WOMEN AND WORKSHOPS:

An investigation into the use of workshops to increase the Educational and Employment opportunities for women by changing their attitudes.

ABSTRACT

This is an investigation into the effectiveness of the workshop method as an educational instrument of change in women's attitudes in order that they take full advantage of educational and employment opportunities. Gender inequalities in education, training, employment and promotion prospects still occur widely, in spite of recent legislation, and this situation will only change if women themselves change those attitudes which can be an obstacle to overcoming this situation.

There are still relatively few women among the ranks of the decision-makers and until more women achieve a higher level in their education and employment status or, at least, learn to articulate their needs, they will not achieve gender equality. Such needs might include effective child care facilities and career breaks and that 'part-time' or 'job share' work should have similar conditions, pro-rata, to full-time employment.

Workshops have been chosen as the subject of the investigation because they fit in with women's phase specific life/work patterns and also seem 'user-friendly' to people who may distrust, or feel out of touch with, other methods of education. They can create a safe learning environment with peer support, imparting methods of improving self confidence or useful skills. They can help women, who may undervalue themselves, to set personal goals and show them how they may take advantage of educational and employment opportunities.
The workshop format, whether of short or long duration (half a day or a number of sessions spread over several weeks) can be used to give confidence or careers guidance to women at all stages in their lives and at all levels of educational achievement.

The methodology used is both qualitative and quantitative, exploring the literature and history of women's education and employment and assessing the success of workshops as a change agent. This is achieved by means of the technique of illuminative evaluation, using taped interviews and questionnaires, case studies and participant observation, and by examining the theoretical background to workshops and their design.
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank most sincerely all who have helped me in this research, for it has necessitated discussions, interviews, meetings and of course time-absorbing questionnaire completion from a great many people. I am especially grateful to the many workshop participants whose enthusiasm inspired me to persevere with my investigations and of course with those workshop facilitators who spared time not only to complete the questionnaire but to add many valuable additional comments from the wealth of their experience.

I am particularly grateful to my supervisor, Jacqueline Tivers, a most acceptable guide, philosopher and friend, for leading me through the research maze and providing much comfort and support.

Others who have given help, encouragement and valuable time include Patricia Cryer, my original supervisor and a specialist in workshops, John Hall, of the Resources Unit, who frequently discovered material I did not know existed and freely gave me his time and sympathetic attention and Carole Tessier who assisted me in the printing. Lastly, my son Christopher, who constructed some valuable computer diagrams and my husband John for other diagrams and a certain forbearance over a fairly long period.

Margaret Fricker
SECTION 1:

Introduction
SECTION 1: INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW

1.A) INTRODUCTION

My enquiry into the use of Workshop methods in connection with women's education has the advantage of uniting two personal interests, namely: Innovation in teaching and learning methods and, secondly, an evaluation of the success of recent equal opportunity policies with respect to changing gender inequalities in women's education and employment.

My interest in teaching and learning methods had been re-activated when I moved from teaching A level and Oxbridge Physics in a girls' school, firstly to Community Education for the Open University and later into Adult Education.

During this period I had myself discovered something of the character and effects of the workshop method when I became involved in training women in confidence skills when I joined the '300 group' (an organisation to encourage women to take a greater part in political and public life). In some workshops I was a participant and in others, when more experienced, a facilitator, but whether the workshops were of long or short duration or on various different topics, I observed that one thing that they had in common was the commitment of the workshop leaders and the enthusiasm and excitement of the participants, who came from many different backgrounds.

As a teacher of A level physics classes, I was particularly
interested in the fact that breaking up large groups of people into small sub-groups of three or four (in what I later learned was called a Snowball or a Pyramid exercise—Chapter 9 and Appendix, p. XIX) had the effect of rekindling the group's interest even when the participants were tired. This was my first introduction to what was essentially small group teaching. I then adapted these techniques for problem solving and comprehension exercises in the classroom and laboratory, and found them equally successful.

My original reason for joining the 300 Group and also the Fawcett Society (which had been committed to improving equality between men and women since 1886) was my realisation, following the 1979 General Election, that only nineteen women had been returned to Parliament. This seemed rather shocking because it was the first time that fewer than twenty had been elected since 1935 (excepting 1951, when there had only been seventeen).

I had taken little interest in the feminist movement of the 1970s and forgotten the struggles of earlier generations of women for higher education and the vote. As Birke wrote recently (Birke, 1992, p. 133), referring to tales told about those times when she was at school in the fifties, 'It all seemed so long ago and irrelevant to the middle of the 20th Century: women, after all, were entering higher education institutions in significant numbers'. She continues, in a review of a book about women and higher education, by saying that 'women may no longer be barred from entering universities, but there remain other modes of exclusion'.
As a result of the 1979 election I began to examine other areas such as those of education and employment and realised that many inequalities still remained.

Examples for instance were provided by old girls who visited me. Some of these had trained as engineers and, working in industrial firms, were, as I was surprised to discover, recipients of the same treatment that I had myself encountered thirty years earlier, when my first job had been in industry. This was not precisely definable as offensive, but certainly lacked professional respect and on occasion verged on 'chatting up'.

Similarly, as an occasional Physics 'supply' teacher in other sixth forms, I had observed in one (formerly a single sex school with fourteen girls doing A level Physics in each year) that five years later when it was a 'mixed' school with two upper sixth physics sets, each contained only three girls out of sixteen pupils.

One expected there to be more men in senior jobs in mixed educational establishments but they seemed to be gaining promotion in girls only schools as well. For instance in the early eighties in the girls' school where I was teaching, male staff were appointed to be Heads of Department in History, Chemistry, Music and, after I had left, to the Head of Physics post. Similarly a man was made Head of a local independent girls' school, as was also the case at Rodean, and on enquiry at Surrey University, although the numbers have since increased, only two Professors were women.
These personal observations reminded me of two conversations that I had when I was in my early twenties, with women who would be about ninety by now. One was a doctor who was only able to obtain work as a school medical officer and the other was a chemistry teacher, who had to give up her job when she first married. I had said that things were much better for young women than they had been and they said that they, too, thought that equality had been achieved when they first began working in science-based occupations, but discovered that progress was very slow and that there was still a great deal of prejudice. They felt that not much had changed since they had been young, that women were complacent and were, as one of them said, 're-inventing the wheel'. I am currently investigating women's gender equality more than sixty years after these women began their careers and have now acquired a 'historical' perspective myself, having been introduced in a group meeting a few years ago (by a young man) as 'Margaret is a Physics teacher, which is unusual for someone of her age'.

This aroused concern, because it seemed to me that, in spite of all of the Equality legislation and years of campaigning and public relations work, very little had changed for women during the last thirty years and perhaps not a great deal in the last sixty years. In spite of having had a woman prime minister there were still relatively few women at the top of public and commercial institutions, too few to act as role models for younger women or be other than 'tokens' in their organisations.
Thus my research project developed out of my concern for women's lack of progress towards real equality (which some have argued might have been due to their own attitudes) and a wish to find out why the workshop method seemed to be so popular with women, including those who by their own admission were not interested in other forms of education.

The fact that I could not discover any specific literature that explained to my satisfaction why and how workshops seemed to satisfy a particular educational need for some women, made me wish to pursue this quest myself. I hoped that, by investigating a number of different types of workshops, I might be able to analyse them, quantify and evaluate the exercises and develop a core workshop that could be integrated into various overt or covert educational programmes.

There was also the fact that various discussions and interviews yielded the view that women habitually undervalued themselves, with female students seeming to appear less confident than their male contemporaries, and women returners, however capable they might have been earlier, suffering feelings of insufficiency after a career-break.

A Lancet Editorial (1988) said that the concept of self-esteem is interesting to medicine because low self-esteem is associated with anxiety states and other diseases. It goes on to suggest that self-esteem 'may be conferred on individuals by others with attention, respect, approval, praise and love'. Many workshop elements involve using exercises which increase participants
self-confidence and therefore help them to cope with their lives more successfully.

My initial project for a thesis was to investigate whether personal development training, using the Workshop method, would make Women undergraduates more self-confident so that they could compete on equal terms with male students both in their college life and in the job market. My reasons for feeling that women undergraduates should be the focus of my research was because they were obviously more likely to be in senior positions than those without degrees or other similar qualifications. However, as the research developed I realised that at this stage in their lives, although sometimes feeling that male students were more self-confident than they were, female students were reasonably satisfied with their life's progress in that they were university students and quite confident of their future career prospects. They did not think that being female would limit their promotion prospects compared with men. They intended to have a break in order to have children at some stage but obviously did not visualise that there would be any difficulties in picking up their career path again at a later date.

Although it was important to pursue this enquiry in order to test various assumptions about women, workshops and confidence, it also seemed necessary to look into more general areas of women's experience in education and employment. This meant continuing with workshops that I was already doing in career development and for women returners and discovering what these various different ones had in common, investigating how the
workshop style worked as an educational tool and whether it could be applied to changing women's attitudes to help them feel more confident in general and to assist them either to return to work after a break or to develop their careers more positively in particular.

During the time that I have been pursuing this research, there have been a number of changes: in education (Chapter 3), employment (Chapter 4) and in government and public attitudes (Chapter 11) with regard to the position of women. One of the main causes of some of these has been the so-called demographic time-bomb, which has led to a fall in the number of school leavers entering the job market. This has meant seeking alternative forms of labour and it has been projected (Department of Employment, 1990) that women will take up 80% of new jobs between 1988 and 1995. The current recession may effect a change in these figures, but the potential need for a better educated female workforce has resulted in the government taking more notice of recommendations from bodies such as the Women's National Commission (WNC).

In a recent publication, WNC, whose terms of reference are 'to ensure by all possible means that the informed opinions of women are given due weight in the deliberations of Government', recommended among other things that the Government should devise a nationally co-ordinated policy for training women returners and that the training should be 'relevant, high quality and accessible' (WNC, 1991, pp.19-22). They specifically mentioned that women need help in restoring their self-confidence because
'confidence will be important in ensuring that they make the most of their skills and opportunities, and so confidence building should be included in all training for women returners' (p.21).

This need is another reason for investigating the development of a core workshop based on educational teaching and learning theory which is in a form both flexible and user-friendly enough to give encouragement to those who may previously have been non-participants in the traditional system.
Chapter 1 gives the reasons for choosing the thesis topic which is 'an investigation into the use of workshops to increase the educational and employment opportunities of women through changing their attitudes', and follows this with an overview covering the main links in the development of the research project in chapter order.

The literature survey in Chapter 2 considers first the material that has been written in recent years about women's current position with regard to education and employment. This supports the view that many women still suffer a number of economic and educational disadvantages compared with men in the same age group.

It also investigates a number of theories of Change in order to identify the most suitable method that could be used to assist in the analysis of how workshops can act as change agents. Finally it considers the manner in which earlier workshops have developed into the types used today, whether in educational and industrial skills training, or in 'encounter' groups. (At the same time as these searches, definitions and descriptions of workshop theory were sought, but very little was found). A brief survey is also made of the various types of research methodology which might be suitable for this investigation.
SECTION 2: Background to the position of women.

Section 2 consists of three chapters which enlarge on those areas which have been only slightly covered in the literature review. These are the background to the position of women as represented by their education and employment and by feminism. It seemed useful to include the last because feminism is a doctrine that implies that women are systematically disadvantaged in modern society and which advocates equal opportunities for men and women. In each of these chapters I attempt to examine the historical background of these subjects (of education, employment and feminism) in order to place women in context with respect to past inequalities and use this experience to inform the present situation. I also consider how workshops have been, or could be, used to improve the position of women in each of these sections.

SECTION 3: Methodological Approaches and First Results.

Section 3 consists of three chapters and considers, in chapter 6, the various methodological instruments which might be appropriate for this research project. These include the qualitative approaches of interview, observation and case study, with the addition of such quantitative methods as the questionnaire, in order to confirm (or possibly deny) the conclusions.

Chapter 7 discusses the actual interviews. Two types of interview are reported in this Chapter. The first stage related to investigating views about the student's confidence and was intended also to assist in the planning of Questionnaire 1. The second stage referred to the second group of interviews which were intended to establish, from people who are involved in the
organisation and facilitation of workshops, whether they thought that they affected change in peoples' attitudes and whether this might still occur even if the workshop were of short duration. These interviews were useful in yielding insights into the workshop process and also in guiding my thoughts about questions for the participants' and the facilitators' Questionnaires.

Chapter 8 contains the survey relating to student attitudes and awareness. It took place in several stages and the first part was intended to develop two pilot questionnaires and use group interviews with a small number of students to refine the second version and gather student opinions (tape recorded) in order to further inform the research. This was followed by producing a final version of the questionnaire and sending it to a number of first year undergraduates of both sexes, who were studying at Surrey University. This was to investigate a number of topics related to whether women felt less confident than their male contemporaries, and what others thought about this. It also considered how much this, if it were so, affected their University lives and how the situation could be best remedied.

SECTION 4: Workshops.

The investigation of workshops took place in two parts with Chapter 9 covering the theory and structure of workshops, including how successfully they could act as a change agent and uses observation and case studies of actual workshops to evaluate the relative success of various exercises. The methodology includes using participants' questionnaires, evaluation sheets, discussions and telephone interviews in order to establish how
they felt about different types of workshops and which ones specific groups of women found most useful. (Some of the case studies are discussed in the chapter, whilst descriptions of a number of others are included in the Appendix). Although most of the workshops were for women only, some were 'mixed' and one was for men only, but this was not in confidence skills. The confidence skills workshop offered to male students had only three 'takers', who were unable to attend on the arranged day.

Chapter 10 discusses both the theory and practice of the various styles used in leading or facilitating workshops, considers whether co-leadership is an advantage or not and how the dynamics of the group affect the Facilitator and vice-versa. It also analyses the Facilitators' questionnaire and uses the many comments and descriptions to illuminate the process of facilitation and attempt to evaluate the manner by which the workshop method can effect change.

Chapter 11 covers the overall discussion and conclusion and evaluates the success of the research, considering whether the methods used have been the best ones to yield results or if there might have been different ways of looking at the problem. It also considers whether the original suggestion that workshops could benefit women in particular has been supported, or whether there were alternative ways to produce greater equality for women. (It also considers whether changes in employment might be of benefit to men as well as women). It finally considers possible future areas of research which might arise out of this investigation.
SECTION 5: The Appendix.

The Appendix includes copies of the three main questionnaires, which have been annotated in order to give some idea of the results obtained. It also contains some drawings and tables which may help to clarify the conclusions and lists the references to books and journal articles that have been used.
CHAPTER 2 : THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

When I began my literature review I looked for 'workshop' as my key word and found nothing in the sense that I was intending to investigate this, nor anything that suggested anyone else had written about them specifically with respect to women.

The only way to tackle a literature review as a background to this research seemed to be to consider the topic as four separate elements. These were:

1. To look at the current position of women in terms of education and employment.
2. To explore the process of Change.
3. To investigate the origins of Workshops.

There has been a great deal of awareness about equal opportunities in the past few years, with some major advances such as the highest number of women so far being elected to Parliament in 1992. Also new initiatives, such as 'Opportunity 2000', launched in October 1991, and the EHE (Enterprise in Higher Education) launched in 1987, have changed the situation since I began this research. There have also been major changes in both primary and secondary school curricula, with compulsory attainment targets in science, and a recommendation that not less than 12.5% of time in years 4 and 5 should be spent on science, being proposed in order to raise the standards of science education and improve the opportunities for both boys and girls. (DES, 1988, Science for ages 5 to 16).
On the other hand, what had seemed to be a decade of promise for women, called by some the window of opportunity, has not produced the hoped for changes because, as a result of the current recession, employment has decreased and women, who have always acted as the 'reserve labour force', are often the first casualties of this happening. As a result of what is at the moment a rapidly changing situation some of the references in the literature review may not seem as pertinent as they did originally, whilst others have been updated.

1. LITERATURE REVIEW ON THE CURRENT POSITION OF WOMEN IN TERMS OF EMPLOYMENT AND EDUCATION

A. THE CURRENT POSITION OF WOMEN IN EMPLOYMENT

Women represent 52% of the population and in spring 1989 over 40% of employed people of working age were women, with the number of them in employment having grown by just under 20% in the last decade. The 1989 Labour Force Survey states that 42% of this number work in part-time jobs and a third of working women have dependent children. (Employment Gazette, December 1990, p 620). The report identifies women returners to the labour market as those who had quoted domestic commitments as their main reason for not working in spring 1988 but had become economically active by spring 1989. i.e one fifth, 795,000, had wanted to return to work.

Of these, 534,000 were in employment with the great majority, 442,000, working partime, with four-fifths of these women returners being between 25 and 49. (p 627).
Well qualified women accounted for 13% of all women of working age, for 7% of the economically inactive and the unemployed and for 19% of those working full-time. Women are under represented in science based and technological jobs with 81% of them working in the main service industries of Banking, Finance and distribution and Transport, etc.

A survey by the Department of Employment shows that a substantial majority of women are firmly committed to long term paid employment with only a short career break and that all women whether well qualified or not are becoming concerned about training and opportunities for progression (Martin, 1984, p. 52).

The success of women in reaching 'top jobs' is still proving to be elusive even in those professions that now have equal numbers of male and female students entering at under-graduate level. In Medicine there is currently a nearly 50% female entry but only 13% of Consultants and just under 20% of GP Principals are women. Allen says these are the 'career grades' and, although the proportion of women among new recruits has been creeping up gradually, 'women still have a long way to go before they can claim anything like parity with men' (Allen, 1990, p. 34).

Some professional careers such as pharmacy have enabled women to fulfil orthodox roles as wives and mothers whilst maintaining continuing employment. (Crompton, 1990, p. 19). Many female pharmacists work in hospitals, where the pay is lower, but the flexibility of this work in general means that the hours may be fitted around childrens' needs. Crompton says that Pharmacy is
exceptional in that 'it is an occupation of professional standing requiring a high level of scientific skills, where women have been a substantial and growing minority'.

Although one can argue that the more equal numbers of women entering the professions have not yet worked their way through to more senior jobs there is anecdotal evidence that men may be recruited into jobs that have 'fast stream' promotion because some employers think that only 'exceptional' women are capable of exercising power in top jobs. This can have the damaging effect of providing an excuse for women to feel that it would be a waste of time to try for the top. (Miles, 1985, p. 80).

Sue Slipman, Director of One Parent Families, says 'only when women become decision-makers can we bring our priorities into the heart of the currently exclusive male power blocks' (Slipman, 1986, p. 18). Organisations such as the Fawcett Society, campaigning for equality since 1886 and the 300 Group (which was started by Lesley Abdel in 1981) were formed to encourage women to take a greater part in public life, and to seek appointments on public bodies where decisions are made that affect so many people's lives.

There are 45,000 places on public bodies and more than half of these are both nominated and appointed by government departments, whilst for the remainder most names are put forward by an 'old boy' network of informal contacts and by outside bodies such as Trade Unions or Local Councils. Although 20% of the members are female, the largest proportion of these are on local and regional
bodies such as district health authorities and prison visitors lists with very few women on central bodies, which advise Government, or on boards of nationalised industries and Corporations. Also the proportion of women chairing the Committees of these Public Bodies is very low. There has recently been a 'Women into Public life Campaign', directed by Dr Lily Segerman-Peck and funded by a number of women's organisations, which is intended to inform women about these Committees of Public Bodies, trawl organisations for suitable nominees and direct applications to suitable government departments.

The Hansard Publication 'Women at the Top', (1990), highlighted the causes and suggested a number of improvements to the situation of the employment inequalities of women. Since then there have been Government approved initiatives such as the campaign launched in 1991 as the result of work by the Women's Economic Development Target Team, chaired by Lady Howe. This was set up by 'Business in the Community' and is known as 'Opportunity 2000'. It offers information packs to Organisations and Businesses and gives advice about schemes to improve the opportunities available to women in their places of work.

B. THE CURRENT POSITION OF WOMEN IN TERMS OF EDUCATION

Many think that the reason for the low representation of women in senior jobs might have its origins in the Patriarchal educational system. As O'Connor (1986) said in a Guardian Article: 'It is often assumed when people talk about girls' education that the difficulty is one of low performance but, as
statistics show, it isn't....". She claims that in both primary and secondary schools the girls produce better academic results than the boys, but the tendency is for girls to go into less skilled and lower paid work because the "impressive results of the girls is still predominately in the wrong subjects."

Unfortunately views such as those of Rousseau permeated education for many years. He believed that men were meant to be the breadwinners and govern society whilst women were made by God for marriage and to accept the rule of men. He thought that boys should be educated to achieve high status including the acquisition of knowledge.

The problem of sex stereotyping in education was addressed by a number of books which were published in the seventies and the eighties. Adams and Laurikieį in the "The Gender Trap" say that "girls have their options limited from a very early age", in the way that they are dressed and the toys they are given to play with (Adams, 1975, pp. 21 - 24) and Sharpe says schools teach them skills suitable for women's work, and goes on to argue that the school curriculum deprives both girls and boys of their freedom of choice by assuming that they will not want to study certain subjects and by arranging school time tables on the basis of that assumption, (Sharpe, 1976, p. 149), whilst Oakley (1974, Chapter 3) points out that girls seem particularly prone to under achievement in relation to their IQ. She mentions a study of gifted children followed into adulthood where there was a close relationship between occupational levels of men and their
IQs, but which showed that the occupational levels of adult women, who had also been gifted children, were undistinguished.

Dale Spender, who came from Australia, has also written many books on this theme and takes the argument even further than the others when she talks of a 'Male Conspiracy' which has enabled a paternalistic society to keep girls' education at an inferior level to that of boys (1982).

Sex stereotyping also occurs in Further Education. In the FEU Handbook, 'Changing the Focus', (which was written in response to the Women's National Commission Report, (1984), 'The other half of our future'), the FEU Board of Management admits, (1985, p 7), that 'those female students who find themselves in an FE College are likely to be part of an establishment organised by men for men often with a monocultural ethos'. However they also claim that the FE system, which spans schools and higher education age ranges and links the spheres of employment and training with vocational and non-vocational training, is uniquely placed to intervene positively and respond to the needs of women.

Evans suggests strategies for counteracting early sex-role stereotyping using interventions based on personal construct psychology for promoting personal development and wider social participation for women and girls (Evans, 1986, p.5).

Many other FE publications highlight some of the issues relating to women and in 'Balancing the Equation', (1981), they carried out a study of women and Science and Technology within Further Education. In this they investigated research on innate sex
differences and concluded with regard to visuo-spatial and mathematical ability that sex differences in cognitive functions are much smaller than earlier studies implied and are attributable to more than one cause, and may not even have a physiological basis. They also emphasised the importance of role model influences which appeared to have a greater impact on women students than on the men and quoted research carried out by Phelan in the United States in 1979 to support this view. They also discussed other research by O'Leary in 1974 which makes the claim that girls are placed at a vocational disadvantage to men because of their:

1. fear of failure
2. low self-esteem
3. role conflict
4. fear of success (FEU 1981)

Women frequently return to education at a later stage in their lives and information such as that given in the handbook produced by NIACE, called 'Women Learning', is designed to be of use for anyone providing educational or training opportunities for women. It recommended that any course should be woman-centred, because it warns that many women re-entering education have unpleasant memories of their earlier schooling. It says that educational provision for these women should help them 'locate their own individual experiences in a wider social context' and that they 'need to value themselves' (NIACE, 1991, p 31). It suggests guidelines for suitable courses for these women and says (p 32) that 'learning methods should be interactive and shared. Experience shows that women prefer co-operative ways of working, enabling them to share ideas and experience, to support each
other through learning together'.

Workshops can play a large part in dispelling some of these disadvantages in that they change attitudes with respect to low self-esteem and fear of failure. More confident women would not normally fear success and would be more likely to be able to resolve worries about the conflicting claims of their jobs and domestic responsibilities. They also serve as a route for many women to find out more about alternative forms of education.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW ON CHANGE

Introduction
An evaluation of any process of change must begin by examining what most people mean by the term 'change' and follow this by considering the many theories which have developed about it, before investigating how they may be applied to illuminating the process and content of the workshop method.

Change can be defined as the 'act or instance of making or becoming different' and 'alteration or modification'. Change can be temporary or permanent, planned or unplanned, devastating or beneficial. The technological innovations of the twentieth century have progressed at a rate which far exceeds earlier ones, giving the impression that the process of change itself results in acceleration.

Handy (1989), who writes about change from the point of view of business management, says that continuous change is comfortable and becomes a learning process, but that change itself is changing and becoming discontinuous which is confusing and disturbing, and may require people to 'unlearn' certain concepts and discard them. Scott and Jaffe (1990), in their book on 'Managing Organisational Change', say that in today's changing world it is more important for workers 'to understand how to learn' rather than know a particular set of skills. In order to utilise the benefits of change one must consider the stages involved in the change process.
A. CLASSIFICATION OF MODELS FOR CHANGE

There are many models for change which some research workers such as Chin (Benne, 1961, p. 202) classify in two principal ways:

'Systems models', (from the Greek where 'system' means 'organised whole' (Reber, 1985, p. 756)), where change is considered to occur as a consequence of how well a system fits in with surrounding and interacting systems or how well its parts fit together. This theory considers that the source of change lies primarily in the structural stress and strain externally induced or internally created, and that the process of change is a process of tensions reduced.

'Developmental models' (where development has been defined as the sequence of changes over the full life span of an organism, and etymologically can be considered to come from the Old French 'developer' meaning to 'unwrap or unfold' (Reber, 1985, p. 194)). This model centres around the processes of growth, directional change and maturation. It assumes that there is an orderly progression from one state to another and that there are differences in these states at different times in this process (Benne, 1961, p. 208).

