and subservient to the family in general and male members in particular are instilled in women through punishment and reward from infancy. Women are not likely to have the confidence and self-esteem necessary to succeed in the competitive world of jobs, promotions and politics.

There is consensus amongst social scientists and experts that women students outshine men students in every field, for example by topping the lists of successful candidates at all public examinations. However, when some of these highly competent women enter jobs, they do not make similar progress in their careers. It requires analysis and research to understand fully the phenomenon of under-development of women in the countries under study. However, one may make some educated guesses about these reasons, for example:

- Asian culture is very oppressive in the case of women and it is not only men but women themselves who act as oppressors;
- women administrators/professionals have to become sensitive to this oppression in order to gain confidence in themselves and assist women in raising their level of confidence;
- the attitude of society towards professional women is biased, which leads to certain biased decisions by selection bodies;
- the government policies in these cultures are not sensitive to gender.

2 Summary of the studies of successful women

The studies consisted of two parts. The first part consisted of gender analysis of 20 years of education policies, plans and programmes, along with the statistical data for each country from 1970 to 1990, to determine the 'Human Development Status' of women using a Human Development Index (HDI) which was based on various education indices.

The second part of the studies dealt with the collection of biographic data of successful women managers of outstanding record in 12 different professions in order to identify the factors responsible for their success. The interview schedule used for the case-study analyses was very exhaustive and was the same for all the countries, with some freedom to include additional questions if desired by the national consultants. The additional questions in the case of Pakistan were on the impact of the attitude of in-laws, whereas in Indonesia and Malaysia the role of religious schools was included, and for Laos, the role of women as mothers and home-makers was emphasised.

2.1 Part I of the case-studies

(a) Gender analysis of education policies

Gender analysis of the national education policies, plans and programmes of study of participating countries revealed that while activities are, for the most part, gender-blind, most governments have made some commitments to, or even set targets for, increasing women's access to education. Thus, governments tend to combine gender blindness with some gender-specific elements targeting women. In all participating countries there is a gap between the equity ideals expressed in general statements of principle and gender-specific policies, plans and achievements. Among the many factors producing this gap are: lack of dedicated resources; failure to integrate gender considerations thoroughly into education policy, planning and implementation; lack of parental and community commitment and involvement; and deficiencies in information systems for planning and monitoring.

Furthermore, there is no sustained commitment to increasing women's participation in the education system as agents, that is as teachers or, even more importantly, as administrators and policy makers. There is also a general lack of co-ordination between policies promoting increased education for women and policies in related sectors that affect women's ability to benefit from increased education.

A contrast between two subsets of participating countries can be distinguished in terms of implementation and the impact of essentially gender-blind policies, plans and programmes. In Indonesia and Malaysia, the commitment of considerable public resources to mass education – in Indonesia combined with a policy of compulsory education – has had a highly beneficial impact on girls and women, substantially increasing their participation rates. On the other hand, in Pakistan, Bangladesh and Laos, mass education policies have not been matched by public expenditure commitments and thus they have not yet been effectively implemented.

(b) Human development status

Patterns and trends in women's education in the five participating countries become apparent through the examination of several indicators. Adult literacy rates and school enrolment rates are the two most common indicators of the status of education. Data from countries participating in the study varied widely, but the gap between the literacy rates for women and men was a common thread uniting them. Indonesia and Malaysia have achieved the highest levels of literacy for both men and women, and the gender gap has narrowed; however, literacy rates in Bangladesh, Pakistan and Laos remain at low levels for both sexes and the differentials between men and women are wide.

The status of women's education in each country is summarised in a paper for that country: the UNDP report (1994), released after the papers were written, summarises the status of education and of the education of women, in more comparable terms. Table 1 shows the relevant HDIs in 1992 for the five countries.

Table 1 Human development indices for education in the five participating countries, 1992

Index	Malaysia	Indonesia	Pakistan	Laos	Bangladesh
Adult literacy rate (%)	80.0	84.4	34.4	55.0	36.0
Mean years of schooling	5.6	4.1	1.9	2.9	2.0
Enrolment ratio for all levels (%) (age 6–23)	58.0	58.0	24.0	42.0	32.0
Illiterate adults (age 15+) (millions)	2.2	18.5	42.3	NA	42.3
Illiterate females (age 15+) (millions)	1.6	13.7	24.7	NA	24.8
Illiterate males (age 15+) (millions)	0.6	4.8	17.6	NA	17.5
Human development Index (HDI)*	0.794	0.586	0.393	0.385	0.309

NA: Not available

(Source of Basic Data: Human Development Report, 1994 UNDP, New York 1994.)

(Developed by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), *HDI is a composite of the three basic components of human development: (i) longevity, measured by life expectancy; (ii) knowledge, measured by a combination of adult literacy (two-thirds weight) and mean years of schooling (one-third weight) and (iii) purchasing power.

2.2 Part 2 of the case-studies

(a) Research design

Definition of success

There was no generally agreed upon objective definition of 'success', either in general or with specific reference to women interviewed during the research project. The working definition underlying the data collection and analysis methodology for the project was that success refers to women's ability to translate education or training into increased productivity, income, employment and participation in decision and policy making. It is not the individual motivation of women that was being considered, but rather the structural and systemic environment that does or does not offer realistic choices and opportunities to women. Thus, any meaningful analysis of success depends on the correlation between educational access and attainment, the kind and degree of participation in the labour force and as active members of decision making bodies.

The definition of a successful woman adopted for the study is presented in Table 2.

Table 2 Definition of a successful woman

1. A woman who has achieved a high rank or senior management position in her field of employment; or
2. A woman who has achieved a high level leadership position in the voluntary/NGO or political sector for her locality, region or country; or
3. A woman who owns or operates a substantial business; or
4. A woman professional whose peers consider her to be outstanding; or
5. A woman who has achieved a leadership, management, or administrative position, that, while not especially high ranking, is an unusual attainment for a woman.

Professions represented

The professional sectors represented are shown in Table 3. These professional sectors were common for all the five countries, with slight variations in the number of respondents in each professional sector. The minimum number for each professional sector was four and the maximum was 14, depending on the total number of subjects available in the country.

Table 3 Professional sectors of the successful women

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Business and industries | 7. Government service (Civil) |
| 2. Non-government organisations | 8. Military and police |
| 3. Education (all levels) | 9. Health professionals |
| 4. Science and technology | 10. Religion |
| 5. Law | 11. Media and writers |
| 6. Politician/counsellors | 12. Performing arts and crafts |

(b) Factors influencing women's success

The findings for Part 2 of the case-studies are summarised below.

Access to education

The selection of the successful women was not based on level of education but it was found that successful women were highly educated, leading to the hypothesis that access to education is a critical factor for being successful. The case-studies for Indonesia and Malaysia, which related education to women's employment and career opportunities, show a clear connection between access to education and employment success. However, in Bangladesh, Pakistan and Laos, women have such limited access to education that it is virtually impossible to analyse such relationships. It follows that the effect of improved educational access for women is generally unknown. However, the expectation is that the effect would be positive.

In Malaysia and Indonesia, and to some degree in Laos, a cause for concern is the apparent lack of data that would make possible the analysis of correlation between education and the employment available to women in the most promising sectors of the economy and labour market.

Training

The responses to the question regarding training opportunities and usefulness of training also were not very encouraging. Very few women had in-service training opportunities due to constraints such as looking after children if training necessitates going to another city or abroad.

Education level of the subjects and their families

The education level of the successful women was quite high. In the case of Pakistan for example, with the exception of six respondents, all of them were college graduates or above. Similarly the education level of their siblings, mothers and fathers was also higher than the national averages. The critical factor responsible for the success of these women appears to be the education level of their mothers. In the earlier part of the century (when these women's mothers were young) 89% of them were literate against a national literacy rate of 6.7% amongst women at that time. The education of fathers and siblings was slightly higher than the national averages but not significantly higher.

Home life

An analysis of their work at home revealed that most of these women had some help in doing household chores, either from a servant, relative or husband and children. This varied from 20% of work being done by someone else to 80% being done by somebody other than the woman concerned. However, when it came to looking after the children, this help was minimal. The husbands were least helpful in both areas and hired help most useful. Household help is freely available in these countries and these women could afford it.

Marital status

The tendency to stay single or get a divorce in the case of a bad marriage was quite high in this group. In the case of respondents from Pakistan, 65% of the respondents were currently married, 23% preferred to stay single, 11% were divorced, and one was a widow. This indicates the cost of success in developing countries of Asia where a career woman has

virtually to be subservient to men even when she is a top professional, managing director of a firm or a top politician. As stated by the married respondents, they had better than average positive relationships with their husbands and in-laws. 'I could not have achieved the status in my career without the support of my husband'.

Personal character

The women subjects of all the five countries stated that they themselves or their personal character was the most important factor in their success. This answer was cross-verified with their decision making process, by asking about the decisions which they had taken at different stages in their life, for example, choice of subjects in schools, selection of college or profession to adopt. A surprisingly high percentage of the respondents were in the habit of making their own decisions rather than depending on suggestions from others like parents, brothers or husbands.

Second, all of them reported that they had developed a strategy to succeed very early in life and had followed it vigorously in spite of the usual hindrances an average girl or woman faces in pursuing a career.

Constraints

Finally, the role of governments, legislation, selection boards and immediate bosses was explored. The group of respondents was unanimous in stating that although there is no visible anti-women policy or law written anywhere, women's issues have been ignored. The biggest hindrances to the success of women leaders (as identified by them) are: attitude of immediate bosses, and the general practices followed in selections and promotions (which are based on common cultural values which keep working against women's progress).

3 Summary of findings

It was found that the educational access and attainment for women in Indonesia and Malaysia have not consistently translated into higher rates of participation in decision or policy making. For instance, although education, population and health indicators are significantly lower for Laos than Indonesia and Malaysia, the proportion of women in government service is strikingly similar.

As the age group of women in each of the countries was from 30 to 55 years, there were many similarities in terms of situation, for example, the women all belonged roughly to the same generation and had all reached approximately the mid-point of life as wives, mothers and career women. On the other hand, the social and cultural details of their lives, including their definition of success, varied from country to country.

