# PROCEEDINGS OF THE $14^{\text {th }}$ INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATION IN AFRICA 

Tuesday, $12^{\text {th }} \&$ Wednesday, $13^{\text {th }}$ July, 2016

Theme: The Role of Private Higher Education Institutions (PHEls) in Sustainable Development

# Women Making a Difference in Leadership in Universities: a Case Study of Women Academic Managers in Uganda by Tabitha Mulyampiti, Makerere University, Uganda 


#### Abstract

The correlation between women's leadership styles and characteristics and those which organisations need to face the challenges of the new globalized context has not to date translated into an advantage either for our universities or in terms of the position of women in them. As Kandiko Howson, (2016); Altbach, (2016); Mulyampiti and Kanabahita (2013), Kwesiga et al, (2012),Ahikire (2011), Abiola, 2009, Endeley and NchangNgaling (2009) point out "women are grossly under-represented in higher education management" citing that hardly any exception in the global picture exists. Men outnumber women at about five to one at middlle management level and at about twenty to one at senior management level. In terms of administrative positions, it was found that "women are more likely to succeed as registrars, librarians or heads of personnel, than if they aspire to be vice chancellors (or their deputies) or directors of finance or even deans of faculties." As a result, the studies cited conclude "women deans and professors are a minority group and women vice-chancellors and members of University Boards are still a rarity." Findings are based on a case study approach where we purposively identified the sites and the participants in the study to try and elicit individual views. We use personal histories of ten university women who are or have been at the rank of Professor and have served at different levels of the leadership ladder to examine the ways in which women are consistently excluded from managerial and leadership positions. These processes enable us to undress the intricacies related to challenges women face while trying to build and be part of the leadership dynamics, while at the same time they encourage us to look to feminine styles for the transformation of universities into democratic entities. We then used these case studies' participants to suggest ways in which universities can build gender balanced leadership cultures.


We find that first, women have certain unique soft traits for the work place with great potential for impact on organizational success and they are outperforming men in particular instances, but they are not earning salaries or obtaining leadership roles commensurate with their higher levels of performance. Second, women's career paths are dotted with major difficulties such as discrimination, often subtle but not always, as well as the requirement for higher input of energy than their male counterparts to achieve the same goals. Finally, that mentoring is critical in the career paths of female professors, most women interviewed have had women mentors and a small percentage received successful mentoring from men.
Key words: gender, leadership, higher education development, and gender equality strategies.

## Introduction

## The context: New challenges for Higher Education and Implications for Organizations and Leadership for Women

The globalization of the economy and of higher education as one industry within it has increased. Moreover, increasing international competition and rapid technological change are each and together transforming the context in which universities operate, locally, nationally and globally. These intersecting trends are impacting upon organizations and the nature of work and working conditions within them. Ramsay (2000), Cameron (2011), O'Reilly and Reed (2011) and Banerjee (2011) write about the implications for organizations of the fundamental shift from the old industrialized to the new knowledge economy. Universities face the double challenge of responding to these challenges both as organizations per se and also in terms of the implications of them for the professional futures of our graduates. This context demands changes both to what and how we teach, our research priorities and the conduct of our research, as well as offering interesting opportunities to work in new forms of partnerships and alliances as we face these challenges (Cameron, 2011).

Lowen Linda, (2012) notes that over the years, among the challenges faced by higher education is ability to enroll women for purposes of productivity and of empowerment. The concern is whether higher education institutions and their leaders will respond to the required changes and the measures to be devised to exploit women's potential and promote their subsequent empowerment. Lowen, Linda (2012) asks pertinent questions that relate to the need to increase women's leadership roles. When it comes to leadership, does gender matter? Is there a difference between women leaders and men who lead? If so, what are the unique qualities of female leadership that the most effective women leaders possess, and are they unique to women?

To suggest direction to these questions, we note the unveiling of economic reform policies, which has reinterpreted and redefined the role of higher education in the manner that we know it today. Market-promoting policies are posing a challenge to higher education, and are being considered as both a driving force of economic development and the focal point of learning in a society. Higher education has assumed responsibility for transmitting accumulated knowledge. The persistent challenge however, is higher education needs to be reoriented to increase women's access to traditionally male dominated courses and equip them to take up entrepreneurial management and leadership roles and responsibilities. Banerjee (2011) notes three specific needs related to women and higher education as: (i) recognition of women as an essential human resource base; (ii) a strong commitment to equip women with the necessary range of managerial skills empowering them in their decision making role; (iii) institution of a feminine leadership model suited to the needs of social development across the higher education sectors.

Organizational change management literature explores the implications of these changes for organizations and stresses the importance of learning organizations, and of developing learning communities within them which can develop and use strategic and effective approaches to collective workplace learning. This also implies that as we develop new organizational shapes and structures in response to this rapidly changing context, organizations need to foster what is referred to as relational capital as the foundation for networks, alliances, partnerships, joint
ventures, spin offs, and the integration of ideas and effort which will be pivotal for future organizational development and success (Nyantakyiwaa, 2014; Morley,2012; O'Reilly, \& Reed, 2011;Bagilhole, and White, 2011; Ramsay, 2000; Rosener, 1990). The new and emerging communication technologies demand communication skills of a particular and new kind, and also managers flexible and adaptable enough to thrive in constantly changing environments. The rapidly changing context also requires much faster decision making and the ability to synthesize, evaluate and integrate information at a similar pace (Marilyn Drury, 2012;O'Reilly, \& Reed, 2011; Cameron, 2011). And the new leadership skills demanded by the new and global economy include the ability to transform organizational cultures by a willingness to question the status quo. Conceptual skills required include the ability to see issues from a variety of viewpoints, to manage ambiguity, and understand the complexities of other culture's values and priorities; the ability to manage through dialogue and inter-personal negotiation rather than through power and control; and the capacity to recognize that learning is an on-going process involving the need to continuously re-think what we are doing and how we are doing it. Collective rather than individual entrepreneurship is required so that skills are shared amongst others rather than hoarded by individuals, and transformed into organizational achievement rather than personal competitive advantage (Fitzgerald, 2013; Cameron, 2011; Bryman, 2007; Aguirre and Martinez, 2002).

Leadership has replaced management in post neo-liberal higher education change discourse. The cultural ideology of leader-ism suggests that certain subjectivities, values, behaviour, dispositions and characteristics can strategically overcome institutional inertia; outflank resistance and waywardness and provide direction for new university futures (O'Reilly and Reed, 2011). Potent cultural templates or 'scripts' circulate for how leaders should be - often based on larger cultural and historical formations (Alvesson et al., 2008). Leaders are expected to demonstrate authority, affective agency and possess excellent interpersonal and communication skills. However, leaders also have to negotiate intersections with other simultaneously held identities, and this is where some dissonance may occur, with cultural scripts for leaders coalescing or colliding with normative gender performances (HEP, 2013).

However, many (but not all) of the capabilities required of new managers and leaders are also more likely to be attributes associated with women managers than their male colleagues (Nyantakyiwaa, 2014; Fitzgerald, 2013; Cameron, 2011). Thus research projects that identified women managers as empathetic, supportive, relationship-building, power sharing and information sharing (Tanya Fitzgerald, 2013; Kwesiga, et al, 2012; Abiola Odejide, 2009); whereas male managers were characterized as risk-taking, self-confident, competitive, decisive and direct need urgent revisits. ${ }^{40}$ The characteristics shown by women, particularly readiness to share power and information, were also the qualities needed by managers of the future. These studies on the leadership attributes of men and women in universities, have found that women are more consultative and conciliatory, avoid conflict, and are more likely to be task oriented than their male colleagues' (Fitzgerald, 2013; Melero, 2004).