B. MODELS FOR CHANGE

Many theories of change can be found in books and articles on management and education, such as those by the Swedish authors Berg and Ostergren, (1979), who opt for a similar systems model to Kurt Lewin's one. Other models appear to have been adapted from various scientific theories.
B.i. KURT LEWIN'S FORCE FIELD MODEL

One of the models which has frequently been adapted to explain the process of change is Kurt Lewin’s Field Theory. It also illustrates the difference between the categories of systems and developmental models in the fact that it involves a balance of forces demonstrates the 'systems' aspect, and the imbalance resulting in change shows the 'developmental' aspect of the model. Lewin’s theory (1951, p. 212) was based on Kohler’s one in which he drew a parallel between the psychological field process and electromagnetic fields of force, (Reber, 1985, p. 273). Lewin described behaviour as the result of equilibrium between two forces working in opposite directions. He said that change takes place when there is an imbalance between the sum of the 'driving' forces and the sum of the 'restraining' forces. This imbalance 'unfreezes' the pattern which alters until the two forces again reach a state of equilibrium. It can occur as the result of a change in magnitude or direction of a force or even through the addition of a new force. This 'unfreezing' phase, which occurs when the forces are no longer balanced, is followed by a 'moving' phase whilst the forces are actually changing and a 'refreezing' phase when a new equilibrium has been established. Lewin’s model, which shows that change can be expected to occur when opposing forces are greater than the driving forces, can be illustrated by a simple diagram showing two sets of forces in opposition.

![Diagram of Lewin's Force Field Model]

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B.ii. THE 'STAGE' MODELS

There are a number of developmental models which identify the stages in the mental processes of a person deciding whether to accept or reject the possibility of change. These include:

a) Rogers' theory in which he specified five stages where people progressed from awareness of an innovation to its adoption or rejection:
   1. awareness
   2. interest
   3. evaluation
   4. trial
   5. adoption

   (NB Rogers (1967, p. 17) also used the term 'change agent' for 'a professional person who attempts to influence adoption decisions in a direction that he feels is desirable').

b) Cryer's application of the 'Catastrophe Theory' to change. The 'Catastrophe Theory' is a mathematical theory developed by Rene Thom, which attempts to formalise the nature of abrupt discontinuities in functions. Cryer adapted this in her work on Staff Development for Surrey University and, in an article on Educational Games (1987, pp. 172 - 181), used Zeeman's visual qualitative models to describe and interpret various types of behaviour. She points out that the term 'Catastrophe' does not necessarily carry the connotations of doom associated with its everyday meaning, but is used for any sudden change. The model allows a change to be represented as a path on a three dimensional surface, with a double fold on it. Where the path does not cross a fold the change is gradual and smooth, but Cryer
says (p. 174), 'where it reaches a fold the theory causes it to leave the surface and jump to the other sheet, because the underside of the fold is inaccessible'. In the figure below, showing a pair of Catastrophes, the jump from the upper to the lower sheet and from the lower to the upper sheet represents a change from progress to reject and from reject to progress respectively.

Cryer's figure illustrating the path of a participant who changes his mind about an idea after the evaluation stage.

(unfavourable) perception of environment (favourable)

awareness
interest
evaluation
trial
adoption
elapsing time
Cryer also, (1987), identified four categories of behaviour for people facing innovation relating to change.

1. The individual forgets about the innovation.
2. The individual dabbles at the innovation.
3. The individual works actively at the innovation.
4. The individual rejects the innovation out right.

Cryer says that outright rejection should be avoided whenever possible because whereas 1. and 2. can easily be put right by increasing the individual’s emotional involvement or improving how he perceives the environment for the innovation, it is much more difficult if he has rejected it. In the latter situation a change to acceptance can only be accomplished by improving the environment significantly in excess of how the individual saw it when this rejection took place initially.

c) Benne and Chin (1967) developed a number of models concerned with people’s behaviour when facing the possibility of change. These included:

i. The Power/Coercive model, where power is used to coerce and enforce change.

ii. The Empirical/ Rational model, where data is used to support a rational argument that convinces people that change is for the better.

iii. The Normative/ Re-educative model, which focuses on re-educating people to change their attitudes, so that they are less antagonistic to change.
B.iii. SCIENTIFIC LAWS OF CHANGE

Among those models of change of scientific origin are those that appear to have been adapted from Physics Theory. These include, for instance the theories of stress and strain in Lewin's discussion of extra forces 'unfreezing' the equilibrium and causing movement. This has an analogy in Hooke's law experiment in Physics when adding a load to a wire results in the wire stretching as a result of the additional forces until a state of equilibrium is reached again. There are also 'change of state' theories where additional energy is required to change a substance in a solid state to a liquid or a vapour, and where some of the energy is used to provide the increased molecular potential energy of the liquid phase and, when expansion also occurs, some of the energy is used to do external work.

CONCLUSION

I feel that Physics theory could also provide a useful model for change with Newton's laws of motion, which are part of classical mechanics and are applied to particles, or bodies.

Newton's first law states that 'A body will continue in its state of rest, or move with uniform motion in a straight line, unless acted upon by an external force'.

This law expresses the concept of inertia, where the inertia of a body can be described as being its reluctance to start moving. (It may be of interest to note that as well as giving a physics definition the dictionary defines inertia as 'sloth').
This has the parallel that people either do nothing or continue with the same approach to their life styles until a situation such as a workshop forces or triggers change.

Newton's second law states 'that the change of momentum per unit time is proportional to the resultant force and acts in the same direction'. ie The greater the force the greater the change.

Newton's third law also has implications for change when it states 'to every action there is an equal and opposite reaction'. In the case of a person attempting to force change there is inevitably a resistance or reaction to that change which is proportional in size to the amount of the initial action which is causing the change.

These laws seem to me to be a reasonable illustration of the fact that external forces are needed to produce change and may require the expenditure of energy to do so.

The model that seems to be most useful in designing a workshop is Rogers' one which illustrates the stages how people progress from awareness of a new idea to its adoption or rejection. I will return to a consideration of this in Chapter 9 on Workshop design.
3. LITERATURE REVIEW OF THE ORIGINS OF THE WORKSHOP

INTRODUCTION

Chinese Proverb: I read and I know; I do and I understand.

Women seem to find activity based forms of learning such as Workshops particularly beneficial as 'user-friendly' styles of education (NIACE, 1991, p. 22), whether they discover them in the form of 'encounter groups', or as 'Women Returners', or in the course of Skills training. This is not to say that they are not popular with men as well.

It can be argued (Chapter 9) that workshops are an effective way of initiating change in personal attitudes, with the object of increasing and building self-esteem. By attending suitable workshops women who lack self confidence may be able to overcome this handicap and improve their employment prospects.

In reviewing the literature of workshops they must be investigated in detail under the following headings:

A. ORIGINS OF THE WORKSHOP
B. ROUTE FROM EARLY 'GROUP DYNAMICS' TO MODERN 'ENCOUNTER' GROUPS
C. ROUTE VIA EDUCATIONAL DISCUSSION GROUPS TO TRAINING WORKSHOPS.

A. ORIGINS OF THE WORKSHOP

The 'workshop' as a concept would seem to be of relatively recent origin, deriving perhaps from ideas of artisan practicality rather than obscure flights of an academic pursuit of knowledge. Although the forerunners of Workshops are usually considered to have originated in women's groups and industrial training practices in the USA in the 1970's, some people consider them to have evolved from the 'T' groups that flourished in the
1960s in Britain (Jarvis, 1990, p. 147) and were first held in the States in 1947 (Rogers, 1970, p. 3).

It may also be argued that the Workshop method as a 'learning' experience has its origin in educational discussion groups, such as the Seminar, where students may formulate and discuss ideas and attempt to solve problems. The fact, however, that theories of 'group dynamics' play such an important part in Workshop method and theory, leads to the likelihood that the American National Training Laboratories at Bethel, Maine are the actual point of origin. Their practices acknowledgedly developed from early Twentieth Century research by certain German Educationalists as mentioned in B below.

The various links between these other practices and the present day Workshops will now be considered in two ways, in what can be perceived as two distinct historical strands, though they may sometimes interweave.

B. ROUTE FROM EARLY 'GROUP DYNAMICS' TO MODERN 'ENCOUNTER' GROUPS

There are many theories about, and there is a considerable volume of literature on, the history of Group Dynamics, but as that is not the principal focus of this research a selection only of the work is mentioned which is seen as historically significant to the development of workshop theory.

The earliest research mentioned by Nagao and others (Brandstatter, 1977, p. 13) was published in Germany by Mayer in 1903 on 'the school child's work alone and in a group'. This compared children's solitary study at home with their performance
in the classroom and developed into research on interactive social situations and later into the study of small groups.

Nagao and his fellow authors say that although the study of small groups has its origins set in various times and places, with a strong tradition of "group dynamics" appearing in the USA in the late 1930s, nevertheless, Lewin provided a 'rich conceptual basis' by bringing 'a European concern with theoretical issues, especially Gestalt Psychology, together with a strong American predilection for empiricism'. Lewin's enthusiasm for both theory and experiment was matched by his conviction of the 'researchability of current social issues or problems' (Brandstatter, 1977, p. 14).

Lewin founded the 'Research Center for Group Dynamics' in 1945 and one result of this was the creation in 1946 of a 'Workshop' to investigate the potential uses of the group as a vehicle for social and personal change.

Nagao et al. (Brandstatter, 1977, p. 14) say that 'This workshop was the precursor to the National Training Laboratories at Bethel, Maine, and has been recognised ......... as the beginning of the sensitivity movement.' They observe that this resulted in the development of techniques for role playing and interpersonal processes 'conceived and executed as a structured pattern.' However, although it continued to flourish in Europe, research into group dynamics in the States had declined by the beginning of the 1960s, to be replaced by 'methodology and precise experimentation.'
Theoretical approaches in the 1970s tended to relate certain general theories, such as psychoanalytical ones, to group dynamics and also approached certain specific theories on leadership and conformity behaviour.

Shaw (1977, p. 54), quoting his earlier work with Costanzo, defines a theory as:

'a set of interrelated hypotheses or propositions concerning a phenomenon or set of phenomena' and went on to detail accounts of 'group syntality' theory and an 'exchange theory'. They defined group syntality as the 'personality of the group' and agreed with an earlier definition of 'synergy' as the 'total energy available to the group', where the major portion or 'maintenance synergy' is used to establish cohesion and harmony among the group and the remainder, the 'effective synergy', is used to achieve goals.

They also examined 'exchange theory' based on the interaction between two people in an interpersonal relationship, which, it had been suggested could be applied to the analysis of group behaviour in terms of costs and rewards. Shaw and Costanzo (Shaw, 1977, p. 54) thought that, although this type of calculated exchange might be criticised as less valid in respect of a group, it could have some value as the basis of a more generalised exchange of shared values and trust, similar to the collective exchange theory in French Anthropology associated with Levi-Strauss and others (Abercrombie, 1988, p. 93). This theory contains the expectation that people will fulfil implied contracts of obligation to the group rather than pursue self interest.
As mentioned above, during the 1960s certain industrial organisations encouraged their staff to meet in 'T' (Therapy) groups, with the hope of improving their interpersonal relationships by the use of therapeutic group techniques. Rogers (1970, p. 2) claims, in his book 'Encounter Groups', that the first T-group (with the 'T' in this case standing for Training) was held shortly after Lewin's death in 1947 and was a training group in 'human relations skills'.

Fuller (1992, Personal Communication) says that these often leaderless groups could be 'dangerous' when self esteem was damaged, whilst Jarvis (1990, p. 147) considers their use unwise unless 'all the participants have consented to participate and there is easy access to a trained counsellor'.

During the 1970s many organisations and some individuals experimented with group work in the form of 'experiential learning' (See Chapter 9 for a discussion of this method). British examples include the Tavistock Institute, The Human Potential Resource Group at Surrey University, founded by Heron in 1970, and individual trainers such as Dickson, who brought 'Workshop methods of Assertiveness Training' from the States in 1976, and worked in Surrey University HPRG. Later she founded the Redwood Women's Training Organisation (Dickson, 1988, Preface).

C. ROUTE VIA EDUCATIONAL DISCUSSION GROUPS TO TRAINING WORKSHOPS.

A Seminar is defined as:

1. A small class at a University, etc., for discussion and research;
2. A short intensive course of study;
3. A conference of specialists.

Group discussion properly used in a Seminar or Tutorial setting can be useful for achieving high level cognitive objectives such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation of a topic (Bloom, 1956, p.15) and can be employed in many other situations also.

The pure discussion group tends, however, to be a poor vehicle for learning new techniques. In an unstructured group a lack of focus may impede progress and cause frustration together with a sense of wasted time. It is important that objectives should be stated at the outset. These are most likely to be the stimulation of new creative thinking, the analysis of criteria and formulation of judgements, rather than the acquisition of new knowledge.

Some people find it difficult, however, to handle open undirected discussions in unstructured groups. This is especially true for new students, who, possibly fresh from school, may expect and initially prefer firm tutorial guidance. The dynamics of such a group may alienate some students by producing feelings of insufficiency and inability to participate and perhaps the assumption of a need to conform to general viewpoints with which they may inarticulately disagree.

Gibbs, in his book on 'Teaching Students to Learn, A Student-Centred Approach', argues the need for careful structuring of group discussions and exercises so that difficulties such as these may be overcome, (1981, p. 93). He uses Northedge’s (1973) scheme as an alternative to conventional tutorials. This involves the participants in beginning with their own experiences and ideas and progressively opening up and widening
these by comparison and contrast with those of the rest of the group.

The participants first work alone, then in pairs, then in small groups of four or six and finally in a plenary session which involves the whole group. This method of structuring discussions is known as the SNOWBALL or the PYRAMID. It is widely used in Industrial Training and in general group work as well as in Education and also serves as an exercise in confidence building. (See Appendix, p. xxxi for an explanation of this method).

When I worked in Industry (at C A Parsons, Wallsend, Newcastle-on-Tyne) in the mid 'fifties' there was no training available. If you were a graduate you were expected to have a fund of knowledge already, but anything else you needed was expected to be acquired from the 'sitting in with Nellie' experience. They also said that they did not expect new employees in research departments to be of any real use to them for at least a year. Nowadays, this approach would be considered to be rather wasteful when a shortage of technically qualified staff means that some companies spend the whole year in recruiting and most of them put on induction programmes for new employees in order that they are quickly and usefully absorbed.

CONCLUSION TO LITERATURE REVIEW ON WORKSHOPS

It will be argued in Chapter 9 that both of the approaches mentioned above, whether originating from the educational situation or the encounter/therapy groups, have been developed to produce various theories. Whether these result in a form of
educational/industrial skills training structured workshop or an interactive group approach, they also have many elements in common and many workshops use techniques inherited from both.

These two approaches: the structured discussion in education situations and the supportive group approach are both used in skills training workshops, which could cover personal effectiveness and the acquisition of a new 'aptitude'.

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CONCLUSION TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW

In carrying out the literature review it was necessary to consider the literature of research methodology in order to decide which books were needed to obtain information about research methods.

It was also necessary to review many books on educational research (Tuckman, 1973; Open University, 1973; Cohen, 1980), whilst specifically considering evaluation (Parlett, 1977; Guba, 1978), survey theory (de Vaus, 1986; Marsh, 1982; Youngman, 1979) and questionnaire design (Oppenheim, 1976; Hoinville, 1978). Dictionaries (Abercrombie, 1988; Reber, 1985) and numerous items from the Department of Educational Studies Resource Centre Library, including Theses, papers and the Department's Research Modules, were also used to determine the choice of research instruments, which are considered further in Chapter 7. The next Section (Chapters 3, 4 and 5) will look at the background to the position of women in more detail.
SECTION 2:

Background to the Position of Women
SECTION 2: BACKGROUND TO THE POSITION OF WOMEN

CHAPTER 3: WOMEN'S EDUCATION

INTRODUCTION

To look at the 'history' of women's education and find so little in evidence is to wonder whether education has failed women. The ideas in Plato's Republic (that female guardians of state should be given the same education as their male counterparts) were taken little account of in those times when either women received no education at all or what they had was influenced by philosophers such as Rousseau, who thought that education should be for the sole purpose of preparing a girl to be a good wife and mother.

It is only since Victorian times that women's education has been taken seriously. Even then it has been a slow process because the 19th century reformers focussed their efforts on achieving education by right for all girls, rather than making it of an equal standard to that of boys. It took another hundred years, two world wars, and many DES reports, to result in the later advances intended to utilise the unexploited talents of women.

There are still very few women in the 'higher echelons of schools, colleges, universities or of educational administration planning' (Byrne, 1987, p. 12) and until recently 'equal' has often meant 'equivalent' education rather than 'the same'.

It could be argued that it is precisely because formal education has failed women that many still seek, and find, it outside...
conventional channels. This may occur after they have completed child rearing, often through women’s groups or adult education classes and frequently in the form of workshops.

This chapter will investigate the above issues of the background to where women’s education is today in terms of ‘where it has come from’ and how gender questions still affect it, and the alternative methods women use to overcome any disadvantages, in three sections:

A. THE HISTORY OF WOMEN’S EDUCATION
B. OVERCOMING GENDER DIFFERENTIATION IN EDUCATION
C. ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF EDUCATION USED BY WOMEN.

A. THE HISTORY OF WOMEN’S EDUCATION

The energy and attention devoted to the education of women could be said at all times to be in exact relation to the extent to which they may have been considered partial equals by men, in a society dominated by them and recognising in woman a different and generally inferior animal. This is to state a fact and not to award blame from a position of hindsight, for the situation was created deterministically by circumstances of biology, environment and need.

The factors affecting this difference in human relations, when in the animal kingdom most mammals are less distinctive, except as regards reproductive function, may have something to do with longevity and the long immaturity of human childhood. The
probability may be that gender specialisation became more strongly established when humankind ceased to be nut and berry gatherers and food resources began to include formidable animals, which required skills, strength, cunning and the cooperation of others to hunt and kill. The home-keeping child-minder could not also do this. The competing hunter acquired status associated also with strength, maleness and fecundity. Winners would gain power and women. In this simplest of all summaries, females thus became chattels and persons of much lesser account.

Other 'lotus' societies may have their matriarchies, but Northern and Western man is indelibly stamped with a sense of gender specialisation and male superiority, which, generally-speaking, is only now perceived to be anacronistic. As time passed both feelings and superstitions crystallized into religions and those which came to have principal influence, Christianity and Muhammadanism, put the male in the dominant and the female in the subordinate role.

The ethic and the need reinforced each other and gender difference, even less mutable than class, allotted life functions at a fairly early stage in human society. It follows that in past times the education of men and women was conceived on almost entirely different lines, following a period of 'mother's knee' learning, common to both sexes which, even so, initiated a sense of gender orientation distinction in each child. This was shortly followed by the 'breeching' of boys at the age of three or so with them becoming decreasingly attached to their mother's
In remoter times what passed for education was, of course, extremely primitive and largely functional. The generality of even academic knowledge, though certainly not functional, was limited to subjective unrealistic thinking founded upon dubious bases and fragmentary truths, much of which later generations would reject as superstition and legend. The more esoteric parts of this knowledge, generally in non-vernacular languages, would be available only to the few. In early mediaeval times even the ability to read and write was largely confined to the church and even noblemen and women, though much-travelled and possessing the superficial sophistication of chivalry, were otherwise almost as ignorant as peasants. In slightly later times such people, knights and ladies, often learned to read some of the troubadour romances.

It seems that little educational improvement can be perceived for men or women before the flowering of the Renaissance in Europe in the Fifteenth Century. The universities of Oxford and Cambridge, founded in the Thirteenth Century 'up-staged' the monasteries as teaching institutions yet did very little apart from paying some attention to the works of the Holy Fathers of the Church. The explosion of intellectual energy exhibited from the mid-16th century onwards in the so-called Renaissance and Reformation is not clear as to absolute causes but, the effects are visible enough. The discovery of a number of early classical texts and a devouring interest in them, fed by the invention of printing and the subsequent dissemination of texts tended to
stimulate intellectual interests, and the great Protestant revolution in Church and State, compounded with other movements as vehicles of profound change.

Up to this time the number of women enabled to have a minimal literary education was few indeed, but an essential feature of Protestantism worked, to a limited extent, in their favour. This was the notion that each soul had the right of a direct approach to God. It followed from this that each would need to read the Scriptures. There was therefore some tacit admission that a portion of elementary education was desirable for women and it is noticeable that from this time onwards more women in England seem to have been able to read and some also to write. It seems they may often have acquired these skills at the so-called 'petty' schools often attached to the grammar schools, which last they did not generally attend.

Very broadly it might be stated that formal education was only really instituted in the mid 19th Century in Britain. This occurred partly as a result of population growth, but more particularly by a realisation on the part of both Church and State that the most essential requirements, in their view, of strict morality and thorough domestic skills, could be more readily taught in schools than in the family.

In 1864 the Taunton Commission was appointed to enquire into the present condition of the old grammar schools. The Commission was also able to examine certain girls' schools, which were mostly found to share the gross incompetence and curricular triviality
which generally characterised what passed for girls' education at this time (Fletcher, 1984, pp. 14 - 16). Some exceptions to this harsh judgment were allowed, including Dorothea Beale's School at Cheltenham, which seemed to convince the Commissioners that the essential capacity for learning was the same, or almost the same, for both sexes (Borer, 1975, p. 279).

In 1870 the Elementary Education Act was passed. It was intended to encourage greater opportunities for primary education in basic skills (the three Rs) for all children not otherwise receiving any. In due course hundreds of schools and a number of teacher training colleges were built, staffed and put into operation. In the view of Deem, however, the 1870 Act did not provide working class girls with 'any solution to their problems of being confined to low status work and domestic labour within the family' (Deem, 1978, p. 11).

Another Act, appointing Endowed School Commissioners, resulted in the creation of many more girls secondary schools (including thirty-five high schools in the Girls Public Day School Company, launched in 1872 by Maria Grey). This also formed the basis for the creation of certain physical education colleges for training women teachers in gymnastics. These are of particular interest, representing, as they do, one of the very few areas in education both instigated and led by women (Fletcher, 1984, p. 155). Of more recent years even this advantage was lost when certain colleges were merged and women lost the head start 'they had once had in physical education' to men.
Deem suggests that the presence of teacher-training colleges 'has hindered rather than helped the provision of higher education courses for women'. She argues that their existence has been used as an excuse for failing to provide sufficient degree-level courses for women and thinks that their lesser entry requirements may also 'have subtly acted to lower the aspirations and efforts of girls still at school..' (Deem, 1978, p. 87). In fact, although women's colleges were established at both Oxford and Cambridge from the 1870s, women were not admitted to full membership of Oxford University until 1920 and of Cambridge University until 1947, which was later than many 'younger' Universities.

By 1920 some 185,000 girls were receiving free secondary education, but a strongly gender-oriented syllabus may to some extent have vitiated its academic content. The official line still insisted on an emphasis on domestic skills and the 1926 Hadow Report stressed the importance of teaching girls housewifery, if the nation hoped to enjoy future prosperity. Even the 1943 Norwood Report on curriculum and examinations in secondary schools 'scarcely mentioned girls' apart from the comment 'that girls found School Certificate Mathematics more difficult than boys' (Committee of the Secondary Schools Examination Council, 1943).

It was not until the 1944 Education Act that all girls and boys became entitled by law to secondary education. This was followed by what some writers have called the 'educational explosion' of the 1950s and 1960s. The Robbins Report of 1963 recommended the expansion of existing colleges and universities and the creation
of more, in order to provide greater access to higher education for more students.

So far as girls were concerned, however, it was not the amount of schooling but its content which affected their ability to profit from the new meritocratic education system. In spite of a concern to achieve equality of educational opportunity, reports such as Newsom’s one could still state that: 'for all girls, too, there is a group of interests relating to what many, perhaps most of them, would regard as their most important vocational concern, marriage....' (Newsom, 1963, p. 37).

It is certainly a fact that although teachers not infrequently paid lip service in the 1970s to the idea of treating both sexes equally they still 'make quite sweeping generalisations about boys and girls ... Boys ... were seen as more logical, more enthusiastic, quicker to grasp new concepts and better on the oral side. Girls' complaints about receiving less attention in class could well be justified if teachers do reveal their appreciation of the boys' dynamic personality characteristics. Moreover... 72 per cent of teachers said they would prefer to teach boys' (Davies and Meighan, 1975, pp. 174-5).

Girls frequently do better than boys in primary schools, but their performance, in relation to that of boys, begins to deteriorate in secondary schools (Deem, 1978, p. 28).

It is to be hoped that recent changes in the school curriculum, particularly the new science curriculum, which makes attainment
levels at certain ages compulsory for both boys and girls (DES, 1988) will give women equality of opportunity with a gender-free education leading to the possibility of gender-free employment.

It is not yet clear how other changes in education will affect girls. One result of the 1986 Education Act and the 1988 Education Reform Act has been an attempt to restructure state education by shifting power away from LEAs towards central government and the consumers. The ERA gave school governors greater powers, mainly in connection with the Local Management of Schools (LMS), with changes such as 'formula funding' (on the basis of pupil numbers and their ages) with schools being responsible for their own financial and staffing matters.

B. OVERCOMING GENDER DIFFERENTIATION IN EDUCATION

The worldwide variation in access and provision of education for women may be related to tradition, religion, economic prosperity and government policy. Some sociologists consider that education in schools operates to reinforce gender relations that subordinate women and perpetuate divisions in the labour market and seek to explain this situation by exploring links between social change, gender and education (Acker, 1984, pp. 65 - 73; Deem, 1978, pp. 41 - 54).

Megarry says that there is widespread controversy in respect of notions concerning any sex differences in ability and argues that there is evidence from all over the world that educational systems exaggerate 'the effect of sex difference and do so in
ways that limit the educational opportunities of females in particular. Gender-typing recurs in the official curriculum, teaching materials and organization of subject choice, in teacher behaviour both inside and outside the classroom, and in the hidden curriculum of traditional assumptions, unquestioned expectations and codes of behaviour' (Megarry, 1984, p. 22).

It is sometimes suggested that teachers tend to treat boys differently from girls (Sharpe, 1976) and that lessons are often designed to cater for boys' interests, whilst boys are often allowed to dominate discussions in mixed classes (Spender, 1982). Deem (1978, p. 50) suggests that the consequences of paying more attention to boys than girls means that boys not only tend to absorb a disproportionate amount of teacher time and energy, whilst girls may be neglected, but may also result, by reason of discouragement, in the girls failing to ask sufficient questions about their work.

In the Further Education Unit occasional paper 'Raising Perceptual Awareness in Work with Women and Girls', Evans says: 'The teacher is almost always unconscious of these differences, which arise from deeply embedded expectations and reflect early socialisation in a society with clear expectations of "desirable" women's roles, behaviour and aspirations. It is through exploration of the teacher's constructs concerning gender and role that awareness can be developed' (Evans, 1986, p. 4).