The case-studies showed that the women interviewed attributed their success to characteristics inherent in their own persons. Thus, 'own effort' and 'my character' ranked first as the most important factors contributing to the success of the women respondents in all five countries. However, among the extraneous factors identified, education ranked the highest in all five countries. The extraneous success factors were ranked in importance as measured by the frequency of response as shown in Table 4 overleaf.

Table 4 Extraneous factors contributing to women's success
(ranked in order of importance)

1. Education
2. Training
3. Family support, notably by mothers, husbands and other male members of the family
4. Family position and influence
5. Government regulations and policies
6. Coincidence or unusual circumstances
7. Others, such as role models and employer's support

In all countries, education was not viewed as the single most important factor contributing to the success of women; rather, it was seen as one of the contributing factors. However, the impact of education was felt to enhance the potential for success in a significant way.

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Case-study 2

**Women and
management in higher
education in Sri Lanka**

By Chitra Karunaratne, MEd

About this case-study

This case-study presents data on the number of women undertaking higher or technical education, and the numbers holding positions in senior education management or the public service in Sri Lanka.

I Introduction

Sri Lanka has a long history of nearly 2,500 years of continuous education. The traditional learning system in Sri Lanka was based on the Buddhist ideology. Buddhist temples were the centres of learning for all skills, academic and manual. The present education system, which was inherited from the British colonial administration, from its very inception was full of inequalities and suffered from a lack of unity. Schools in urban areas which catered to the élitist classes imparted knowledge in English which gave social superiority, but less than 10% of the school-going population could afford it. A significant new emphasis in education originated in 1945, when the 'free education for all' policy from kindergarten to the university system was introduced.

The constitution of Sri Lanka states, as a directive principle of state policy, 'the complete eradication of illiteracy and the assurance to all persons of the right to universal and equal access to education at all levels'. The constitution also guarantees gender equality and the recently approved 'Women's Charter' plays a vital role on the rights of women and girls to education and training (Jayaweera, 1993). The female literacy rate has increased over the years to 87%.

2 Education in Sri Lanka

The formal system of education in Sri Lanka constitutes three levels:

- first level of education from years one to five for students aged five to ten;
- second level of education is of six years' duration. All students follow the same curricula, leading to GCE 'O' Level examination. Those who qualify, study for two more years and sit the GCE 'A' Level examination, which is the qualifying examination for entry to university;
- the third level of education includes technical colleges, teacher training colleges and universities.

The University Grants Commission (UGC), the apex body of the Sri Lankan university system, was established in 1978. In Sri Lanka today there are 12 universities including an Open University, for a population of around 17.5 million. There are nine undergraduate and postgraduate institutions and 28 technical colleges. The total student enrolment in conventional universities is around 20,000 students. In view of the limited facilities available in conventional universities, several universities conduct external degree programmes.

3 Women's access to higher education

The introduction of the free education system in 1945 at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, and the establishment of central schools, reduced inequalities through the extension of educational opportunities for both males and females. Table 1 overleaf shows university student intake by course of study and by sex, for the years 1988/89 to 1995/96. The data reveal that out of the annual intake, around 46% are women. Although women have benefited from the opportunities for higher education, with participation rates rising more rapidly than men, women are still under-represented in many disciplines. Engineering, architecture and physical science continue to remain strong male dominions. The highest concentration of women is in arts-related disciplines, the traditional female areas of study. Table 1 shows that there are many women entering into medicine, agriculture, management and the arts. However, the annual intake to engineering courses is around 10% to 14%; and the entry rate of women to physical science courses ranges from 20% to 30%. The increase in the number of women entering the management courses (from 165 in 1988/89 to 367 in 1995/96) and the high number of women in commerce courses shows the trend during the 1980s and 1990s when women were undertaking management training courses with aspirations for managerial jobs. These changing patterns of female entry across faculties may be treated as indicators of a direction away from stereotypes.

4 Women in higher education management

4.1 Women managers in the university

Despite the exceptionally high rate of women's participation in higher education in Sri Lanka, their representation in top managerial positions is rather disappointing. The education sector has traditionally been a major employer of women over the years, but in higher education, women are more represented in teaching than in management roles.

The academic leaders in the Sri Lankan university system can be grouped into two categories. The first consists of academic managers who are heads of various levels of the university hierarchy, i.e. positions such as vice-chancellor, deputy vice-chancellor, directors of institutes, deans, heads of departments and librarians. The second category consists of senior professors and associate professors who do not have administrative responsibilities. They are considered leaders because of their academic leadership. The administrators in the university system comprise senior administrators in the UGC, the registrars, bursars, senior assistant registrars, assistant registrars and assistant bursars.

Table I Intake to universities by course and sex
(Academic Years 1988/89 – 1995/96)

Course	88/89		89/90		90/91		91/92		92/93		93/94		94/95		95/96	
	Male	Female														
Medicine	278	215	309	242	489	371	496	386	450	341	484	285	483	373	529	362
Dental Science	42	42	48	34	59	48	43	53	40	36	43	27	40	40	37	45
Veterinary Science	27	22	28	26	34	38	39	49	39	27	34	37	35	37	42	34
Agriculture	184	134	194	163	256	223	209	187	185	140	181	154	174	174	211	204
Biological Science	313	361	329	397	422	561	389	522	336	350	339	339	289	396	358	356
Engineering	403	62	413	53	516	59	552	94	529	88	533	64	533	93	574	59
Engineering II	50	3	51	9	78	12	108	27	101	19	101	17	104	20	100	19
Physical Science	736	184	768	216	944	285	895	340	732	226	769	225	932	236	951	251
Management Studies	292	165	280	178	395	313	400	314	334	278	381	243	358	278	491	367
Commerce	314	268	347	264	477	423	406	406	406	354	473	356	448	423	497	461
Law	83	118	78	120	112	122	92	162	74	120	79	118	84	117	81	126
Arts	807	970	883	966	966	1,672	1,009	1,687	966	1,512	1,063	1,569	1,113	1,763	1,052	1,888
Architecture	25	14	17	22	23	26	18	33	26	24	25	34	20	33	16	34
Quantity Surveying	30	1	21	7	41	1	41	7	35	7	40	2	43	6	42	5
TOTAL	3,584	2,559	3,766	2,697	4,812	4,154	4,697	4,267	4,253	3,522	4,545	3,470	4,674	3,989	4,979	4,211
Female %		42%		42%		46%		48%		45%		43%		46%		46%

(Source: UGC, Sri Lanka.)

There is only one woman chancellor among the 12 universities in Sri Lanka. Of the 43 deans, currently only five are women. Numbers and percentages of university teaching staff in 1996 in Sri Lanka, classified by sex and level of position, are shown in Table 2. In the entire university system, women make up only 11% of the senior professor grade. In fact, the Engineering University has only one woman professor. At associate professor level, the percentage of women is around 21%, whereas at lecturer level, it is about 36%. The heads of all English language teaching units are women.

After 17 years of existence, the UGC in Sri Lanka had its first woman member appointed in 1994. All 12 universities have male registrars. Of the 12 bursar positions, four are held by women, who also hold about 22% of assistant bursar positions. The traditional occupations of secretary and telephonists are held mostly by women.

It seems that in Sri Lanka, as elsewhere, the proportion of women managers is greater at lower levels, becoming progressively smaller toward the top levels.

Table 2 University teaching staff
(by grade and sex, 1996*)

Level of position	Male	Female	Total	% Female
Professor	157	20	177	11.3
Assistant professor	81	22	103	21.4
Senior lecturer Grade I	271	109	380	28.7
Senior lecturer Grade II	382	176	558	31.5
Lecturer/prob. lecturer/asst. lecturer/ medical registrar	696	387	1,083	35.7
Teaching assistant/senior education assistant/senior eng. teaching assistant Grade I and Grade II	143	114	257	44.4
Tutor/demonstrator	168	157	325	48.3
Instructor	55	84	139	60.4
	1,953	1,069	3,022	35.4

* Excluding Universities of Jaffna, Rajarata and Sabaragamuwa

(Source: UGC, Sri Lanka.)

4.2 Women's participation in decision making

It is interesting to analyse the role of women in major decision making bodies in Sri Lanka. In the university system, the major policy decisions are made by the UGC, the apex body in the Sri Lankans' Higher Education system. The decisions are made by the UGC on recommendations made by several Standing Committees established by the UGC, the Admissions Committee and the Committee of Vice-Chancellors and Directors. The key decision making bodies in the universities are the Councils and the Senate. The percentage of women in these major university governing bodies is around five per cent. In all nine Standing Committees with a total of 100 members, only two women have been appointed, one as Chairperson of the Standing Committee on Humanities and Social Sciences, and one other woman member.

In the public sector, the first woman Cabinet Secretary in Sri Lanka was appointed in 1994. At Secretary-level to the Ministries, the number remains at seven. Out of about 34 state corporations, currently women do not hold positions of chairpersons. In the Sri Lanka administrative service (SLAS) women were represented as shown in Table 3.

Table 3 Sri Lanka administrative service
(by class and sex, 1996)

Class and grade	Male	Female	Total	% Female
I	596	96	692	16.1
I-Grade I	317	36	353	11.4
I I-Grade II	661	147	808	22.2
Total	1,574	279	1,853	17.7

(Source: Ministry of Public Administration, Sri Lanka.)

Women are holding key positions in Sri Lanka as the Director General of the Bribery Commission, Director General Inland Revenue, Director General National Youth Services Council, Director General NARESA (Natural Resources Energy and Science Authority), Post Master General, Government Analyst and General Manager Bank of Ceylon.

The representation of women among ambassadors, judges and the armed forces is still low. Most women were concentrated at the bottom of these sectors. Among district magistrates, 23.6% were women and there were no women as supreme court judges. Observation suggests that the private sector has a 'secretary syndrome' for women.