[^0]Women's absence from senior leadership is a recurrent theme in studies from the Global South e.g.from Ghana (Ohene, 2010;); Kenya (Onsongo, 2004); Nigeria (Odejideet al., 2006; Odejide, 2007; Pereira, 2007); and Uganda (Kwesiga and Ssendiwala, 2006; Kasente, 2010, Ahikire, 2011 and Mulyampiti and Kanabahita, 2013). These hypothesized that a good leader is defined according to normative masculinity. The skills, competencies and dispositions deemed essential to leadership including assertiveness, competitiveness, autonomy and authority are embedded in socially constructed definitions of masculinity.

Onsongo (2003) in a study of the leadership profiles of six Kenyan public universities and four private universities, found under-representation of female employees in the leadership structures of these universities. For instance, out of 10 Vice Chancellors, only one was female (from a private university) while out of 295 Heads of Departments, only 52 were female. Onsongo (2003) also found that most of the female Deans, Directors of Schools and Institutes and Heads of Departments were in 'traditionally feminine areas' such as home economics, languages, history and religious studies.

The correlation between women's leadership styles and characteristics and those which organizations need to face the challenges of the new globalized context has not to date translated into an advantage either for our universities or in terms of the position of women in them. As Coate and Kandiko Howson, (2016); Altbach, (2016) Mulyampiti and Kanabahita (2013), Kwesiga et al, (2012), Ahikire (2011), Abiola, 2009, Endeley and NchangNgaling (2009) point out "women are grossly under-represented in higher education management" citing that hardly any exception in the global picture exists. Louise Kloot, (2004) notes that despite Australian Universities attempts to address the problem, through policies for recruitment and retention of senior women, they experienced a masculine-oriented management culture, with little experience of feminine management values. Men outnumber women at about five to one at middle management level and at about twenty to one at senior management level. In terms of administrative positions, it was found that "women are more likely to succeed as registrars, librarians or heads of personnel, than if they aspire to be vice chancellors (or their deputies) or directors of finance or even deans of faculties."

This situation is cause for concern not only on the grounds of equal opportunity and as a matter of basic human rights, but also in terms of the productivity of the higher education sector at the institutional, national, regional and global levels ${ }^{41}$. For example, we deliberately make a direct assumption about the relationship between higher productivity and higher levels of gender equity, and concomitantly lower productivity with greater gender inequality. We further assume that if women were found in equal numbers and proportions at more senior levels, our universities, and the students studying in them would benefit from the different perspectives and experiences as well as the additional educational leadership and administrative management abilities and experience which women as well as men can contribute. Indeed the ongoing wastage of management and leadership talent which arises from and is perpetuated by the current marked under representation of women at the senior levels of universities seriously undermines their ability

[^1]to respond to change and threatens their future viability and vitality in the face of the challenges referred above.

Although we do not try to provide substantive answers, we have stuck to questions such as: what explains the tenacity of these disparities? Why has the organizational effort to recruit and advance women failed to result in substantial gains for women? Why do women remain relatively powerless at work? We propose that the answers to these questions lie in organizations' failure to question and change - prevailing notions about what constitutes the most appropriate and effective ways to define and accomplish work, recognize and reward competence, understand and interpret behavior. These unquestioned work practices support deeply entrenched divisions and disparities between men and women, often in subtle and insidious ways (Cameron, 2011).

## Definition of Leadership

The process of leadership can thus serve as a lens through which any social situation can be observed. Leadership - especially the ways in which leaders are chosen, the expectations that are placed on them, and how they manifest their authority - can provide remarkable insights into any community or group. It can tell us about how the group identifies itself, who and what matters to the group, how things are done, and what stories will be told about outcomes (Astin and Astin, 2000). Within the last few years, we have come to appreciate that the study of leadership within a given social context can open up new possibilities for transformation and change. In this way, leadership can be more an active tool than a passive lens, allowing individuals, communities, institutions, and societies to narrow the gap between what they value and what their actions express, recognizing that leadership is an integral part of the drama that plays out between the two.

Leadership is a practice, either organizational or personal that focuses on achieving organizational or societal goals. Aguirres and Martinez (2002) note that there are two key distinguished features: (i) the engagement of persons in a process that identifies them with goals; and (ii) the potential to change the institutional environment (e.g. values, beliefs, etc.). The engagement of persons in goal attainment socializes them to a shared vision or a shared mindset of what needs to change. Accordingly, by implementing gender equality goals into organizational cultures, values and beliefs, the institutional environment is targeted for change. Leadership thus embodies the practice of empowering persons to believe that change is necessary and of involving persons with a shared mindset of how to implement change. Our view of leadership thus follows from observations of the researchers that describe leadership as coping with change, defining the direction of change, and engaging persons in the change process. . Leadership is thus a property of culture and reflects the values - both stated and operating - of a specific society (Lien-Tung et al, 2010; Bryman, 2007; Astin and Astin, 2000).

## Significance

Strengthening higher education institutions and the effectiveness of their individual leaders is of great importance. Particularly, it has increasingly been noted that the rationale for involving women in university leadership is more appealing and should be based principles (the right thing to do) and pragmatism (the smart thing to do).

With this paper we hope to contribute to building long term commitment and enthusiasm towards engendering the leadership debate. We need information on how gender is being treated in the construction of this new leadership wave. How women are often excluded as part of a wider university culture will lead us to drawing lasting solutions to the need to create gender balanced management and leadership environments. In this way, we can offer invaluable theoretical perspectives and insightful narratives to students and researchers who are interested in women's leadership, gender and organization.

Another important aspect is that this contribution to a broader feminist project intended to make large-scale organizations more democratic and more supportive of humane goals. A focus on the relationship between gender and leadership is synergistic; it promotes change as an emergent agent in structuring of higher education, while leadership promotes practices that identify gender as a nested context for achieving balance in social relations between men and women.

## Methods

The purpose of the study
This study underpins the importance of including women in leadership positions in the academia. The paucity of research on leadership development and executive selection in the academia means that a framework is also lacking for understanding how best to improve women's leadership development. We treat gender as a complex set of social relations enacted across a range of social practices in organizations. Having been created largely by and for men, these social practices tend to reflect and support men's experiences and life situations and, therefore, maintain a gendered social order in which men and particular forms of masculinity dominate. Specific objectives are: (i) Examine the gender terrain of university leadership structures; (ii) Explore the concept of" feminine styles" for the transformation of universities into democratic entities; (iii) Undress the intricacies related to challenges women face while trying to build and be part of the leadership dynamics; (iv) suggest ways in which universities can build gender balanced leadership cultures.

## Study Approach

In order to make a case for the strategies to increase the number of women in leadership, we examine the nature of the "gender terrain" in four public universities using an extensive analysis of existing material and official university documents. The universities selected are: Kyambogo, Gulu, Makerere and Mbarara.

The gender terrain represents several components of the university's functioning. These include the structure of governance and management processes policies and legal frameworks, teaching and learning spaces, research and innovation, and staff welfare as indicated below:

Figure I: Conceptualization: Institutional components where gender is manifested


In addition, we explore 10 women professors in their personal narrative journeys who were selected based on developed criteria guided by their achievement in three themes of research, teaching and academic development and had served as Heads of Departments, Deans or Directors.

Through narrative inquiry, participants shared their leadership experience as they tried to work to change the structures of power and privilege for a particular sex and systematic disadvantage for the other sex. The specific research questions guiding the analysis are: who are the women who survive and occupy leadership roles in universities? How might their leadership roles be shaped by and a consequence of institutional climate? What strategies do they learn and adopt and how do they lead and manage fellow colleagues? What do these women say about the ways in which women might be increased?