Acker (1984, p. 71), says that some radical feminists, who have explored the ways in which schools and colleges shape female
identity, claim two areas affect this process: the lowered self-esteem derived from women's school experiences; and men's control over and definition of knowledge itself.

Byrne states that although, generally speaking, 'girls have narrowed the sex gap, or eliminated differences in retention rates and in overall participation in academic and general education', major issues still remain (Byrne, 1987, p. 16).

Amongst a number of cross-cultural problems posed, Byrne quotes one as the 'lack of a balanced curriculum for either sex, girls are under-recruited for maths, science and technology'. Curriculum elements and content still support gender-typed roles and a male-oriented view of society.

The real gap in female education remains in science subjects, for although girls may attend classes in these subjects the male-fixed orientation of the teaching, making them feel that highly technical subjects are difficult to grasp, militates against the great majority of girls succeeding in them. This is in mixed classes. Single-sex classes do offer girls a better learning opportunity, for, in addition to the reasons given above and the tendency of mixed classes to be male-oriented, Deem says that 'girls in single sex schools are more likely than girls in mixed schools to be taught maths and science by women and are hence less likely to think of these subjects as "masculine"' (Deem, 1978, p. 75). Byrne refutes the cause often suggested: the lack of female role models and does not agree with the theory that
single-sex schools could give girls greater opportunities than do co-educational ones (Byrne, 1989, pp. 119 - 120).

She says that other factors may be more important and quotes from an Irish Equal Employment Agency study on curricular practices in post-primary education (Byrne, 1987, p. 19) which states that the 'true rates' of subject choice depended on four factors influencing their choice. Whether or not a student who was qualified [by previous performance] to choose higher maths, physics, or chemistry actually did so depended on:

* the pupil's previous examination performance;
* his or her attitudes to the subject;
* ambition or aspiration towards vocational or further education goals;
* (for girls only) the expectations of their teachers'.

It would seem that the ambitions of girls are affected very much by the way others, such as parents, teachers and peers, see them.

Dels and Seel found that, although the gap between the sexes in qualifications had narrowed by 1985, the particular qualifications requisite in industrial and technical work were still generally beyond the reach of young women. They concluded:

'Considerable doubt still existed with regard to the credibility of the practical realisation of the principle of equal treatment' (Byrne, 1987, p. 19).

Byrne also comments that since we have been told, so many times, that girls and women had now caught up, so far as basic access to education is concerned, and, as there are no legal or structural
barriers to equal access, if they do not choose to study the same curricula at the same levels, we are expected to believe that it is because of natural differences in interest and aspiration. For this type of propaganda she coined a term — the 'Snark syndrome' of constant repetition, meaning "what I tell you three times is true". This type of assertion is invariably made without any serious statistical or research-based evidence to support it. (Byrne, 1989, p. 113).

In attempting to improve gender equality in education and employment, some feel that if more girls took science subjects at school they would have better opportunities, both of receiving higher education and of entering professional and managerial levels in the workplace, besides having a considerably enhanced choice.

In 1984 the WISE (Women into Science and Engineering) campaign was initiated by the Equal Opportunities Commission and this was followed by a number of similar activities such as the 1986 GIST (Girls into Science and Technology) which was targeted on girls and intended to encourage industrialists to work with educationalists in order to try to redress the uneven levels of male and female entry into higher posts in industry and the sciences. Further changes have grown out of the 1988 Reform Act (ERA), including City Technology Colleges and Grant Maintained Schools and the new National Curriculum and Assessment procedures for State schools, which should all help to change the gender bias in the scientific education of girls.
C. ALTERNATIVE FORMS OF EDUCATION USED BY WOMEN

INTRODUCTION

In looking at girls’ opportunities in secondary and tertiary education, we have argued that the educational system has generally failed, so far as women are concerned, until very recently. However current changes offer the possibility that the new curriculum may provide those girls, who are now in the primary and secondary phases of their education, with chances equal to those of boys. That is, in terms of access to tertiary education and/or to satisfying employment.

It will not be possible, however, to estimate and assess the success or failure of these recent changes until the children now in primary schools have completed their education and entered the job market, i.e. not for about another fifteen years.

Even so, there will still be many women who have not been able to take advantage of the opportunities afforded at school and are not able, or not sufficiently interested, to participate in post 16 education in the form of adult education classes.

These women are likely to continue to do what women have done for many years, either to opt out entirely, possibly with a strong sense of grievance and frustration, or to take advantage of certain alternative forms of education. In many cases, it is feared, the non-participant groups, who may have negative perceptions on education and nurse wounded feelings about it, will only become involved if their hostility is first overcome by sensitive and innovative methods of persuasion in recruitment.
i) CHANGES IN POST-COMPULSORY EDUCATION

It has been said that adolescence may not be the best time for a massive single dose of education for either sex (Megarry, 1984, p. 24). McGivney argues that education nowadays must be considered to be a life-long need as a result of people living longer and numerous changes in the character and incidence of employment. The effects of recession and redundancies will also mean that some people will undergo vocational re-training more than once in their careers. This has been called a 'blended life-plan' rather than a 'linear life-plan' (McGivney, 1990, p. 33). This retraining, however, is not likely to be taken up by those categorised as 'non-participant' adults.

During the last few years there have been so many changes in the provision and organisation of education, at all levels, that it has been virtually impossible to keep abreast of these matters. Post-Compulsory education, which can cover Adult Education (A.E.) Further Education (F.E.), Higher Education (H.E.) and various training initiatives, has undergone a number of quite recent developments. These may have been instigated by such demographic changes as the declining number of school-leavers, the increasing unemployment (as a result of new technology) and a decreasingly skilled work-force compared with European neighbours. Government response to these factors, has been to increase access to education and training for under-represented groups.

Changes referred to have included the new Education Reform Act (ERA, 1988), the replacement of the Manpower Services Commission...
(MSC) by the Training Commission (TC) and subsequently by the Training Agency (TA). When training became the responsibility of the employer, the employer-led Training Enterprise Councils (TECs) were formed.

However, these innovations have reached only a part of the community and such institutions as the LEAs and Adult Education have pioneered schemes to improve Adult Basic Education (ABE) and developed modular and part-time courses with flexible access and the capacity to take account of prior learning and provide 'credit' transfer schemes. In addition the National Council for Vocational Qualifications (NCVQ) has developed a scheme whereby both work experience and course work can be turned into a qualification, namely the NVQ (Blackman, 1992, p. 109).

This is inevitably a mere snapshot of what is happening at present in 1992. Some of these schemes will necessarily be either discarded or changed as experience proves their worth. It will be observed, however, that efforts to provide post-school education are not new. This will be seen in the following review of adult education provision.

ii) ADULT EDUCATION PAST AND PRESENT

After World War II, both men and women received post-school education from organisations such as the Workers Educational Association (WEA) and the various university extra mural departments. In earlier times the Mechanics Institutes, mostly founded in the Nineteenth Century but now transformed into various Twentieth Century institutions, provided classes and
At the present time a wide range of studies are catered for by Adult Education Institutes. Even so, some of the 'non-vocational' activities are likely to be cut by reason of the government white paper on 'Education and Training for the Twenty-First Century', published in May 1991. It becomes clear that funding will only be available for courses which lead directly or indirectly to qualifications.

An editorial in the Times Higher Educational Supplement (May 31, 1991) affirmed that "no sensible demarcation can be made between liberal and vocational courses in Adult Education. A student's progress can lead from the apparently most lowly evening course to the highest academic honours, no barriers must be put in their way if mass participation is the object".

Many women and men restart their education after going to evening classes. Some take conventional examinations including GCSE s, A levels and City and Guilds' Qualifications. Others take advantage of 'Open Learning' or 'Distance Learning' courses put on by FE, AE, sixth form colleges or voluntary organisations, usually in subjects where there are not sufficient students to make up a full class, or where the student may not be able to attend a centre as a result of being disabled.

There are also 'Access' courses to higher education intended as an alternative to A levels for mature students who would like to study for a degree. These can be Arts based or Science based and have often been requested by the students themselves. For instance the Waverley Science Access Course, Environment 2000, 'grew' out
of an Environmental Science GCSE course, where four mature students, who wanted to take their studies further, were instrumental in persuading those running the Arts Access course to organise a Science one as well.

There are also a number of residential colleges for mature adults, which provide full-time, part-time and short term courses. Staff at some of these have commented on the "extra-ordinary growth in confidence and self-esteem, that people with no previous post-school educational experience gain from a short experience of residential learning (NIACE, 1990, p. 121).

Hillcroft College in Surbiton is one of the few residential colleges which cater for women only. All their courses are designed to build confidence, establish study skills and provide grounding in chosen subjects, with the back-up of counselling and guidance. There is a one year, modular, full-time course leading to a CNAA Certificate of Higher Education, but work can be part-time and spread over a number of years. As well as seminars and tutorials, each module involves workshops to support the learning experience.

iii) WOMEN'S GROUPS AND WOMEN'S STUDIES

Women's studies are difficult to define because the process of learning together as women is considered to be as important as the content of a course. They were created in response to worldwide feminist demands in the late 1960s and originally located in existing disciplines such as sociology and history.
Whether they should serve a role in raising a consciousness of the various issues in these areas, or comprise a separate academic discipline, was a subject of debate for many years, as also was the question of whether Feminism was compatible with Marxism. Both Feminist research and Feminist sociology have grown out of women's studies and a number of courses in women's studies now exist in higher education in the United Kingdom, including the Open University. Most universities run more post-graduate than undergraduate courses, whilst other organisations, such as the Workers Educational Association have instituted similar courses outside the area of formal education. Klein says that women's studies is (as a subject) 'evolving and struggling and in the struggle diversifying and changing' (Klein, 1984, p. 303).

The term 'Women's Studies' must not be confused with the expression 'Women's education', which is traditionally taken to refer to such institutions as the Women's Institute. Hughes and Kennedy argue that all education for women, including 'Women's Studies, should be combined under the umbrella term 'Women's Education' (Hughes and Kennedy, 1985, p. 29).

The term 'Women's Group' covers a variety of different organisations in which women meet together, such, for example, as the 300 Group and the Fawcett Society. A number of these not infrequently use workshop training methods (See Section 4).

iv) WOMEN'S VOLUNTARY ORGANISATIONS

Certain other educational opportunities for women are afforded by various voluntary organisations in conjunction with other
educational bodies, as, for example, Adult Education – which may provide classes and accommodation. A workshop format is often employed. These voluntary organisations include:

The National Federation of Women’s Institutes (The WI). The work of this body was originally linked to the idea of improving rural life. It is the only national women’s organisation to possess its own short-term residential college. This is at Denham.

The Town’s Women’s Guild (TG). This maintains a direct descent from the non-militant National Union of Women’s Suffrage Societies.

The National Housewives’ Register (NHR). In this organisation local groups arrange for speakers and members meet in their own houses.

The Pre-School Playgroups Association (PPA). In this body members are most usually mothers of children under five years of age. The courses therefore mostly relate to the needs of pre-school children.

Some women gain confidence through the experience of helping to organise activities in voluntary bodies and as a result decide to obtain further training or employment in other similar organisations.

Other organisations such as the Fawcett Society and the 300 Group, as mentioned above, also put on training sessions for women – usually in the form of workshops.
v) NON-PARTICIPANT WOMEN / WORKSHOPS

Hughes (1985) in 'New Futures: Changing women's education' (p. 44) says that even in adult education 'where the majority of staff and students are women, the teaching and class provision seem to be based on traditional cultural assumptions, where men are the definers and doers.' I would argue, however, that this is in process of change; at least it would seem so in Surrey (unless a temporary aberration) for although the three organisers are male, the new director and most of the nine area curriculum managers are women. Even so the existing system operating in other counties will necessarily remain selective and possibly male-oriented, unless it can be made more relevant to currently under-represented groups.

Reaching non-participants remains a major problem, because the factors which in themselves impede participation are also strongly negative in character. These may be listed as a lack of the following qualities and attributes:

* confidence and self-esteem
* trust in the system
* perspective on the future
* awareness of opportunities
* educational preparedness (communicational skills, basic educational skills, etc.) (McGivney, 1990, p. 37).

It may be noted that a number of the above concepts could lend themselves to being explored in the Workshop setting (Section 4). McGivney argues that many people who are reluctant to attend courses on their own would be less so if they could come in groups. This has led to a form of group recruitment practice, such as in one example of a garden allotment society where the members had been asked to take over the organisation themselves.
and needed to acquire the relevant administrative skills (McGivney, 1990, p. 45).

There have been similar group courses such as the Royal Green Neighbourhood Centre, where women running certain toddlers' groups thought that they needed further skills for greater confidence and the Manchester Open College Federation offered accreditation for a course run at the Royal Green Neighbourhood Centre (Webb, 1992, p. 103).

Another gambit occasionally used is that of opening-up certain institutions to community groups for tea and coffee sessions. This may stimulate a desire to learn in some — though perhaps something of a long shot (McGivney, 1990, p. 137).

Many women with family responsibilities do not know what opportunities are available for further training and careers and, in this connection, very few colleges provide creches.

The provision of information on the availability of training and details of the various careers were amongst the most frequent requests from the Career Development Workshop held in Farnham (See Chapter 9, p. 108), when the participants were asked what they would like to have discussed in a subsequent workshop.

CONCLUSION

Because so many adults have not engaged in any kind of formal education since leaving school (51% of the population in England and Wales and 58% in Scotland), (McGivney, 1990, p. 14), it is essential that new ways of reaching them should be explored.
This may involve a variety of techniques to be employed in advancing the idea of workshops as a worth-while activity, with a potential for personal growth and improvement. One method of overcoming a fairly ubiquitous shyness amongst sections of the population unused to educative activities and lacking individual confidence, might be to recruit groups of people who already know each other. This might perhaps overcome negative group pressures hostile to, or at least suspicious of, matters to do with education.

In many cases this might involve further public financial outlay in subsidizing fees and possibly other expenses, besides the provision of creches for women with young families who often have little in the way of spare resources and even less motivation to spend them on uncertain advantages. It is also important that they should be enabled to negotiate a proportion of the agenda. As can be seen in Section 4, chapter 9, the workshop format can generally be relied on to overcome many of these problems.
CHAPTER 4: WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT

Women consist of 52% of the population but most of the decisions affecting their lives are made by men because men hold most of the positions of power. In order to consider how this situation might be changed it is necessary to consider how the employment of women has developed in the past, present day patterns of employment and trends of future employment which may arise out of demographic changes.

If the aim of a balanced democracy is to strengthen the full and informed participation of all citizens in all aspects of society then it is also important to investigate what barriers prevent women from taking part in all aspects of life, including political and public life, and in the decision making bodies of industry and commerce.

A. HISTORICAL TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT

In the past home and the outside world were closely linked. Every one in a community was involved in working together, often with a husband and wife forming a productive unit based in the home. For these reasons women's work in the 16th century was seen as having more importance than it seemed to be regarded in the earlier part of this century.

In rural society the wives of farmers carried considerable economic status and as well as keeping the family accounts they were able to shear sheep, brew beer, and thatch as well spin and contribute in other ways to agricultural life. In more wealthy
homes wives supervised the workings of estates, engaged and discharged servants and kept accounts as did the women in the families of the aristocracy. Although Patriarchy still reigned and women had no property rights, women's economic role ensured that they were not merely regarded as domestic drudges.

The industrial revolution was to produce profound change. Upper class women now ceased to manage their homes and working women were forced into the factories.

In Victorian times it was assumed that women's place was in the home although the middle class housewife did not have much to do with the actual running of the house. Domestic work became the main occupation of the daughters of the poorer classes and it was estimated that one in three girls aged between fifteen and twenty was a domestic servant (Best 1973) in the latter part of the nineteenth century.

Those middle-class women who did not marry tended either to stay in the parental home or became governesses, some, later in the century, teaching in schools and a few becoming clerks or nurses.

In the early twentieth century nine out of ten married women stayed at home, for, with better incomes it became possible to exist on the man's salary, and men liked to show that they could 'keep' their wives (Open University, U 221, 1983).

B. MODERN TRENDS IN EMPLOYMENT
Although women have made some progress in their employment status during this century it has generally been slow, arduous and sometimes cyclical.
The first change in the employment of women occurred during the first World War, when women were encouraged to work in order to relieve men so that they could fight. Circumstances reverted between the wars, but in the Second World War women were encouraged to enter the labour market again. The government provided workplace nurseries but in 1945, when the war finished these were ended and women were expected to become housewives again or to return to their previous low status, low paid and unskilled jobs (Open University, U221, 1983).

From then until the present time there was no Government policy on child-care, but the numbers of married women working gradually increased from only 4% of the work force in 1921 to nearly 12% in 1951 and 27% today (Department of Employment Gazette, 1990). The work of women nevertheless continuing to lack status.

Martin and Roberts (1984) documented this long term trend of women's employment increasing from the 1950's in a time of economic growth and continuing through periods of economic recession so that women's activity actually increased at the same time as men's economic activity was decreasing.

C. THE PATTERN OF WOMEN'S WORK ACTIVITY

The pattern of women's working lives has changed over the years with their increasing involvement in the labour market. Whereas those who worked in the first half of this century normally gave up their jobs when their first child was born, a pattern emerged in the early sixties which showed two phases of work, both before and after they had completed their families.
This pattern became even more complex in the eighties with women working between the births of their children. Dex (1985) divided women's working lives into the 'family formation phase' and the 'final work phase' and suggested that this resulted in women working for a much longer proportion of their lives than they had done in the past.

In spite of this increased involvement very few women in the eighties worked continuously (i.e. taking no more than six months maternity leave before returning to work), but with increase of 'career break' schemes for professional women and the expected skills shortages, it is likely that the nineties will see a considerable increase in the number of women who do work continuously.

D. TWO-TIER SYSTEM OF EMPLOYMENT

In 1954 Kerr developed a theory of employment in the labour market in which he divided the workers into two sectors. The primary sector workers had relatively high economic rewards and a great deal of employment security because of their skills. They were also well organised into trades unions or other associative bodies. The secondary sector workers had little security of employment and received lower than average wages. They lacked skills and were not well organised by trades unions (Chapman, 1989, p.3).

Women are still recruited into this secondary sector, along with ethnic minority groups and the very young and the elderly.
(Payne, 1987). These workers have very little power in the labour market or in society in general.

It seems surprising that the increase in female economic activity in recent years has not resulted in greater emancipation for women in the workplace. In fact the Institute of Manpower Studies at Sussex University has suggested that this increase will actually contribute to the formation of a two tier system where women will form a large proportion of a highly marginalised peripheral group whilst men will make up the majority of a highly skilled core of professionals.

Although the Sex Discrimination Act was intended to overcome the problem of gender differentiation in employment it probably resulted in employers increasing segregation between men and women's work in the workplace in an effort to avoid giving equal pay. This was because although there were increased pay settlements for women as a result of the Equal Pay Act, men demanded increases too in order to compensate for the loss of differentials (Snell, 1979).

Hakim has argued that this has resulted in patterns of both horizontal and vertical segregation remaining unchanged in over eighty years. She suggests that even if it appears that horizontal segregation has diminished slightly it is more likely to be that men have moved into what was traditionally women's work rather than the other way round. She says that vertical segregation has increased because men are more likely to be found in the higher grades (Hakim, 1981).
E. THE CIRCULAR RE-INFORCEMENT OF GENDER STRATIFICATION

Gender stratification can be used to explain this process which results in many women being placed in the secondary sector of a two tier labour market. Some employers have certain expectations of their employees which are re-inforced by the employees' accommodating their behaviour to these expectations, which in turn cements the employers' view (Barron, 1976).

A few employers say, but do not wish to be quoted because of the Equal Opportunities legislation, that that they feel that it is not worth employing women in primary sector jobs because of their family responsibilities and the fact that they often leave to have children means that they do not feel that it is worth training them. The fact that some women do leave their jobs re-inforces this view, whereas men who move from their jobs are considered to be making necessary career moves. In many organisations women are recruited with lower qualifications in 'supporting' roles whereas men are recruited into 'fast streams'.

F. WOMEN'S OWN ATTITUDES

As well as the attitudes of employers, women's own attitudes to employment have affected their careers. This is because women's lives are phase-specific. Whereas men usually have continuous employment profiles this is unusual for most women who are likely to have their employment broken whilst they have children, often returning to part-time rather than full-time work, when their responsibilities diminish, and usually carrying the double burden of looking after the home as well as doing a job. (Oakley, 1974, p.183; Martin, 1984, p. 100).
G. OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION

The workforce is sub-divided and differentiated into sub-sets with female workers concentrated within a narrow range of occupations (Bilton, 1982, p.335) particularly those of the lower-paid and of part-time workers (Martin, 1984, p.33).

The terms 'sex' (referring to basic physiological differences) and 'gender' (for culturally specific patterns of behaviour) have both been used to describe some varying forms of occupational segregation.

The vertical division of labour, ranked in a hierarchy of levels sometimes called Gender Stratification (pp.57-58 above) refers to the extent that men and women 'who are otherwise social equals .. are equal in their access to the scarce and valued resources of their society' (Chafetz, 1990, p.29) and, in most circumstances, this implies 'superior power for men' (p.33).

Horizontal occupational segregation in employment is sometimes called Gender Differentiation (pp. 60 - 73 below) and the process by which males and females, as individuals, come to be gender differentiated is known as 'Engenderment' (Chafetz, 1990, pp.30,71).

Although such segregation has declined in recent years (England, 1981, pp.273-293 ; Biebly & Baron, 1984, pp.27-55), Hess says that women sometimes enter a male field just as it is being phased out or deskilled' (1988, p.289). Research has been applied to measuring occupational segregation in terms of a 'segregation index' (Duncan & Duncan, 1955; Jacobs, 1983) since it is only by quantifying it that it is possible to investigate trends over a number of years.
Much of the lack of equality of opportunity is as a result of the system of gender differentiation which still exists in the world of business and employment in spite of recent changes and the legislation which was intended to improve access for women to a wide range of occupations. Change will be needed in gender differentiation before there is real equal opportunity in the fields of employment.

THEORIES ABOUT HOW GENDER DIFFERENTIATION IN EMPLOYMENT COULD BE CHANGED:

1. IDENTIFICATION OF POTENTIAL TARGETS OF CHANGE

In order to change the system of gender inequality that is so deeply embedded in modern Western Society, it is first necessary to identify the supporting structures of gender differentiation which are not so manifest in this industrial culture as in more obviously primitive societies.

In pinpointing the potential targets it is also necessary to distinguish between those which may be readily amenable to change and those which though theoretically more important are not so readily altered, in order to evaluate which targets would be the most 'cost effective' in time, money and significance, so that a strategy for producing change in employment practice could be pursued.
POTENTIAL TARGETS FOR CHANGE

The main potential targets for change in gender differentiation lie in the following areas:

a. CHILDHOOD ENGENDERMENT
b. EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT
c. PUBLIC AWARENESS AND 'GENDER CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING'
d. LEGISLATION
e. ENGENDERED EMPLOYMENT (THE GENDER DIVISION OF LABOUR)
f. COMPOSITION OF ELITES

In the following Section each of these potential Targets will be considered in turn and then assessed as to the feasibility of success in changing them. In discussing which will be the easiest it is necessary to consider opportunities, time factors, cost and also means, as for example, using socially active movements which are already in place.

Finally the relative importance of the targets will be evaluated and the most effective methods of instigating necessary change will be assessed. The effectiveness of the workshop method, which may be appropriate at several different levels, will be considered as part of this assessment.

a. CHILDHOOD ENGENDERMENT

Chafetz (1990, p. 71) says that Childhood Engenderment 'entails the internalisation of gender social definitions, so that they become basic components of people's personalities, self-concepts,
and perceptions and evaluations of reality and result in gender-differentiated adults.

Both the Neo-Freudian Theory and the Socialisation Theory (or Cognitive Social Role Theory) have implicated Childhood Engenderment as a major inhibitor of change in Gender Differentiation. The Socialisation theory is supported by parental behaviour in children's early years with gender-related colours in clothing and room decoration, gender-specific toys and games and by the sexism shown in media advertisements, television programmes and books. In addition to parents, friends and school teachers all act as gender-differentiated models and their attitudes may imply positive sanctions which 'reward' children for exhibiting the 'correct' gender trait.

Both theories of Childhood Engenderment make the assumption that it has a lifelong, immutable, effect on gender self-identity, but, as has been argued before, women who experience expanded roles or who join certain women's groups or classes, develop an awareness of gender anomalies and rapidly adjust their thinking and change their self-identity. Thus the new gender consciousness occurring in adulthood overrides effects of childhood engenderment, which cannot therefore be said to be unchangeable.

ASSESSMENT OF CHILDHOOD ENGENDERMENT AS A POTENTIAL TARGET OF CHANGE.

Childhood Engenderment is not an easy target because although it may be slowly eroded over generations as parents apply new norms to the process of bringing up their children, it would require an
intensive educational campaign and a large number of trained and interested adults to monitor and guide any rapid changes in the gender differences in the family life of pre-school children which is founded so much on traditional mores and not only exercised by the parents.

Fortunately, a current research theory concludes that there is no direct link between childhood engenderment and subsequent adult behaviour (Epstein, 1988) and another piece of research concludes that, as children also observe how those of the opposite gender behave, they are able to call up this different behaviour in appropriate social situations (Katz, 1979).

b. EDUCATION AND EMPLOYMENT

b(i). In the field of Education

Eileen Byrne referred to women’s education when she gave the Helen Wodehouse memorial lecture on ’Women, Education and Development in the 1980’s, in which she stated that the education we provide for women and girls (or for men and boys) is 'directly determined by our concept of the adult roles which we see them playing in their particular culture or society’. She added that she could find no country in which women made up more than 10% of the leadership of educational planning and that decision-making remains essentially a male power in the key areas of resource allocation and of vocational education in particular. (Byrne, 1980).