4.3 Women in the teaching profession

The majority of teachers employed throughout the educational system, from nursery school to university level, are women. In the total teaching profession, 64.6% were women and at the level of graduate teachers, science teachers were 57.7%, whereas the percentage of arts graduate teachers was 61.1% in 1996 as shown in Table 4.

Table 4 Sri Lankan teachers
(by qualification and sex, 1992)

	Total	Female	% Female of total
Graduates (science)	3,825	2,208	57.7
Graduates (arts)	36,103	22,047	61.1
Non-Graduates (diploma)	1,995	1,240	62.2
Trained	78,948	52,313	66.3
Certificates	5,380	3,702	

(Source: School Census, Ministry of Education.)

4.4 Final comments

Other researchers have found that there are cross-national similarities rather than differences in the distribution of women managers across disciplines. It seems that legislation introduced by various governments to grant gender equality and opportunity for women has not helped to overcome sexual discrimination.

A great deal of research has documented the difficulties women have faced in advancing through the ranks of managers. They have found that women face a formidable range of challenges in their workplaces. Women are still considered as a minority group subjected to male-dominated policy making and this seems to lead to indirect discrimination. The case-study 'Women and management in higher education: a South Asian perspective' examines these issues further.

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Case-study 3

**Women in academic
leadership positions in
higher education in
Malaysia**

By Asmah Haji Omar, PhD

About this case-study

This case-study describes the experiences of 16 senior women at the University of Malaya. It provides an interesting analysis of how the women see themselves, and how they see their ways of leading and working, vis à vis those of their male colleagues. In addition to its use in this module, the case-study is likely to be of value to those using the modules on 'Women and Governance in Higher Education', and 'Managing Personal and Professional Roles'.

I Introduction

I.1 General information

This is a case-study of women in academic leadership positions in higher education in Malaysia, a developing country.

The country has a high degree of multi-ethnicity and multi-lingualism. Two main languages are used in administration and education, the national language and English. In social interaction, these two languages are used in inter-group communication. Ethnic groups are free to use their own mother tongues in their intra-group communication.

The country has adopted a charter that there should not be any discrimination based on ethnicity, religion and gender in education and appointments to academic posts in the university. There is also equal opportunity in pursuing for higher degrees, for getting funds for research projects, for attending conferences, for writing PhD theses and so on. The merit of each case lies in the person's qualifications and capability, the viability of the project, and the availability of funds.

The main mission of the university is to be at the frontiers of knowledge. Academic excellence is the catchphrase that rings down the ranks from the Vice-Chancellor to the junior lecturer. Promotion from lecturer to associate professor and from associate professor to professor places about 80% weightage on academic performance and achievement, 10% on administration, and 10% on community service.

Academic performance and achievement comprises teaching, supervision of higher degree candidates, research, publications and presenting papers at conferences. The latter two are more heavily weighted if they get international acceptability. Administration is given a broad definition: it is not confined to being head, dean, etc. It also includes organisational responsibility at a lower level, such as in heading projects and units of activities. Community service means involvement with professional and social activities within and outside the campus.

The university also instils in its staff the tradition of respect for one another, integrity and a sense of responsibility. At the same time, it gives flexibility to the academic staff in terms of their movement, i.e. staff members are not required to clock in or to clock out. While they are expected to be on time for their lectures, tutorials, meetings and appointments, they are free to come in and out when they do not have those duties. In this context, they are assumed to be carrying out their research.

Throughout its history, the university depended almost wholly on the government for financial support. Students' fees were minimal and were hardly sufficient to pay the lecturers' salaries. Lately, there has been a change, in the name of corporatisation. This means that the university has to look for the money for its own existence: to pay for the salaries of the academics and the support staff, to fund research projects, to buy books for the library, to sponsor staff members attending conferences, to build and maintain its premises, etc.

All this spells a change in the culture and core values of the university. While academic excellence has to be upheld, this is to be suited wherever possible to the entrepreneurial nature that has become a characteristic of the university. This also means that leadership in the university has to add skills other than those of the academic nature. A person in a leadership position in the university now has to be a well-respected academician as well as an entrepreneur.

A leader as an academician has to lead in terms of opening avenues in research projects and introducing new courses and new degrees. In the past, these academic activities were mostly taken for their academic value. Little was attached to them in terms of their market value.

Being market driven means that the clients (students, the public, the private sector) have to be the focus of attention. The university has to offer them what they want, not what the university thinks they should have. In this context, university leaders have to be able to utilise their academic ability to produce packages of courses or plan new degree and diploma courses which have a market value. Academicians have to adapt themselves to this new culture which combines academic excellence and entrepreneurship. Such a culture should be encompassing in nature. It cannot afford to ignore talents of men and women who can contribute to making the university a centre for attaining academic excellence and professional training. These men and women should be taken as a source for the best in the professions.

In such an institution, the leader is the focus of attention. He/she is expected to lead in terms of giving new ideas, motivating the staff, and projecting the institution to the world outside with the image that the institution is able to provide the best of what the people need.

1.2 Who are the academic leaders?

The academic leaders as defined here can be grouped into two categories. The first consists of the academic managers who head the various levels of the university hierarchy in the following descending order: Vice-Chancellor, Deputy Vice-Chancellor; Dean/Director; Deputy Dean/Deputy Director; Head/Chairperson. The people who make up this category are usually very senior academics. That is to say, they are professors or senior associate professors.

The second category consists of the professors who do not have an administrative duty. They are considered leaders because of the academic leadership they give. They usually become reference points in the planning of academic activities, such as research projects, the structuring of new degree courses, etc.

The first category has an edge over the second as they have the 'power', as it were, to influence the management of the university. This is important because it is through the management channel that funds can be acquired and made available for research projects, conferences and publication of journals and books. It is also through the management channel that facilities and comfort in the workplace can be acquired.

What this means is that a leader in the university has to have academic leadership as well as managerial skill. In addition to this, there are several other issues that university leaders have to face, and in particular those leaders of the feminine gender.

All the leadership posts except those of the Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellor are supernumerary, i.e. the people involved get their salaries as professors or associate professors and an allowance for being head, dean, etc.

Appointments to these positions are based on selection, which at the root of it all is of a personal nature. The Vice-Chancellor is chosen by the Minister of Education (or the people under him or her) who recommends him or her to the Prime Minister. The Vice-Chancellor is selected from among the senior staff of the university or from the public sector.

The Deputy Vice-Chancellor is chosen by the Vice-Chancellor from among senior deans and professors in the university. The candidate has to be approved by the Minister of Education who issues the letter of appointment.

The deans and directors are chosen by the Vice-Chancellor him/herself from among the faculty members, and the heads/chairpersons are people recommended by the deans/directors to the Vice-Chancellor. In all these cases, the letters of appointment are issued by the Vice-Chancellor.

For the Vice-Chancellor and Deputy Vice-Chancellor, the length of a single appointment is three years, whereas for the others it is two years. However, the appointment can be renewed after each term, based on the performance of the people concerned and their willingness to continue serving.

1.3 Women in academic leadership positions

The number of women in academic leadership positions is very low. At the time the case-study was conducted, there were only two women deans out of a total of 19. There were more women deputy-deans than there were women deans. A woman managed to rise to the Deputy Vice-Chancellor's position in the 1980s. However, no other woman has been appointed to that position since then in the university, and there has not been any other woman Deputy Vice-Chancellor in the whole country. The Vice-Chancellor of this university and all others in the country has always been a man.

Sheryl L. Bond in her module 'Academic Leadership', speaks about filters operating in the selection of women to influential positions. Although, as has been said earlier, the country has a charter which is against discrimination on the basis of various criteria, and one of these is gender, the appointments to academic leadership positions appear to use certain criteria as filters. In this case-study, the gender-based filter is obviously used in the selection of candidates to the top levels of leadership. This may be linked to the inherent belief in all the cultures of the ethnic groups that the man must lead. This was corroborated by women leaders themselves when they said that at the beginning they never aspired to be in

leadership positions because they knew that men would be chosen.

Women (full) professors comprised about 22% of the total number of professors in the university, and the women associate professors 33%. The statistics for lecturers' posts seemed to indicate a movement towards the levelling up of the number of men and women. However, there is no guarantee that an increase in the number of women academics also means an increase in the number of women in leadership positions. Filters may be used in appointments to such positions in such a way that women continue to lose out.

The other filter as shown in this case-study is personality. Personality is very much linked to visibility. Women need to be visible in order to be considered for appointment to leadership positions, as will be discussed later (see 2.4). Linked to this is the filter which rules out 'women who are loud, who want to be superwoman, etc.', as well as 'women who are too ladylike'. Translated into ordinary language, women who are likely to be considered for academic leadership positions are those who are 'visible', that is they participate actively in the day-to-day activities of the university, such as attending meetings, being leaders in projects, etc. They are also visible when they present papers in conferences and publish papers in referenced journals and books. However, such women become a threat if they go so far as to outshine the male colleagues. In such a situation they are considered loud and dangerous.

At the same time, women who are not visible are not going to be the likely candidates for academic leadership positions. The men interviewed think that if they are 'too ladylike' they will not be able to lead. What they mean by 'ladylike' here is 'not being able to assert their authority', and (if I may add) 'without being a threat to the men'.

In two cases in this study, women were chosen to be deputy-deans for reasons which were not relevant to the academic and entrepreneurial standing of the university. Both were for window dressing; one was for the racial composition and the other was to please the female population of the university. The first case was confirmed by the dean interviewed, while the second by the woman deputy-dean concerned.

2 The case-study

This case-study is based on my own personal experience (in leadership positions for 23 years), personal observation, as well as on data gathered through interviews with 16 women who were or had been in leadership positions (deans, directors, heads and chairpersons, in the university under discussion) and two male deans. The women were professors and senior associate professors, and in their late forties and early fifties. The two male deans were chosen from two institutions which have had a fairly high number of women in academic leadership positions compared to the others. They were asked about their opinions of the women who had worked with them, especially concerning the women's leadership style, and the criteria the deans used in choosing those women to be their deputies or heads of the departments in their faculties. The chief librarian, a woman, was also interviewed for her opinion of women in academic leadership positions in the university, particularly on what she would like to see in the women holding such positions.