## Women Leaders in Ugandan Public Universities

## A Brief Description of Higher Education in Uganda

Higher education in Uganda refers to post-secondary studies, training, or/and training for research provided by universities and other tertiary institutions, licensed and/or recognized by the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE). It is categorized into public and private institutions universities and other tertiary institutions, for example, technical colleges, teachers' colleges, and commerce/business colleges, all of which function within the legal framework of the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions' Act (UOIA), 2001. History of higher education in Uganda dates back
to 1922 when the British colonial administration established Makerere Technical College, to train civil servants, after revelations by the Phelps-Stokes Commission that educational policies of missionaries and the colonial government were inadequate (Nakanyike \& Nansozi, 2003). However, in 1937, the colonial administration expanded the school into a Higher College for East Africa to award diplomas and certificates and in 1949; the college became a University College of the University of London (ibid). In 1970, Makerere became the first national university and remained the sole university in Uganda until 1988 when the Islamic University in Uganda (IUIU) was established. Currently, the system is made-up of 27 universities (NCHE Website) and in2006; there were 113 other tertiary institutions (NCHE, 2006, p.9). Initially, university education in Uganda, like in most other post-independent African countries, was considered a public good freely provided by public universities. However, since the late1980s and early 1990s, increasing demand for higher education amidst declining budget allocations to public institutions' among other reasons created ideal conditions for establishment of private universities.

At independence, Uganda had one of the best higher education systems in Africa, attracting many students from neighboring countries. However, the economic and political crises that occurred in the subsequent years damaged the higher education system and created problems of financing, quality, and educational relevance (Musisi, 2003). In the 1990s, a number of reforms were undertaken to reverse this decline including the adoption of alternative financing strategies, the offering of demand driven courses and administrative changes. Uganda follows a 7-4-2-4 model of education, with seven years of primary education, 4 years of lower secondary, 2 years of upper secondary and 3-4 years of tertiary education. The public higher education sector is composed of universities, national teachers colleges, colleges of commerce, technical colleges, training institutions, and other tertiary institutions. The two major public universities in Uganda are Makerere University in Kampala established in 1922, and Mbarara University of Science and Technology, established in 1989. Three other public universities have been established recently: Kyambogo, Gulu, and Busitema Universities. There are also 102 private higher education institutions including 23 private universities (14 of which are licensed) (National Council for Higher Education 2014).

The gross higher education enrollment ratio grew from 2.5 percent in 1995 to 4.1 percent in 2014. Much of this growth is due to increased university enrollments, which have increased substantially since the 1970s. In 2014, there were a total of 108,295 students in higher education institutions; of these 68,079 were in universities with more than half enrolled at Makerere $(34,341)$ (Ministry of Education and Sports, 2005). The National Council for Higher Education, a statutory agency established under "The Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act" in 2001, regulates the establishment and management of higher education as well as its quality, equates higher education qualifications, and advises the government on higher education issues. It has also been charged with establishing an accreditation system and conducting the accreditations. The Public Universities Act establishes the following amongst other provisions.

## The Gender Terrain in Public Universities in Uganda

A 'gender terrain' in this context refers to the various dimensions of the manifestation of the gender social identities of men and women and how these affect and are affected by institutional processes and structures in a given setting of work or life. The result is a presentation of particular patterns and levels of men's and women's wellbeing in terms of access and utilization of available opportunities for self-advancement.

Literature reviewed on Ugandan universities shows that today's situation education is far away from an equal participation of females and males in the different stages of higher education career. The distribution of power and financial resources is not the same for females and males. This includes their personal benefits that result from the education (Kwesiga et al, 2012; Ahikire, 2011; Odhiambo, 2011). This is mostly manifested in areas of governance and management. As shown below, the puropose is not to compare the two universities but to show the degree of the gender disparity in higher managerial levels. Makerere has remained almost the same despite its 80 years of existence. All public universities were led by men and men occupy almost all managerial positions.

Table 1: Makerere/Kyambogo Management

|  | Makerere |  | Kyambogo |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Positions | Mak (2013) |  | KyU (2011) |  |
|  | Male | female | Male | Female |
| Chancellor | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Vice Chancellor | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Deputy VC (Academic Affairs) | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Deputy VC (Fin \& Admin) | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| University Secretary | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| University Bursar | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Academic Registrar | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| Director Planning | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Dean of Students | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| Chief Internal Auditor | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| University Librarian | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| Director Human Resource | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| TOTAL | 9 | 3 | 10 | 2 |

The Public Universities Act sees an urgent need to improve the situation of women and men in academia. Both women and men are tackled by outdated gender stereotypes, which may force them into a behavior that does not suit everybody. The choices of subjects, the expected jobs taken and the nature of the research undertaken are often based on those stereotypes. The staff and students who do not stick to the typical male or female behavior are likely to face unequal treatment and discrimination. The losers of the patriarchal academic system are still women. Even though they make a big number of the student population, they are rarely present in higher cycles and leading positions. Those women in higher positions earn less money and are often subject to discrimination. Increasingly, universities see the role of higher education also in creating equal opportunities for all people and therefore stress the importance of affirmative action to overcome the actual gender based discrimination in higher education.

Table 2: Academic Staff Composition by Gender in Makerere


In Makerere, women in the entire university constitute an average at the rank of professor constitute 7 per cent and 3 per cent for social science and science-based courses respectively. In all the other 3 universities there are no women at that rank. An average of 5 per cent women is found at the rank of Associate Professor.

It can be observed that women were entering adjunct roles, but not attaining the most senior positions. While the reform of higher education has created new middle managerial positions including quality assurance, planning, innovation, community engagement and marketing managers, many of them find themselves in the communication, library, and human resource management, or languishing in what was described by Higher Education Projects, (2013) as the 'ivory basement' and "the velvet ghettos" by Fitzgerald and Wilkinson, (2010). To confirm this expectation, in Makerere University, the women head the Human Resources, Library, Communications and the Planning Directorates. Yet, in Makerere University, the proportion of female students (55\%) and graduates (59\%) in the social sciences and humanities exceeds that of male students, and the patter remains the same as elsewhere. It can be argued that this has its own toll on the number of women progressing on to Professor levels as majority are below Lecturer positions as shown below:

Table 3: Makerere and Kyambogo Teaching Staff (\%)

|  | Makerere |  | Kyambogo |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Male | Female | Male | Female |
| Professor | 94 | 6 | 100 | 0 |
| Associate Professor | 97 | 3 | 100 | 0 |
| Senior Lecturer | 90 | 10 | 74 | 26 |
| Lecturer | 81 | 19 | 66 | 34 |
| Assistant Lecturer | 71 | 29 | 72 | 28 |
| Teaching Assistant | 71 | 29 | 68 | 32 |

In Kyambogo University, there are no women even at the "velvet ghetto" level. In most locations, there has been a feminization of lower level managerial positions, for example, women constitute an average of $33 \%$ of the positions of Assistant Lecturer and Teaching Assistants. They constitute over 50 per cent of library staff and 99 per cent in communication.

This situation is more difficult for universities like Gulu where a woman heads the Human Resource department and she is the only one at that level. One woman it at the rank of Associate Professor level and is the only female member of the Senate. Unlike in other universities, women are less likely to even become Senior Lecturer and few of them are joining the ranks as shown below.

Table 4: Female Academic Staff by Rank in Gulu University


The situation in Gulu and other universities corroborates studies of promotion rates among faculty show that point to women typically taking longer than men to reach the rank of professor. Compared to male colleagues, they spend more time on teaching and service and less on research and writing. In addition, while women have made significant inroads into higher education administrative/leadership roles, they are still greatly outnumbered by men. Overall, women's academic careers remain characterized by strong vertical segregation. For instance women were on average were less than 10 per cent of top management; 15 per cent in Council; 20 per cent of the Senate; and 21 per cent of student leadership.