The basis of education and curriculum planning in most societies has been the preparation of boys and girls for different adult
roles, or as Newsom (DES Report, 1963 p. 37) described it 'girls were educated for the 'vocation' of marriage'. Teachers, parents and children still consider subjects like domestic science, languages and biology to be more suitable for girls, whilst science and technology are considered to be more suitable for boys.

b(2). In the Field of Employment

Rosabeth Kanter (Kanter 1977) suggests that, regardless of gender, men and women respond in a similar way when their employment situations are similar, but that women do not have the same level of opportunity that men enjoy. She says that women are more likely to be tokens at the high income, managerial levels of an organisation and that these different levels reinforce gender stereotypes, thus maintaining the status quo and keeping women in positions of disadvantage.

Kanter says that organisations could change their procedures and reduce the gender stratification in their job structure if they were to use affirmative action to increase training opportunities, modify very large departments so that they became decentralised, encourage 'sponsorship' of women by senior management and also facilitated 'networking' among employees.

The importance of employment as a target for change, in terms of its gender divisions and the effects of male elites and superior male resource-power, cannot be over emphasised and it is worth noting that some countries have acknowledged the inter-relationship of the social theory definitions of education,
employment and domesticity by attempting to deal with them together (see below).

Countries with changing social theory definitions:
Sweden has led the way in showing how social theory definitions can be changed by integrating its educational, family law and legislative structures and has formally redefined the social expectation as follows:

- Working Life: Two Breadwinners
- Family: Equal Parents
- Society: Two Citizens
- Leisure: Two Individuals

Consequently they have developed a programme for both boys and girls in their schools which has a common core of educational preparation in childcare, parenthood, domestic economy and personal relationships, and for the adult population there are extensive child care facilities and parental leave for parents of both sexes (Liljestrom, 1978).

Other countries (Byrne, 1980) have used government legislation to accelerate change by re-defining the balance of sex-roles in constitutional terms as well restructuring the educational system so that both sexes are prepared for inter-changeable dual adult roles in both home and workplace.

The main difference between these models is that Scandinavian countries have restructured their policies on family law, labour-
market legislation and educational curricula to apply to both sexes, whilst other European Countries, including the old socialist Eastern Block countries, make exclusive provision for supporting the mother. Britain seems to lag behind many other Common Market Countries and in 1991 refused to implement the EEC's Social Chapter.

c. PUBLIC AWARENESS AND GENDER CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING

The Media

Women's role, as interpreted by media advertisements, newspaper stories, books, plays, and films, etc., falls mainly into one of two categories - either that of the sultry temptress or the domestic drudge. It is only rarely that the media shows women as educated, intelligent and thinking equal partners to men. This has two main effects: it reinforces the engenderment of children, by showing particular sex-role stereotypes, and it also underlines a poor self-image for many women.

Textbooks

The Standing Conference of European Ministers of Education in 1979 confirmed 'sex role stereotyping to an extreme degree' in the curricular materials in many countries and UNESCO commenced a series of studies of the portrayal of men and women in textbooks and educational materials in the 1980's which show women and girls as more passive, less adventurous than men and boys, rather than portraying the main active roles such as driving cars, flying aeroplanes or working with machines.
Sexist Language

Most recent research into language has highlighted the manner in which it expresses negative attitudes towards women and has explored the relationship between women’s societal status and the linguistic labels available to them (Holmes, 1991). It investigates morphological processes (adding affixes such as ess or ette for female forms to the male base (Baron, 1986) and also looks at the larger range of images (usually derogatory in terms of food, animals and objects) used to describe women rather than men. It also shows that terms systematically used to describe women acquire negative connotations over time (Holmes, 1991, p. 214). Other recent investigations claim that it is male metaphors that are used to define reality (Blewett, 1988).

ASSESSMENT OF PUBLIC AWARENESS AND GENDER CONSCIOUSNESS RAISING AS POTENTIAL TARGETS OF CHANGE

Changing public perceptions of Gender Differentiation has been seen as important by women’s organisation pressure groups, which have recently affected media advertising in newspapers and television by lobbying bodies such as the Advertising Standards Council, with the long term intention of reducing the level of gender differentiation in the population.

Modern feminists have advocated the raising of 'Gender Consciousness' among women and the general public by actively encouraging the spread of Women’s Studies Programmes and the production of Feminist literature.

Gender consciousness raising is one of the essential targets for
change because women themselves are often unaware of gender differentiation in employment, or even if aware of it, frequently accept it as a 'fact of life'. Men, too, do not always notice that opportunities in employment are not equally distributed between men and women until this has been drawn to their attention. Hence, as has been said earlier, this must be one of the first to be considered because, until this has been addressed so that people become aware of the inequalities and co-operate in the desire for change, it will be more difficult to deal with the other targets.

Workshops can be very effective vehicles for raising women's gender consciousness, improving their self esteem and 'empowering' them to make decisions and take charge of their own lives. There are also many training type workshops to help with personal development, by teaching management and other skills, in order to 'forward' their careers. Organisations and professional bodies also put on 'Women Returner' Workshops to improve the confidence of those who are returning after a career break or childbirth.

These are therefore some of the reasons for workshops being the emphasis of this thesis because they are so widespread and because they are a comparatively cost-effective way of dealing with this problem.

Workshops play a major role in training (see the case studies in Chapter 9). They are also utilised in Industrial Organisations in several fields such as Management and Recruiters' awareness of
equal opportunity legislation, employee's personal development skills, job skills and career development skills in order to further the employees satisfaction in their job and for 'women returners'.

Workshops are also effective in conscious-raising for women who are in low-paid occupations, caring for their children at home or unemployed. This type is frequently organised and funded by women's groups to reach 'disadvantaged' sections of the female population which are not 'articulate, white, middle-aged and middle-class'.

d) LEGISLATION

Since the Equal Pay Act of 1970 had made sex discrimination, in contractual terms and conditions of employment, unlawful, other legislation concerned with the problems of unequal treatment followed. These were the White paper 'Equality for Women' (1974), which covered the right of individual access to legal redress, and the Sex Discrimination Act (1975), based upon it, plus the Race Relations Act (1976).

In 1974 Britain joined the EEC, which was developing a parallel set of rules about equal treatment for the two sexes, both by actions such as the issue of Council Directives under the Social Provisions of the Treaty of Rome, and through decisions of the Court of Justice, which had always regarded the elimination of discrimination based on sex as a general principle of Community law.
Proceedings brought against the British Government for infringement of the Treaty of Rome in relation to Equal Pay and Sex Discrimination, resulted in amendments to the law in 1983 and 1986, with future changes to cover a common age of retirement for men and women, but nothing yet on the lines of the European Social Chapter.

The consequence of having such a variety of sources of law means that individual cases can evoke costly and delayed actions, and in respect of this, the Equal Opportunities Commission in the document, 'Equal Treatment for Men and Women' (EOC, 1988), argues that there is a need to create 'a new code of domestic law framed to meet the current needs of the United Kingdom and recognising the applicability of European Community law'. The EOC further states that the creation of a framework within which good practice can develop is more likely to be achieved if its basic provisions are expressed in a positive way rather than negatively in a series of prohibitions. Thus the basic principle could be defined as a right to equal treatment rather than a right not to be discriminated against.

ASSESSMENT OF LEGISLATION AS A METHOD OF DECREASING GENDER DISCRIMINATION

Obviously legislation has the greatest effect in that the force of the Law ensures that equal treatment is given to both sexes, however legislation is frequently modified and changed in the light of its working experience and thus it takes a long time for all the wished for changes to take effect comprehensively. Moreover laws which are not respected are frequently dismissed or
avoided by juries failing to find guilt.

Legislation is a necessary and essential end product of a process which would transform gender discrimination in the employment of women. But it must be emphasised that many other factors such as education, public opinion, lobbying by organisations and the agreement of a powerful, mostly male, elite are fundamental to the procedure of change occurring at all.

e. ENGENDERED EMPLOYMENT

Engendered Employment, or the Gender Division of Labour, which usually results in women having less access to opportunities and awards has been discussed earlier on pp. 71-75.

ASSESSMENT OF ENGENDERED EMPLOYMENT (THE GENDER DIVISION OF LABOUR) AS A CHANGE TARGET

This is an important goal and has been recognised as such by many countries. For instance, the United States has instigated a policy of 'affirmative action' to encourage women to seek jobs which had once been traditionally filled by men and in the UK 'positive action' mentioned in the EOC Consultative Document, 'Legislating for Change?' (EOC, 1986) attempts to distinguish between 'warm encouragement' to improve the position of the disadvantaged and what has been described as 'reverse discrimination'.

The effects of gender division of labour are very complex, not only with regard to the market place, but also with the wider
implication that if it decreases there will be fewer 'differentiated' adults in future generations and the social definitions which distinguish between the sexes would decline. The consequences of maintaining the gender division of labour would result in the additional effect of bolstering the gender stratification of labour and unequal division of male and female resource power and hence wealth and power, so that it has to be an urgent target.

Recruitment is one point at which change may be instigated and many firms are using workshops to train their management to put Equal Opportunity policies into effect as well as arranging Workshops for Women Returners and Workshops for Personal Development to encourage female middle management staff to apply for, and obtain, promotion.

f. THE COMPOSITION OF ELITES

The basis of entry to the elite in Britain seems to be via wealth or economic power and educational advantage. Although the stated purpose of government is to give more people the opportunity of advancement, prominent people commonly perform multiple elite roles and act as gate keepers to prevent other categories of people entering their ranks. Thus until recently the correct (Public) school and the correct University, (Oxbridge), were necessary before one could be considered for advancement in certain careers, and if one looks at the sex of incumbents of positions of power it is obvious that, even if racial, religious or class backgrounds differ, the elite are almost uniformly male. (See Figure 4.2, p. 91, for 'Cumulative Model showing Barriers to Women' which prevent them from joining the ranks of the elite.)
The composition of elites is therefore the most important, and perhaps also the most difficult, target for change. Even women political leaders such as Margaret Thatcher, Corrie Aquino, Golda Meir and Indira Ghandi, failed to pursue policies of gender equality, and as 'tokens' (Kanter, 1977) subscribed to the values and priorities of their male peers. Elites may institute laws which aid the position of women, but are careful to guard their own privileged status and avoid anything involving the sharing of perquisites or the redistribution of power. In Gamson's study (1975) of groups challenging elites, those whose goals included displacing them were far less successful than those who sought a more limited change.

Because the number of elites is limited there will always be competition from those men who also feel entitled to assume elite roles, and without valid reasons the fact that groups pick their own kind will mean that they will be more successful than women. Chafetz says that the only way that women could gain a significant increase in the membership of the elite other than as that of the 'token', they would have to 'employ their resources collectively and coercively' and 'up the reward ante for male elites if they are included and the cost ante if they continue to be excluded' (Chafetz, 1990, p 222).

To make these changes Workshops could be used at several levels (Figure 4.1, p. 90) both in training skills for advancement in
careers and in personal development to give women confidence and
in women's organisations to make women aware of inequalities and
to disseminate information for pressure groups.

CONCLUSION

The models in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.2 (pp. 90 and 91) indicate
the way in which the various areas indicated above have re-
infused the negative aspects of women's position with respect to
employment, particularly in the case of lower paid or part-time
workers. From Figure 4.1, it can be seen that this model of
circular deprivation could be repeated in the next generation if
it were not interrupted. This use of workshops in the areas
indicated earlier in this section and in Chapter 9 should be a
cost effective way of changing women’s approach to employment
constraints by changing their attitudes.

Professional women suffer similar problems in that although they
frequently attain the ranks of middle management they encounter
'the glass ceiling' when they attempt to rise higher in their
professions. Workshops can assist in several ways in these
circumstances either by 'educating' senior management and making
them aware of what may be covert discrimination, or by the use of
training courses in leadership which can help people to gain
promotion. Women's professional organisations often provide
these and also arrange courses for women returners in their
field. For real change to occur it will be necessary to have more
women in the ranks of the decision-makers and among the elite.
Figure 4.4
Effect of gender constraints on 'life/work' models for women employed in part-time jobs or full-time low-grade work.

The Deprivation circle could be interrupted if:

a) Skills Training and Personal Development Workshops were used to change women's attitudes and increase their confidence.

b) Equal Opportunities' Workshops were used to change the attitudes of Employers and Educators, so that greater opportunities were available for women.
"Cumulative" Model showing Barriers to Women reaching "Top Jobs"

This cycle could be interrupted by providing workshops:

(a) for Professional Women Returners
(b) in Career Development & Management Skills
(c) in Equal Opportunities Practice for Senior Management.
CHAPTER 5: FEMINISM

INTRODUCTION

An analysis of Women's position in present-day society must involve a discussion of the structures and realities of everyday life in the past, with particular consideration of the methods used by Women to adapt to them or to attempt to change them. These movements for the Emancipation of Women occurred in many parts of Europe, their growth was followed in many cases by a later collapse, resulting frequently from changing political and economic structures.

The intellectual and moral justification for Feminism has its roots in the 18th Century 'Enlightenment' and the individualism of the Puritan ethic, with a later added impetus from the influence of Liberal ideology.

As mentioned in the previous chapter (Chapter 4), there were many changes in the social structure in Britain in the early 19th Century, with the decline of domestic production and the rapid urbanisation of society as people moved from the countryside to the towns. Women of all classes suffered from both political and economic disadvantages. Within the family situation they were subject to their father's authority before marriage, and after it to their husband's, who had complete control of their wife's property, income and children.

The Feminist movement thus began in an effort to address the problems of women's economic dependency and the exploitation arising from this.
A. EARLY FEMINIST MOVEMENTS IN EUROPE

The 18th Century intellectual "Enlightenment" theories covered many subjects in addition to those concerning the nature and role of women. Their main arguments were based on the premise that truth could only be obtained as a result of free and reasoned enquiry.

A German, Theodore Gottleib von Hippel, wrote a book called 'On the Civil Improvement of Women' in 1794, which argued that women's abilities were the same as men's 'but they are not simply neglected, they are suppressed'. Quoted by Evans (1979, p. 14) in 'The Feminists'. However few women could read and even fewer owned books, so it became the lot of the more educated then, as it was the lot of the middle class women later, to protest against their situation.

The French Revolution resulted in the formation of political clubs for women as well as men, and a woman of Dutch origin, Etta Paltm, spoke before the Assembly in 1789, asking for equal rights in education, law, politics and employment for women. She, with several other women, also tried to form a national movement of women's clubs, but these were dissolved by a Convention of 1793.

The French feminists were writers rather than politically expert and the Revolution resulted in little legislation to support women, (Evans, 1979, p. 16). However they, and the Enlightenment, inspired Mary Wollstonecraft to write 'A Vindication of the Rights of Women' (1792) which attacked the educational
restrictions that kept women in a state of ignorance. She argued that women were endowed with reason and therefore men’s dominance was arbitrary (Wollstonecraft, 1792, 1929 edition).

Also important in the development of Feminism was the social ideology of liberal Protestantism, which believed in individual rights and personal responsibility for one’s own salvation, which made both sexes equal in the eyes of God, as opposed to the attitudes of the Catholic Church which still treated women as inferior beings. Although earlier leading figures such as Martin Luther thought women were unfit for the Priesthood and wished them to stay at home as they had always done, the Protestant Reformation resulted in some new religious sects which advocated the complete independence of women.

These theories of the Enlightenment and liberal Protestantism came together in the 19th Century and produced a new creed of Liberalism which applied to women as well as men. This was illustrated by the liberal theorist, John Stuart Mill, who wrote an essay in 1869 which virtually became the feminist’s bible. This essay, 'The Subjection of Women', inspired women everywhere, and its translation into other languages over the next few years is said to have resulted in the foundation of women’s movements in very many countries beside Britain (Mill, 1869, 1929 edition).

Although the feminist movement had its roots in these intellectual ideologies its main growth in the 19th Century, and the widening of its appeal, occurred as the result of changes in people’s social and economic situations.
The effect of the Industrial Revolution was to replace the domestic production unit with larger industrial enterprises such as factories. This had the 'knock on' effect of reducing the old extended family unit to the more limited domestic one of a husband, wife and their children. Unmarried females, therefore, had to find work outside the home, which frequently consisted of only menial jobs and many were driven to prostitution.

The feminist movement was particularly concerned with the problems of dependent working class women, whom they felt were being exploited whether they were single, widowed or married. The best jobs were reserved for working men because of their need to support families but even those housewives who had formerly played an important role as part of the family production unit were forced to become dependent on their husband's earning capacity in order to feed and clothe their families.

Women from the middle classes also faced new problems as men's social aspirations often meant that they preferred to amass wealth and property before marrying and then treat their wives as solely ornamental assets, expecting them to sit at home with time on their hands and do nothing. At the same time unmarried middle class women who wished to retain the social class that they had been born into, and did not wish to be companions or governesses, began to demand admission to the professions, which had the further effect of causing them to agitate for admission to the universities in order to acquire suitable educational
qualifications. The fact that this would need legislative changes drove women to seek political power and hence campaign for the vote (Evans, 1979).

The situation of women improved in the 1850s with the Married Women's Property Bill in 1855, the 1857 Divorce Act (although still weighted in the husband's favour) and the Royal Commission report in 1858 recommending the establishment of a national system of girls' schools. Although these changes mainly affected the middle classes there was a growing concern for social reform generally (Chafetz, 1986, p. 113).

Some of the wider causes taken up by women were the abolition of slavery, prison reform, the movement to abolish the state regulation of Prostitution (supported by the Protestant Churches and the Trade Unions, which had been won over by Josephine Butler) and support of the Temperance Associations (Evans, 1979).

C. FEMINISM AND THE SUFFRAGETTE MOVEMENT

Feminism was seen to exist in two forms. The so called 'moderate' feminism, which was primarily of an economic character demanding improvements for women in educational, economic and legal areas and the 'radical' feminism concentrating on the demand for the vote or enfranchisement.

Many Feminist movements became linked to different political organisations with various aims thus causing a diversifying of effort which eventually led to the fragmentation of the movement. On the whole moderate feminists received more support because they appeared to be more respectable, and less threatening to
society, than the radical ones.

The female suffrage movement could be said to have begun in 1866 when 1499 women signed a petition which was delivered to Parliament demanding that women's suffrage be considered as part of the general movement for suffrage reform. This petition was presented to Parliament by John Stuart Mill and Henry Fawcett and its failure led to the formation of the National Society for Women's Suffrage in 1867 (Fulford, 1958, Chapter 4).

Millicent Garrett Fawcett replaced Lydia Becker as president of the National Women's Suffrage Society in 1890 and in 1897 all the existing British women's suffrage societies were united to become the National Union of Women's Suffrage Societies with a membership of 400 organisations in 1913, still without managing to obtain full suffrage rights for women.

The strength of the anti-suffragist movement added to their own internal wrangling led to the suffragists splitting into several different groups. One section, the constitutional suffragist society, the NUWSS, being led by Mrs Millicent Fawcett, who wished to continue to work with peaceful, law-abiding strategies, and another section being the original WSPU, led by Mrs Pankhurst and her daughters, who thought that success would only be achieved by using more militant tactics, but who alienated many of their followers by annulling the WSPU's constitution and adopting very dictatorial policies, resulting in the, less violent, breakaway movement known as the Women's Freedom League (Chafetz, 1986, p. 115).
This increased militancy, with aggressive tactics and mass demonstrations, partly occurred as a result of the suffragists' links with socialist women's organisations and the Labour party as a consequence of their disappointment with the Liberals who, although they had come to power in 1905, still avoided giving women the vote.

The 1914 war brought a moratorium with women being encouraged to work in factories and relieve men from other jobs so that they could fight and the suffragists suspended their activities as a mark of patriotism and because politicians of all parties promised them the vote when the war had been won.

Although the situation had not improved remarkably for all women it could be said that the end of the Great War coincided with the end of the 'First Wave' of Feminism, with twenties and thirties giving women much more freedom as families became smaller and girls had better schooling resulting in a wider choice of careers, women felt that they achieved much of what the Feminists had been agitating for. Even so women doing the same jobs as men were paid less and those employed by the State, such as school teachers and civil servants, had to give up their jobs if they married, due partly to the general state of unemployment as a result of the recession.

Some people perceive the rise and fall of this first wave movement as following a pattern which is the common fate of many movements of social protest. GAMSON, W.A., (1975) links failure of social protest groups with the movements being too large and
having too broad a range of goals, including radical demands that attack existing distributions of wealth and power. It is also probable that if partial success is achieved the impetus of the movement, and its support from the wider public, dies, or is at least diminished.

During the Second World War women were once more expected to do the jobs that released men for fighting and State Nurseries were provided so that even the mothers of young children could help the War Effort. When the war ended they were encouraged to give up their jobs to the returning men, but the 1947 Education Act stated that girls should have greater opportunities and the foundation of more 'red brick' Universities meant (after the backlog of returning Service men had been given priority) that there were many more chances for girls to receive further education. This resulted in a wider range of careers becoming available to women but there were still some professions virtually barred to them.

D. FEMINISM'S 'SECOND WAVE'.

The 'second wave' of Feminism occurred in the 1960's and 1970's as a result of the disappointment that women felt when they realised that men were still the decision makers and women were not generally that much better off than their mothers had been. The new Feminists thought that the key to their lives was to be free to make choices and the 'pill' certainly had the effect of releasing them from many of the problems that had beset the women
who had tried to be economically independent of men earlier in the century.

As with the first wave the majority of second wave feminists were educated middle-class women (Evans, 1979, p. 31; Chafetz, 1986, p. 101). In a similar manner to the way that education opened women's eyes to inequalities in the first wave, so the second wave of feminism occurred as a result of a higher percentage of 'middle-class educated married women in the paid labour force, with males as a comparative reference group' (Chafetz, 1986, p. 101). She argues that the number of women experiencing role/status dilemmas ...determines the magnitude of the social movement. Chafetz dates the beginning of the British movement as 1970, when a conference was held in Oxford (p.171). She identifies two main branches as a socialist oriented movement and a radical feminist one, but concludes that the British movement was comparatively small. This second wave, like the one in the States, has now diminished. Both movements have passed their peak and the reasons given by Taylor (1989, p. 485), that young women are less willing to devote their energies to this cause, and do not identify themselves as feminists, are probably also true here. Chafetz says that if a new wave were to emerge in the future it would have to focus on the continuing dearth of women in the ranks of the elite (Chafetz, 1990, p. 225).

The issue of elites was discussed at the end of Chapter 4 on employment and workshops were suggested as an important instrument of change for women in that they could be used to help professional women update their skills after career breaks, train
them in management skills in order to improve their chances of promotion and also be useful to inform senior management in organisations about equal opportunities legislation.

CONCLUSION

Women’s organisations, whether feminist groups or not, have long used workshops in order to teach women confidence or assertiveness skills in an informal setting. As mentioned in the literature review and again in Chapter 9, women appreciate this style of active learning (NIACE, 1991) and it is one way that a number of them could be helped to improve their self esteem, discover latent abilities and obtain information about job and training opportunities. The use of workshops, therefore can be a way of redressing the balance between men and women and restoring equality of opportunity, which is one of the aims of Feminism.
SECTION 3:
Methodological Approaches and First Results
CHAPTER 6: METHODOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

Before research commences the question which is formulated in the mind has already been shaped and influenced by life experience, observations and general reading and watching of press and media. These lead in turn to the identification of an interest, the selection of a general field of enquiry and finally to the formulation of a research question.

Initially the formal stages of research consisted of a review of the relevant literature in order to see whether the theme of investigating the workshop method as a change agent to women's attitudes, with the purpose of improving their self-esteem and hence their employment prospects, had not already been carried out. This was in effect a retrospective search, but there is a constant need for awareness of new information throughout a period of research and this is often culled from book reviews or articles about reports in relevant journals or the press. The changes in education and employment have been more numerous than usual recently, and many of the first references were superceded, so this necessitated an update to the literature review after about three years, which was sometimes dealt with by inserting new references at appropriate points in the text.

The retrospective literature review had to range over a fairly wide area because no single topic could cover this theme. The review, therefore, covered the main topics of the current
position of women in terms of employment and education, Workshop theory and Change theories and Research Methods techniques. In evaluating potential methods of investigation the initial search focussed on the continuing debate on the relative merits of Paradigm 1 and Paradigm 2. This was followed by examining a number of techniques including: interviews, surveys, questionnaire design and analysis, triangulation, observation, case studies and Illuminative Evaluation as tools for supplying a conceptual framework for, and gathering information to support the analysis of, the research question.

Following the literature review the material was considered, and reflected on, and a further section written about women in order to put their current position in perspective (Section 2).

OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH STRATEGY

The research strategy consisted of several stages:

The First Stage: interviews, discussions and general observations were used to substantiate preconceived personal ideas and to confirm findings from the literature survey about the current position of women (Chapter 7).

The Second Stage: a survey and questionnaire relating to undergraduates was developed to help clarify the actual research direction (Chapter 8).

The Third Stage: a series of Workshops were observed and/or facilitated. The methodology included using participant observation, designing and redesigning material as part of an
action research exercise, keeping a diary and writing some examples up as case studies. Participants in several workshops were given short questionnaires in order to inform this study (Chapter 9).

The Fourth Stage: investigated the facilitators’ role in theory and practice, with a third Questionnaire and follow-up telephone calls. This was to discover how their methods varied, the nature of the support 'materials' generally used and their views as to whether they agreed that even workshops of a short duration could provide a special experience for some women (Chapter 10).

The Fifth Stage: evaluation of the effectiveness of Workshops. The final part of Research Methodology is of course the action of 'writing up' itself, when one looks back at earlier work, listens again to taped interviews and by the process of review and contemplation reaches some conclusions.

RESEARCH TECHNIQUES USED

THE TWO PARADIGMS

It is interesting to see that Reber (1985, p. 512) points out that an earlier Penguin Dictionary of Psychology, published in 1952, and edited by Drever, 'didn't even list this term, yet in the decades since then it has become so important to psychologists that one can distinguish four separate relevant meanings. Thus we have progress!'. The most apt one that he quotes is, in my opinion, 'an orientation to or plan for research using a particular focus' (Reber, 1985, p. 512).
MODEL OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

RESEARCH QUESTION

LITERATURE SURVEY

INTERVIEWS

SURVEY 1
1. Pilot Questionnaire
2. Students Questionnaire
Computer Analysis & Conclusions.

FIELD WORK 1
Case Studies of a number of Workshops using Action Research, Observation and Diary Record.