This section examines the facts and opinions of the women, and in particular the prerequisites, attitudes, advantages, etc. of women in academic leadership positions in the university.

2.1 Prerequisite: academic qualification and standing

It is most desirable that a person in an academic leadership position in the university has the highest academic qualification in her field of specialisation, e.g. a PhD. Following this, she must have a good track record as an academician. A head or a dean who lacks this qualification and who does not have a good academic standing may not have the self-confidence to lead. She may not feel confident in motivating those below her to go for a higher degree, to do research, to publish, etc. Worse still, she may not get the respect of those she is supposed to lead.

For a leader to be effective she has to feel secure academically. The feeling of insecurity may influence her style of leadership and may pose a danger to the progress of the staff. In a nutshell, an insecure leader considers everyone else who shows more progress than her as a threat. This may result in her placing impediments along the path of progress of her subordinates. This is counter-productive and the institution may suffer.

2.2 Positive attitude towards academic leadership position

Being in an academic leadership position means making a sacrifice of one's time and energy for the benefit of others as well as for the institution. This attitude is inherent in women in the way they make sacrifices for their family members. When a woman is in a leadership position, she is extending this sacrificial and nurturing attitude from her family to the institution.

The women who had refused or who had initially refused to be appointed as dean, head, etc. felt that the appointment meant extra work for them, one which was going to interfere with their academic activities. They were worried that their research would suffer. They were not willing to let something that had never been part of their training get in the way of their academic activities.

On the other hand, women who have been long in leadership positions are found to be productive in their research, and some are even more productive than those who do not have any management duties. These women feel that the leadership position has not only enriched their experience in life but has sharpened their perception of the things around them. This has contributed to their analytical power, and has made them productive.

Also being in a leadership position means one can have a helicopter view of what is happening in one's institution. This helps in the formulation of visions for the future of the institution as well as of one's own self.

Hence, it is imperative that women in academic leadership positions in the university have a positive attitude towards their job and responsibility. In other words, they must like doing it, and feel that they have a lot to contribute to it. They should not accept to be dean etc. for the glamour of being in the position, or because they cannot refuse the authority who chooses them.

2.3 Having management skill

To lead a department or a faculty means also that one has to manage staff, students and the funds. Most of the women who have never been in a leadership position or who have just entered such a position become frightened of the word 'management', because they have never had any training in this area before. However, they soon find out that not all aspects are totally alien to them.

(a) Managing students

Managing students is not something new. As teachers, they face the students all the time. As head or dean their attention on the students has to be extended to other issues as well, such as the students' personal (including financial) problems and activities.

However, their experience as teachers helps them deal with the students, counsel them and give them guidance in solving their problems and in their choice of vocations.

(b) Managing staff

Although the idea of managing one's colleagues seems daunting at first, the women leaders get over it in no time. What is needed here is:

- an understanding of the cultural and religious sensitivities of the different ethnic groups;
- an awareness of prejudices from colleagues;
- good communication and interpersonal skills;
- empathy for the aspirations of the individuals.

Understanding cultural sensitivities

A person in a leadership position should try to learn about the cultural and religious sensitivities of the people under her. She should not ask her staff to do anything that is taboo to her/him. For example, she should not ask a Muslim zoologist to do research in a pig-rearing farm. If a Muslim anthropologist or linguistic field researcher were to go to a place where there is no halal food, then she should be able to counsel them on what to do.

People in a multi-lingual country such as the one under study should be aware of the fact that chauvinism exists in one sense or another in different ethnic groups. An example is one which has linguistic roots. A dean who seeks to do away with the study of the literature of a minority group on the grounds that there are few students is really not sensitive to the feeling of that group. The reaction to such an action will be far-reaching in terms of the dean's reputation as a leader and as an academician.

Prejudices

Prejudices against the woman leader come about due to various reasons, and they come from both men and women.

Prejudices which may lead to severe antagonism from men stem from the culture of patriarchy. All the communities represented in this university have the world-view that it is the male who must always lead. Within this context, a female in a leadership position is looked upon either as a freak (as a target for remarks such as 'She behaves like a man', 'She thinks like a man', etc.) or a stopgap measure while the man is on sabbatical, for instance. The woman leader has to be able to sidetrack such prejudices with her wits.

Prejudices also come from women themselves, due to petty jealousy. Such women seem to feel insulted to be led by their own kind. As the saying goes, women's worst enemies are women. This was vehemently confirmed by a senior woman dean who provided examples of the unpleasant events that she had to go through which originated from the women. The same dean summarised it all with the following words, 'Men antagonise women for the right reason, but women antagonise women for the wrong reason.'

Having communication and interpersonal skills

As teachers, women have already got communication and interpersonal skills. As leaders they have just got to extend the use of these skills in another context.

Communication and interpersonal skills are an important factor which determines success or failure in negotiation and in relationships with colleagues. The ability to obtain co-operation from colleagues depends a great deal on these skills. For example, in the submission of the annual budget for the department or faculty, documents that are well-prepared with all the necessary information and justifications are not all that matters. A good presentation from the dean or the head will make a difference in the amount that will be given to the institution by the finance committee.

Empathy for the aspirations of the individual

A woman leader has to understand the feelings and aspirations of her staff members. It is only when she empathises with them that she is able to get their support.

This positive characteristic of the leader is an asset to the institution in the sense that more and more staff members become motivated to improve their academic standing and this will elevate the name of the institution. A dean who empathises with a young, struggling lecturer will find ways and means to help him/her get a study grant or study leave to do a higher degree. She may even take him/her under her own tutelage.

(c) Managing funds

Managing funds is seen as a new area by women when they first become deans, directors and heads. However, they have found out that it is not such a big obstacle in the running of the institution because budgeting and accounting is usually done by the real administrators in the university. Their duty is to see that the requirements of the department and the staff for various purposes, especially for academic projects, are included. Their academic creativity should help them in planning programmes that will bring in more funds from outside.

(d) Visibility of women

In a system where people in academic leadership positions are appointed or recommended by those above them, it is only those who are visible to these people that get appointed. Visibility is seen in terms of:

- academic prominence, i.e. in research and publications in comparison with the other staff members;
- ability and proactiveness in leading and organising units, divisions, projects;
- articulateness in discussions and meetings in the national language as well as in English;
- affability and a pleasant disposition.

A person may have the first two characteristics, but if she does not have the last two, she may not be 'noticed' at all by those in authority looking for someone to lead. Generally speaking, women are in the habit of avoiding debates and discussions over controversial issues. Either they do not want to get involved or they get jittery listening to people debating. They would rather play safe. This attitude puts them at the losing end. They do not become visible, and hence do not get appointed to leadership positions.

However, the last three characteristics without the first characteristic of academic prominence are not sufficient qualifications for women or men to be leaders, as discussed in 2.1.

Visibility as described above should appear to onlookers as part and parcel of the overall nature of the woman academic. A woman who tries to push her way through at every meeting, discussion or social gathering so that she is noticed by the Vice-Chancellor, for instance, will no doubt be noticed, but the effect may be negative.

(e) What academic leadership positions can do to women

Being in academic leadership positions enriches women's experience of life and develops their character and personality. A great deal of positive things happen to them, as will be discussed below.

Having a mission

A leader has to formulate a mission for the group she leads. Before being made a leader, the person may have an ambition which pertains to herself as an individual. For example, the lecturer always has an ambition to be associate professor, the associate professor to be full professor, and the professor to be professor emeritus. The mind is not brought into thinking of the organisation as a whole.

As a leader, the woman puts the organisation above herself, and reflects on how she can lead it to greater heights. Along the way she motivates her staff to do likewise. As a leader she is expected to have a mission for her institution and this she learns to formulate.

Being more creative with ideas

The women are already creative as academics. Being in leadership positions they are forced to think and observe, and thereby become more creative. This they have to do in order to realise their mission. They have to create new programmes for research and teaching. They have to come up with attractive packages to offer their clients and attract more students. They have always got to see to it that their institution is always ahead of others.

Being in leadership positions does not only enable the women to create ideas, but to test and implement them. This they are not able to do if they are not given such positions. A professor who is not a head or dean may have lots of ideas, but in order to test and implement those ideas she has to get the approval of the head or the dean.

Able to optimise different skills and assets

Women as professors and associate professors have already acquired and developed skills while carrying out their academic duties, such as teaching, supervising theses, conducting seminars and tutorials, and doing research. All these activities involve communication, interpersonal relationships, supervisory skills in organising and scheduling, motivating people, giving attention to details, and an analytical and perceptive mind.

When they become leaders, women are able to fall back on these skills and assets, and apply them in the new context. As deans, directors and heads, they also experience new things. For example, they discover that communication in negotiation for funds for a project is not the same as communication with students in the lecture hall, particularly in the strategies that they use. They learn to modify the strategies they already have to suit the situation. Conversely, the new strategies they acquire may prove to be useful later on in their communication with their students.

Creative and innovative leaders are able to draw on existing experiences for new situations and to apply what they acquire as new experience in other situations.

Able to have a broader knowledge of the world

Academics tend to be narrow, though deep, in their thinking. The tendency is to confine themselves within the framework of their areas of specialisation.

Being leaders in academic institutions, women are forced to know more about the outside world. They have to familiarise themselves with government policies and changing trends in the public and private sectors. They have also got to be informed on what is going on in the university itself, the programmes in the various faculties and the plans being formulated in the central administration of the university. This means a lot of reading up and interacting with other people. This enriches their knowledge and experience.

Even without being in leadership positions, these women have already been members of social and professional associations. This experience has helped them to interact with the outside world in their capacity as heads, deans, etc. Conversely, their positions as heads, deans, etc. have broadened their social and professional networks.

Able to test one's marketability

Men test their marketability all the time. Women do not seem to do so, and this may have arisen from the absence of networking among themselves.