## Experiences of Selected Women with University Leadership

## Her Story: Do Women Possess Unique Feminine Qualities for Leadership?

It should be noted that in universities, for one to become a leader it should stem from his/her academic prowess. As such holding leadership positions often goes hand in hand with academic rank.

This study is conceived in a way that recognizes the role played by women leaders, albeit their small presence. In detailing their paths and approaches to leadership in the new atmosphere, we noted some common stereo-typed characteristics that these women shared such as having a high level of self-confidence, being risk takers, instinctively anticipating change, capitalizing on understanding customer service, and using their femininity to manage employees and serve students to the best of their abilities. These professors were found in places such as the school of medicine, technology, languages, social sciences, forestry, education and the library. As already noted the women profiled exhibited enormous courage and will to succeed. We were tempted to explore their views on the much debated phenomenon of whether they possessed some unusual traits that would enable the modern university to run effectively. In her story we examine their responses to the following: (i) feminine qualities for leadership; (ii) career paths; and (iii) mentoring experience.

A contentious theme in some literature is that women and men have innately different and "essentialised" leadership dispositions. Binns \& Kerfoot (2011) discussed the 'female advantage', which states that there is existence of superior female leadership traits e.g. empathy and "relationality". The stories of these pioneers show how women are reinventing management rules and redefining the meaning of power in today's management world. In her book Why the Best Man for the Job is a Woman: The Unique Female Qualities of Leadership, author Esther Wachs (2001; 2011) notes that:

Women leaders are more persuasive than their male counterparts; when feeling the sting of rejection, women leaders leam from adversity and carry on with an "I'll show you" attitude. Women leaders demonstrate an inclusive, team-building leadership style of problem solving and decision making. Women leaders are more likely to ignore rules and take risks.

What she discovers echoes the several studies of a similar natureii, including a willingness to reinvent the rules; an ability to sell their visions; the determination to turn challenges into opportunities; and a focus on 'high touch' in a business world; that women leaders are more assertive and persuasive have a stronger need to get things done and are more willing to take risks than male leaders.

A leader of the Library for over ten years exhibits all qualities named above. While expressing her unique style she notes:

For many years now, no-one appears to understand me. I follow my vision and self-belief. In this library we have a women's only space. We have a space where pregnant mothers
and mothers with their children can rest. This was not easy. I defied a lot of rules, including the advice from the lead architect. Senate laughed this idea off but I was adamant.

In their stories women said words that could lead to conclusions that they are more empathetic and flexible, as well as stronger in interpersonal skills than their male counterparts enabling them to read situations accurately and take information in from all sides. They narrated instances where they were able to bring others around to their point of view because they genuinely understood and cared about where others are coming from. Students particularly were said to feel more understood, supported and valued. In this regard, the dean of the school of medicine had this to say:

I have invented my style, which I use wherever I go; I have designed a computer lab with all modern facilities. This has never been seen at the medical school ever. I serve tea in my office and have fresh flowers delivered everyday to decorate the office. Although it is draining, I try to commit time and attend to students as if they are my own children. I take this job as a call for duty to serve and I try to do it dilifigently.

Another participant said this:
I put in long hours with my employees who I call colleagues, I see myself as a team member, and always building toward what I feel is the vision of this university, I come to office whatever happens to me. Once, I even gave a presentation with my face bandaged, arriving at a meeting immediately after being in a car accident.

Domination as a leadership style is becoming less and less popular. There is a new growing appreciation of those traits that women use to keep families together and to organize volunteers to unite and make change in the shared life of communities. These newly admired leadership qualities of shared leadership; nurturance and doing good for others were not only sought after but also indeed needed to make a difference. A feminine way of leading includes helping the world to understand and be principled about values that really matter. One respondent pointed out to us that:

When I got here ten years ago, it was a mess. The look of the office showed lack of seriousness and not competitive. I started with remodeling the office. I ordered for new furniture, bought new curtains and furnished the kitchen as well. During meetings we do not have to make outside orders for teas and eats we make them here. Atthough it is unusual, the office offers lunch for staff whenever there is a task that is running through the lunch hour. It is like a big family here.

In a similar vein another respondent says this:
This university had been using the same old library structures and systems for over 40 years. I came in with the thinking that something can be done about the situation. I presented my case all over the world. I thank the generosity of several development partners as the Carnegie Corporation of New York, Ford Foundation, and the governments of Sweden, Norway, UK and the Netherlands. Today we have state-of-the-art library
facilities in Africa. We have unique facilities such as the sections for mothers who are pregnant or breast feeding, kids care and a coffee place to relax.

As noted above, women are clearly taking risks by inventing new ways of doing business they are also conscious that their style is different and this may generate new challenges in terms of the societal values in which they live. The issue of a liberalized library spaces caused a lot of eye-brow raises and ridiculing. Some of her colleague detested her approach and they hated her because she pushed them hard when it came to work. However, the female style sometimes reflected some inconsistencies and tendency to cling to traditional expectations to gain approval. Responses such as these were common:

Of course I have a family, am married and do all my duties as a wife. I have been able to bring up my children in the best upright manner that I could and I set aside plenty of time for the family activities. I cook, clean and serve my husband on special dishes cooked by me.

Another respondent had this to say:
As a new dean, I tried to bring up for discussion some issues that were affecting female staff and students. I thought that the idea of a day care facility was a good one. To my surprise my colleagues were instead infuriated saying that the university is not a market place; that is was for serious academic work.

While the majority stories contend that successful women employ uniquely female qualities, there is also a view that it also invites skepticism. It is up to now difficult to define the "female qualities": being a team player, managing people well and working toward a vision are traits of successful women and men. It is apparent too these women also do try to act like men. The temptation to behave according to the tradition expectations was so great that some of them were detested and even despised. The desire to sub-due others and play the politics of patronage was apparent in some instances for them to survive. To some people their style was almost repulsive and nonengaging, to especially fellow women. One member of staff said this:

She has sunk this unit to embarrassing levels. She has even recruited people who have no qualifications because they are her friends or relatives so she can easily drive them around. She wants to be adored as if this is her personal business. She definitely rewards only those who do what she wants them to do and hates divergent views or be defeated.

Others thought that these women were rather high handed and were over-managing. One person pointed out that:

She came in through vote-rigging; I hear that money changed hands. She prefers to work with male junior staff and has isolated senior female staff; I think she wants to shine all alone. It is called the "queen bee syndrome."

Women with their unique characteristics definitely often never fully deliver on the promise of being the right person for the job. This evidence - that the leadership style of women is not simply unique
but possibly at odds with what men practice - begs the question: Do these qualities have value in the marketplace? Is this type of leadership welcomed by society and by the public and private sector?

These are pertinent questions as we look back on the actual situations in universities. In all the public universities studied, including Makerere University where all the top positions are held by men seems to indicate that women's unique values are yet to gain a stronghold in the market place. The female dean who tried to advocate for day care facilities was deliberately Decampaigned and not returned to serve another term. When leaders elsewhere were frightened to try something new; it took the courage and boldness of only a few to try out any experiments. The few that exist are under the spot light and anything about them is big news. The misunderstandings in their work environments are exaggerated and taken to be the result of an incompetent and amateurish style. However a number of stories told confirm that women leaders' styles have made a great difference wherever they have been.