SURVEY 2 & FIELD WORK 2
More Workshops (Diary continued)
More Action Research & Participants' Questionnaire to Design & Redesign a Core Workshop.

Update of Literature Review

SURVEY 3
Pilot Questionnaire
Facilitators' Questionnaire & Telephone research, Analysis & Conclusion.

FIELD WORK 3
Participant observation on Careers Workshop & Telephone Interviews

WRITING UP & CONCLUSIONS ABOUT VALIDITY OF RESEARCH.
The two approaches to research most frequently used have been called 'scientific' and 'holistic'. The scientific method is based on the natural sciences and frequently uses experimental methods to substantiate its findings. This is sometimes called an objective or reductionistic approach and is referred to as Paradigm 1.

The holistic method is based on anthropological methods where people are studied in their natural social setting. This is sometimes known as ethnographic research and may be called descriptive or naturalistic. This approach is referred to as Paradigm 2.

Research in social science examines human behaviour and activity, whilst educational research covers these areas but also concentrates on teaching/learning activities with an underpinning of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains, (Chapter 9), and much of the recent research in these areas could be classified as being in Paradigm 2.

Many people treat these two methods of research as being mutually exclusive, each having its own specific sets of concepts and particular methods of enquiry, so that research may be forced to adopt one mode or the other. However it is now accepted by many writers that if only one paradigm is considered much may be lost. Black, in the 'Overview' to his new book, says, with reference to these paradigms that 'when taken to less extremes, it can be said that they tend to complement each other, rather than compete. To choose one as a basis of research prior to planning may be a
philosophical decision, but also could be likened to opening the tool box, choosing a spanner and ignoring the other tools when faced with repair tasks. He goes on to say that 'To object to the findings of researchers who appear to subscribe to a supposed opposing paradigm is to ignore a considerable body of work', (from Manuscript of 'Evaluating Social Science Research', to be published in 1993). As stated earlier both paradigms were used in this research.

ILLUMINATIVE EVALUATION

'Illuminative Evaluation' is a research method developed as an innovative and effective procedure for helping educators to understand, arrange and interpret various complicated factually based phenomena. It is a general research strategy which aims "to be both adaptable and eclectic.........The problem defines the methods used, not vice versa' (Parlett, 1977, p. 17).

Parlett also says (p.24) that it 'concentrates on the information-gathering rather than the decision-making component of evaluation. The task is to provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex reality (or realities) surrounding the programme in short to "illuminate"'.

He explains that there are three stages to illuminative evaluation: first to observe, enquire further and seek to explain and then, at the second stage, enquiry to be more directed and selective, in other words to become more focussed on key issues and third, seek general principles, discern patterns and place findings within a broader explanatory context (Parlett, 1977, p.15)
These stages, particularly that of progressively focussing down on specific issues, so that problem areas become clarified and re-defined, are some of the reasons why illuminative evaluation is a particular useful tool for dealing with an investigation into workshop phenomena. The methods used of observing the situation, enquiring further and then seeking to explain how Workshops 'work' can be said to part of the process of illuminative evaluation.

One of the criticisms of illuminative evaluation (that it is not objective enough because the technique of progressive focussing could be affected by partiality on the part of the investigator) can be overcome by using the process of triangulation. In this research the results of the questionnaires provided a cross-check against the qualitative data; and an examination of workshop theory, case-studies and the workshop 'core/skeleton' provided a conceptual framework for the investigation.

TRIANGULATION

Triangulation, or the use of two or more methods of data collection, has been used in this investigation. A specific instance was that comments by interviewees about the self-esteem level of women and girls was confirmed by the data obtained from Questionnaire 1. The observation of, and comments from, the participants in Confidence Skills Workshops, provided further evidence in support of this (Chapter 9).

This technique is termed 'Methodological Triangulation' (Cohen, 1980, p. 208) because different methods were used to check the
reliability of the first interview assumptions.

INTERVIEWS
Interviews provide a useful method of sampling a broad range of opinions. They can be conversational and informal, using unstructured questions, or interrogational with the interviewer using tightly structured questions and retaining control. Their purpose can be simply information seeking or an interpersonal encounter.

In this research the first interviews, with single respondents, were used to evaluate ideas obtained from the literature search or from observation of every-day life, which were then used to assist in the development of Questionnaire 1. The first part of an interview was generally structured and consisted of questions on specific topics but for the second part the conversation was allowed to range over a wide area in order to explore the interviewee's views and attitudes.

The earliest interviews served a similar purpose to using survey questions but they were more flexible and wide-ranging and a tape recorder was used to record them whilst notes were also taken (Chapter 7). Later interviews were sometimes group interviews, similar to the one in which some students filled in a pilot survey and this was followed by a discussion, also taped.

THE SURVEYS
The survey method does not have to be synonymous with a particular technique of collecting information. In addition to questionnaires it can encompass techniques such as structured in
depth interviews, observation and content analysis (Marsh, 1982).

A survey describes the characteristics of a set of cases and seeks an understanding of what causes some phenomena, by collecting, describing and evaluating data. In this research project a mixture of paradigm 1 and paradigm 2 were used with the qualitative data which had been derived from observation techniques, the literature review and the interviews being then used to formulate the questions for the questionnaires.

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

This first questionnaire was different from subsequent ones in that its purpose was to investigate differences between the attitudes of male and female students and, as it was to be analysed on the SPSSX computer programme, questions could be formulated in such a manner as to take advantage of two way and three way tabulation. The hypothesis that there is a gender-related difference in approach to a variety of situations was tested by comparing obtained statistics and by cross tabulation. Three way tabulation and significance testing were also used in the analysis (Youngman, 1979, Chapters 8 and 9; SPSSX User's Guide, 1983). Youngman says 'most of the justification for including or excluding variables should be in terms of the research hypothesis' (p. 129).

Questionnaire 1: First Pilot.

In order to avoid this type of situation two pilot surveys were undertaken before the final design of the questionnaire was completed. The first pilot had been designed to be used for
female respondents but, after trying it out on a group of post-graduate M Phil and Ph D students (Chapter 8), it was re-drafted to cover both sexes.

Questionnaire 1 : Second Pilot.

This used several 'focus groups' of students, which had the advantage of tape recording comments and also meant that there was a 100% return! The students were first year under-graduates of Surrey University and consisted of two single-sex groups from the Physics Department and a 'mixed' group from the Linguistics and International Studies Department (Chapter 8). As a result of these two surveys the final version of Questionnaire 1 was produced (Appendix p. vi).

This was sent to over 600 first year under-graduates but, as a result of problems connected with the final survey being in the Summer term, only 220 replies were received (Chapter 8). These, however, confirmed the hypothesis that a number of both male and female students felt that women were less confident than men and many considered that workshops might be a useful way of remedying this. Another result of this questionnaire was the decision to switch the focus of the workshop away from the initial aim of considering female undergraduates to an investigation of women returners (Chapter 9). This led to the next stage of field work which was that of using practical workshops.

THE WORKSHOPS

The methodology used for investigating the workshops consisted of
a number of different techniques: participant observation when I attended them myself, using a diary to write up case studies of these, and similar techniques when I was the facilitator, observing as much as was consistent with that role and recording happenings afterwards. I also used action research to refine and re-design material for my own workshops.

ACTION RESEARCH

Action Research as originally conceptualised by Lewin has been described as 'research carried out with the express purpose of achieving an understanding of phenomena that leads to a practical application and solutions of real world problems' (Reber 1985, p. 3). People also quote Cohen and Manion's version as a 'small scale intervention in the functioning of the real world and a close examination of the effects of such intervention', (Cohen, 1980).

Borg says, when discussing field research, that 'a knowledge of why is usually more important both to the scientist and practitioner in the field than the knowledge of which method works best. In seeking out the why, the scientist isolates the essential elements in the method that are leading to superior results. These essential elements, once identified, may be applied to many different situations' (Borg, 1967, p. 20). He then explains that Action Research differs from Field Research because the process is about obtaining specific rather than generalizable scientific knowledge of the subject involved in the study.
Cohen and Manion point out that 'it is situational and modifications are continuously evaluated within the on-going situation'. They also suggest that Action Research is concerned with the means to effect innovation and change, whilst developing the theoretical knowledge.

In investigating workshops I have:
* tried to find out why they work as they do by examining specific instances
* been concerned with innovation and change
* redefined and modified workshop materials
* monitored processes using questionnaires, diaries, interviews and case studies
* used continuous evaluation of changes to individual workshops
* used an action reflection cycle similar to Lewin's four stages

So, although Action Research is frequently applied to a classroom situation where a teacher is 'both the practitioner and the researcher', I would argue that I have applied a modified Action Research methodology to my investigation into workshops.
THE CASE STUDY

This term has specific connotations in both medicine and social work and refers to a detailed account of the relevant aspects of an individual person.

The Concise Oxford dictionary (1990) defines a case study as:
1. An attempt to understand a person, institution, etc. from collected information.
2. A record of such an attempt.
3. The use of a particular instance as an exemplar of general principles.

Nisbet suggests that a definition of a case study comprises 'a systematic investigation of a specific instance' and goes on to say that the instance 'may be an event, person, or a group, a school, or an institution, or an innovation of a new syllabus, a new method of teaching, or a new method of organisation' (Nisbet, 1978, p. 3). The Case Study is now accepted in its own right as a research methodology.

In attempting to find a way of dealing with a number of workshops, it has seemed convenient to present them as case studies, because a quantity of information was separately gathered on each, using a variety of techniques, then recorded in order to be used in a general evaluation of the workshop method and to be able to support any valuable innovative techniques.
OBSERVATION

Observation, which is part of normal every-day behaviour, can be a useful research tool for conducting fieldwork. In this investigation observation was used to obtain data for Case Studies about workshops, because behaviour could be recorded as it occurred and it was also possible to observe a number of participants at the same time.

Gold (1958, p. 217) quotes Junker's four 'role-conceptions' for observers, which range from the 'complete observer' through the 'participant as observer' and the 'observer as participant' to the 'complete participant'. In this research 'participant observation' was used in some of the workshop fieldwork and 'complete participation' at other times (Chapter 9).

The ethical consideration was addressed in the workshops that I have quoted as detailed case studies by informing those running them that I was doing some research and might discuss the material. The advantages and disadvantages of participant observation are discussed in the Chapter 9.

NB This part of the fieldwork, investigating workshops, took well over a year and continued in parallel with the research that grew out of this exercise.

QUESTIONNAIRE 2

This questionnaire was given to the participants in one of the BBC WOMAN'S HOUR / PEPPERELL UNIT Workshops (Chapter 9) in order to explore their feelings about the benefits obtained by
Women Returners from this type of workshop and to find out whether or not, or, if they agreed, why, they felt the Workshop Phenomenon was particularly successful. The final questionnaire had been developed after two small pilots with Surrey University students and was a further attempt to investigate the mystery of the 'magic' effect of workshops.

NB At this stage I carried out a second phase of the literature survey as a result of numerous changes in the fields of education and employment.

QUESTIONNAIRE 3

This was developed because it became obvious that Workshop Facilitators were the people who might be able to diagnose how and why workshops had the effect that they did on some people.

The questionnaire had two main thrusts:

* to discern 'materials' and styles used in workshops and information about the facilitator's experience and their earlier careers;

* to elucidate what they thought the particular qualities were that distinguished workshops from other modes of learning and teaching.

This had been preceded by two earlier versions piloted with a member of the linguistics staff and five facilitators personally known to me. Questionnaire 3 was posted to 100 facilitators and 60 replies were received. A number of these were interviewed afterwards by telephone.
MODEL OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This model (p.105) gives details of the various research stages discussed in this chapter. It shows that the fieldwork research into workshops occurred simultaneously with the design and distribution of the questionnaires. The final Careers Workshop (the Farnham AE Centre Career Development Workshop) is mentioned specifically because it occurred when information from the earlier workshops and the questionnaires had been evaluated.

CONCLUSION

This chapter described the basic methodological techniques used in this thesis which combined Paradigm 1 and Paradigm 2 and used a number of different research instruments. The Paradigm 1 mode used structured interviews and survey questions to produce a conceptual framework. The Paradigm 2 mode used observation, unstructured interviews and open survey questions to produce what might be described as an illuminative evaluation framework.

The next chapter will describe how this research was carried out.
CHAPTER 7: THE INTERVIEWS

Introduction
The previous chapters examined the present position of women in respect of their education, employment and equality of opportunity and also enlarged on certain-relevant aspects of feminism. In the conclusion it also suggested that there are particular times when the Workshop method can be especially beneficial in helping to change women’s attitudes by improving their confidence and increasing their skills.

This present chapter describes the use of certain interviews in order to confirm or deny the validity of some ideas which arose after a discussion with some female post-graduate law students. They had expressed disappointment that the opportunity to experience a Workshop on Assertiveness Training had not been available to them as undergraduates.

They were unanimous in feeling they had had insufficient confidence on past occasions to enable them to ask questions in lectures and to participate in discussions during seminars. They also felt that the fact of their not having been officials in college societies made their curricula vita less valuable and impressive.

The interviews took place in two stages many months apart. The first stage occurred before Questionnaire 1 was formulated and distributed to first-year undergraduates. The second took place whilst the theory of workshops was being developed and Questionnaire 3 planned.
At each stage there were a number of individual interviews, discussed in this chapter, and several focussed group interviews (which will be discussed in chapters 8 and 9). There was also a variety of other comments and discussions, that helped to shape my developing views, which were noted but are too unstructured and diffuse to record here. This inevitably leaves me open to possible accusations of subjectivity or bias, but the informality of the expression does not necessarily invalidate its truth. Even so, for this reason I have found it necessary to use questionnaires in order to obtain a quantitative, objective and less equivocal understanding of these aspects of the investigation.

1. THE FIRST STAGE OF INTERVIEWS

A. METHODOLOGY

This first stage was intended as the opportunity to gather the views and opinions of both lecturers and students on the self-confidence and participation in university life of female students. The information derived from these interviews was then used to form survey questions for questionnaire 1, which were intended to establish whether people thought men or women to be the least confident sex in the student environment. It went on to ask whether there might be a means of remedying such a defect, if present, possibly by the use of workshops. The location of these interviews was generally at the house or office of those interviewed, except for two students who came to my house.
The structured questions asked whether people thought that:

during the first year at college or when?
The interviewees consisted of two students, a research fellow, a lecturer, a professor, a head of sixth form and a school head of department.

The students were not from the University of Surrey because the target group for the questionnaire was of that university. The other interviewees were chosen as being a not untypical cross-section of people dealing with students in hours of study and therefore fairly representative.

The purpose of the interviews was to gather opinions and reactions so a few structured key questions were asked initially, but the remainder of each interview consisted of two-way conversation. Ethical principles were observed by reminding participants that the interview was being conducted for research purposes and the presence of a tape recorder served to endorse this (Hull, 1984, p. 9).

Before conducting the interviews a short select list of questions was prepared and a checklist concerning interviews considered. (Wragg, 1978, pp. 21-22). The interviews were tape-recorded, so that they could be transcribed, but written notes were also taken. The interviewer and interviewee were seated comfortably and facing each other. All of the first group of interviewees were already known to me, so rapport was quickly established.
B. DETAILS OF INTERVIEWS WHICH TOOK PLACE IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER 1987 (F = Female; M = Male)

AR (F) Third year medical student. Had attended single sex school. She said that she felt embarrassed about asking questions in front of some hundred and fifty students, even when 50% were female. She thought that more boys asked them than girls, though mature students of both sexes were more inclined to do so. It was often the same people who did so each time.

She found it easier to join in discussions during seminars, because there were only eight or nine people present. She thought that boys were often rather more argumentative than merely asking questions, although some women could also be aggressive.

"In the first term," she said, "I was quite shy because it was all new. It took me longer than some people to start talking. After two years you get to know people. They are more like friends and will not laugh at you." She thought that a confidence skills workshop would be useful and that it might be best to attend it in the sixth form before going to University.

SH (F) Arts student. Had attended co-educational school. She said that she believed that the schools students came from made the main difference and that both male and female students from single-sex schools found difficulty in behaving naturally with the opposite sex during the first term.

She thought that a lot of girls were less confident than boys, but felt quite confident herself because of her school and
because of having a brother. She did not think that she would need confidence skills workshops, but thought that others might.

MS (F) Senior Research Fellow. Teaches three classes per week. Stated that most of her students were 19-20 year-olds and she had observed that 'boys were more confident than girls and seemed readier to ask questions'. She had also noted, however, that in a previous job 'women of twenty-five plus in Social Administration classes were far more ready to come forward with comments during lectures than younger men or women'.

She thought that girls from single-sex schools were generally less confident than others and had even noticed this factor in her own two daughters. The one who had taken O and A levels at a single-sex school was less confident than the other, who had studied Science A levels at a technical college.

She believed that subjects studied affected attitudes reinforcing skills and that arts students were more questioning and discursive than students reading sciences, where the nature of the subjects taught was less open to disputation. She said that 'one of the things that we should be thinking about for students of both sexes, is having a Study Skills Course for freshmen during the first term at university, with some parts aimed particularly at girls. We should say: "For Heaven's sake don’t hang about - do ask questions!"'. She thought that this course should be mandatory because 'girls may be aware of a need for training but those people probably would be too shy to go to classes'.
FM (M) Lecturer. Thought that girls were 'more confident than they used to be and much more career-minded because of wanting to earn a living'. There was a high percentage of girls in his classes.

DJ (F) Professor. Thought that still too few girls took science subjects at school and wished that one 'could think up a workshop to encourage more of them to do so'. She felt that the main problem with girls was that they tended to underrate themselves.

PS (M) Careers Officer. Thought that graduate recruiters were particularly interested in c.v.s and took notice of extra-curricular activities such as membership of college societies and of posts held. It was his impression that girls were now much more aware of the need to show evidence of interests beyond narrow subject boundaries than in the past. He provided workshops in interview skills and c.v. production for both sexes 'because boys need them too'.

LP (F) Sixth Form Department Head in a girl's school. Said she had noticed that the girls were 'much quieter than usual' when joined by boys from a neighbouring school for shared weekly 'Liberal Studies' classes. She would like them to have a confidence skills workshop on entry to the Sixth Form.

MW (M) Head of Department: Co-educational Comprehensive School. He said that in the 4th and 5th years, boys were far more confident than the girls. In the classroom they expected and
usually received more attention than the girls. He would have liked Assertiveness Workshops put on for girls at about the 4th year. He added that they might also be useful for boys, so that they might learn early the difference between assertiveness and aggression.

C. ANALYSIS

The method used to assess and analyse each interview was to play the tape whilst reading the written notes, annotate them further and then play the tape again and "high-light" the main comments. It was not considered necessary, at this stage, to produce a transcript of each tape, nor to analyse it by using either content analysis, i.e. classifying contents to bring out structure (Abercrombie, 1988, p. 50), or conversational analysis, i.e. providing description of the way in which a conversation achieves order (Abercrombie, 1988, p. 52).

More interviews were held, but when the interviewees answered the questions in such a manner as to express views not dissimilar to my own, I began to wonder whether they were not unconsciously saying what they thought I might wish to hear. I was also aware of Hull's idea of 'black market understandings' and of any accumulated knowledge I had of some of the interviewees 'meaning systems' which might affect my interpretation (Hull, 1984, p. 8). At this stage it seemed therefore a good idea to test out the theories derived from the interviews, by moving on to the questionnaire stage of the research (Chapter 8).
2. THE SECOND STAGE OF INTERVIEWS

As explained at the end of Chapter 8, my target group changed from female undergraduates to women returners. My original idea had been to develop a workshop which could be sent as a 'distance learning' package to other universities, piloted by staff or student facilitators and evaluated by tape-recording and questionnaire (Kaikumba, 1987, p. 59).

It seemed from the group discussions with students, however, that the young women did not feel unconfident, although their 'self-esteem' average score in the attitude test came out lower than that of the men.

There was, moreover, a very low response to my campus advertisement (University of Surrey) of free workshops on confidence skills. It might seem, therefore, that it would be even more difficult to disseminate the idea of workshops, encourage their use and monitor them in an area beyond my immediate control without some local enthusiasm.

It would also have been an expensive enterprise. It is interesting to note that the Open University in collaboration with the 300 Group are working on a multi-media self-study pack for women, which includes confidence and assertion building, and has had to postpone its publication because of the cost of materials.

The next stage related to the interview of a few people, who were experienced in organising workshops, about workshop phenomenon.
This consisted of questions as to HOW and WHY the workshop achieved its effect. The methodology was similar to that used in the first set of interviews but they were less structured as the object was to make the discussion as flexible as possible in order to inspire some innovative ideas.

LB (F), then Director of the Pepperell Unit of the Industrial Society, thought that the most important thing in life was to be ready to take advantage of unexpected opportunities. She believed that certain happenings in life effect change and that the workshop in vitro reaction 'could act as a trigger' for some people. She also feared that if women did not 'take advantage of present opportunities and move forward gaining strength and confidence', there was a danger of losing the ground which had been won.

EW (F), a Pepperell Unit Trainer and Workshop Facilitator, thought that people were usually 'more open on single-sex courses ... there is an amazing energy level because of trust and sharing...... less so on mixed courses'. She thought that at their best workshops could eliminate negative feelings and give people a 'framework for behaviour', so that individuals might feel - 'I did the best I could'.

She thought that relatively few women were in senior jobs because 'It is engrained in us what men can do and what women can do. I believed [in the past] that men were better because one sees them running organisations and in power positions'. Her courses are intended for 'treating women's fear of failure' - what she has
called 'the imposter phenomenon' of women in important positions still feeling 'they are going to find me out'.

MB (F), a Training Consultant, thought that the success of a workshop depended largely on 'the enthusiasm of the facilitator'. She felt that there is 'often the phenomenon of a workshop coming at the right time in a person's life, which just clicks, and results in a peak of insight'.

KP (M) of Cranfield, who trained people (mostly men) in leadership skills, thought that workshops 'are a useful way to train people in all sorts of skills, because they are active'. He used them for training in leadership skills and problem solving.

CONCLUSION

These qualitative interviews and fairly unstructured discussions from a cross section of the education and training orbit, have tended to confirm my view that workshops have been seen as an agent of change.

As regards women, it has been seen that they can create and bolster a confidence, only too often damaged in other less protected environments, and train them in skills for coping with jobs and lives. The many ideas discussed in these and other interviews helped me to formulate the content of Questionnaire 2 and Questionnaire 3, in order to try to find out more about how workshops were operated.

They also encouraged me to persevere in facilitating and
observing the workshop phenomena, in order to develop a 'core workshop' containing a few effective exercises, which could provide in microcosm the essence of what women might feel they needed in order to cope with their lives and careers. It would also serve as a single workshop of short duration or possibly as one element of a longer one covering perhaps an assortment of different skills (Chapter 9).

NB These exercises are mentioned in outline in the Appendix, pp. xxvi - xxvii, as part of Programmes 1 - 4.
CHAPTER 8: SURVEY OF STUDENT ATTITUDES AND AWARENESS

The material in this chapter will be dealt with under the following headings:

A. THE REASONS FOR USING A QUESTIONNAIRE.
B. THE FIRST VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE 1.
C. THE SECOND VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE 1.
D. THE FINAL VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE 1 AND THE ANALYSIS OF THE RESULTS.

A. THE REASONS FOR USING A QUESTIONNAIRE.

The purpose of this survey is to obtain data about the self-perceived confidence, participation in lectures, membership of societies and the holding of offices therein of female undergraduates.

Hence the first version of the questionnaire (Appendix, p. ii) that was constructed began with the questions being designed and phrased in such a way as to be directed at a group of female respondents only; but this was quickly replaced by a set of questions (Appendix, p. iv) which was intended to be answered by both male and female students.
B. The first version of Questionnaire 1.

I tried out this first version on a peer group of Surrey University M Phil/PhD research students, first explaining my reasons (outlined in chapter 1) for wishing to investigate the Workshop phenomenon and then tape-recording the discussion, so that it could referred to in subsequent modifications of questions. This confirmed me in my view that more information could be obtained if the questionnaire were to be administered to students of both sexes. Differences between the responses as a result of this would be readily apparent and the views of men and women about each other's reactions would also be of value.

It appeared that some people present were not certain what a workshop is (although most of the younger students were aware of this term and many activities advertised on the Campus were in a workshop format). I defined one as "self-contained, involving more than one teaching/learning method and engaging the participants in active involvement".

This produced a lively discussion and although the actual design of a workshop was not appropriate at this time, they agreed to assist me at a later date by participating in one.

In discussing women's confidence the view was expressed that the reason for them rarely obtaining higher grade jobs was structural and that Equal Opportunities legislation, which should remedy this, was not always implemented. Others said that they felt that women should not be changed, but that the 'environment' should.
CHANGES MADE TO THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The main difference between the first and second version of the questionnaire was to ask for the sex of the recipient. This was in order to see if any differences in the replies were related to this.

The other changes included:

* a 10 item scale question for evaluating self-esteem (rather than asking the respondent to rate it on a 1-5 Likert scale) so that it would be easier to obtain a measure of a participant's self-confidence and compare this value with the average for all.

* substituting the phrase 'University club, society or committee' in the second version because that of 'University related group' used in the first version was less explicit.

* substituting the term 'elected position' (on those bodies) for that of 'official representative' because this was also felt to be clearer and carried connotations of being elected to the position by the rest of the club, society or committee.

* asking 'how frequently does it seem to you that men ask questions compared with women?' (because this form of question was thought to show less bias) instead of 'in your experience, do women ask fewer questions than men?'

* altering 'how do you rate the number of questions that you ask compared with male students?' to 'how frequently do you ask questions?'

These changes were incorporated in the second version of Questionnaire 1, which was professionally typed and then reduced in size (from A3 to A4) so that it presented a more finished appearance.
C. THE SECOND VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE I.

SELECTION OF STUDENT SAMPLE

The method of selecting students was to ask for volunteers from the Physics Department and the Linguistics and International Studies Department. I decided to pilot version 2 personally in order to detect any potentially difficult questions and tape recorded their comments and following discussion for this purpose.

My reasons for doing this were as follows:

1) To gauge their reaction to the introductory letter which was to be sent with the questionnaire and to see if they thought it would be successful in obtaining the cooperation of the target group of students.

2) To see that the questions were clearly understood, or, if the wording was found to be ambiguous, to rephrase them in the light of the students' comments.