The fact that not many women change jobs or place of work (Omar, 1993) may result from a lack of awareness of their market value. The widening of social and professional networks helps to bring about a new dimension in women's perception of themselves, i.e. they have marketability in the world outside the university. There are instances of women professors who have been in one leadership position or another, and who have received offers of lucrative jobs outside the university, both in the country itself and abroad. This is largely due to their visibility and networking, besides their academic standing.

Developing one's character and image

Being head of an institution requires that one has strength of character. This means that one has to have integrity and be firm and fair.

The integrity of the leader is required for the institution to stand firm and strong. The leader has to show integrity, firmness and fairness in her relationship with the staff and in taking care of the institution's interest. Again, such qualities are already present in academia and it is not difficult to transfer them to the leadership context.

Women leaders have to create a respectable image for themselves through their actions and demeanour. The image of the absent-minded professor who does not care about her appearance is not one that helps a woman to lead in an academic institution.

Able to handle conflicts

Most women leaders in the university are of the opinion that being in leadership positions has made them resilient or more resilient. This is so because as leaders they have to be prepared to face criticisms and opposition, be they implicit or explicit. They are able to understand and handle conflicts better. Not being lost in those conflicts, they say, is a skill in itself.

The ability to handle conflicts requires familiarity with the cultural norms of the people involved, as well as the 'political climate' of the workplace and the university. A great deal of strategising is needed.

Knowing protocols and procedures

Being hosts in the home means knowing about protocol and procedures in this particular situation, for example, in receiving guests and handling members from different levels of kinship hierarchy.

In leadership positions protocol and procedures are different. Although this may be new to women, they may not find it difficult to follow such procedures and protocols. For example, in a setting where a great deal of attention is given to the order of precedence, it is important that an academic leader learn to observe this particular norm.

In this context, also 'knowing one's place' in the level of hierarchy is important, so that one does not go beyond the boundaries of authority that one has been assigned. For example, a dean should not behave (e.g. in a press conference) as though she is the Vice-Chancellor in talking about the university's vision or policies. She should only confine herself to her own institution.

(f) Style of leadership

The style of leadership shown by women may be looked at in terms of their attitude towards duty/power, and towards their staff and their handling of them, and the way they handle issues.

Idea of duty rather than power

Being in a leadership position means having power:

- to determine and uphold policies;
- to direct people;
- to plan and bring about changes.

Men concern themselves with the power vested in them and they vie for leadership positions with power in their minds. It seems to be a high achievement for them to be able to boss people around.

The idea of power does not come to women at the point of appointment or even during the course of carrying out their duties. Their only concern is to do the job. They are more concerned with completing their job on time and getting everyone's approval. They fight shy of the word 'power'. Only one woman complained that she did not have power and would like to have power, and this was a deputy dean. What she did not understand was that the real power was with the dean, and the deputy took directives from the dean.

Women in academic leadership positions know that they have power, but they do not flaunt it. If they have to exercise it, then they do it subtly.

Attitude of caring towards staff members

In dealing with staff members, women academic leaders do not regard them as male and female, but look at them in terms of their duties and areas of specialisation.

The attitude of caring and tending that is inherent in women (as mothers, sisters) is extended to staff and students. Women leaders take it upon themselves to see to it that those under them keep on improving themselves. (See 2.3(b).) A lot of encouragement is given to staff members to go for higher degrees and to better themselves in one way or another. Senior women leaders usually take the younger ones under their wings in terms of supervision of projects, etc. In most cases, they become mentors to the younger ones. They welcome staff coming to them for advice and they listen to their problems. These are not confined to issues and problems relating to the profession but may extend to personal matters. Here, women leaders show empathy to those involved.

The women interviewed revealed that they spent a lot of time counselling their staff members. They do not like to see problems reaching a state when they are forced to take staff members to the disciplinary committee. There have been very few cases of staff members being taken for disciplinary action by women heads or deans compared to those taken by the men.

Consultative and participatory method of approach

In decision making, they take the consultative stand with a view:

- to getting a wide range of opinions; and
- to making others feel that they are part of the decision making process.

This can be illustrated by the case of the head who consulted her staff on the advertisement of the post of professor in her department. She could have done away with this sort of consultation as the post had already been given specifications, and had been filled previously by professors with such specifications.

Consultation is not only done in meetings but also on a one-to-one basis. The head or the dean confers with individuals on issues, prior to taking a decision herself or prior to bringing it to a meeting. In this way, she pre-empts 'surprises' that may come up in a meeting. This sort of consultation can also be considered as lobbying, but has proved to be useful in decision making.

Indirect and conciliatory method of approach

Men are prone to exposing someone else's mistakes and so on openly. Women in general prefer to take an indirect approach. They do not ask directly why the person involved has committed a trespass, or has not delivered the goods expected of him or her; they beat around the bush first.

For example, if a project is not completed on time, the approach is first to ask **when** it can be completed. This is a softer and more conciliatory way of solving the problem because it does not give a negative ring. If the question starts with '**why...**', the indication is that the person is looking for faults.

Not being direct in one's accusation may save the staff from embarrassment. This can be illustrated by the following example.

A professor was given a conference paper written by a younger staff member. Coming to one of the pages she found she was reading her own words. There was no reference to her on the page, nor in the reference list.

She called the staff member concerned and complimented him on the paper and thanked him for having adopted her ideas. But she said she would be more pleased if the relevant work of hers was referred to. The staff member was no doubt embarrassed but said that reference to her was inadvertently left out, and that he would include it before the paper was sent for publication.

This is an example of face-saving. The professor did not lose anything by using this approach. In fact, she gained the respect of the staff member concerned.

However, there have been cases where a direct approach is inevitable. Such an approach is resorted to after many attempts at using the indirect one. The failure in those attempts usually has a cultural basis, where the academic leader belongs to a culture with core values different from the staff member(s) concerned. For example, the leader is used (as in the norms in her culture) to be indirect, but this is not understood by the staff member(s) who come(s) from a culture that is used to the direct approach. The result is a head-on collision or a show-down. This case-study demonstrates that such happenings do take place, though very seldom.

3 Conclusion

Women academics have always had the feeling that being in a leadership position means doing something new, strange, and academically unproductive. This case-study shows otherwise. In many instances the skills required are already there, and the women have just to modify them to suit their new positions and changing situations. It has also been shown that a great deal of the quality required in leadership comes from the person herself. What the person makes of her position and the opportunity that comes with it is what will lead her to success.

This case-study also shows that academic skill and experience can be used to advantage in management and vice versa.

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Case-study 4

**Women and
management in higher
education: a South Asian
perspective**

By Swarna Jayaweera, PhD

About this case-study

This case-study identifies some of the major constraints women face in rising to high-level positions in higher education. A fourfold strategy is suggested to facilitate the social transformation process.

I Participation in management

Access to education and participation in decision making are two 'agents' that facilitate the empowerment of women. In the five countries (Bangladesh, India, Malaysia, Pakistan and Sri Lanka) that participated in the Regional Workshop on Women and Management in Higher Education, only in two countries – Malaysia and Sri Lanka – are female participation rates relatively high in primary and secondary education, while a little less than half the enrolment in higher education institutions and around half the professional category in the labour force are women. In all the countries, however, only a small proportion of women have penetrated the 'glass ceiling', and, at best, around 10% of senior managers in Malaysia and Sri Lanka are women.

This gender inequality in access to positions of authority is reflected also in higher education institutions in all five countries. India has the best record of female participation in decision making with a woman Chairperson of the University Grants Commission and with women constituting 6.7% of Vice-Chancellors, 6.5% of Pro-Vice Chancellors, and 8% of Deans. There are no women Vice-Chancellors in the other four countries, although Sri Lanka has a woman Chancellor, a ceremonial but prestigious position, and a woman member of the University Grants Commission. Of the Deans in Universities in Sri Lanka, 12.2% are women, and 7.5% in Malaysia are women. In Bangladesh there are no women in the positions of Vice-Chancellor or Dean. The Secretary and Financial Controller of the University Grants Commission in Sri Lanka and one-third of University Registrars in Malaysia are women. There is inadequate data from Pakistan to assess the situation but it is reported that there are no women in high-level positions such as Vice-Chancellors.

This largely negative situation is clearly the outcome of constraints that bedevil the upward career mobility of women within higher education institutions. It is interesting to note, too, that positive changes in the social climate in recent years such as a stimuli from the women's rights discourse engendered by CEDAW, the action plans endorsed by states at the Nairobi and Beijing conferences, and the rising educational levels of women appear to have had little significant impact on women's access to the highest decision making level. Studies have shown that women who have reached high-level positions in management have a positive self-image, confidence in their capacity for leadership and interactive but effective management styles, but these role models are yet too few in number to ensure radical change in social attitudes.

2 Constraints and issues

Studies and other sources of data from these countries indicate that barriers stem from structural and personal factors that are interrelated, forming a web of constraints that limit women's aspirations as well as their career opportunities.

Structural factors overtly reflect norms, stereotypes and attitudes that are entrenched in society, in the family and in institutions. Gender role stereotypes influence parental expectations and the socialisation of girls to be docile and boys to be assertive leaders. They reinforce societal myths that devalue women's potential for leadership, attributing to them traits such as emotional instability, lack of initiative and resourcefulness in managing crisis situations and ineffective leadership. Efficiency is perceived to be an 'unfeminine' quality. Underpinning these perceptions are the patriarchal norms that relegate women to subordinate or secondary positions and constrain men from accepting women as leaders.

Women are doubly constrained by their multiple roles and family responsibilities, and chiefly by the ideology of 'women's work' as household work and the consequent inequitable gender division of labour within the family and the household, and the inadequate provision of childcare services. In practice, women are apt to be compelled to sacrifice their careers in order to give priority to the career advancement of their spouses. Marriage and childcare responsibilities can interrupt the careers of women academics, professionals and administrators. Time constraints militate against their optimal participation in research and academic conferences that facilitate promotions. Women have been seen to opt out of leadership and responsible positions and to prefer less demanding jobs that will not conflict with their domestic tasks.

