Chapter III

Women Leadership
# CHAPTER III

## WOMEN LEADERSHIP

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CHAPTER III

WOMEN LEADERSHIP

3.1 Overview:

This chapter deals with the plight of women in general, women leadership at global level, women leadership at national level and women leadership in education.

3.2 Socio Economic Plight of Women in General:

Female wages are lower than male wages but this is changing. In India, women's real wages are 51% of men's and only 34% can be explained by the fact of being "less qualified". In reality, women are less qualified because they have less opportunities to acquire skills or get qualified. In Kenya, women get 18% lower wages than men, even after adjusting for skill and experience. In most countries of Latin America, female wages are 71% of average male wages and only 20% can be explained in terms of differences in human capital. The average female wage is only three fourths of the male wage in the non-agricultural sector in 55 countries that have comparable data.¹

The report of the world conference of the United Nations decade for women (Copenhagen, July 1980) states, while women represent 50 percent of world adult population and a third of official labour force, they perform nearly two thirds of
all working hours, receive only a tenth of world income and own less than one percent of world property. This would be true, more or less of India, too.²

Women naturally receive a much lower average wage than men because they are forced to occupy low paying jobs or work in the un-organized sector. For equal work they are paid less than what their men counterparts get. When compared to males, the percentage of economically active population of female is distressing and discouraging.

Table 3.1
(Percentage of economically active population³)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>MALE</th>
<th>FEMALE</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1901</td>
<td>61.11</td>
<td>31.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911</td>
<td>61.90</td>
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<td>58.27</td>
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<tr>
<td>1961</td>
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<td>37.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>52.75</td>
<td>14.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981</td>
<td>52.65</td>
<td>19.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
One view considers higher education of girls as a waste because many of them do not use their knowledge for any social purpose. Improvement in employment information and guidance services for women entering higher education can negate this view. Women leadership alone can solve this problem.4

By educating women, there is actually no wastage of public funds, rather there is an expansion of the horizon of education in the whole nation; Because home is the first school and training ground for the child and mother is not only the first teacher but also the mentor for the children until they are able to think and act on their own.5

In the opinion of G.K. Deodher, "the question of education is the most important for women because unless they are educated, they cannot be self-reliant. To pull out women from their degraded and downgraded positions, G.K. Deodher advocates cadres of educated woman, who are otherwise known as women leaders to impart right type of training to young girls and women so that they can be economically independent in course of time. G.K. Deodher's decision later on became the seed from which blossomed the 'Sevasadan' of Poona in 1909.6

Women is the pivot of a family, around which revolve the entire activities of men and children, She is responsible for a family's health, happiness and prosperity. Hence a country cannot afford to ignore or sideline her existence. It has been gradually recognized that women do make substantial contributions to national development.7
Women in India constitute about half of its total population. However, there is substantial research and empirical evidence to indicate that they are a neglected lot, remaining backward on all the developmental indicators inclusive of health, education, employment, etc.,

In the case of unorganized sector, inspite of heavy strenuous work, wages paid to women are rather low. Labour laws are violated by employers and exploitation of ignorant women employees continues due to lack of organized strength. Women in work are burdened with the double task of supplementing family income, management of the household and children. They hardly have time to participate in other activities which may broaden their outlook. Despite the gloomy picture of the poor women in the unorganized sector, there is visible change in the attitudes of educated women working as teachers, nurses, doctors, lawyers, administrators, and journalists employed in the organised sector. These women present vivid examples of change and tradition in India. Male superiority is still accepted by the majority. Marriage and motherhood are considered to be the primary functions of womanhood.

Decision making is largely entrusted to male members. Arranged marriages and dowry system are still in vogue. But the change is equally noticeable. Women have greater freedom as compared to their mothers. Intercaste marriages do take place. Small family norm is accepted and family planning favoured. Many educated women have become career oriented and aspire for better economic status. The majority are aware of their rights. They are more bothered about their own problems and the double demands of the family and the jobs.
During the last five decades, the participation of girls has increased in Primary, Middle, Secondary / Higher Secondary stages and higher education from 28.1% to 43.7%, from 16.1% to 40.9%, from 13.30% to 38.6% and from 10.0% to 36.89% respectively. However, the participation of girls is still below fifty percent at all stages of education.¹

**Table 3.2**

(Participation of Girls in Education)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Primary %</th>
<th>Middle %</th>
<th>Secondary / Hr. Secondary %</th>
<th>Higher Education (Degree and above) %</th>
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</thead>
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<td>28.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1955-56</td>
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<td>20.8</td>
<td>15.4</td>
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<td>1960-61</td>
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<td>20.5</td>
<td>16.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>1965-66</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>26.7</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1970-71</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>29.3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975-76</td>
<td>38.1</td>
<td>31.3</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>23.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980-81</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985-86</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>33.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990-91</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>32.9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
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<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>39.5</td>
<td>36.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>2000-01</td>
<td>43.7</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>36.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3 Women Leadership at Global Level:

Women still occupy only 10% of the parliamentary seats and only 6% of the cabinet positions at the global level. In developing countries women still constitute less than a seventh of the administrators and managers\(^\text{12}\)

With hardly any exception, the global picture is one of men out-numbering women at about five to one at middle management level and at about twenty or more to one at senior management level.