## Career paths

Responding to the specific questions such as: What was your career path to the college or university administrative position? We found that the career paths to administrative positions of the women in this study were, for the most part, quite traditional. Most of the women, 60 percent, reported their ascension to upper-level leadership in higher education began as an assistant lecturer to associate professor to full professor. From full professor, these women entered administration as heads of department, programme chairs, deans, or directors. However, one woman reported moving from assistant professor eventually to deputy vice chancellor. She was quick to say that the position was designated by the university policy. "But this provision was reinterpreted right after I had served my term". The position of the second deputy Vice Chancellor to be a woman was abolished and up till now all at that rank are men. One other woman acknowledged that her career path was by chance, by the grace of God. Still another woman reported moving from a clerical job to an administrative one then finally to dean and then director.

I was one of the few women administrators who supported the opening of a women's studies unit as an academic department. Immediately we were sent for training and on retum we were supposed to run this unit. I plunged into this position without any prior experience. I started to imagine what I was expected to do. I did not seek views of experienced deans because I thought that this would undermine my status. I learnt things the hard way; sometimes I would call my husband and ask him how to do things. I did not have friends in similar position to whom I would rely for guidance, instead I resorted to doing things my own way.

Majority women had those characteristics of determination from the time they were really young. Human beings develop their vision and willingness to take up leadership positions from experiences they go through as young people in the society and yet our societies re-characterized by gender inequalities (Odhiambo, 2011). The top leadership positions appeared to interest young women who wished to explore into the forbidden world.

I started campaigning for leadership when I was in primary school. I became the head girl of my school. This was so because I was the only girl in my family among seven boys. I played tough games with them and often my mother wondered if I could ever become a true woman.

It can be observed here that surviving and advancing to the level of professor is linked in part to early career choices. As in the case of White (2003:5) the women cited some of these career options. These ranged from whether or not one plans an academic career; tries to juggle full-time teaching and part-time postgraduate study; chooses to complete a PhD before embarking on an academic career; chooses to do a postdoctoral fellowship before becoming an academic; chooses to have children; and chooses to focus on teaching or research or both. The women in this study who did not have career breaks and had substantial publications were more focused on promotion but were also more frustrated at the barriers they experienced in the management culture of the University. While these women learnt to prioritize research and to tackle the masculine management culture head on, some had reached the level of associate professor only to find that they were worn out, dispirited at best by lack of encouragement, and at worst by blatant discrimination, and no longer had the energy to push on.

The majority of these women had served as deans or heads of departments and yet few had received any training in management and leadership roles. The increasing volume of work and range of duties performed has led to increased stress ${ }^{42}$.Certainly, many women in this study saw management roles as stressful and detrimental to their research productivity, and in turn to their promotion. Not surprisingly, in this climate women ask what they can achieve if they take on leadership roles.

Women often spoke of gender inequalities and its effect on their career advancement. This spoke to an array of cultural and structural barriers which suggested that gender discrimination is as prevalent today as in the past. Some of the structural barriers included the recruitment system that is in part discriminatory, the promotion criteria is indifferent to demands of women academic staff, the understanding of leadership to be based on underlying masculine characteristics, etc. Cultural issues were related to factors such as the "boys club" phenomenon, the language and environment of exclusion and the culture of tokenism. Gender discrimination was cited as one of the five major factors that affect women's ability to excel in their careers and get past the glass ceiling. One of the women in this current study posited,
"There are gender biases. In my former institution, I lost two gender discrimination lawsuits, " One of them was a clear case of rape which involved a student and her lecturer. The male jury felt that it was unfair to condemn the one culprit since he was not a common offender; instead he was given strong warning.

Another woman stated, "hiring committees often do not have diverse representation, resulting in biases-differential administrator pay scales, favoring males," In addition, this participant noted,"

[^2]More females are in non-traditional pathways to leadership, which was necessary to climb the ladder, but also served to justify low pay."

Research has acknowledged that gender identity and differences are acquired through various developmental processes associated with life stages, such as schooling, and work life. Cultural and structural barriers can be explained through theories such as role theory (Eagly, 1987as cited by White, 2003) and expectation states theory (Berger, et al., 1980, ibid, 2003). Both of these theories posited that men and women are allocated different roles in society due to their gender. In addition, different expectations are connected to the different roles. The fundamental roles played often shape the individual's career path.

It was widely expressed that leadership is often perceived to be at odds with the demands of motherhood, domestic responsibilities, and worklife balance. Some writers have suggested that the academy is constructed as a 'carefree zone' which assumes that academics and their leaders are zero load workers, devoid of familial and care responsibilities. While quoting Grummell et al., (2009), Bagilhole and White (2011) acknowledge the importance of these arguments but, also emphasizes the fact that it does not account for why some women who are 'carefree' are also absent from senior leadership. They further assert that explanations invoking care as a barrier fail to challenge essentialist and hetero-normative assumptions that all women live in nuclear families and that, within those families, women do and will continue to take majority responsibility for domestic arrangements. Assumptions based on the demands of motherhood overlook changing relations between women and men, and how modern forms of gender identity are more fluid, multifaceted and varied than previously (Bagilhole and White, 2011).How leadership roles are constructed determines the selection process in so far as particular qualities are normalized, prioritized or misrecognised. The male preference that is both unconscious and unintentional will often result into bias. This is more likely to occur if assessments are based on obscure criteria with confidential evaluation processes. Hence the emphasis on transparency in appointment processes (ibid, 2011).

Women's under-representation in leadership was also attributed to the fact that women are excluded from this 'boys' club', often in subtle ways (White, 2003). The formal and informal networks that operated within senior management were at the core of this male hegemony. The exclusion was clearest in promotion policies and processes in higher education which acted as a 'gateway' against women by being interpreted subjectively. A clear case was expressed by the practice in one of the universities in selecting the second Deputy Vice Chancellor. We can conclude that as part of promotion, the system also discriminates against women; in the pervasive culture women may find their academic achievements very differently valued and evaluated from those of male peers.

## Mentoring experience

Another pertinent research question for these women was: What mentoring experiences have you had? Ballanger's (2010) literature on mentoring revealed that female administrators in higher education who had several mentors found this experience valuable in their climb up the career ladder. These mentoring experiences increased their visibility among women in upper leadership
roles and met a variety of their needs. The themes that emerged from this section of the data were: (a) Positive mentoring experiences, (b) Male mentors, and (c) No mentors.

For positive mentoring experiences, most of the women (70 percent) reported very positive and supportive mentoring experiences. One of the women stated,
"The very positive and supportive advisors and informal mentors far outweighed the few negative sorts. I have been fortunate to participate in some structured leadership and mentoring programs. I learned as much from informal relationships and watching talented administrators as well. "

One other woman referenced mentors from outside the university. She stated, "My mentors have been external to the university. I was involved with a women's leadership group early in my career. I took advantage of leadership opportunities and continued on with my education." Still another woman noted the wonderful mentoring experience from a fellow woman, "My first administrative opportunity was provided to me by a woman, more than two decades ago. She was a fabulous role model at a time when there were not many women in top positions."

On the other hand several of the women, 30 percent, acknowledged males as mentors. One woman noted,
"I was mentored by a male dean for whom I worked first as Secretary then later as an Administrative Assistant. He gave me plenty of responsibilities, challenged me to go beyond my comfort zone, and had great confidence that one day I would become a university vice chancellor."

Another woman also said that in their particular circumstances where she was the first and only women, a male mentor was handy. She said that:

I learnt all that I know from the previous Dean, I was his favorite he liked results and I won his attention because I was ready to work very hard. He encouraged me to replace him, at first I thought that it was a joke. As time went on I realized that he actually was preparing me to succeed him.

On the other hand, one woman voiced a less positive experience with a male mentor by stating, "Male mentors who while were supportive did not fully understand the challenges of being female, a spouse, and a parent because their significant others did not have careers."