3) To see whether any of the questions were likely to be insensitive, or too personal for the students to want to answer them honestly.

4) To see how the groups interacted on the topics covered and whether any new ideas were generated as a result of the students' discussions.

5) The certainty of obtaining all of the questionnaires back because they were collected in at the end of the session.
It might be possible obtain more information from discussions arising out of a series of individual interviews, but even though a group interview takes more time than an interview with a single respondent (probably twice as long) it would not take as much time to cover the same number of correspondents as the estimated five per group. Also a one to one interview was likely to be more intimidating to the students than an interview that was partly a discussion with their peers, particularly when the person conducting the interview is not of the same generation as the interviewee.

The pilot group consisted of five male and five female Physics students and was intended to contain the same number of Linguistics ones but in the event seven female and only one male student arrived. Any research involving people will suffer similar hazards of last minute changes and in the case of the male Physics students the room which had been booked a month previously had also been booked out to a delegation of visiting overseas students who arrived half way through the session.

PROCEDURE USED

Coffee and biscuits were produced at the beginning of each session in order to make the atmosphere seem more relaxed and an explanation was offered as to the general purpose of the questionnaire and it was also pointed out that this episode was a pilot for a much larger survey that would take place later.
The groups were all given the questionnaire separately and a tape recorder was kept running whilst the students answered the questionnaires, so that any comments could be recorded and taken account of when the questionnaire was restructured. At the end of each session they were asked for general comments on the material covered by the questionnaire and reminded of the presence of the tape recorder.

In order that their voices could be identified later a plan of the students seating positions, round a table, was drawn and they were asked to state their names and the area of the country in which they normally lived.
C.2) PILOTING THE SECOND VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE 1

INTRODUCTION

As explained in Section C1, I interviewed the 18 students in four groups. The method that I used was to tape-record their general remarks whilst they completed the questionnaire forms and also when asking for specific comments at the end of each 'block' of questions. The students were separated into groups according to sex and department and talked freely to each other, so that it was also useful to record the general discussions that arose at the end of each of the four sessions. I have included some of these comments in this section and used others in different parts of the thesis if it seemed appropriate to do so.

I had been thinking of this exercise as being similar to the old style focus groups, but later read a paper (Day, 1992, pp 324 - 340) which suggested that there was a discrepancy between the results of a taped open group discussion and the views obtained by a questionnaire. The reasons given for this were the possible effects of peer group pressure in the group discussion or of group dynamics. I did not notice anything similar in these groups.

In section C.3) I have included the main results of the pilot survey in Tables 8.1 and 8.2 (pp. 140 - 142) followed by an analysis, and in section C.4) are the main changes which were incorporated in the third and final version of the questionnaire.
THE LINGUISTICS AND INTERNATIONAL STUDIES STUDENTS

Before meeting the Linguistics and International Studies students I had spoken to the French Lecturer who had been instrumental in obtaining the volunteers. He thought that things had changed in the last few years and that students 'no longer came for a general education, but more in order to get a job'. He felt that this meant that 'girls were 'waking up to the need to get on'.

THE FEMALE STUDENTS

I interviewed the Linguistics and International Studies girls first. They commented that they did not consider the questions insensitive and did not think that other students would object to completing the questionnaire. (The other groups agreed with this view).

They considered their course to be unusual for Surrey University as there were many more girls than boys on it, but they did not know which sex would ask the most questions if numbers were more even. They thought that girls who obtained University places were more confident than average, but some felt that confidence skills training would be an advantage, although they would prefer a book or a workshop as 'we have enough lectures already.'

The discussion then developed into why there were not so many women as men in 'top jobs'. Their view was that it was because 'women have to have the children.' They also said it was a result of male attitudes and one of them related an anecdote about
her friend, a Chemist, who had gone to Switzerland for her 'Industrial Year' and was treated 'as if she were one of the secretaries'. This produced murmurs of agreement from the others in the group.

THE MALE STUDENT

The single male student thought that the basic form of the questionnaire was viable and made some comments which reinforced my decision to modify it for the third version.

He had seen the previous group of girls leaving and asked if I had noticed how unconfident some of them were! (NB They all said that they did feel confident most of the time). He said that those girls from single sex private schools had all chosen to go to Universities that were near their homes 'because of their lack of confidence'.

He had strong views on the way women 'undervalued' themselves. His younger sister, who was 'far brighter' than he, and knew a great deal about every thing, had very little to say when he took her to meet his friends. His mother, who had had a 'very responsible' job, never expressed her views on politics at the dinner table and always deferred to her husband's opinion. His father, a director of ICI, frequently expressed the view that more women should be in management, but still treated the women in his family in an old-fashioned way and was reluctant for his mother to get a job.

He made a particularly interesting comment on the difference in
the way that male and female students asked questions. 'I ask what comes into my head and then think "what a stupid question" afterwards, but a girl has to be very sure about what she is asking and the effect on the class, first. I answer a question which at least three girls could answer better and they sort of go "urgh" and sigh and suppress a response'.

THE PHYSICS STUDENTS

I was given the opportunity to visit a first year physics practical class and explain that I needed a group of female and a group of male volunteers with whom to pilot the questionnaire. I obtained a list of five male and five female students who were willing to help me.

THE MALE STUDENTS

The male physics students all thought that it was important to join University organisations, although one said that he did not think it was a good idea just to do it with one's cv in mind as some students did. Several said that they would like to be officials of the societies which they were interested in but had not got enough time to spare and one said that he 'could not be bothered to make the effort'.

They thought that it was very important for Graduate Recruiters to see extra-curricular activities on a cv because it 'indicates leadership qualities' and 'shows you are able to work in a (project) team' and 'fit in with the rest of the employees' rather than being a 'miserable person who only works alone'.
However one said that he was not so sure of their importance because although he had been told how fundamental this was whilst at school he had not been asked anything about other activities in his interviews for University places. The other four said that this had not been so for them.

They were of the opinion that women did not ask questions as often as men did in lectures. It was difficult to comment on tutorials because in many cases there were no women in them.

There was a long discussion about what one meant by confidence and they commented that participating in the 'real' world gave one confidence and that one needed different types of confidence for different situations.

They had noticed that boys who had been to 'boys only' schools were very 'cautious' about talking to girls. They had also observed 'sexist' trainee managers whilst doing holiday jobs and thought that some men in management were worried about the increase of women in industry because they felt threatened by women whom they thought were after their jobs.

THE FEMALE STUDENTS

The girls said that their questions were of the same quality as the boys but that boys often tried to 'catch the lecturer out', and sometimes 'showed off', whereas girls frequently 'go' for more explanation. The boys sometimes think that a girl's questions are 'silly - just because you are female'. They felt that it was easier for men to get top jobs because they
'networked' them. For women there was always the 'Family dilemma' for 'how can it be easy for a woman to get on when she has to have the children'?

C.3) TABLES OF RESULTS AND ANALYSIS OF THEM

NB Notation used was as follows:

LF 1-7 represents Linguistics Female Students 1-7
LMI represents the Linguistics Male Student
PF 1-5 represents Physics Female Students 1-5
PM 1-5 represents Physics Male Students 1-5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wk</th>
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<td>S</td>
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<td>Self-Est</td>
<td></td>
<td>Self-Esteem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes to assist in interpretation of Tables.

(NB The full questions are in the Questionnaire in the Appendix on page iv).

Question 6 referred to membership of societies.

.. 7 .. to number of official posts held.
.. 8 .. to the importance of extra-curricular activities for Graduate Recruiters.
.. 9 .. to the relative frequency of questions asked concerning both Lectures and Seminars.
.. 12 .. to any perceived difference in quality of questions asked by male and female students.
.. 14.1 .. to past confidence skills training.
.. 14.ii .. to where this had taken place.
.. 14.iii .. to whether it would have helped.
.. 14.iv .. to where it should have been.
.. 15 .. whether students would like confidence skills training.
.. 16 .. to which would be their preferred method.
THE LINGUISTICS STUDENTS

TABLE 8.1

THE FEMALE STUDENTS

<table>
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<th>No of Students</th>
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<th>14 Self</th>
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Av (LF) 1.7 0.57 4.42 2/3 3.3 3/3 27.42 N

THE MALE STUDENT

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## THE PHYSICS STUDENTS

### TABLE 8.2

**THE FEMALE STUDENTS**

Refers to Quest Nos 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, i, ii, iii, iv, 15, i6

| Student No | No of Grad | No of Quest | Quest Self | (14) conf W | code soc’s offic Recr L/S L/S Style Est Y/N P Y/N P Y/N Y/N Y/N |
|------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| PF1        | 4         | 2           | 5          | 3/3         | 4/5 same           | 30 N - Y Sc Y -         |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PF2        | 4         | 0           | 5          | 3/3         | 4/5               | 30 N - Y Sc Y Y        |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PF3        | 0         | 0           | 5          | 3/3         | 4/5               | 35 N - N Sc? Y N       |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PF4        | 2         | 1           | 5          | 3/3         | 4/5               | 22 N - Y Sc Y Y        |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PF5        | 0         | 0           | 5          | 3/3         | 4/5               | 28 N - Y Sc Y Y        |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| **Av (PF)**| 2         | 0.6         | 5          | 38/34       | 28/38             | 29 N - Y Sc Y Y        |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |

**THE MALE STUDENTS**

Refers to Quest Nos 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 12, 13, i, ii, iii, iv, 15, i6

| Student No | No of Grad | No of Quest | Quest Self | (14) conf W | code soc’s offic Recr L/S L/S Style Est Y/N P Y/N P Y/N Y/N |
|------------|-----------|-------------|------------|-------------|----------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| PM1        | 2         | 0           | 5          | 3/3         | 1/4                 | 37 N - ? Sc ? Y         |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PM2        | 1         | 1           | 5          | 4/5         | 2/4                 | 26 N - Y U Y Y         |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PM3        | 1         | 0           | 4          | 4/5         | 3/-                 | 31 N - Y U Y N         |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PM4        | 2         | 1           | 5          | 4/5         | 3/4                 | 36 N - Y Sc - Y        |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| PM5        | 2         | 0           | 4          | 4/2         | 2/5                 | 32 N - Y U - Y         |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
| **Av (PM)**| 1.6       | 0.4         | 4.6        | 36/-        | 2/4                 | 32.4 N - Y             |                         |                      |                        |                       |                      |
ANALYSIS

The results of the pilot survey were averaged out for each set of students. The sample was too small for there to be any real statistical significance so it was the comments that the students made which were valuable in determining the final form of Questionnaire 1.

The Female Physics group scored the highest average (2) for society membership and also for society officer posts (0.6), whilst the Male Physics students scored the lowest for both of these (which was not what I had expected) but had the highest self-esteem score (32.4).

Thirteen students thought that it was 'very important' and four that it was 'important' for Graduate Recruiters to see extra curricular activities on a CV.

More than half of the students thought that a workshop would be a good way to acquire confidence skills and 8 thought they would have preferred to have this at school, whilst 5 thought that the University would be the best place.

C.4) MAIN CHANGES TO BE INCORPORATED IN VERSION 3 OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

In Questions 1-5: 'Home Location' and 'Department' included and 'Type of School' omitted because students had been in a University environment long enough for this to have less significance.
In Questions 6 - 7 (replaced by 6 - 9)

Several students made the comment that 'everybody joins everything in the Freshers' week'. Hence 'Have you ever been a member of any University Club... etc?' was replaced by 'Have you been a member ...... for at least a term?' A 'skip/filter' device was included in questions 6 and 7 by introducing the two extra questions.

The Graduate Recruiter's Question now became 11 and was followed by a new open-ended question (12) about what benefits the students themselves thought accrued from this.

Questions 13 and 14 in the new version replaced the term 'seminars' with 'seminars/tutorials' because different departments used both terms for small groups of students.

These were followed by question 15 in the new version, which asked how many student of each sex were in the lectures, seminars or tutorials which had been referred to in the previous question because this also affected the students approach to answering or asking questions.

Question 13 the self-esteem question was moved to an earlier position (number 10) because the instructions to tick the answers fitted in with this question.

Question 14 was moved to a later position (question 18) and asked about 'assertive skills' as well as 'confidence skills' training, because some students were more familiar with this term.
Question 16 was replaced by question 20, which listed possible preferred methods of receiving confidence or assertiveness skills training.

D. THE FINAL VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

THE POSTAL SURVEY

Two sets of 600 departmental address labels for first year under-graduates were obtained from the Surrey University Registry, and numbered 1 - 600. It was important to stipulate that these were for first years attending normal under-graduate first degree courses (the target group) as there were many students from other courses 'stored' on the computer.

The letters were printed and ready to send out in May 1988, in order to obtain the replies by June 6th, 1988. Some of the letters were put in the internal post, but where there were large numbers of students from the same department, I took them there. In many cases I personally placed them in the pigeon holes, but some of the secretaries kindly offered to do it for me. I was obviously very grateful for this help, which saved much time and effort - except in one case referred to later!

RECORDS

I marked each respondent number in a Reporters Notebook and colour coded them according to their departments, so that I could mark each completed questionnaire off as it was returned. When the deadline had passed I realised that one department had returned no questionnaires at all! This seemed statistically
unlikely and, on investigation I discovered that all 90 questionnaires had been placed in a cupboard in the departmental office.

I put up SOS notices in the department concerned, but there was only a very low response rate because some of the students had left early. I also put 'thank you' letters up in all the other departments, asking anyone who had not done so to 'send it now, please', and telephoned all the departmental secretaries and left new questionnaire forms with them.

The final response rate was poor - only 222. This was probably because it was by now the end of the summer term, many students had exams, some language students had left early to go abroad as part of their course. However as my main aim was to investigate student opinion, this 'opportunity' sample, with additional comments in the open-ended questions, served my purpose and also taught me about many of the problems that can arise in the design and administration of a questionnaire.
D. DESIGN OF THE FINAL VERSION OF QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (Appendix, p. vi) AND SOME RESULTS

D 1. Reasons for choice and style of questions.

It was intended to make the questions clear and straightforward and not long or ambiguous, hence short sentences were used and double-negatives avoided.

The questionnaire was typed on large paper (A3) and then reduced to standard A4, taking up only three sides. This had the advantage of not appearing to take too long to answer, which was intended to be encouraging and in a timed 'pretest' run, with two students from another University in order not to contaminate the sample, this format of the questions did take only about five minutes to answer.

Variety was built into the questions both in the difference in type of question and method required to answer it and in the visual appearance of the layout of each page.

Many of the questions were 'closed' and could be answered with a simple tick for the required choice; but these were interspersed with some 'open' questions, both for variety and for eliciting a wider selection of ideas from the students.

'Closed' questions assist the speed of answering the questionnaire but have the disadvantage that they communicate the same frame of reference to all of the respondents because they force them to choose between the same limited number of the offered alternatives. 'Open' questions widen the field but
present difficulties in devising a scheme for coding the answers in order to analyse the results.

D 2. The Questions, and the reasoning behind them.
All papers were given a respondent number for administrative purposes and an optional space was left for the student's name at the beginning of the questionnaire. Asking for the respondents name is sometimes considered to be intrusive and for that reason may then be left among the more sensitive questions put at the end of a questionnaire, but students frequently fill in forms giving their names and none of the pilot survey students thought that being asked for one's name or age would be felt to be too intrusive after a student had read the covering letter.

The questions can be considered to fall into specific groups:

D 2.A. Factual Questions.
1 to 5, on Sex, Age, Home Location, Faculty, Department, were chosen to give a picture of the students background.
222 students replied - 129 male and 93 female, all but 26 were under 21 and all but 16 gave the UK as their home location.

D 2.B. Membership of University Societies, etc.
Questions 6 to 9 were aimed at elucidating how many were members of University Clubs, Societies or Committees, how many clubs, etc., they belonged to and whether they had been elected to hold any office in these.

Question 6 was a 'skip' or 'filter' question and those that said that they had never been a member of a society, etc., were moved
on to question 8 which asked if they would have liked to be a member, and if so to suggest reasons why they were not.

Those who answered 'yes' to 6 were then asked how many clubs they belonged to and what were the areas of interest covered by those clubs, etc. They were then moved on to question 7 and asked if they had ever held an elected position in those clubs or if they had not whether they would like to have done so.

The reasoning behind these questions was based on a book about 'self esteem' and teenagers in which the author investigated the correlation between the self esteem 'factor' of American teenagers and the number of clubs that they belonged to and the number of them who held elected offices. He found that the more self-confident students belonged to more societies and held more offices (Rosenburg, 1965).

The other reason for investigating this phenomena was the fact that in the graduate recruiters' handbook they expressed a preference for students who took part in extra-curricular activities and served on, or chaired, committees which would enhance their inter-personnel skills and bring out their Leadership qualities. They said that these were important because 'selection processes are much more reliable when evaluating past performance than when predicting untried potential'. As well as extra curricular activities they argued for more project/research work to learn to manage their time and more basic skills courses.

N.B. Questions 11 and 12 are also connected with this theme. (Dutton, 1985).
Out of the students answering question 6, 34 did not belong to any societies and some of these gave the same reasons for 'not doing so' as for 'not wishing to' and the two reasons most frequently given were 'lack of time' and 'lack of confidence'.

For number 6, 77 male students belonged to two or more societies and 53 female students. However when turned into percentages (71% of the Male students and 67% of the Female students) this was not considered to be very significant, although a slightly greater % of males belonged to two or more clubs. The most popular society was for Sport, as might have been expected with people who were predominately under 21. 56 male and 50 female students had held an elected office.

As explained above, there appeared to be no significant gender difference in the answers to questions 6-9. This is interesting because it does not support the anecdotal evidence of the interviews in which students of both sexes expressed the view that more male students stood for and gained office than female students did and were thought to be more interested in doing so. This difference in results may be accounted for by the fact that the questions did not provide a fine enough filter in that the questions did not distinguish between being secretary or chairman of a busy or 'important' society and being one of a hall committee.

D 2.C. Questions on self-esteem.

Question 10 is a standard question on the psychological self-assessment of self-esteem. It was difficult to decide on the best
way to tackle this delicate subject but necessary to attempt to do so because as has been explained in an earlier chapter there does seem to be a difference between the self-esteem of men and women and this appears to have a causal link with women's approach to their careers.

There is no generally accepted measure of self esteem and it is extremely difficult to evaluate accurately. Also some people feel uncomfortable answering questions of such a revealing nature. For this reason the question was put on the second page following the earlier factual questions.

The measure of self esteem employed in the questionnaire was a version of the 10 item Guttman scale (Reber, 1985, p. 313, Guttman, 1944). This has the advantages of ease of administration, economy of time and unidimensionality, so that people can be ranked along a single continuum from those with very low to those with very high self-esteem.

Positive and negative items are represented alternately to reduce the effect of a respondent set and the questions selected dealt openly and directly with the dimension under consideration.

The design and possibly 'old fashioned' flavour of the questions had been discussed with the pilot survey students who could not see any objection to using this in the final questionnaire, so in spite of some reservations and because of a failure to obtain a more interesting and reliable alternative, it was used again. Interestingly this was one of the few questions that every single
From Table 8.3 (p. 158) it can be seen that the male students achieved the highest scores (24.8% of the males compared with 8.6% of the females), which bears out the general impression given in the literature research that women have lower self-esteem than men.

D 2. D. Questions referring to Graduate Recruiters and extra-curricular activities.

The following questions, 11 and 12, were included because of the Society of Graduate Recruiters communications to Careers Officers at Universities. (Quoted in section D 2. B., above).

Question 11 was an attempt to discover how much importance the students themselves place on the Graduate Recruiters' wish to see extra-curricular activities listed on c.v.s. On a 1 to 5 scale, from 'not important' to 'very important', there were no students who listed this as 1 (not important), 105 (47.3%) listed it as 5 (very important) and 81 (36.5%) listed this as 4.

e.g.

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<td>3</td>
<td>81</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>10.4%</td>
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<td>47.3%</td>
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There was no strong gender difference in these answers: 85.2% of men listed this as 'important' or 'very important' compared with 81.8% of women students.
This choice of five answers as opposed to four poses the question of the 'middle alternative' suggesting a non-committal answer (Moser and Kalton, 1975) but Schuman and Presser, 1981, argue that offering a middle position makes less difference to those who feel strongly about an issue than to those who do not feel strongly and in an experiment that they carried out they found that the offer of a middle alternative only had a limited impact on the distribution of responses in the other categories and that the ratio of the numbers of responses from the first to the last category was the same whether the middle alternative was there or not.

Hence I preferred to give a choice of five responses because I felt that it gave the students an additional gradation of opinion and the possibility of expressing neutrality without affecting the overall picture of the balance of their answers. Schuman and Presser suggest that a follow up question can be used to gauge their intensity of feeling. The large numbers who felt that this was 'important' or 'very important', followed by the very positive answers to the open-ended question about the benefits of extracurricular activities to their future careers reinforces the view that the students did feel rather strongly about the importance of this issue.

D 2.E. Frequency of asking questions in lectures and seminars.
Questions 13 to 17 were to do with the relative frequency of questions asked by men and women in lectures and tutorials or seminars. The questions also covered the relative numbers of males and females in the groups, the sizes of the groups and the
perceived 'quality' of the questions.

This was to test out the impression from the anecdotal evidence of the interviews that men asked more questions than women and were not intimidated by large numbers of fellow students listening and were not as concerned as women were about the quality of their questions, which if true would be another piece of evidence to point to men being more confident than women at this particular stage in their university careers.

In answering question 13 a higher percentage of men than women (nearly twice as large) thought that men asked questions in lectures and tutorials more frequently than women did. Also for both sexes more thought that men asked more questions than fewer. (Table B.4, p. 158).

In question 14 the students were asked how frequently they personally asked questions. As far as lectures were concerned there was no significant difference in the perceptions of men and women as to how often they themselves asked questions, but men thought that they asked questions more frequently in tutorials than women did. Although in the answers to question 13, both men and women were of the opinion that men asked more questions in lectures than women did but thought the difference was not so obvious in the smaller numbers of the tutorial groups.

Question 15 concerned the numbers of students of both sexes in both lectures and tutorials and as most groups were of mixed gender it was difficult to relate the few single sexed tutorial
groups to any of the conclusions drawn from the answers to questions 14 and 15. It could be argued that it is likely that a student who lacks confidence would be more likely to ask questions in front of small groups of people of the same sex rather than in front of large groups of people of whom the majority are of a different sex than they are, and this was what was claimed by several students in the early interviews (pp. 121 & 139) but the questions had not been framed in such a way to bring this out. If the questionnaire is updated I will endeavour to rephrase this question in order to clarify this issue.

Question 17 was an 'open ended' question which asked whether the participants had any views about the quality of questions asked by male or female students. A large number of the students said either that they had 'no views' or that the questions were of equal quality. However 16 thought that the women’s questions were more thoughtful and/or more relevant, one or two thought that it was a sexist question and obviously thought it was intended to denigrate women whereas it arose out of remarks in the pilot survey which implied a belief that although men asked questions more frequently those asked by women were more valid and more thoughtful.

D 2.F. Questions about the perceived importance of Confidence Skills training.

Questions 18 to 20 were about Confidence Skills workshops and their purpose, whether the students had had any confidence skills training - and, if so, where and, if not, whether they thought it
would have been beneficial. Also if they had any views on the use of workshops and what their preferred method would be for receiving confidence skills training.

Question 18 asked if the students had received any confidence or assertiveness skills training and only about a quarter of students of both sexes who answered the questionnaire had done so (53 students: 31 Men and 22 Women). Of these over half had received the training at school and just under a quarter at university.

The 166 who answered that they had not received any confidence skills training were asked if they thought that it would have helped them and 62% answered that they thought that it would have done—a rather higher % of women (73%) compared with 53% of men. 110 students thought that they would like this to have taken place at school and 64 of the 166 who had not had any training said that they would like to participate in some if it were available. (43% of all the female students compared with 21% of all of the male students).

When asked for their preferred method for undergoing this training 94 students (47 women and 47 men) asked for it to be in the form of a workshop whilst 35 thought lectures and 18 thought books would be suitable.
D 3. SUMMARY OF RESULTS FROM QUESTIONNAIRE 1 (Appendix, p vi.).

The overall conclusion to be drawn from the questionnaire is that female students perceive the importance of extra-curricular activities to their future careers and make as much use of them as male students do. However they see themselves as less confident than men and perceive other women, if not themselves, as less likely to ask questions in lectures or seminars. Although if questions are asked neither they or the male students think that there is any difference in the quality of the questions. Finally although only a quarter of the students had received any confidence skills training they thought that they would have found this helpful (73% of the women, 53% of the men) and about half of them thought that the most effective way of delivering this training would be in the form of a workshop.

The result of the questionnaire confirms my view that female first year students are less confident than their male contemporaries and that the workshop would be an acceptable way to deliver any required training. However both the questionnaire and the discussions suggested to me that I should change my target sample. These young women did not perceive that there might be any problems with pursuing their careers and did not really seem in need of confidence skills workshops.

It is at a later stage in women's lives, when they wish to return to work after a career break, that some of them seem to lose confidence. Therefore I decided that it would be more appropriate to consider workshops for women returners. The next Chapter looks at these and some other types of workshops.
### TABLE 8.3 COMPARATIVE SELF-ESTEEM SCORES: MALE AND FEMALE STUDENTS

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<td>35 - 40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of row total</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>18.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of column total</td>
<td>24.8</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>222</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% of column total</td>
<td>58.1</td>
<td>41.9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE 8.4 THE NUMBER OF QUESTIONS MEN ASK' PERCEIVED BY MEN & WOMEN
(where 1 is 'never', 4 is 'frequently' and 5 is 'very frequently')

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>In Lectures</th>
<th>Combined M+F total</th>
<th>In Seminars</th>
<th>Combined M+F total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>9 9 18</td>
<td>5 8 13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% column total</td>
<td>7.0 9.7 8.1</td>
<td>4.0 8.6 5.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>18 13 31</td>
<td>17 11 28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% column total</td>
<td>14.1 14.0 14.0</td>
<td>13.5 11.8 12.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>55 45 100</td>
<td>52 50 102</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% column total</td>
<td>43.0 48.4 45.2</td>
<td>41.3 53.8 46.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>28 14 42</td>
<td>27 13 40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% column total</td>
<td>21.9 15.1 19.0</td>
<td>21.4 14.0 16.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no of students</td>
<td>14 4 18</td>
<td>15 3 18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>% column total</td>
<td>10.9 4.3 8.1</td>
<td>11.9 3.2 8.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB 42/124=34% men & 18/85=21% women; 42/116=36% men & 16/88=18% said frequently or very frequently:
  in lectures  in seminars
SECTION 4:

Workshops
INTRODUCTION

As explained in the last Chapter, although the student’s Questionnaire confirmed many of my theories, the target population was changed to workshops for women had had a break in their employment and were considering returning to work. This Chapter will investigate workshops under the following headings:

A. WORKSHOP THEORY

B. STRUCTURE AND DESIGN OF WORKSHOPS

C. CASE STUDIES

A. WORKSHOP THEORY

A.1 DESCRIPTION AND DEFINITION OF THE WORKSHOP METHOD.