Table 3.3

(Percentage of women administrators and managers at the global level)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Participation in %</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>42.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>34.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thailand</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sri Lanka</td>
<td>16.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>11.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China</td>
<td>11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bangladesh</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrialised Nations</td>
<td>27.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developing Nations</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source\(^\text{13}\) : UNDP Report 1997
Pipe line theories, are often invoked to explain women's under representation by claiming that not enough women have come up through the system to form a critical mass of qualified candidates for senior positions. Glass ceiling explanations have highlighted the many overt and covert cultural and structural barriers that impede women's career paths. The term glass ceiling generally refers to transparent, cultural, organizational and attitudinal barriers that maintain relatively rigid sex segregations in organizations. These are embedded in male managerial styles, discourse and language that shun women out.14

Table 3.4

(Percentage of growth of women managers in different countries15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEAR</th>
<th>U.S.A.</th>
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<th>W. GERMANY</th>
<th>GREAT BRITAN</th>
<th>IRELAND</th>
<th>SPAIN</th>
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<td>1900</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>1950</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>26.1</td>
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<td>1990</td>
<td>40.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>34.5</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Country</td>
<td>Executive Heads (Vice-chancellor etc.)</td>
<td>Heads of Administration Register/Secretary of Universities</td>
<td>Senior Management Pro V.C., Deputy V.C., Deputy President, Dean of Students, Chair of the board of the faculties, commercial Directors, University librarians and University Secretary</td>
<td>Deans</td>
<td>Professors</td>
<td>Heads and Directors (of academic departments and academic centres)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------</td>
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<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<td>Heads of Administration Register/Secretary of Universities</td>
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<td>Deans</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>COMMON WEALTH</td>
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<td>19.8</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Halliday (1999), women represent less than 8% of Company Directors in Australia. In terms of parliamentary representation women represent just 20% of members of the federal parliament and 19% of state parliament positions. Further it was not until 1996 that women became the first leaders in the federal parliament in Australia.16

Analysing the gender gap, Chaliwniak, (1997) in her Higher Education Leadership, states only two countries, Botswana and Swaziland have 100% women Executive Heads in the cadre of Vice-chancellors. Countries like Jamaica, Lesotho, and Mauritius have women Heads of administration in the cadre of Registrar and Secretary of University to the extent of 66.7%, 100% and 100% respectively. Jamaica and Mozambique are the two countries when women personnel in the senior management cadre like Pro Vice-chancellor, Deputy Vice-chancellor, Deputy President, Dean of Students, Chair of the board of the faculties, Commercial Director, University Librarian and University Secretary are found to the extent of 57% and 100% respectively. The percentage of women Deans is very low in all the thirty six countries as cited in the table 3.5. Guyana and Nambia have 50% of Women Professors. Nambia is the only country where Women Heads and Women Directors of academic departments and academic centres have a high value of 72.7%. Globally the percentage of women administrators is poorly represented.17
3.4 Women leadership at National Level

Women have played effectively certain leadership roles at national level. Annie Beasant, Aruna Asaf Ali, Mother Teresa, Vina Mazundar, Aruna Roy, Kiren Bedi, Indira Gandhi are notable among those women who are remembered as great women leaders at National level politics. In the administration of different sectors as well we find a large number of women shouldering leadership women in leadership roles is not as significant as the percentage of men in leadership roles inspite of the efforts taken by the women forums and the governmental and non-governmental organisations to bring up women on par with men in all walks of life. A look at the related literature reveal certain interesting facts which are recorded here.

Annie Besant initially devoted her time and energy to social and religious regeneration of India as she was attached to the Thesophical Society, which aimed at reviving ancient religions of India. Later on she joined the struggle for Indian independence. She became the first women President of the Indian National Congress. She started the Home Rule movement during the First world war to win freedom for India.

The first fruit of her educational reforms was the establishment of the central Hindu College at Benaras in 1898 which later developed into Benaras Hindu University. The basic principles of the college were, the teaching of the Hindu
religion, the uniting of Indians and the English in friendly co-operation in a common work, using racial differences for betterment of life, not for hindrance and affording a cheap but first class education.

She founded in 1904 the central Hindu Girls' School in Benaras.