One barrier to women's mentoring is that there are too few women available to mentor other women. Three of the women in this current study, 30 percent, reported that they did not have MENTORS. Mentoring is an opportunity for career advancement. Ballanger (2010) posited that mentoring can develop either in a structured environment or can be a result of spontaneous relationships. Mentoring is an invaluable resource for the recruitment and preparation of women for the leadership positions. Research confirmed that women with outstanding credentials can find it difficult to rise for upper leadership positions without having been vouched for by powerful individuals in leadership positions (Odhiambo, 2011). The university positions of Chancellor, Vice
chancellor and Deputy Vice Chancellor are dominated by men and, as a result, men have more opportunity to have access to sponsorships and promotions, whereas women may be excluded from these types of connections. Mentorship can help women to overcome these obstacles and to break the glass ceiling.

The "good old boy network" was also found to serve as a barrier to women's career aspirations. The good boy network is aligned with Ballenger's (2010) concept of similarity attraction. They found that most men managers tended to sponsor other men because they were attracted to and tended to prefer those similar to themselves. The women in this current study confirmed this. One woman stated, "The good old boy club is a limited circle where decisions on persons and positions are made. Another woman reported, "This is a very male-dominated society. Many of the men go to lunch together and share information that the females are not exposed to until after the fact." Yet another woman confirmed the concept of similar attraction that explains the good boy network by stating, "The good old boy networks are not welcoming and/or inviting to women, e.g., going out for drinks, golfing, watching football, etc." Furthermore, this woman noted, "I don't play golf or watch football and don't intend to do so." Overall, the majority of the women in this study felt the lack of mentors and lack of support for women with family responsibilities clearly served as cultural and structural barriers in their career aspirations for upper leadership positions.

However, participants noted that mentorship can help aspiring female leaders to replace those who are approaching retirement. It is crucial that women help others to understand obstacles and show appreciation for each other by realizing women's resources, strengths, and skills. Consequently, a need exists for women to encourage others and move forward by building on existing success. One woman remarks, "Preparation for higher administration positions usually does not happen accidentally". It is observed that women administrators in higher education who had several mentors found their experience valuable in facilitating their movement up the career ladder. Mentoring increased their visibility among those who were in leadership roles and also met a variety of their needs. Women not only benefited from having several mentors but also from having different types of mentoring relationships. Diverse mentoring relationships can address women's psychosocial, career, and personal development needs. Psychosocial mentors can enhance mentees' self-confidence and provide emotional support. Career-related mentors can provide career advice and mentees exposure and visibility; whereas, peer mentors can offer collegiality, friendship, and emotional support.

In summary, the women in this study agreed that mentoring and being mentored are career development activities that help women to advance up the academic administrative ladder. Documenting the significance of the relationship between women mentoring activities and academic career development is an important element in this endeavor. Female and male mentors can perform excellent mentoring roles. Mentorship activities identified by the women in this study were: sponsorships, coaches, counseling, role-modeling, and offer of friendship. A barrier to women's mentoring revealed that too few women were available to mentor other women. These results suggested that mentorship plays a critical role in advancing females up the administrative ladder (Ballenger, 2010).

In conclusion, we note that while studying the personal narratives of women leaders there are important factors to consider. They include: (1) whether women do possess unique qualities that are desirable in the new university challenge. It is noted that although there are perceived differences in leadership styles between women and men, drawing a circle around difficulties specific to women's advancement is impossible because as some writers put it: "men and women's professional development goals and needs are more alike than different"; (2) the issues of a woman's career path is important as it reveals the numerous ways in which individuals face either encouragement or skepticism in their places of work. Few universities treat academic staff as human resources to be retained and developed, thus a framework is often lacking for improving their professional development in general; and (3) mentoring provides the needed experience for women aspiring to become leaders although it can also be argued that rather than seeing the women as requiring remedial support, it is the organizations that require transformational change. It is therefore concluded that the paucity of research on leadership development and executive selection in academia means that a framework is also lacking for understanding how best to improve women's leadership development. But these complexities need not deter academic societies from further work to increase the number of women. Below are some suggestions:

## Strategies to Increase Women in Leadership Positions

So far, we can conclude that the progress achieved is inadequate. In so doing, we can draw on the theory and practice that underpins organizational cultural change and on strategic planning principles and practice. Universities need all the leaders it can develop to address accelerating institutional and societal needs, so the waste of most women's potential is of growing importance. Only institutions able to recruit and retain women will be likely to maintain the best academic and non-academic staff. The long-term success of academic centers is thus inextricably linked to the development of women leaders. There is need for long and sustained commitment to improving the representation of women in senior positions specifically, and throughout the organization generally. This can be achieved on several fronts: (i) affirmative action programmes; (ii)senior women academic task groups (iii) the Colloquium of Senior Women Managers(iv)university women networks; (v) organizational cultural change; (vi) strategic planning and reporting mechanisms; and (vii) gender fair education. These themes emerged from the narratives given to us by the study participants.

## Affirmative Action Programmes

Uganda has got an active Affirmative Action program, which has been the forerunner to the increased number of females entering in the universities. The constitution of the Republic of Uganda provides for the recognition of gender equality as well as equality of persons and outlaws all forms of discrimination including that based on sex. Objective VI of the constitution requires the state to ensure gender balance and fair representation of marginalized groups on all constitutional and other bodies. It further obligates the State to take affirmative action in favor of groups marginalized on the basis of historical prejudices, socio-cultural negative attitudes and practices. Article 33 elaborates the rights of women, including their right to dignity and realization of their full potential and advancement. The National Gender Policy of 1997 as well as the National Action plan on Women, supports the mainstreaming of gender in the national development process. On its part, Makerere University developed a Gender Mainstreaming program and instituted the Gender Mainstreaming Division (GMD) in 2000 and 2002, respectively. The GMD has the
responsibility for mainstreaming gender into all faculties, departments, and organs of the University, a task that is currently hampered without the backing of a comprehensive Gender Equality Policy ${ }^{43}$.

A combination of wise appointments to key roles can augment subsequent and ongoing policy changes and programs initiated to address inequities. This can be done in the expectation that managers will be accountable for achievement of equity goals and the gradual but persistent growth of an organizational culture which not only supports but encourages women's equality and thus professional growth. Makerere University had made strides when it introduced the position of Deputy Vice Chancellor, only five years later the decision was reversed. A designated role for women can be attached to a senior executive role, and also to a person who has considerable knowledge and expertise in the area of gender and organizational development. This portfolio has the capacity to gradually influence systems and procedures to allow for equity issues. A University Gender Equality and Equity Committee can be established, including the Affirmative Action committee. Public Universities can use this to access government funding and supported by the respective Universities.

## Women in Senior Academic Positions Task Group

Their stories revealed a framework that Stroud (2009) theorizes as Leading to Transgress. Leading to Transgress is a theory of leadership that is a multiracial, multicultural identified, genderinfluenced framework informed by leaders who are a" part of, or situated closely to, the masses of marginalized people and whose primary purpose is to influence the allocation of resources in a way that breaks down or transgresses existing systems of power and privilege in the pursuit of social justice". How, then, can women survive and advance in management in universities? A solution is for academic women to challenge these hierarchical relations. Some writers (O'Connor 2000, pp. $3-7$ ) suggest a range of 'resistance' strategies that include: keeping your head down; creating or maintaining a 'separate world'; challenging the (socially created) opposition between work and family; passing on the challenge to the next generation; tackling the 'enemy' within; naming aspects of organizational culture that are not'woman friendly'; and exposing aspects of gendered career structures. In the context of Ugandan universities, starting point would be to re-invigorate the Association of University Women as a move that brings together senior academic women. These can be constituted into a task group to identify and lobby for the necessary required changes. Among the strategies, it would also be to re-define an elitist and intransigent management culture. They can also oversee the implementation of the affirmative action programmes and other gender equity measures. The task group can discuss ways in which women might be attracted to vacancies and retained in senior positions.