Compounding these problems are the institutional constraints that operate in their work environment. All countries report the existence of overt or unconscious gender bias in recruitment and promotions, caused by male dominance in power structures and in selection committees and male sponsorship and networks that seek to safeguard the status quo. Despite pressures at international level, no country appears to be committed to increasing the participation of women as senior managers. On the contrary, women deplore the absence of an 'enabling environment' that provides adequate opportunities to equip them with leadership or management skills.

In a context in which higher education institutions have not focused purposefully on empowering women, gendered norms and stereotypes have tended to condition the aspirations and behavioural patterns of many women, even those with potential for leadership. Studies have indicated that women pursuing a career in higher education institutions often have limited aspirations. They are apt to lack confidence in their ability to perform effectively as high-level managers or are not motivated or ambitious enough to accept challenges in order to reach the 'top'.

It is this constellation of social forces and concomitant attitudes affecting the behaviour of policy makers in higher education institutions, family members and society and the perceptions of women that is seen to stymie the development of potential women managers and leaders in higher education institutions.

3 Strategies for change

Any process of social transformation requires multiple strategies. In this context of gender inequality in access to resources and power, under-utilisation of human resources, and limits to women's right to develop their potential and to participate in decision making, a fourfold strategy is indicated. This would include:

- **Gender sensitisation of policy makers**, administrators, educators and employers through in-house programmes and multi-media that focus on gender equity and the promotion of positive attitudes to the career advancement of women to the highest level, on the basis of potential and aptitude.
- **Review of appointment and promotion procedures** in order to eliminate gender bias, and systematic staff development and career advancement programmes in universities without gender discrimination.
- **Support for women's multiple roles** through advocacy programmes, legislative measures such as parental leave facilities and infrastructural support such as childcare services and flexible hours.
- **Development in potential women managers**, confidence and capacity to take leadership roles, and communication, organisational and decision making skills through the curriculum in educational institutions, career guidance programmes, management courses integrated in staff development programmes and women's networks within and outside higher education.

Case-study 5

The Pacific Women's Charter

By Konai Helu Thaman, PhD

About this case-study

This case-study describes the processes and the experiences of women in the South Pacific, who are trying to have a Women's Charter accepted within the University of the South Pacific. The experiences are relevant for those using the modules on 'Academic Leadership' and 'Managing Personal and Professional Roles'. It would also be useful to provide a counterpoint and alternative strategy to those in the module 'Women's Studies as a Catalyst for the Advancement of Women'.

Author's acknowledgements

I gratefully acknowledge the assistance of Ms Reade-Fong, Ms Sarojini Pillay (USP Registrar) and Mr Cliff Benson in the preparation of this paper.

I Introduction

The Pacific Women's Charter (PWC) was an outcome of the Pacific Workshop for Women's Managers, held at the University of the South Pacific (USP), Suva, Fiji, from 4–8 July 1994. The workshop was funded by the Commonwealth Higher Education Support Scheme (CHESS) and hosted by the University of the South Pacific. An organising committee comprising the Registrar, the Director of the Institute of Education (IOE), Director of the Institute of Social and Administrative Studies (ISAS) and a senior librarian were responsible for the preparation and conduct of the workshop.

Under the CHESS umbrella, the workshop was intended to strengthen institutions of higher learning by developing the management capacities of women, thereby increasing the pool of highly-skilled resources available within institutions. More specifically, the PWC aimed at:

- helping women managers function more effectively in a range of social and professional roles;
- equipping them with strategies and resources that will help them influence and effect institutional change;
- providing a basis for ongoing co-operative affirmative action; and
- creating a network of continuing support for women in the (Pacific) region.

Participants represented Commonwealth countries in the region as well as those countries served by the USP that are not members of the Commonwealth. They included people from Aotearoa (New Zealand), Australia, Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribati, Niue, Papua New Guinea, Solomon Islands, Tokelau, Tonga, Vanuatu and Western Samoa.

2 The Charter

The PWC was the outcome of discussions by one of four working parties set up to deal with issues which were seen as pertinent to women in higher education management. The Charter is based on the principles of:

- addressing the inequality of gender representation at management levels in higher education institutions in the Pacific; and
- the need to safeguard, support, guide and affirm the aspirations of women in higher education management in the Pacific.

The Charter was accepted by the participants who were asked to take it to their own institutions and to seek its endorsement both within their working contexts and at the governing authority level. Participants were also asked to report on the progress in having the Charter endorsed, to the Director of the IOE. Furthermore, participants were asked to have the Charter adopted by their national governments and to seek both institutional and government support for developing and funding strategies for the implementation of the Charter. The following are the specific clauses of the Charter:

- Pacific women are to be equitably represented at all levels of policy decision making and management in institutions of higher education in the Pacific.
- The untapped pool of management talent of Pacific women within each country must be recognised and affirmative action taken to fully utilise it.
- Institutions of higher education in the Pacific must develop strategies to increase their pool of women eligible for management positions.
- The learning and/or working environment is to be gender-friendly, encouraging the use of gender-neutral language.
- Higher education institutions should recognise and promote affirmative actions needed for women to have equal access to, and participate in technical and vocational training courses. Whenever possible, higher education institutions in the Pacific are to raise awareness of gender issues through curricula, staff induction and training programmes, policies and practices, among other things.
- Support services are to be provided to allow Pacific women to participate in learning and working opportunities at any stage of their lives, e.g. appropriate accommodation, flexible working hours, crèches, counselling services, mentors and role models.
- Pacific women's work shall be recognised, and rewarded equally with men, both for appointments and promotions purposes.

3 The Pacific Women's Charter at the University of the South Pacific

As far as I know, the PWC has been presented to the various institutions from which workshop participants came. However, no word has been received by the Director of the IOE regarding the adoption or otherwise of the Charter. As far as the USP is concerned, the Charter, following a

suggestion from the Vice-Chancellor, was presented to the Senate, in November 1995. It was to have gone to the meeting of the University Council in October but this was not possible.

Ms Reade-Fong, in her capacity as Chairperson of the Interim Committee of Pacific Women Managers, presented the Charter to the USP Senate, and reported that a lively discussion took place. At Senate, she explained the origins and purpose of the PWC, and the need to keep the focus of the PWC – **women managers in higher education** – clearly in mind, since other groups and organisations were dealing with the needs of other groups of women. She emphasised the need to do something positive about the gender imbalance in managerial levels at the USP, quoting from the Vice-Chancellor's address in 1994 regarding the fact that only one out of six senior administrators and four out of 37 heads of sections were women. The Charter, she reminded Senate, was a means of addressing gender inequalities at the institutional level.

Ms Reade-Fong also mentioned the implications for the USP of adopting the Charter. First, the USP will be expected, over a reasonable period of time, to show that deliberate action is being taken to ensure that women are represented in equal numbers to men on policy decision making committees of the university, such as finance and general purposes, resources management, staff policy and staff review. Second, the Vice-Chancellor's suggestion that women were an 'untapped resource' meant that affirmative action was needed and that appointments to senior management positions within the university would need to seriously consider including women. Third, the university would have to continue encouraging and selecting qualified women to take advantage of training awards aimed at enhancing their formal qualifications for management positions. Fourth, the university will be obliged to offer and nurture a gender-friendly working environment, including the use of gender-sensitive language in curriculum and instruction. Fifth, the university will be expected to offer support services to women in order to enable them to carry out their tasks of managing. Finally, the university should provide for an appeals mechanism in relation to both appointments and promotions. (This issue has already been taken up by the USP Staff Association, at the Council level.)

Senate noted that the focus on women managers was restrictive as it excluded women at non-managerial level, non-Pacific women, and women students who make up the majority of women in the university. The Senate was concerned that the PWC would be aimed only at an exclusive select group. Senate wanted to be satisfied that the PWC, in advancing the cause of women, would not come in conflict with the cause of human rights as contained in the University Charter (Section 23, p. 159). The Senate had resolved to refer the proposal back to the Interim Committee to address issues raised in the Senate and that if the Committee wished, it could consult the Department of Law for assistance, before re-submitting the proposal.

4 Discussion

The reaction of Senate to the PWC was predictable. A male-dominated body, the Senate has always represented male perspectives and aspirations. With the exception of the Head of Food and Textile Science and the university librarian, all heads of schools, institutes and sections are male (see Thaman, 1994, for further discussion on women and higher

education management at the USP and elsewhere). Although the Registrar is female, she is the secretary of the Senate and is therefore in attendance only. All the concerns stated in the Senate minutes had been dealt with by Ms Reade-Fong in her presentation. However, I believe that most members of the Senate feared for their own positions if the PWC was to be adopted. The university Charter has been used time and again to frustrate efforts by women to gain access to senior managerial positions within the university. When the university council deemed it necessary in the 1970s to set up a Regionalisation Committee to ensure that regional staff (citizens of the countries of the university region) were recruited by the university to counter the heavy dependence on expatriate staff, no one mentioned the Charter. It is hoped that with the review of the Charter currently under way, there would be an enabling clause to ensure gender equity in terms of senior decision making within the institution.

It is my view that when something is encoded and appears as a rule or policy, people will react negatively to it, especially if they perceive it to be threatening to, and/or diminishing their current status. We may have to re-think the process which we use to bring about change, especially in tradition-riddled institutions such as universities. I believe that the committee will have to find less threatening ways of dealing with gender inequities, particularly in a male-dominated region like ours. For example, during my term as Pro Vice-Chancellor at the USP (1990–94), I chaired the Staff Development and Training Committee, which was responsible for selecting regional staff for training awards overseas. Although there is no mention of gender considerations in our staff training regulations, I was always conscious of the fact that in making our selections, we needed to keep in mind the need to have gender balance. Hence, I would always remind the committee about the need for gender balance in selecting awardees as well as ensuring that candidates from USP member countries other than Fiji were given due consideration. As a result, an equal number of female and male candidates were selected (all on merit of course, and not because of their gender).

Whereas equality of opportunity involves ensuring that women have no doors closed to them that are open to men, positive discrimination requires special action in favour of women as a gender, in order to achieve equality of outcomes – in this case, the need to have more women in managerial positions in higher education. The attempt to have the PWC endorsed by Senate and eventually by the USP Council, of course, is a way of bringing about equality of outcomes as compared to legislating for equality of opportunity. The PWC was obviously interpreted by some members of the Senate as entailing positive discrimination, and against the spirit of the university Charter. They therefore did not support it.