Aruna Asaf Ali proved herself an able administrator in running the A.V. Baliga Foundation. She was the president of National Federation of Indian Women, a member of the presidential committee of the All India Organization for Peace and Solidarity, Mayor of Delhi etc.

Mother Teresa, a socio-religious leader was a living legend who attained the heights of sainthood by serving the poor and the downtrodden for more than 50 years. Mother Teresa's life was dedicated towards the lives of the poor, sick and destitutes. She spoke very little about herself, her past life and personal life. The Missionaries of Charity are living examples of her dedication and labour in the service of God. She was awarded the Bharat Ratna in 1980 and the Nobel Peace Prize in 1979.

Vina Mazumdar (b. 1927) was a pioneer in the women's studies movement and one of the leading lights of the women's movement. As member secretary of the Government's Committee on the status of women in India, she was responsible for producing the seminal report, "Towards Equality" 1975 on the status of women in India. She was a founder member of the Indian Association of women's studies,
and of the centre for women's Development Studies (Delhi.) She has also been Director, Women's Studies, Indian Council of Social Science Research. Vina Mazumdar has campaigned and lobbied tirelessly with state and central governments on behalf of all women, but especially poor and peasant women in India and on behalf of women's studies. She has written and published widely on women in India.

Aruna Roy (b. 1946) was an IAS officer until 1974. She resigned from the IAS to join the Social Work and Research Centre in Tilonia, Rajasthan, which had been set up by her husband Sanjit 'Bunker' Roy. She worked at the SWRC until 1983, then moved to Devdungri in 1990 and set up the Mazdoor Kisan Shakthi Sangathana, a group which is a working example of a transparent organization. She is a strong supporter of the movement for Right to Information, which succeeded in getting the Rajasthan Right to Information Bill passed. The MKSS built a grass roots movement that has triggered a broad debate and a nationwide demand for the public's right to scrutinize official records - a crucial check against arbitrary governance. In 2000, Aruna Roy was awarded the Ramon Magsaysay Award for Community Leadership and International Understanding, jointly with J. Arputham, the president of the National Slum dweller's Federation.

Kiren Bedi (b. 1949) is the first woman in India to join the Indian Police Service in 1972. She is remembered as the police officer who defies convention and uses innovative techniques to retrieve a difficult situation - whether in prisons,
on the streets or in training institutions. Her most memorable contributions have been to prison reform, with the introduction of Yoga and meditation for inmates; and in the area of drug abuse. Navjyoti, an organization founded by her in 1987, provides cost free residential, community based therapeutic treatment for alcohol and drug dependents. It has treated over 12,000 users and been recognized by the Delhi Government for its work in educating and rehabilitating destitute children. The Indian Vision Foundation set up by her in 1994 provides schooling for prisoner's children; gali schools for street children; rural projects for village communities and projects for the disabled in backward areas.

She has been awarded the Asia - Region award for her work on drug abuse prevention by the International Organization of Good Templars; the Ramon Magsaysay award for Government Service in 1994; the 2001 Morrison - Tom Gitchoff Award by the western society of criminology, U.S.A., for actions that have significantly improved the quality of justice in India; and the first - ever IIT Delhi Alumni Association Award for outstanding contributions to national development, 1999-2000.18

Smt. Indhira Gandhi (b 1997) at the age of 10, used to bicycle every sunday to Naini, 6 miles away from Allahabad to work in a home for lepers. At the age of 12, she formed a children's section of Mahatma Gandhi's Charkha Sangh. In 1929, during Civil Disobedience Movement she organised children to help the movement
by taking over small duties such as running errands, carrying messages, cooking, first-aid, sewing etc., to relieve adults for more important work.

In 1942, she joined the Quit India Movement along with her husband Feroze Gandhi and she was imprisoned and kept in central jail, Naini for 13 months. In 1955, she was elected member of the congress working committee and she was elected president of the Indian National Congress in 1959. She became the Prime Minister of India in January 1966.

In 1967, when the congress won with a narrow majority, she introduced a "10 point programme" aiming at creating a stable national economy. In 1969, she nationalised 14 major private commercial banks in order to have effective control over the national economy. In 1971, she championed the cause of eradication of poverty and in Dec. 1971, she declared war on Pakistan which led to the recognition of Bangladesh later. A state of Emergency was imposed in 1975, at the same time the government announced a 20 point programme providing for the improvement of living standards for the poor. When Punjab was reeling under terrorism in early eighties, she stormed the Golden Temple Complex under the guise of Operation Blue Star which later on proved to be the beginning of her end.