Description:

A Workshop is an experiential learning/training process and, if participants 'pick up an active learning cue', they can move through the stages of 'dependence via independence to interdependence' ...'in a matter of hours' (SRHE, 1987, Vol 2 p.9)

Workshops may vary in their structure, depending on their content and their purpose, but the most successful ones have similar patterns to each other and the design and format of these can be justified by the support of a number of educational and
psychological theories. In psychological terms these include work by:

Kelly on a 'Personal Construct Theory' (Kelly, G., 1959);
Piaget on a 'Concrete Operational Theory' (Piaget, 1964);
Skinner on a 'Behaviour Modification Theory' (Skinner, 1963),
and, in educational terms, work by:
Ausabel on 'Maps of Learning' (Novak, 1977);
Bloom on a 'Taxonomy of Educational objectives' (Bloom, 1956).

Also considered is more recent research by Cryer, Elton and Jaques published in 'Training Activities for Teachers in Higher Education' by Surrey University for the Society for Research into Higher Education (SRHE). See Text for specific references.

Definition:

Although the term 'workshop' may be used indiscriminately, my use of this implies that it refers to an educational or training exercise where the participants are guided by a 'trainer/instructor' who is either a subject expert or an experienced 'facilitator' or both of these. It can be defined as:

'1 a room or building in which goods are manufactured and
2 a. a meeting for concerted discussion or activity
   b. the members of such a meeting.'


Cryer (1988), in a paper presented at a European Conference for the Continuing Education of Engineers, says that Workshops have
three characteristics:

They are longer than normal lectures, but are self-contained within durations of perhaps ninety minutes to five days;

They comprise more than one type of learning experience, eg lectures followed by practical work; or exercises followed by discussions followed by simulations, etc.;

For at least part of the time, participants are actively involved rather than passively listening to spoken information.'

(NB Additional definitions from Facilitators are given in Chapter 10 on page 222).

A.2 STYLES OF WORKSHOPS

Most workshops fall into one of three main categories. These are:

a) Experiential / Encounter Group Workshops, dealing with attitudes and emotions.

b) Educational/ Cognitive Workshops which impart information.

c) Skills Training Workshops which practice and perfect a skill, whether it is a practical one or of the management type skill of leadership or teamwork.

However, as a good design should be focussed on the participant's needs, workshops should include a variety of exercises which have been targeted on individual groups and these may be taken from all or any of the three categories mentioned above. These will now be discussed in more detail.
A.2 a) The Experiential/Encounter Type of Workshop

Saddington (1992, p. 44) defines experiential learning as a 'process in which an experience is reflected upon and then translated into concepts which in turn become guidelines for new experiences'. He looks at the various theoretical traditions of adult education and explores which of these makes use of experiential learning.

Experiential workshops are used in areas of understanding personal, interpersonal and transpersonal development. For example, the brochure for the Two Year Facilitator Styles Course in the Human Potential Resource Group at the University of Surrey says that it will consist of a number of two day experiential workshops and that the participants will develop skills and understanding in the areas of 'self-awareness, emotional competence, autonomy, creativity, communications and interactions with others'. It also offers Transpersonal development which will give participants the opportunity to 'explore those parts of their experience which transcend language, feeling and thought'. This type of course looks at various theoretical approaches of Humanistic Psychology, including Psychodynamics, Gestalt, Cognitive Behavioural using activities such as 'role playing', as in Skinner's Behaviour Modification Theories and these styles of facilitation may be used in Workshops on Counselling and some types of Assertiveness Courses.

A.2 b) Types of Workshops used in Educational Training

Many Educational workshops, whether used for training teachers or lecturers in higher or further education in techniques of current
interest such as staff appraisal, course evaluation and quality control, or ongoing preoccupations such as teaching and learning, use a similar structure to each other, as do workshops teaching students study skills, personal development and interview techniques. Most of these incorporate Ausubel's ideas on methods of meaningful learning, i.e. deep as opposed to surface learning, (SRHE, 1987, Vol 2, p.10) and Bloom's Educational Objectives.

Bloom’s Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (Bloom, 1956) classified abilities into three sections: The cognitive domain (concerned with knowledge and intellectual learning); the affective domain (concerned with attitudes and emotions) and the psychomotor domain (concerned with manual dexterity). Most of the workshops involved with educational training and technical instruction use ideas which could be covered by the cognitive domain rather than the other two, although the affective domain would be relevant to workshops on personal effectiveness, using confidence skills and assertive communication, and others on professional attitudes and behaviour. The psychomotor domain would be relevant to workshops teaching practical skills such as 'wordprocessing'.

However it is not easy or advisable to use isolated approaches and many workshops involve all three 'domains' to a greater or lesser degree.

The Cognitive domain theory is most frequently used in Educational workshops supporting a hierarchical structure of learning, because it can be subdivided into low level and high
level cognitive objectives as follows:

The Cognitive Domain

Knowledge

Comprehension  
Application  

Analysis

Synthesis  
Evaluation  

low level cognitive

high level cognitive

Bloom suggests that those learning experiences in which the participants are actively involved develop higher cognitive abilities. Hence workshops and discussion groups with active participation are more likely to foster the higher cognitive abilities such as analysis, synthesis and evaluation. He also argues that these can be suitable vehicles for developing affective objectives as well.

Bloom ranked the cognitive objectives as above and suggested that there was a hierarchical order to these groupings which implied that the higher level cognitive objectives could not be achieved until the lower ones had been. Hence the participants must first be given the relevant basic knowledge of a new technique before they are able to analyse or evaluate it.

This means that the facilitator must choose the level at which the workshop should begin, depending on the abilities of the participants, and continue to structure it into separate stages.
in such a way as to build on their experiences.

A.2 c) The Organisation/ Training Style of Workshop.

Industrial organisations use a number of methods of training that use both experiential and cognitive techniques, and range from 'one to one' on the job type training to group work in Residential Training Centres. Most large organisations have their own Training Centres, with their own permanent Training staff and buy in extra help from outside. Fuller (1992), Training Manager of an Insurance firm that has 3,000 employees, says that each of their branch offices has its own conference room so that people can use self-teaching equipment such as videos, audio and computer methods. This, plus one to one on the job training, contributes to 70% of their training provision compared with 30%, in the form of seminars and workshops, which takes place at the Training Headquarters. All 'career trainees' (such as management and supervisory staff) are expected to attend courses in team building and leadership skills, whilst those employed for specifically advertised jobs (such as secretarial staff) are given the opportunity for specific job skills training. Fuller thought that his firm's workshops resembled Educational training methods, using the cognitive domain and the psychomotor domain rather than self-awareness type workshops.

B. STRUCTURE AND DESIGN OF WORKSHOPS

B.1 THE STANDARD CORE WORKSHOP

The stages of the standard workshop format which can be justified
theoretically both in educational and psychological terms are as follows:

a. An introduction and explanation of the workshop format
b. An initial input of knowledge, which takes into account the level of expertise of the participants.
c. 'Goal setting' exercise which takes into account participants needs and objectives - and links their past, present and future experiences.
d. Categorisation of the workshop into separate stages
e. Hierarchical order of exercises
f. Active and participative learning exercises
g. Time allowed for 'internalisation of experiences'
h. Inclusion of simulations or role playing activities
i. Inclusion of individual, small group and plenary activities
j. Debriefing
k. Evaluation

These points, a - k, will now be argued for individually in terms of the theories listed in Section A above.

a. An introduction and explanation of the workshop format.
Even highly sophisticated adult learners, such as academic staff undergoing training activities in higher education, temporarily regress to Piaget's concrete operational stage when faced with unfamiliar subject matter and ideas (SRHE, 1987, Vol 2, p. 9). It is also important to avoid an apparently threatening situation for the participants for as Perry (1977) observed the student or in this case the participant who loses confidence in himself tends paradoxically to fall back on less and less productive
methods of learning'.
Hence in order to allay anxiety it is important to explain the style of the workshop as one of discussion and involving activities right at the beginning of the session.

This may be even more important in a different culture, for example Cryer found after she had run a teacher training workshop in Malaya that the participants had been led to believe that she would be giving them a lecture.

b. An initial input of knowledge.

An initial input of knowledge can be structured to act as an 'advance organiser' (Ausubel's concept as interpreted by Novak, 1977) which can enable the participants to access the level of activity required of them, and also orientate them with respect to their new experiences and enable them to relate these to their existing constructions and ways of seeing things (Kelly's personal construct theory, 1959). It is necessary for a person to build on their own existing concepts in order to develop any significant understanding of a new situation.

There is also the danger that a workshop can develop into a 'discussion shop' if there is not an initial input of knowledge or expertise. Bloom's Taxonomy of Educational Objectives also supports this theory with its suggestion that the low level cognitive objective of knowledge should come before the higher level ones such as analysis (See earlier, p. 164). This also underlines the importance of preparity work on the part of the workshop leader (Appendix, p. xxxvii), to evaluate the abilities
and levels of expertise of the participants, in order that the workshop is pitched at the correct level. Otherwise some participants may feel that they are wasting their time if they already know all that is to be learned, or others, who may be asked to share their knowledge on a topic, may feel discouraged if they know much less than the rest of the group.

c. 'Goal setting' exercises and listing of objectives.
Many of the Facilitators who answered the questionnaire stressed the importance of setting objectives or goals for participants to aim at, whether they are small or large, either in the course of the workshop or at some future date. This emphasises the importance of a follow-up/support group mentioned on p. ix in the Appendix.

d, e, f.
The workshop should be categorised into separate stages with the individual sections arranged in a hierarchical order, with as many exercises as possible being active and participative. This is covered in a. and b. earlier in this section and on p. 164.

g. Time allowed for 'internalisation of experiences'.
'Review' is an accepted, but not necessarily frequently used, method of reinforcing learning for students at the end of a conventional lecture where they have a chance to read through their notes and think about whether they understand them (Gibbs, 1988). In a workshop this period of 'thinking alone could come at several possible stages, either at the beginning, or after an
exercise as well as at the end. The participants can use it for thinking as individuals to relate new ideas to their past experiences, to clarify their thinking on certain topics and to make new concepts part of their own consciousness by internalising them.

There is however the danger in certain workshops if the review time is more than a few minutes some participants may regard it as a waste of 'group contact' time.

Inclusion of simulations such as 'role playing' activities.

Games and Simulations are often used as experiential learning techniques. Experiential learning is said to be 'Learning through direct experience or involvement with the problems or issues of real life', (Romiszowski, 1981), and a Simulation has been defined as 'An operational representation of the central features of reality' (Guetzkow, 1963).

Simulations are used in many different contexts and may or may not include role play. Those that do not can include mini case studies, structured debates in conflict situations such as public enquiries, competitive exercises and decision-making in Leadership Courses, those that do are more likely to include the exploration of Social Situations.

This last type of simulation can enable people to cope with possible problem areas in their lives by enabling them to enact and probably resolve their problems through role playing in a 'safe' environment, under the guidance of the group leader. Ideally this will allow the participants to stand outside the
situation and examine what has happened and learn to cope with future occasions.

It is also helpful if a specification of the simulation is provided, including necessary facts and relationships for the participants to study and build on in their enactment of a situation.

Role playing can be hazardous unless the participants have agreed to take part so only volunteers should be used and it is better to use this type of exercise only if psychologically trained or very experienced group leaders are present (Appendix, p. xxxii).

i. Inclusion of individual, small group and plenary activities.
As in all educational activities variety stimulates interest and hence improves the probability of deep learning in the participants.

Individual activities are important for the reasons stated above in section g., i.e. time must be allowed initially for people to relate new experiences to their past constructs and for individuals to list their own goals before group discussion. Finally time is often needed for 'review' or 'internalisation' of experiences and these obviously need to be carried out by the participants alone.

Small group activities can include 'role play' and structured discussions limited to a few people as in 'pyramids' or 'snowballs' (Appendix xxxi.).

Plenary Sessions for the whole group are really reporting back stages from separate smaller groups and may be best handled by
summing up conclusions of similarities or differences from different groups by displaying them written on flipcharts. It is important that participants of workshops feel that they have reached conclusions and have not left a lot of unfinished business at the end of the workshop. Often the plenary session can act as a form of 'debriefing'.

j. Debriefing.
The debriefing should bring all the various strands of the workshop together and leave people feeling satisfied that they have some ideas on how to utilise the learning experience for future occasions.

k. Evaluation.
Evaluation is a useful exercise both for discovering how successful a workshop has been and for yielding the possibility of improving its running for future occasions. It gives the facilitator useful feedback on its success and also makes the participants feel that they have a chance to express their opinion which gives a higher feeling of satisfaction.

It is probably important that this evaluation should be written rather than discussed and with mostly closed questions not all open-ended ones, because some participants may view it as an encouragement to find anything to criticise rather than an opportunity to make constructive improvements.

SUMMARY: The above theories can be used to justify the groundwork that can used in formulating a set of guidelines to be used
in designing different types of workshops. An indication of how this might be done is given next and in the Appendix, p. xxvii.

2. ADAPTATION OF EDUCATIONAL THEORY TO DESIGNING PRACTICAL WORKSHOPS

INTRODUCTION

One method of designing workshops is to use a systems approach to the act of imparting knowledge, where a system can be defined as a 'whole which functions as a whole by virtue of the interdependence of its parts' (Rapoport, 1968). In other words the separate stages of a workshop can be formulated independently but should still work together to move the participant forward in a learning experience. This reinforces the importance of Bloom’s use of appropriate stages in a hierarchical sequence.

For example, Cryer (1988) suggests that suitable stages in a workshop to impart factual information and the mental abilities to handle that information would be:

'Stage 1 — a learning experience to address low level cognitive learning based on an input of information such as a demonstration video or film, lecture, talk, reading assignment or a “brainstorm”' (Appendix, p. xxxii).

She says that a brainstorm is only appropriate if there is an adequate level of expertise among the participants reading assignments may be regarded by participants as a waste of contact time, whereas if they are given to them before they may not be read.
Stage 2 - A learning experience in which the participants become actively involved by themselves to reinforce the knowledge input and to develop higher level cognitive abilities in using it. This could be a few minutes of private reflection. If it is more than a few minutes, experience shows that participants see it as a waste of contact time and become irritated.

Stage 3 - A learning experience in which participants interact, to develop the highest level cognitive abilities by testing their thinking out on each other. It is simplest if participants are given an exercise on the knowledge input to tackle in small groups. This needs to be handled with care and sensitivity by the instructor because participants can feel threatened at displaying their professional ignorance to others' (Cryer 1988).

This last stage can be of a long or short length of time and could constitute several stages of interaction in twos, fours with perhaps a final stage of a few people reporting back to the whole group in a plenary session. This would be the pattern which is used in a Pyramid or Snowball Exercise (see Appendix p. xxxi).

Cryer also says that 'these three stages can be cycled through any number of times depending on the material to be covered and the time available'.

In the same article she discusses 'workshops to impart professional attitudes and behaviour'. These she considers to be based more on experiential learning than on Bloom's theories because although an attitude such as one of responsibility may be taught cognitively it can only be really understood when it has
been experienced by the participants. She considers that the stages of 'experience, internalisation, generalisation and application', can also be used to structure a workshop, although the fourth stage of application may have to be performed when the participants have returned to their normal lives. This type of programme also supports the argument that the active involvement of participants in an 'experiential' workshop assists learning.

Conclusion

There are of course many other possible programmes for workshops but it is likely that all the successful ones use the techniques listed earlier which are conducive to deep learning experiences. This implies that the workshop will be in structured hierarchical stages with chances to relate new information to one's previous experiences and use active and experiential learning activities to reinforce the new information or techniques with a final chance to internalise the new experiences and evaluate them in order to make them part of one's knowledge.

B.3 TYPES OF WORKSHOPS UNDER CONSIDERATION

INTRODUCTION

In terms of the generalised aim of investigating how successful workshops are as educational vehicles for changing those inherited attitudes which inhibit women's advancement in employment, it is necessary to look at those stages in women's lives where 'the workshop' is likely to be encountered, and then to analyse what these workshops have in common with each other.
and also how they differ from each other.

The overview of where these workshops may fit into women's careers and employment patterns can be seen from the diagram showing the theoretical model of 'gender effects and employment' (Figures 4.1, 4.2; pp. 90-91). The main 'life stages' where such workshops may be encountered are:

B.3 a) During the Education Process
1. At School; sometimes in the fifth year (usually study skills and time management, etc) but more often in the lower or upper sixth.
2. At a further Education College or as a University Undergraduate.
3. As a Post Graduate Student.

B.3 b) In the early part of a career.
1. In offices, industry, commerce 'on the job training' and skills updating.
2. In Professions: skills updating

B.3 c) Outside the career
1. Women's Organisations: The 300 Group, Fawcett Society, The Women's Institute, Political Groups, putting on skills for public life etc.
2. Women Returners Workshops: put on by professional organisations (for their own professionals), Adult Education Institutes, Magazines (open to all women), Training bodies (for targeted groups).
B.3 d) In the later part of a career

1. From own employer: Middle Management and Senior Management training.

2. From Training Organisations (such as the Pepperell Unit, Domino Women and Training Agency) - Career Advancement Workshops.

3. Networking in Professional bodies

As explained earlier a workshop designed to instigate attitude changes and to inculcate new approaches using experiential learning techniques will follow a specific format, but in addition to this a workshop that is intended to encourage women to change their attitudes will often include a confident skills element, even if it is nominally for some other training purpose.
INTRODUCTION : AN EXPLANATION OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF MY INTEREST IN WORKSHOPS.

As I explained in the introduction to this thesis, I have been involved in a number of different types of workshops over the last few years, either as a participant, facilitator or co-leader. The first ones that I attended as a participant in 1985 were two single days, one on Assertiveness skills and the other on Committee skills. These were followed by a two day workshop on a wide range of topics from conference skills to being selected by a political party.

Some years later after attending various workshops on a number of different topics including training the trainer 'skills and some technical ones involving television and radio interviewing skills, I felt confident enough to undertake to facilitate some myself.

The workshops that I facilitated in the following years were on topics that developed and changed as a result of the process of experimenting with different ones, whenever possible discussing them with participants and observing which they felt happiest with.

I did not feel qualified to facilitate any workshops using encounter/therapy techniques but wanted to teach skills which women could use to boost their confidence. Initially I used exercises from other people's material and eventually developed
some of my own. The emphasis of the workshops gradually changed and their titles moved from 'Assertiveness Skills', through 'Confidence Skills' to 'Personal Development' and finally to a 'Self-esteem Skills' element. This last was either used alone or as a core part of other workshops, such as those for Women Returners, Career Development, Teacher Training or Study Skills.

THE WORKSHOP DIARY

A record was kept in the form of a diary concerning the workshops that I had attended or facilitated between 1987 and 1992. There was too much material to be able to discuss each workshop individually, so the decision was made to list some brief details of most of them in a table (Table 9, pp. 183 - 184) whilst discussing others as a form of case study in greater detail. These were usually those in which I was a participant observer, because it was easier to have discussions with other participants on these occasions. When facilitating it was really only possible to give one's whole attention to the participants' needs.

Case Studies of some workshops (with back-up material in Appendix III) are discussed in the remainder of this Chapter under the following headings:

C.1 GENERAL PROGRAMME OF WORKSHOPS 1987 - 1992
C.2 CAREER DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS
C.3 WOMEN RETURNERS' WORKSHOPS
a) THE ASSERTIVENESS WORKSHOPS

Initially I ran Assertive Technique 'taster' sessions for women in the Surrey Branch of the 300 Group. The purpose of these 'two and a half hour' sessions was to give them a taste of what went on in an Assertiveness Course because these were very popular then, (in 1986), explaining the difference between Assertiveness and Agression, teaching techniques for raising one's self esteem and demonstrating what a 'workshop' implied.

Many of these women had not been to workshops before and were hesitant in involving themselves in an activity which was 'pro-active'. It was interesting to see that most of these participants not only found this type of workshop activity enjoyable and stimulating but also felt that although they had only spent a short time on it, they had gained something of value even if was only a fresh look at themselves and their lives. Many of them expressed an interest in going on to Adult Education courses on Assertiveness after attending these taster sessions because they now felt able to cope with this type of course.

The skeleton core to these early workshops consist of a series of Assertiveness skills exercises that I have referred to as Programme 1. These consisted of: an Icebreaker; a confidence-building exercise; the 'Bill of Rights'; 'Three ways to become more Assertive'; The 'Broken Record'; 'How to say no'; Guidelines for handling conflict assertively; Non-verbal communication; 'debriefing' and evaluation. Some of the related handouts, including a booklist, are in the Appendix (pp. xl - xliii).
After running a number of these I began to question the use of too strong an assertiveness element and was interested to note that UMIST trainers (UMIST, 1985, section 2.3) suggested that "there is probably a curvilinear relationship between assertiveness and effectiveness."

![Chart showing a curvilinear relationship between assertiveness and effectiveness.]

"...in other words, either a very low level or a very high level of assertiveness is dysfunctional."

I redefined the programme after running a number of other workshops. This became Programme 2 and concentrated more on the areas related to improving confidence, calling these workshops 'Confidence Skills' Workshops.

b) THE STUDY SKILLS WORKSHOPS

In the summer of 1989, I was asked to put on some Study Skills programmes at two local schools. The first was at a boys' school and consisted of: Note-taking; Book Skills; Essay Skills and Time-management. The second was at a girls' school and included a confidence skills element. This confident skills element, was called 'Personal Development Skills' and became Programme 3.
c) THE CAREER DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS

These were intended for women who were either already in employment or who had reached a 'junior management type' level before they had taken a career break. They were less about 'how to get a job' than 'how to move up the ladder'.

d) THE WOMEN RETURNERS' WORKSHOPS

These workshops were intended for women who wanted to move back into the job market after years of being at home caring for a family. The main need of these women was for confidence skills, information about further forms of training and the type of employment currently available.

The Women Returners' workshops contained exercises to raise self-esteem with others on 'goal setting', cv writing, and educational training and employment prospects.

Both the Career Development Workshops and the Women Returners Workshops contained a 'Self-Esteem raising' element. This core element remained in various versions of Programme 4.

SUMMARY TO THE GENERAL PROGRAMME 1987 - 1992

Table 9 (pp. 182 and 183) gives information about the various workshops run during the years 1987 - 1992. More details about Career Development Workshops and Women Returners' Workshops are given in the following few pages with further case studies and 'back-up' information supplied in Appendix iii.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TITLE</th>
<th>WORKSHOPS FOR:</th>
<th>DATES</th>
<th>DURATION</th>
<th>NUMBER PRESENT</th>
<th>ROLE</th>
<th>SEX OF PARTICIPANTS &amp; PROGRAMME USED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Assertiveness Skills for Survey Branch of 300 Group 1. Several for general membership 2. 300 Group at Conference 3. Sixth Form School Girls</td>
<td>Spring 1987</td>
<td>2 1/2 hours each</td>
<td>1. 6-12 2. 12 3. 14</td>
<td>Co-F</td>
<td>All Female (2 Facilitator) Programme 1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. O. U. Community Education Various Community groups</td>
<td>mid 1987 to mid 1988</td>
<td>2 1/2 hours each</td>
<td>Size varied</td>
<td>P Co-F</td>
<td>Mixed - used O. U. packs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Surrey University (Training Assertiveness: Teachers)</td>
<td>July 1988</td>
<td>5 days</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>P</td>
<td>Mixed (1 Facilitator)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. Study Skills for Schools 1. Training Session for Masters 2. 5th Form Boys 3. 6th Form Girls</td>
<td>June 1989</td>
<td>4 hours 2 days</td>
<td>1. 17 2. 80 3. 24</td>
<td>Co-F</td>
<td>1. Male 2. Overseeing Conference 3. Female (with 2 other Facilitators) Programme 3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. Personal Development 1. Surrey University Students 2.</td>
<td>Spring 1990</td>
<td>2 1/2 hours each</td>
<td>1. 8 2. 10</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Female Programme 2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

List of Relevant Workshops: 1987-1992
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Workshops For:</th>
<th>Dates</th>
<th>Duration</th>
<th>Number Present</th>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Sex of Participants</th>
<th>Sex of Programme Used</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H. Women Returners</td>
<td>For Adult Education Students</td>
<td>June 1990</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Co-F</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Programme A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I. Peppershill Unit, BBC</td>
<td>For 'Women's Hour Listeners'</td>
<td>Jan. 1990</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>P Obs</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td># See Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Teacher Training</td>
<td>'ACSET' Courses for Adult Education</td>
<td>Autumn 1990 - 1991</td>
<td>3 1/2 hours per session</td>
<td>12 - 14</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Mixed</td>
<td>Used: Video; Brain-Storm; Pyramid, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K. Women Returners</td>
<td>For Adult Education Students</td>
<td>Spring 1991</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Co-F</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Programme included Self-Stim element</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>L. Career Development</td>
<td>Farnham Workshop</td>
<td>October 8, 1992</td>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>P Obs</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td># See Notes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Key**
- F: Facilitator
- Co-F: Co-Facilitator
- P: Participant
- P Obs: Participant Observer

List of Relevant Workshops: 1987-1992
CAREER DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS

These are sometimes known as Career-Life Planning Workshops and are intended to help women develop strategies for achieving a successful career pattern. They may be put on by Professional Organisations for their own members, e.g. the BBC's workshop for their women managers, various Magazines or Journals, or Educational Organisations, such as Bristol Polytechnic (Medlam, 1985) and Adult Education Institutes.