As is widely known, Article 4 of the United Nations Convention of 1979 stated clearly that temporary special measures in any sphere – political, civil, economic, social or cultural – intended to bring about actual equality between women and men, must not be considered as unlawful sex discrimination. The UN Convention introduced into the legal systems of signatory states (including Britain) a concept that was new – that of affirmative action for women (Cockburn, 1992, p. 31).

Many countries, including France, Sweden, Norway and the USA have adopted the principle of positive discrimination for women. In Norway, for example, the Equal Status Act of 1978 required, among other things, appropriate quotas of places for women on all committees or bodies to which members are elected or nominated by government agencies (Michel, 1990, quoted in Cockburn, 1992, p. 32).

The USP Charter, which some Senate members used as a reason for caution against the PWC, requiring that there shall be no discrimination based upon race, religion or sex in the university, is, from the perspective of women, seriously limiting because it is a law giving rights not to women, a historically-disadvantaged group as far as the institution is concerned, but to both sexes. While members of the Senate might have seen the PWC as discriminating against men, or expatriate women, it is difficult, for example, to prove discrimination against women in university appointments to senior management positions because of the requirement of confidentiality of proceedings. The Senate decision regarding the PWC is quite similar to the situation in Britain where, despite the fact that Britain signed the UN Convention of 1979 (ratifying the controversial Article 4 which called for positive discrimination in favour of women), British law forbids all discrimination except where expressly permitted. It is therefore not surprising to find many women who feel that the 1979 Convention was designed to prevent rather than achieve equality for women. The process which the PWC is undergoing unfortunately seems to confirm this view.

5 Conclusion

I believe that it is going to take a long time, if at all, for the PWC to be endorsed not only by the USP but by the other institutions in our region. In the meantime, women managers who attended our workshop, continue to do whatever they can, within the constraints of their own institutions and cultural contexts, to improve and enhance their management skills as well as assist other women to develop their own. The Interim Committee continues to meet although it has been difficult to ensure the attendance of most members. Women managers are rare in the Pacific. The few who are managers are extremely busy people, and it has been difficult to find a suitable time slot during which a regional (satellite) meeting could be held. The Interim Committee is exploring alternative ways of communicating with them. Written communication does not seem to be very effective either. Another regional consultation is being planned for later in the year, in the hope that some would be able to take time off and gather together to work out future strategies and programmes. The PWC will be an item for consideration but it will not be the only issue to be discussed.

Editorial Note

The Pacific Women's Charter was accepted by the Senate at the University in October 1996.

6 References

- Cockburn, C. (1993) *In the Way of Women*, London, Macmillan.
- Poutney, C. (1994) *Report of the Pacific Workshop for Women Managers in Higher Education*, Suva, USP.
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Ancillary Material C

Workshops

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Workshop I

Women in leadership

By Anne Gold, MA

About this workshop

This workshop encourages participants to analyse and understand their own leadership styles and the effect of those leadership styles on others. It poses real-life issues about dealing with non-performing staff members and encouraging research. The workshop is highly recommended for the module 'Academic Leadership' but would be of value in other modules too.

I Target group

This workshop is suitable for women in middle management in higher education, for those in less senior management positions, and for those who are considering becoming managers in higher education. In other words, it is for all women in institutions of higher education except for those in senior management posts.

2 Objectives

By the end of the workshop, participants will have addressed at least the following issues:

- women working with conflict;
- managing men colleagues or people in different positions of power;
- gendered leadership styles;
- using empowering or emancipatory management styles;
- professional development for women;
- women sponsoring and mentoring other women;
- the time necessary for the development of effective solutions.

3 The gender dimension

The gender dimension of this activity is implicit in the teaching methodology which includes small group work and individual reflection as well as whole group discussions and input from the facilitator. It is also explicit in the content of the workshop and in the way that the facilitator is asked to draw out specific issues.

4 The workshop

4.1 Facilitator's preparation

Duration: 2 hours.

It is assumed that the leader has read at least:

- Shirley Grundy, 'Educational leadership as emancipatory praxis' in Blackmore J. and Kenway J. (eds) (1993) *Gender Matters in Educational Administration and Policy*, London and Deakin, Falmer Press. The last section – 'A personal reflection' – is particularly relevant here.
- Jill Blackmore, 'Educational leadership: a feminist critique and reconstruction' in Smyth, J. (ed.) (1989) *Critical Perspectives on Educational Leadership*, London and Deakin, Falmer Press.
- The activity is closely linked with the module, and facilitation of the workshop depends on a close reading of 'Management Development for Women – A Facilitator's Handbook'.

4.2 Introduction by the workshop leader

The following group activity takes place after a short preamble about women managing others. The preamble is to set the scene – to explain why we are exploring the particular tasks. The tasks are realistic and show the sort of dilemmas faced by women managers all the time. Do not give a lecture or much information here – the most important learning will come from the activity itself and from the discussion afterwards. The preamble might include the following points:

(a) Power

Some women find it difficult to manage with other colleagues, especially when there are complications about gender and who is in charge, and when there is a lack of clarity about who really holds power (and influence).

(b) Conflict

Some women are afraid of arousing conflict, others avoid working with difficult people rather than working directly with them because they are afraid of anger.

(c) Gender

There are, of course, cultural differences about showing anger, showing respect, working with conflict, and so on. But it is important here to think about gender differences, and how these affect the balance of power.

(d) Expectations

As a woman manager, are there expectations about you as a leader which either depend on the fact that you are a woman, or that you may have become driven and uncomfortable with people because, as a senior manager, you have lost your ability to understand the problems of other people?

4.3 The exercise

Photocopy the hand-out (HO 1) and give it to each participant. Make sure that they understand the activity, and that the three groups are balanced and ready to work well together.

4.4 The feedback session

This part of the discussion should take at least half an hour – even if it begins slowly, wait for contributions from the participants, then help shape the discussion with the questions listed under (c). The questions are chosen in order to offer a conceptual framework to explain the issues around this particular aspect of women and leadership.

(a) Strategies

Ask everyone to come back together in the main group, and ask each small group to display the **strategies** they have drawn out of the group work. Take it in turns for the rest of the group to ask enough questions to make sure that they understand them.

(b) Principles

Then look at the three sets of **principles**. Do they coincide/overlap?

(c) Discussion

The principles for all three examples will probably be the same and will certainly overlap. The discussion, linked with the material from the module, will probably range over the following issues. If it does not, guide the participants by asking them some of the following questions and raising the following issues:

- How might gender differences affect these interactions?
- What sort of leadership styles are evident in the principles drawn up – encouraging? empowering? informing? not punishing?
- When you have complaints about a colleague, do you make sure that you hear all versions of the story first? The principles of leadership here are about trusting and expecting the best from those you manage.
- Underpinning all three scenarios are issues of professional development, and mentoring and sponsoring others, especially other women. Did these issues come out clearly in your small group discussions? For example, how might you encourage a colleague to publish and get successful research bids?
- It can take time and support to develop effective and helpful solutions.

4.5 Summarising the learning from the workshop

This is the time when people reflect on their own learning – it is a quiet and thoughtful time after the talk in the small groups and the whole group. It offers participants the opportunity to think carefully about what they have learned and how they might change or strengthen their practice in the future. It begins with the whole group looking at the three sets of principles once more and answering a question together.

(a) Principles

Go back to the principles drawn up by each of the groups:

- Would people suggest adding any more after the last discussion?

(b) Summarising the learning

By themselves or in pairs, each person should think about the answers to the following questions (These questions should be written up beforehand, either on a flip-chart or on a board by the workshop leader. Before they begin writing, assure them that their answers are private and just for themselves.)

- What have you learned about different ways of working with the people you manage?
- Would you change the way you work with those for whom you have management responsibility?
- What have you learned about your own leadership style?
- What new plans might you make for your own career?

Answering these questions might take 10 minutes.

Then, if there is time:

(c) Evaluation

Ask if anyone would like to say anything about what they have learned today?

This is a form of evaluation – it helps participants to think about their learning from the session, and it is an important opportunity for them to tell the leader about the quality of the learning. Evaluations are always important both for workshop leaders and for participants. After looking at the module 'Management Development for Women: A Facilitator's Handbook', Section 5, this is the place to do the type of evaluation you have chosen as best fitting the style you work in.

(d) Closure

End the session by thanking the participants for coming and for working so thoughtfully.

Managing with people

HO 1

Here are three short examples of management problems that you might meet during your working day. Divide into three groups. Each group will address a different problem. You have one hour to complete this activity.

1. Before you begin to work on the 'problem', see whether you can set it in a context similar to your experience. Or, change it slightly so that it becomes realistic and recognisable to you, and so that it reminds you of similar problems you might meet at work. In other words, choose an existing problem, or draw one up that matches the workplace of someone in your group.
2. Then, having agreed on a context and a realistic problem, discuss the problem and agree ways in which you would hope to deal with it – develop some strategies. Note the gender of the people involved. Write up a short list of strategies, to report back to the whole group.
3. Finally, draw out the principles which underpin your solutions and strategies – for example, how might your beliefs about developing the skills of the staff for whom you have responsibility affect your strategies? Is there a gender dimension? Write the principles on a sheet of flip-chart paper, and be prepared to report back on them to the whole group.

Group 1:

Someone for whom you have management responsibility is not publishing or making successful research bids. What do you do?

Group 2:

A student comes to complain to you about a colleague who is not doing their job properly. What do you do as the person responsible?

Group 3:

A colleague (someone who manages you or someone who is on the same level of management as you) complains to you about another colleague, for whom you have management responsibility. There is an element of truth in the complaint, but it becomes clear that the complainant is the main problem. What do you do?

Workshop 2

The management of change

By Julie Roberts, BA

About this workshop

This workshop explores the dynamics of the change process, and encourages participants to work through issues relating to facilitating change and dealing with resistance to change. It would be relevant to almost all the modules.