Sarojini Naidu (b 1879) cared nothing for caste and convention and is said to have broken the sacred thread and thrown into the Ganges at the age of 14. In 1919, she went to England as a member of the deputation of the All-India Home
Rule League, where she pleaded for the rights of women. She went to Africa in 1924 as a delegate to the Kenya Indian Congress, which was fighting for the rights of Indian settlers. During 1928-29, Sarojini was sent as Mahatma Gandhi's representative to the United States and Canada. Sarojini took part in the Salt Satyagraha in 1930 and was sent to jail. In 1931, she accompanied Mahatma Gandhi to London to attend Second Round Table Conference. She was arrested again in 1932 for taking part in Civil Disobedience Movement. She was imprisoned a third time during the Quit India Movement in 1942 along with Mahatma Gandhi. She presided over Asian Relations Conference in New Delhi in March 1947.

Smt. Vijayalakshmi Pandit, Smt. Meera Bai are a few other eminent women leaders at the national level.

While more women are entering politics and winning elections, their representation in the Union Government and State Governments continues to be abysmal.
Table 3.6
(Women Ministers in Union and States of India\textsuperscript{21})

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Ministers in Union</th>
<th>Ministers in States</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>DNA</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inspite of women's reservation bill being talked vociferously both inside and outside the parliment, women representation continues to be in a lower percentage at the national level.
Table 3.7
(Women's representation in Lok Sabha 1952 - 2004\cite{22})

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Seats</th>
<th>Women M.P.'s</th>
<th>% of women M.P.'s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1952</td>
<td>499</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1957</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1962</td>
<td>503</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1967</td>
<td>523</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1977</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1980</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>544</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>8.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>543</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5 Women Leadership in Education:

The issue of gender in higher education has become a matter of worldwide concern.
According to Hansard Society Report (1990), U.K. Universities are described as 'Bastions of male power and privilege.' The U.K.'s 114 university institutions currently employ over 300,000 people (universities U.K., 2001 a), of whom over 13,000 are academic staff (HESA, 2001). Women comprise only 35% of all U.K. academic staff (Halvorsen, 2002) and occupy only 25 percent of all senior staff posts in U.K. universities (Bett, 1999).

Of part time academic posts, women hold a 53% majority (CVCP, 2000) and in terms of fixed - term posts almost one third of women (compared to only 16.2% of men) are employed on fixed term contracts. (Hearn, 2000, p. 171).

Table 3.8
(Representation of Academic women in British Universities)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1920 - late 1960's</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1990's</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of vertical segregation, women comprise just 23% of Senior Lecturers and only 10% of Professors (CVCP, 2000).

Halvorson (2002, p. 11) estimates that at the current rate of growth, it will be 68 years before half of our professors are women.
At the higher levels of University Management, there are ever fewer women. Only 5 women Vice chancellors out of a total of 76 university-status institutions and only 4 women heads of the 17 General Colleges of higher education.

The major gender issues which rock educational sector in U.K. are (1) casualisation (2) contractual segregation (3) horizontal segregation and (4) vertical segregation women's leadership aims at producing enhanced levels of the three E's namely Economy, Efficiency and Effectiveness. But, unfortunately the fourth E, namely Equity is promiscuous by its absence in countries like U.K.23

Looking at the data available from the 300 universities in India, there are 11 women Vice-chancellors, one woman Pro Vice-chancellor, three women Registrars, 66 women Deans, 13 women Directors and 12 women Librarians. (Source: AIU Hand Book of Indian Universities). There are five women universities like, (1) SNDT university, Mumbai, (2) Sri Padmavathy Mahila Viswavidyalaya, Tirupathi, (3) Mother Teresa University, Kodaikanal, (4) Banasthali Vidhyapith, Jaipur (5) Avinashilingam Institute of Home Science and Higher Education for women, Coimbatore which account for five vice-chancellor's and the rest of them are from co-educational universities. This indicates that women hardly have any representation in higher education at the senior positions. Similar scenarios exist in the international set up also. Women are under-represented in positions of management and educational management.24
One of the reasons attributed to lower percentage of women administrators in education in India is due to lower enrollment of girls in colleges and subsequent lower number of women's colleges.

**Table 3.9**

*(Sex-wise enrolment of students since 1951 (in lakh)*

*In colleges for general education (Graduate and Post Graduate)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1951</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1961</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>&lt;1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1971</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1981-82</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3.10**

*(Growth of Women's Colleges in India)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>No.of women's colleges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1982-83</td>
<td>647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992-93</td>
<td>994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995-96</td>
<td>1146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997-98</td>
<td>1260</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1998-99</td>
<td>1359</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During 1998-99, out of a total number of 12186 colleges in India only 1359 colleges are exclusively for women.26

3.6 References:


5. ibid p. 106.

7. Anima Sen. *Problems and potentials of women Professionals*

8. ibid, p. 40-41.


11. ibid, p.2.