[^3]The women's executive development programs are initiatives mostly applied by universities in the Australia, Canada and the United States of America. Such programmes may operate across the nation geographically and/or institutionally. The colloquium across all universities in Uganda as a unified national system may also be a consortium of like institutions which are located in far corners of the continent (for instance the Gender Studies network). These initiatives have already attracted international attention for their achievements and potential and in this case Ugandan universities stand to benefit. The reliance on the new communication and information technologies for both their existence and effectiveness can have added advantage.

Some of the activities would be to establish a training and support network similar for senior women. This is already done in South African universities, through Forum for Advancing Women's Education in South Africa (FAWESA). Enable participants to spend time in other universities investigating the operations of their regional and national networks in order to refine the proposed structures and activities of the ones being established. Work with senior Australian women from the Colloquium as well as from the ATN universities to work with the participants of this new program to establish the ongoing administrative and electronic means to maintain it over time.

## Networks for Women in Universities

To date there are a number of existing networks, which include the globally known Association of University Women. Makerere University has for a very long term been running the Ugandan chapter. It the past, it was better resources and was the centre of attraction and induction for young females joining the university as staff or students. An earlier emphasis on formal and informal mentoring programs to counteract the barriers to women's advancement has now been overtaken by an increasing focus on the establishment and operation of networks. While the opportunity to develop networks was initially seen as an ancillary albeit noteworthy benefit of mentoring programs, in universities as in other forms of organizations increasing attention is being given to the significance of informal networks and channels of communication per se in terms of gender employment equity.

Participants affirmed that such networks offer opportunities for non-hierarchical mentoring between peers. Further it was noted that the developmental relationships which are made possible by and thrive in the context of such networks are more likely to be two-way and mutually beneficial, and therefore more attractive to and effective between women, than the more traditional and hierarchical mentoring relationships which are the focus of much of the literature on mentoring. An examination of a range of networks for women in universities such as in Australia and South Africa reveals that there is considerable experience in establishing and maintaining regional and national women's networks. Based on such experience Ugandan universities can gain from building networks across the region like the one between Makerere (Uganda), Universities in Ethiopia and Afhad Women is University in Khartoum. It is relevant to note that by far the most significant and successful strategies to achieve greater gender employment equity for women in Australian universities have both been based on the establishment of networks of senior or near senior women.

## Organizational Cultural Change

The strategies described above can serve as a key instrument to a positive organizational culture change. For instance, the task group on senior academic women can serve several targeted purposes. One of them could be to enhance the effectiveness of search committees to attract women candidates, including assessment of group process and of how candidates' qualifications are defined and evaluated. The colloquium of women managers can commit to for example assessing which institutional practices tend to favor men's over women's professional development, such as defining "academic success" as largely an independent act and rewarding unrestricted availability to work (i.e., neglect of personal life). It is hoped that such strategies can eventually take a toll on the culture and slowly transform it from within.

## Target Strategic Planning and Reporting Mechanisms

As a strategy, targeting strategic planning and reporting functions of universities can lead to eventual transformation of the organizational cultures. The universities can plan to have an "Equal Employment Opportunity Plan" and also develop diversity management programmes (such as the School of Women and Gender Studies at Makerere University). Other strategic actions would include the deliberate emphasizing sex and gender differences in departmental reviews, and evaluating managerial compositions as well as setting up and planning for the career development of women staff. More deliberate action would be to target women's professional development needs within the context of helping all staff to maximize their chances for appointments. Also plans and budgets could include deliberate plans for helping men become more effective mentors of women.

Financial support to institutional advancement of women's agenda in University programs and the University Women Association can be another important landmark. This can be accompanied by regularly monitoring the representation of women at senior ranks. Embedding a focus on gender equality as a strategic priority in its planning and reporting processes universities can draw on the theory and practice that underpins organizational cultural change and on strategic planning principles and practice. Through this process many universities in the Australia for instance, have achieved an improvement in the percentage of women at all levels of the organization, and most notably in the ranks of senior academics.

Other things can also happen at the same time for example, the inclusion of equity targets in relation to women so that they become part of the key performance indicators (KPIs) for the revision of academic staffing policies.

## Gender-fair Education

This involves a fundamental change in the culture of higher education management so that women can flourish in higher education and they in turn can help the system to flourish. The mechanism suggested for this transformation is gender equality management programmes that could be an effective strategy to impact on the heavily male value system of the modern university. The government of Uganda has already begun on this journey. Females have an additional 1.5 points for those who qualify to join university. This has seen dramatic increases of females in all courses. In addition, there is support to assist well-performing females to complete their courses through provision of scholarships. This is direct effort to assist in meeting the expenses of higher education
for the rural economically disadvantaged population through scholarships and access using the district quotas.

It is imperative that such efforts towards achieving full integration of women within the democratic and developmental efforts of the country should be accompanied with curricular reforms. These reforms should include compulsory exposure to and engagement with different kinds of work in the form of part-time jobs and/or internships, according to the circumstances and needs to increase the employability of female

Some major instruments of gender-fair education are affirmative action and quota systems, aggressive recruitment of female academic staff and administrators, reform programs to remove bias from curricula and teaching materials, gender-sensitivity training for teachers and counselors, a review of policies and procedures for possible gender bias, and active recruitment of women into nontraditional fields of study.

## Recommendations

Based on these findings we put forward a series of strategies to promote the organisational cultural changes that are required to increase women in leadership positions. These include:
Affirmative action programmes: because of a history of discrimination, the Republic of Uganda supports affirmative action programmes constitutionally. Wise appointments to key roles can help change the organisational culture of a University to one that encourages women's participation.
A task group for women in senior academic positions: marginalized groups, such as women, use 'resistance' strategies in order to succeed in a hostile environment. Appointing a specific Task Group that identifies and lobbies for the necessary required changes regarding gender equality would de-atomize these strategies, and make them part of a broader movement.
A colloquium of senior women managers in higher education: a unified national system could help engage with institutions in far corners of the continent. Its activities could include establishing a training and support network similar for senior women.
Networks for women in universities: existing networks can help tackle these problems. As they are already present and structured, they can offer several opportunities that can benefit women from different sectors, such as offering opportunities for non-hierarchical mentoring between peers.

## References

Adalberto Aguirre and Ruben Martinez, 2002: "Leadership Practices and Diversity in Higher Education: Transitional and Transformational Frameworks". The Journal of Leadership Studies, 2002, vol8 no. 3
Alexander W. Astin and Helen S. Astin, 2000: "Leadership Reconsidered: Engaging Higher Education in Social Change".W.K. Kellogg Foundation.
Alan Bryman, 2007: "Effective Leadership in Higher Education", Leadership Foundation for Higher Education, the United Kingdom.
Tanya Fitzgerald, 2013: "Women Leaders in Higher Education shattering the Myths". Research into Higher Education, Routledge.
Abiola Odejide, 2009: ""What can a woman do?" Being women in a Nigerian university" in Feminist Africa 8.