1 Target group

This workshop is suitable for women and men who are experiencing and/or managing change in higher education. In the module 'Academic Leadership' it could be run as an exercise to complement the exercise in Section 3.2 which deals with the language and models of leadership. It could also be used in the module 'Women and Governance in Higher Education', Section 3.1(b) 'The governance environment in higher education institutions'.

2 Objectives

The objectives of this exercise are to provide participants with the opportunity to reflect on personal experience of change and, from that, to identify enabling factors that assist the achievement of change and the minimisation of resistance to change.

3 The gender dimension

The gender dimension of this activity is implicit in the teaching methodology which includes small group work and individual reflection as well as feedback to the whole group, facilitated in a non-threatening, non-competitive environment.

4 The workshop

4.1 Facilitator's notes

Duration: 1 hour 30 minutes.

It is assumed that this workshop is being conducted in conjunction with either of the modules 'Academic Leadership' or 'Women and Governance in Higher Education'. It is also assumed that the facilitator will be familiar with the module 'Management Development for Women: A Facilitator's Handbook'.

Section 3.1(b) of the module 'Academic Leadership' invites participants to consider the effect of a change toward more gender-balanced leadership in the university. This exercise will give insights into the cause and effect

of change and the dynamic that must be managed if women are to change the way in which different styles of leadership can be recognised, incorporated and valued within academic institutions.

One of the assumptions of the module 'Academic Leadership' is that:

'individuals can make a difference in the lives of other people'.

Further, in order to be effective leaders:

'women must move through and beyond issues or rights and access to leading through partnership with men.'

The following workshop provides participants with an opportunity to identify and reflect on the different experiences of change, and the ways in which this learning can be used to minimise resistance to the changes women are seeking to bring to the university.

4.2 Introduction by the workshop leader

It will be useful if the facilitator introduces the workshop around the change aspects within the 'Leadership' or 'Governance' module. The start of the workshop should introduce the notion of change as a process which must be considered when attempting to increase the ways in which women can take their place in the leadership and/or governance of higher education. This introduction does not need to be lengthy or abstract.

Useful points might include:

(a) Phases of change

People tend to move slowly through the four phases of change, from the status quo to the stage of feeling comfortable with the change (see OHT 1).

(b) Change process

In personal terms, the change process might be expressed as a series of steps people go through before feeling comfortable with the change (see OHT 2).

(c) Facilitating change

A number of strategies can be used to move people constructively through the change process (see OHT 3).

(d) Dealing with resistance

Change often involves uncertainty, and people respond to that uncertainty in differing ways. A number of strategies can be used to help people deal more effectively with the change and resistances to it (see OHT 4).

4.3 The exercise

This exercise is completed in two stages and takes approximately 30 minutes.

Hand out the exercise 'Managing change' (HO 1). Ask participants to reflect on some changes that have affected them in the last six months. The changes can be at work or in their personal life. Then ask participants to choose carefully and select one change that is neither too traumatic to deal with in a workshop such as this, nor so small that the effect has been quite insignificant.

(a) Chosen change

Allow about 10 minutes for participants to work through questions 1 to 4 individually. Then ask participants to move into groups of three to discuss what they had identified about ways of coping with the chosen change, and what needs had emerged.

Ask each group to report back to the whole group and to write up their reflections on a whiteboard or butcher's paper.

Summarise the learning by drawing out the positive and negative aspects of coping with the chosen change. If possible, draw out how change tends to be seen in a positive light when the individual is in control of the change process.

(b) Unchosen change

Allow about 10 minutes for participants to work through questions 5 to 7 individually. Then move into groups of three to discuss what had been identified in the way change that has not been chosen had been coped with and what needs had emerged.

Report back to the whole group and write reflections up on a whiteboard or butcher's paper.

Summarise the learning by drawing out the differences between change that has been initiated by the participant and change that has not. Similarly, invite reflection on any similarities in content, but differences in attitude between the two types of change. For example, change that has been chosen may involve identification of a need – a skill or reassurance – but the feelings about it are likely to be positive (this is going to be good for me, I will benefit from this) whereas the same needs often promote negative feelings when the change has not been chosen but imposed (this is getting me nowhere, I am not suited to this).

Invite participants to consider their different feelings, particularly on issues of control, fear, resentment, resistance, motivation, and other positive/negative feelings associated with the changes they have identified.

Consider the different needs that have emerged, particularly around issues of control, cost, benefit, information, security, reassurance, stakeholding, power, isolation/alienation, and other positive/negative needs associated with the changes they have identified.

The summarising-of-learning period is an important time for participants. It enables a quiet time in which to reflect on the learnings from the two experiences, to find personal linkages, as well as to reflect on what has been shared with others. It is important to allow 'space' for participants to think and move forward during this summarising segment before moving onto the next part.

(c) Managing change

Ask participants to discuss in groups of three how the change process has affected them. For example, ask whether participants identify with the phases of the change process and how long this might have taken before feeling quite comfortable with the new situation. Other matters might include discussion of residual feelings/needs that have not been dealt with, and what effect this may have had.

In particular, encourage consideration of what it takes to successfully manage the change process:

- What has been identified that can usefully be incorporated into the change process for someone who has not initiated that change?
- What do they need in order to make the change attractive to them, or to make it work for them?

Ask participants to report back to the whole group. Then draw out the following principles:

- The personal learning about change (e.g. needs for good information, to feel in control, and to see benefit from the change) should inform how change is managed.
- The personal experiences of the participants will reflect how others feel about change, and participants need to translate these insights into how they manage change and the change process within their own organisations.

4.4 Evaluation

Again, this is an opportunity to provide participants with a 'space' to reflect on the learning and linkages. It is a quiet, thoughtful time before posing a last question.

Ask if anyone would like to say anything about what they have learned today. Is there anything they will choose to do/approach differently having attended this workshop?

This is a useful form of evaluation. It not only provides useful feedback to the session leader, it provides a valuable opportunity for participants to evaluate their own learning and think about ways in which it can be applied to their own situation.

Close the workshop by thanking everyone for coming and for working so thoughtfully.

5 Support materials

5.1 Overhead transparencies

- OHT 1 Phases of change
- OHT 2 Change process
- OHT 3 Facilitating change
- OHT 4 Dealing with resistance

5.2 Hand-out materials

- HO 1 Managing change

5.3 Facilitator's resources

- R 1 Programme outline

Phases of change

OHT 1

Status quo	Preparing for change	Shifting to new status	Comfort zone
denial of need for change	readiness to listen	comfort with new language	comfort with change
comfort with self	uncertainty with self	new independence	comfort with self
no need for change anyway	do we really need this?	sense of accomplishment	
logic and wisdom resides in status quo at level of the individual institution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ search for comfort in transition ■ sabotage of new logic and wisdoms ■ evasion and other – focuses at individual and institutional levels 	comfort with new behaviour, rituals and symbols at individual and institutional levels	
supported and expressed by ritual, symbolic and political	could it be done differently?	re-assessing social reality	ownership social reality
emphasis on negative	willing to listen to positive	comfort with new behaviour	
suppression of newness, panic, discomfort zone	self-focused	recognition of role and power of self	

Change process**OHT 2**

Anxiety	this cannot be happening to me how am I going to cope? what am I going to do?
Denial	there is no problem this cannot be solved anyway there is nothing wrong with me
Anger	why should I have to change?
Depression	loneliness and isolation everyone else seems OK what about me?
Bargaining	discounting significance, responsibility
Experimenting	awkward fluctuation between acceptance and non-acceptance that old logic and wisdoms will not work in new situations discomfort zone incongruence
Acceptance	involvement and integration comfort zone congruence

Facilitating change**OHT 3**

- Information** knowledge of politics, rights, responsibilities and consequences
- Empathy** discussion of feelings
allow ventilation of issues at all levels
- Persuasion** provide another value system to replace old one
peer support and acceptance
motivate (by reward)
- Support** involve in change process
assist in appropriate skills development
allow individuals to benefit from change
- Celebrate** acknowledge the change positively

Dealing with resistance**OHT 4**

Change often involves uncertainty. People respond to change and uncertainty differently; people have different needs. This sometimes involves denial, procrastination and resistance:

1. Allow the resistance to surface

Provide time to listen to concerns, clarify difficulties and fears about the change.

2. Respect the resistance

You do not have to agree with the resistance but you do have to acknowledge it. Let people state their opinions – their perspective is based on their experience and this may be different to yours.

3. Explore the resistance

Separate out the differences between 'real' resistance about the change and other grievances, e.g. lack of information, resentment of authority or simply desire for attention. Try and clarify real obstacles to getting the change understood, accepted and implemented successfully.

4. Re-check the status of the resistance

Clearly and simply state the need for change. It is not necessary that it be accepted or agreed totally, but acknowledging feelings may go part of the way to considering the merit of the change.

5. Explore the status of the change

Change is inevitable. Change almost always involves a cost. The loss of factors such as control, job satisfaction, security, etc. associated with the old way, means these factors need to be replaced in the change. Acknowledging and addressing this need may go part of the way to accepting the change.

Managing change**HO 1****1. Think about some changes that have affected you in the last six months.**

Write down one change that you chose, or agreed with:

Thinking about the processes involved in change:

2. Write down the ways in which you planned the change that you chose:

3. Write down the ways in which you coped with the change you chose:

4. What are some of the needs you identified in planning and coping with change?

5. Now think of a change that you did not choose or agree with:

Thinking about the processes involved in change:

6. Write down the ways in which you coped with the change that you did not choose:

7. What are some of the needs you identified in coping with change that you did not choose?

Programme outline**R 1**

- 35 mins **Presentation on dynamics of change**
Outline the three critical stages of change –
preparing for change;
shifting to new status;
comfort zone (OHT 1)
– and identify the behaviours and feelings associated with them,
including the transitions between each change.
- 35 mins **Experiences of change exercises**
Invite participants to identify with some of the key indicators of
change and discuss in smaller groups shared and different
experiences of change.
- 20 mins **Discuss outcomes in large group and close.**