Ana M Martinez Aleman, 2000:" Higher Education Leadership: Analyzing the Gender Gap" The Journal of General Education 49.3 (2000) 235-237 Washington, DC: George Washington University,
Chandra Gunawardena, Joy Kwesiga, AmandinaLihamba, Louise Morley, AbiolaOdejide, Lesley Shackleton, AnnikSorhaindo, "Gender Equity in Commonwealth Higher Education: Emerging Themes in Nigeria, South Africa, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Uganda". Interim research findings by DFID, 2012.
Edwards Melero, 2004: Sex Differences and Managerial Style. IZ DP no.137. http//wnw.equalityhumanrights.com./highereducation_governance.doc http://www.hesa.ac.uk/content/view/1897/239/).
Kelly Coate and Camille B. Kandiko Howson, 2016: Mid-career Academic Women: Strategies Choices and Motivation; Leadership Foundation for Higher Education- Kings College London.
Philip G. Altbach, 2016: Global Trends in Higher Education; John Hopkins University Press, USA.
Lowen, Linda, 2012: "Qualities of Women Leaders: the Unique Leadership Characteristics of Women"; unidentified publisher.
Due Billing, Yvonne; Mats Alvesson (July 2009). "Questioning the Notion of Feminine Leadership: A Critical Perspective on the Gender Labeling of Leadership". Gender, Work \& Organization7 (3): 144-157.
Louise Kloot, 2004: "Women and Leadership in Universities: a Case Study of Women Academic Managers", International Journal of Public Sector Management, Vol. 17 I: 6, pp. 470 485
Lien-Tung Chen, Cheng-Wu Chenand Chen-Yuan Chen: "Are educational background and gender moderator variables for leadership, satisfaction and organizational commitment?" African Journal of Business Management Vol. 4 (2), pp. 248-261, February, 2010
Josephine Ahikire, 2011: Situational Analysis of the Gender Terrain in Makerere University. Fountain Publishers, Kampala Uganda.
Joyce B. Mbongo Endeley and Margaret NchangNgaling, 2009: "Challenging Gender inequality in Higher Education: Attitudes and Perceptions of Teaching Staff and Administrators at the University of Buea, Cameroon". Feature article 63 in, Feminist Africa 9.
Lesley Shackleton, 2009: "Lost in liberalism: A case study of the disappearance of the Gender agenda at a South African university". Feature article 23, in Feminist Africa 9
Margaret Madden, 2011: "Gender Stereotypes of Leaders: Do They Influence Leadership in Higher Education?" Wagadu Volume 9 Fall 2011
Marilyn Drury, 2012: "Women Technology Leaders: Gender Issues in Higher Education Information Technology", University of Northern Iowa.
Patricia Werhane, Mollie Painter-Morland, 2011: Gender, Ledership and Organisations. Springer Amazon.com
Shelly Kawatura andVenkat Krishnan, 2004: Impact of Gender and Transnational Leadership on Organisational Culture. Management Review, vol.16, no. 1 \& pp 1-16.
Steven Applebaum , Lynda Audet and Joanne Miller, Gender and Leadership? Leadership and Gender?A Journey through the landscape of Theories.Leadership and Organization Journal 24/1, 2003 pp 43-51.haping Research Universities in the Nile basin Countries.Fountain Publishers, Kampala.
Tamara Shefer and Judy Aulette, 2009: "Doing Gender in South African Universities": Reflections on a research forum celebrating ten years of Women's and Gender Studies at the University of the Western Cape. Profile 105, in Feminist Africa 9

Julia Ballenger and Stephen F., 2010: Women's Access to Higher Education Leadership: Cultural and StructuralBarriers. Austin State University. Forum on Public Policy
Ranjana Banerjee, 2010: Restructuring Indian Higher Education: Strategies for Women's Empowerment. Indian Federation of University Women's Association (IFUWA).

George Odhiambo, 2011: Women and Higher Education Leadership in Kenya: a critical analysis. Journal of Higher Education Policy and ManagemenNol. 33, No. 6, December 2011, 667-678. Routledge: Taylor \& Francis Group.
Government of Uganda: theUuniversities and other Tertiary Institutions Act, 2001 (asamendmended in, 2003 and as amendmended in, 2006)
Henry Mugabi: Private Universities in Uganda: Growth and Role(s) in the Provision of Higher Education. Fourth Regional Conference on Higher Education Research for Sustainable Development inAfrica (August 17-20, 2009). Kampala International University: Uganda.
Kasozi, B.K. (2003). University Education in Uganda: Challenges and Opportunities for Reform. Kampala: Fountain Publisher.
Ministry of Education and Sports: 2003:. Strategic Plan for Higher Education 2003-2015: As Approved by the Education Sector Review.
Nyantakyiwaa, Adwoa, 2014: Leadership Styles Practised by Females in Leadership Positions in the University of Cape Coast. International Journal of Research In Social Sciences Sept. 2014. Vol. 4, No. 5

Debra E. Meyerson and Robin J. Ely, 2000: Theories of Gender in Organizations: A New Approach to Organizational Analysis and Change. Research in organizational behaviour, vol 22, 2000 pp 103-151;
Higher Education Project, 2013: Is Higher Education Leadership an Identity Cage for Women? By HEP 0074, 2013
Esther Wach, 2002: Why the Best Man for the Job Is A Woman: The Unique Female Qualities of
LeadershipPaperback- August 21, 2001
Ardalan, Bita, 2010: Women Executives Redefining what it takes to bea Leader? an Fernando Valley Business Journal
Wajcman, Judy (September 1996). "Desperately Seeking Differences: Is management style gendered?" British Journal of Industrial Relations34: 333-349.
Heather Cameron, 2011: Changing the Organizational Balance of Women's Representation through a Strategic Cultural Change Approach. Griffith University, Qld, Australia
Bagilhole, B. and White, K. (eds) (2011) Gender, Power and Management: A Cross- Cultural Analysis of Higher Education. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Billing, Y. (2011) "Are Women in Management Victims of the Phantom of the Male Norm? Gender, Work and Organization. 18 (3): 298-317.
Fitzgerald, T. (2011).Troubling leadership? Gender, leadership and higher education. Paper presented at the AARE Conference. Hobart, Australia, 30 November.
Grummell, B., Devine, D. and Lynch, K. (2009) 'The Careless Manager: Gender, Care And New Managerialism in Higher Education. Gender and Education, 21 (2): 191-208.
Eleanor Ramsay, 2000: Women and Leadership in Higher Education: Facing International Challenges and Maximising Opportunities. Asian Women Leaders in Higher Education II: leadership competencies to
Kate White, 2003: Women and Leadership in Higher Education in Australia Victoria University, Australia, 2003.


[^0]:    ${ }^{40}$ See Nyantakyiwaa, Adwoa, 2014; Margaret Madden, 2011; Bagilhole, B. and White, K. (eds) (2011); Edwards Melero, 2004; and Eagly, A; Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C., \& Van Engen, M. (2003).

[^1]:    ${ }^{41}$ And words commonly associated with women's leadership in universities include co-operative, team oriented, collaborative, fair, and contextual, compared with those associated with men's as competitive, hierarchical, winning, rational, cold, and principled.

[^2]:    ${ }^{42}$ Not only has women's progress been slow and restricted primarily to men, those who have progressed have often done so by assimilating, however uncomfortably, into the predominantly male organizations. The organizations themselves have changed little, and women who ascend to top positions tend to be relatively disempowered (Martin \& Meyerson, 1998).

[^3]:    ${ }^{43}$ This commitment is demonstrated by institutionalization of affirmative action in the Makerere University's admission processes (1990) and the establishment of two institutional mechanisms: the Department of Women and Gender Studies (1990/91), an academic unit; and the Gender Mainstreaming Division (GMD 2002), an administrative unit. Prior to the institution of the GMD as a unit, the University Senate and Council had approved the Gender Mainstreaming Programme (GMP) in 2001/2002. Further, in the seven-year University Strategic Plan: 2000/01-2006/07, Gender Mainstreaming was ranked among the six strategic priorities of Makerere University