THE BRISTOL POLYTECHNIC WORKSHOP

The Bristol Polytechnic Workshop is interesting because an FEU Report was produced so that it could act as a pattern for others. It covers the background philosophy of the workshops, gives a profile of the members, a critical appraisal of the Workshops and makes recommendations for additional inclusions and future extensions to the programme in terms of setting up networks and counselling services.

The Workshops were aimed at Women Managers and were presented in three groups of five two and a half hour sessions in the form of a single 2 1/2 day block, as five weekly evening sessions or five weekly afternoon sessions in order to maximize opportunities for attendance (Medlam, 1985, p 8). They were also free, because they were funded by the Manpower Services Commision, and were attended by 140 women, who were drawn from all levels of management and 'support work'. The Report gives reasons for the women's initial interest in the Workshops (p22) and says that 'many women needed to establish their career goals for and by
themselves with time to work through the likely consequences of different courses of action'.

The five Sessions (p 11 -p20) covered:

Session One: Introductions, Management Effectiveness Questionnaire Organisational Blockage Questionnaire, Discussion.

Session Two: Individual and Group Decision-making Exercises.

Session Three: Managing Power, Managing Subordinates.

Session Four: Assertive Behaviour.


Nearly all respondents suggested multiple blocks (p37 and p38) to women's progress of which the main ones can be summarised as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cause</th>
<th>% of total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women, attitudes and behaviour of</td>
<td>25.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men, attitudes and behaviour of</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td>10.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education and CLD</td>
<td>13.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer's attitudes and training needs</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General</td>
<td>19.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relocation</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
METHODOLOGY FOR THE EVALUATION OF THE BRISTOL WORKSHOP

The organisers included an evaluation as part of a wider approach where they asked for information on the women's entire career-lives. They also interviewed a quarter of the participants in depth and used excerpts from these where appropriate to assist their evaluation. A small number (7.5%) had negative views about the workshops (-p 25). One felt the experience superficial and another felt that it was too unstructured. Others made positive comments (p 25) for example:

' It has stimulated my ambitions.'

'The course was very valuable. It enabled me to think through carefully what I could do with my life and how I could contribute to society.'

' I liked the opportunity to discuss informally with other women the common problems we share.'

These remarks are typical of many others that I have heard, for instance in my telephone evaluation of the Farnham Careers Development one, or in personal conversations at the BBC/Peperall Unit Women Returners Workshop.

GENERAL EFFECTIVENESS EVALUATION

This type of Career Planning Workshop, which covers a number of sessions, gives chance for the 'change in attitudes' process to work because each session re-inforces the message. It is expensive because it requires a great deal of money to support it, including publicity, administration, support costs such as photocopying, tutor costs, accommodation and follow-up evaluations.
THE FARNHAM AE CENTRE CAREER DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOP

Many Career Development Workshops are of the type that are put on by Adult Education Institutions, such as the one that I organised and then attended as a 'participant observer', in Farnham on Saturday October 14th, 1992. This ran from 10 - 4 pm. and cost 20 pounds (£5 if unemployed), including a light lunch. The lunch time was intended to be an important part of the process because women have few chances of 'networking' and past experience shows that useful contacts can be made in this manner.

The Facilitator had run many similar Workshops and was very experienced and calm, which was fortunate because a number of people arrived late as a result of difficulties in parking, and an extremely pleasant room that had been intended for use had the lunch set up in it, whilst the room supplied for the workshop was very dreary. This required a quick negotiation on room changes. This was a single day workshop of two sessions, each of which contained several elements.

Session One:

Introductions

'Icebreaker' Self-assessment

Self-description

Lunch

Session Two

Interpreting Job Advertisements

Writing a relevant CV

Referees/Networking
This group varied in age, educational background (Appendix pX-K) and their needs. The publicity (via a letter to local firms, a press release, leaflets and posters) had emphasised that this was a 'Career Development' course rather than a 'Women Returners' one. The format used by the facilitator was more 'authoritative' than 'participative', with the audience sitting round a table and on the two occasions when they needed to work with someone else, using the person who was sitting next to them. The facilitator produced a great deal of information on Acetate Sheets using an overhead projector, but no handouts, other than a publisher's book order form.

'TELEPHONE CALL' EVALUATION

A number of follow-up telephone calls, made between five and six weeks later produced a wide range of comments, including:

'absolutely brilliant - just what I needed to inspire me' (from a graduate seeking a new career-direction).

'no use to me at all. I wanted suggestions and information about possible careers and training' (from a mother who had been at home for a number of years and wanted to know how to move back into the job market in the current recession).

This emphasised that there are two specific types of women's 'job/career' needs: how to get on the ladder in the first place and how to climb the ladder when you have stepped on to it.

In addition because of possible misinterpretation, course descriptions must be exact, because although the office staff told people about a 'women returners' course in the following term they still wanted to come to this one. In the same group
a few felt that the facilitator's comments were 'patronising' when she asked about their previous experience (which did not seem so to me) whilst others found them 'helpful'. This shows that people's past experiences or 'self-constructs' can affect how they may feel intimidated and be unable to ask relevant questions.

Some of the participants were disappointed that it was not a 'proper workshop'. They said 'we found it tiring sitting listening and not moving round'. These and similar comments were interesting because they showed that some people are more comfortable with activity based formats rather than information-giving lectures, although for others who knew precisely what they wanted, and can take advantage of asking an expert's questions, a strong dose of information can be digested.

However even those with some reservations about the usefulness of career-development for them found meeting other people 'in the same boat' useful, and sharing addresses meant that some had met since and in one case an editor had employed the person who sat next to her to do some proof-reading! An ex-teacher who thought she might like try teaching literacy is already helping on an AE 'basic needs' course to see if she likes it. Another advantage was that I discovered who had not heard about 'Access' and 'Acset' Courses and also, as a result of the follow-up phone calls, will be able to tailor the 'Women Returners' Workshop to the needs of those who found the Career Development one beyond the stage that they were at now. (Information about the participants of this workshop is given on the next pages: 190 - 191.)
### Table 9.3
**Careers Development Workshop**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agegroup</th>
<th>Number of Participants</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-25</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>35-40</td>
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<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51-55</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Number of Qualifications</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O' Level / GCSE</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A Level</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degrees or equivalent</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(See also Appendix, p. 190 and Diagram, p. 194)
Shows % of different age groups at Farnham Careers Development Workshop
J. WOMEN RETURNERS' WORKSHOPS

THE BBC/PEPPERELL UNIT 'BACK TO THE FUTURE' CONFERENCE.

This was held in London at the BBC on 22.1.90 and I attended it as a 'participant observer'. It was a one-day conference designed for women wishing to return to work after a career-break and was a Woman's Hour initiative supported by the 'Employment Department Group'.

It was intended to help delegates to:
* identify their strengths and increase their confidence
* discover how they can transfer the skills they have acquired at home back into the workplace
* recognise and take advantage of the opportunities open to them

The conference was free and an excellent lunch was provided. The Facilitators were Pepperell Unit Staff from the Industrial Society. Creche facilities were also available and were taken up by only five of the hundred women who attended. All who were present were provided with a magazine style journal of twenty pages, which contained useful information for those contemplating returning to work, and a hard-backed file of good quality for storing any handouts.

The participants were given the opportunity to attend two workshops, each lasting only 45 minutes, from the following:

1 Being Personally Effective

Tips and skills to help deal with people and to put one's views across in an acceptable way.
2 Selling Yourself
Help with creating a positive impression and handling awkward questions in interviews.

3 Retraining
Information about F/T and P/T courses, 'distance-learning' and availability of grants.

4 Working For Yourself
Setting up your own business.

5 Getting That Job
The job search, CV and letters of application.

6 Managing Money
A look at the financial implications of going back to work.

7 Flexible Working and Child-Care
Opportunities for childcare provision, job-sharing and part-time work.

8 Planning Your Life
Deciding on goals and the right career path. A look at opportunities and options.

I did not have a choice of workshops because I had gone as an 'observer' after a cancellation, so had to go into the ones which were not 'full'. These were numbers 2 (Selling Yourself) and 6 (Managing Money). However the 'Selling Yourself' Workshop had one Facilitator and about twentytwo participants, almost too many for the room, whilst the 'Managing Money' Workshop which had two
Facilitators only had five participants.

The 'Selling Yourself' workshop provided a number of 'tips' about dress, body language and the crucial first few minutes of an interview. The importance of the CV and contact telephone calls and letters were also highlighted. The 'Money Management' workshop was more of a question and answer session with people producing individual problems about pensions and small businesses.

Most of those present seemed to be white, middle class and 'young to middle-aged'. I had taken a tape recorder with me and managed to talk to three of the participants during the lunch hour. They were very enthusiastic and felt that the initial 'pep talk' and the workshops had been extremely helpful. One said 'It's inspired me to make some decisions', and others: 'Now I really will try to get a job. I know the best approach now'; 'Good to meet other people in the same boat' and 'Inspiring day. Made me think!'

This was the first of eight conferences, with the others being held in Newcastle, Bristol, Edinburgh, Cardiff, Belfast, Coventry and Manchester and each offering the same programme of workshops. During the time that these were being held, between January and the end of July, there were going to be four days when women could telephone a team of advisors for free confidential advice.

One of the organisers agreed to send me the results of their official evaluation and to hand out a questionnaire designed by me at one of their future conferences. They also agreed to
arrange for me to interview the Head of the Pepperell Unit at a later date. This was Liz Bargh who was subsequently to become the Director of the project known as 'Opportunity 2000' mentioned in the conclusion to this thesis. (NB The participant's questionnaire and comments mentioned above are given in the Appendix, pp. iv - xv).

A general report on the conferences quoted comments from both the organisers and the participants. Most felt that they had been an 'overwhelming success' and that every one of conferences had been 'full of energy, enthusiasm and camaraderie among delegates and organisers alike'.

The women who attended said that they found them 'stimulating, relevant to their needs and an important confidence booster'. Some said that it was an important opportunity to have some time thinking about their future or just some time to themselves. One said 'Apart from anything else I had two coffee breaks and a lunch hour for the first time in seven years!'. One commented 'I'm sure it will mark a turning point of my life, thank you!'.

People appreciated the opportunity for 'networking' in the lunch hours and found the speakers good 'role models' because they showed 'that it could be done'. The main criticism was that the workshops of 45 minutes were too short and they would have liked the opportunity to attend more of them. The Pepperell Unit report said that 'the day was a great success for the women who attended. It helped them to clarify previously unperceived ideas; helped them visualise the next ten years and above all to plan
their future'.
(NB This was not at that stage a formal report. The information was sent to me because of my research into workshops).

This series of workshops reached a wide range of people because of the BBC publicity and because they were held in different geographic areas. Other organisations such as Adult Education and Further Education put on similar workshops which are popular locally.

Many Women's Magazines have made similar efforts and one in particular, Good Housekeeping (April, 1991), has instigated a 'Task Force' initiative with the intention of 'promoting the needs and ambitions of women in all walks of life', using 'phone in's, polls, and Task Force Workshops to do this.
CONCLUSION
The workshop appears to fulfil a need experienced by a large number of women, for most single-day workshops for Women Returners are usually over-subscribed and the feedback is, generally speaking, most favourable.

It would seem to be a useful method of learning new skills and improving techniques, as, for example, job-hunting, interview-skill, or the writing of c.v.'s and effective job-applications. The workshop may also help women who undervalue themselves to appreciate their own achievements, increase their self-esteem, consider their potential and thereby change their attitudes towards employment and educational opportunities.

Most of the participants tend to be married women of the particular age-group 35-45 (see graphs p. ). It seems to be most especially useful at this critical age in enabling them to take time to think about themselves and, for once, put their own needs first.

It also enables them to be introduced to the realities of the current job market, emphasizing the necessity for training in Information Technology for many occupations, illuminating aspects of possible Tax problems, Child-Care possibilities and providing up-to-date information on governmental and other training schemes provided at a local level.

Most of all, however, Workshops can help women feel less alone, at a critical stage in their careers, and, even if it is not always possible to provide 'follow-up' counselling services, there is a healthful tendency towards the formation of 'self-help' groups by women who have attended a workshop together.
CHAPTER 10: FACILITATOR STYLES IN THEORY AND PRACTICE

INTRODUCTION

In the previous section we looked at basic styles of workshops and considered their 'historical' origins and the basic theory behind them. In this section I shall examine a number of the styles used in facilitating workshops, because even a perfectly designed workshop will not be successful in practice unless it has been skilfully led. It will also be useful to investigate the information gathered from case histories of past workshops and the analysis of a facilitators' questionnaire to assist in an investigation of methods of workshop packaging and design.

Newble (1987, p. 38) says that to achieve success in small group teaching you need to 'develop skills in group management' and Rogers (1989, p. 72) says that 'Time and time again, research work has shown how critical the style of leadership is to the success or failure of any venture, including learning.'

In the course of the next few pages I shall use various terms for leaders and facilitators of courses (including tutor and teacher) because I shall be quoting extracts from various authors who use all of these terms. Similarly I shall describe workshop members as students, group members and participants. Personally I favour the terms Facilitator and Participant and will normally use these terms in later chapters. This chapter will discuss the topic of facilitating Workshops in two parts as follows:

A. STYLES OF LEADING AND FACILITATING GROUPS
B. THE FACILITATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE
A. STYLES OF LEADING AND FACILITATING GROUPS

This first section will consider the various styles, or modes, commonly used for leading or facilitating workshops, with some emphasis on the personal qualities that the facilitator must employ in order to ensure a 'comfortable' and secure learning environment for the participants. It will also examine the stages through which a workshop passes and how the facilitator can assist the members to work together. Finally it will look at the advantages and disadvantages of using one or two facilitators for a workshop. The consideration throughout will reflect facilitators' own opinions as indicated in the results of the Facilitators' Questionnaire and some 'follow-up' discussions. These matters will be considered under the following headings:

1. THE FACILITATOR AS A ROLE MODEL: QUALITIES AND VALUES
2. FACILITATOR, OR LEADERSHIP, MODES AND STYLES
3. CO-LEADERSHIP
4. THE GROUP LIFE-CYCLE
5. QUALITIES FOR EFFECTIVE FACILITATION

1. THE FACILITATOR AS A ROLE MODEL: QUALITIES AND VALUES REQUISITE FOR EFFECTIVE FACILITATION

In an American book called 'a manual for group facilitators' one of the authors says that 'Leadership is what you do to a group,
whereas facilitating is what you do with a group’, and claims that the kind of leadership that they ‘will be describing - facilitating - is designed to help make groups perform more effectively by soliciting the leadership skills and potential of all members’ (Auvine, et al., 1977, p. 1). They go on to list values to be demonstrated by the facilitator and fostered in the group. These are: Democracy, Responsibility, Co-operation, Honesty and Egalitarianism.

In ‘Preparing, Designing and Leading Workshops’, Cooper and Heenan say that the trainer serves as a role model for the participants and therefore ‘it is essential that the leader’s behaviour be congruent with what he or she is teaching.’ They say, for example there would be a lack of credibility in a Communication Skills Workshop, if the facilitator could not express themself clearly. (Cooper, 1980, p. 65). They also point out that being ‘positive’ is important because the expectations that teachers have about students affect the way that students feel about themselves, and the rate at which they learn. They quote an example which says that if you learn from a mistake it is then transformed into knowledge and becomes a learning experience provided that your attitude is a positive one (p. 68).

Some of the people coming to a workshops may have suffered from negative educational experiences in the past and it is important that the facilitator should provide a welcoming atmosphere so that the workshop becomes an enjoyable learning experience.

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Facilitation can range from an extremely authoritative form, where the Facilitator keeps total control all the way through the Workshop, to the 'Laissez-faire' style, where the group has complete autonomy.

Most authors nominate and describe three distinct ranges of leadership styles, each of which may be the most suitable for a specific type of workshop, though less suitable for others. Frequently facilitators adopt different modes for different parts of a workshop and develop their own distinctive personal style. I prefer to use two general terms, Supervisory and Participative, putting forward the argument that the third, laissez-faire, type cannot really be said to involve any real style of facilitation if the facilitator has, in effect, abdicated his or her role.

a. EXAMPLES OF FACILITATOR OR LEADERSHIP MODES AND STYLES.

1) Cooper and Heenan (1980, p. 69) have identified three basic leadership styles which they describe as Authoritarian, Democratic and Shared, and define as:

An Authoritarian Leader - who makes all the group's decisions and assumes control of procedures and activities. He or she does not share personal experiences within the group and remains apart, acting only as teacher, information giver or observer;

A Democratic Leader is one who allows group members to have a voice and a vote in decision making. They are free to participate or not in exercises and although the leader decides on main
Content and presentation, the members can influence times of 'breaks' and are encouraged to generate ideas.

A Shared Leadership occurs when there is a designated leader, but all the group decisions as well as the leadership functions are shared by group members, with decisions being made by consensus (Cooper, 1980, p. 72).

ii) Heron defines a facilitator as a 'person who has the role of helping participants to learn in an experiential group', where an experiential group is 'one where learning takes place through an active and aware involvement of the whole person'. He discusses the parameters of experiential learning and restates his earlier definitions of the 'six facilitator styles', 'remodelled to make the total system more coherent and comprehensive' as being:

1. The planning dimension (related to the aims of the group and the programme)
2. The meaning dimension (related to the knowledge of how to do things)
3. The confronting dimension (related to raising consciousness about the group's resistance to things)
4. The feeling dimension (the management of feeling within the group)
5. The structuring dimension (the form given to experiences within the group)
6. The valuing dimension, celebrating the 'personhood' of group members (Heron, 1991, p. 15).
He says that each of the above dimensions can be handled in different modes as follows:

1. The Hierarchical mode where the facilitator directs the learning process and exercises their power over the group.
2. The Co-operative mode where the facilitator shares power with the group and collaborates with the members in devising the learning process.
3. The Autonomous mode where the facilitator does not do things for the group and the group exercises its own judgement without any intervention from the facilitator.

Heron uses these three modes, concerning who controls and manages the group, on each of the six dimensions of experience, producing a choice of an 18 part grid of options to cover the changing situations which occur in a group. See table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions and Modes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Hierarchy

Cooperation

Autonomy

(Heron, 1991, p. 17)
iii) Rogers (1989) describes three different types of leadership:

1. Authoritarian, where the leader was stern, bossy and encouraged competitiveness.

2. Democratic, where the group itself decided what to do, but 'regarded the leader as someone who could effect an individual solution to problems'.

3. 'Laissez-faire' where the leader did virtually nothing and remained withdrawn from the group.

She quotes instances from the research that Lewin carried out with a group of 10-year-old boys from youth clubs in the 1930s, where the same boys were seen to behave differently with each leader depending on the style that they adopted. For instance with the Authoritarian leader the boys were submissive and well behaved on the surface but did no work and ran about noisily when the leader left the room, whilst with the democratic leader the boys worked well together even when the leader was absent and in the 'laissez-faire' group they did almost no work whether the leader was present or not (Rogers, 1989, p. 73). Lewin himself quoted from research in which Lippitt and White investigated the behaviour of boys in democratic and autocratic atmospheres and claimed that changes in their behaviour was directly attributable to the styles of leadership (Lewin, 1951, p. 207).

iv) I used the terms 'supervisory' and 'participatory' in the questionnaire that I sent to a number of facilitators, (see p. xvii), asking them to describe their 'most frequently used' style of facilitating. I only gave them the two choices using clear and descriptive terms to cover what I consider to be the
two main styles because there are numerous others in addition to
the ones that I have mentioned above. eg Henderson uses
seven categories to describe the different styles used by a group
tutor (Henderson, 1989, p. 26) : the Gardener (who promotes
independence); the Guide (who develops political and social action
skills); the Coach (helps improve teamwork); the Modeller
(changes learner's behaviour); The 'Jug and Vessel' (transfers
information); the Explorer (providers of map or resources for
students to use) and the Shaper (who models a skill). I have
listed the main styles mentioned above in the table following:

TABLE OF FOUR FREQUENTLY USED FACILITATOR MODES AND STYLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>Ref 1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(Cooper, '80, p71) Authoritarian Democratic Shared</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Heron, '91, p17) Hierarchical</td>
<td>Co-operative Autonomous</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Rogers, '89, p72) Authoritarian Democratic Laissez-faire</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

My preferred
descriptions Supervisory Participative
B) USES OF DIFFERENT METHODS OF FACILITATING

These styles all have advantages and disadvantages and may be more suitable at certain times in a workshop than at others. A simplified form of the experiential learning cycle is as follows:

EXPERIENCING

APPLYING

SHARING

GENERALISING

INTERPRETING

The facilitator’s style needs to be appropriate to the stage that the group feels it is at for any learning to take place at all. Although the Authoritarian or Supervisory stance is not conducive to learning or enjoyment for most of the workshop stages, it can be useful at the beginning of a session when some members may be feeling uncertain and anxious and would welcome information. This style is also useful at other stages when only a limited amount of time is left and rules may need to be set for an exercise to be finished. Similarly, although a democratic style of leadership can make group members feel valued, it may be necessary for a facilitator to make some informed decisions in order to fit in all of the wished for exercises when discussion and voting are taking up too much time. Shared leadership occurs when all decisions are shared between the group and the leader and will only work when the group is well informed about the topic or in a longer workshop of several sessions when it is useful for all
the members of the group to practice the leadership role. A 'laissez-faire' form is only effective if the facilitator is sensitive enough to create conditions where people are confident enough to exercise self-determination in their learning.

It is also important for the leaders of workshops to be aware of the various styles which will be suitable for different types of material such as those described in chapter 9 as the cognitive element of providing information and teaching skills and that described as the affective element of dealing with the feelings and behaviour of participants. For example Cooper and Heenan divide these areas into content functions (when providing information) and process function (when facilitating interactions of the participants) and have produced a useful diagram illustrating the leadership function divided into a number of roles under these two headings, see Figure 10.1, p.209 (from Cooper 1980, p. 77). This provides a convenient way of looking at the division of tasks when considering co-leadership. Most facilitators like to think that they exercise a participatory style for much of the time although as previously mentioned a supervisory one may sometimes be necessary.

3. CO-LEADERSHIP (WORKSHOPS WITH TWO LEADERS)
Most of the comments made above about the various different ways of facilitating workshops also apply to those with two leaders and Cooper and Heenan’s enlargement of their content and process diagram, Figure 10.2 (Cooper, 1980, p. 98) may help to put this into context. See p.209)
Facilitating a workshop can be an exhausting experience and one of the advantages of having a co-leader is that one may not feel quite so drained at the end of it - provided one gets on with and works in harmony with one's co-leader.

Sometimes co-leaders have equal responsibility for a workshop and at other times the extra person is brought in as an assistant. The co-leaders do not have to have the same styles. Sometimes it is an advantage if these are different, with one facilitator being better at giving information and the other at dealing with feelings, so that their attitudes complement each other. On the whole I have enjoyed co-leading a workshop (see Case Studies, Chapter 9, for more details) but it does require a considerable amount of extra preparation time whilst agreement is reached as to content and who does what is negotiated. One unexpected problem that I discovered is that fixing the date of a workshop with a client is even more difficult when both facilitators lead busy lives. This of course would not arise if both facilitators always worked together or were both employed by the same organisation.

Other advantages include the fact that two facilitators can demonstrate role play exercises if the participants do not wish to do so and review and feedback is better because one can sometimes act as an observer and take notes. They can also act as an emotional support for each other and if one of them is suddenly taken ill the workshop does not have to be cancelled.

However the most important point is that the co-leaders should
Figure 10.1  Leadership Functions

CONTENT

ROLES

Teacher  Synthesizer

Clarifier  Timekeeper  Evaluator

PROCESS

ROLES

Facilitator  Mediator

Climate Setter  Pulse Taker  Encourager

Figure 10.2  Co-Leading the Workshop

CO-LEADING
Pay Attention to:

STYLISTIC DIFFERENCES

Activity vs. Passive
Intensity vs. Lightness
Depth vs. In-depthness
High Energy vs. Quiet Energy
High Self Disclosure vs. Low Self Disclosure

FEELINGS

About Each Other  About the Workshop

About the Content

RESPONSIBILITIES

Teaching  Synthesizing  Clarifying  Timekeeping  Evaluating  Facilitating  Enactable Setting  Pulse Taker  Encouraging

(From: Cooper, 1980, p.77 and p.98)
get on well together and get to know each other’s methods from the experience of working together on a number of occasions. It certainly would not work if they had very different views about style and orientation because any tensions between them would be obvious to the participants and ruin the atmosphere of the workshop.

4. THE GROUP LIFE CYCLE

Workshops consisting of complex groups are made up of many variable elements which all contribute to their specific identity. These variations in numbers, aims, background, gender, ages of the group members, differences in environment and styles of facilitation all make up the dynamic organism that is the group. The members of the group interact with each other and with the facilitators. They perform a number of tasks and exercises at different times in the group life-cycle with varying amounts of enthusiasm and all are influenced by their personal circumstances and private thoughts, which, in turn, can affect the energy levels in the workshop.

This group energy is often considered to be in two parts:

1) the energy used in forming and maintaining the group (sometimes referred to as 'synergy'), and

2) the energy used for forwarding the group aims.

The facilitator has to be aware of the group’s life cycle and energy in order to be able to harness them to forward the aims of the group, because both of these will affect the manner in which the workshop should be facilitated at different stages of its existence.
There are many theories about the projected phases that a group may move through. Jaques (1992, p. 38) summarised thirteen different ones, which were considered during the years 1949 to 1981, in a table headed 'Phases of group Development - various theories'.

Among these Jaques included two theories which are frequently mentioned in other work: The 'Flight, Fight and Unite' theory of Bion, sometimes known as the 'Tavistock' model (Jaques, 1992, p. 15)

The other theme that Jacques describes as the Forming, Storming, Norming, Performing and Adjourning stages developed by Tuckerman is also represented by Henderson (1989, p. 43) as:

Forming: when the members are pre-occupied with finding their place in the group and are reluctant to 'stick their necks out'.

Storming: when members may be dissatisfied with what is on offer, and in this Henderson includes flight and fight characteristics.

Norming: when the members get used to working together, and

Performing: where the group is free to get on with learning and all members participate in their characteristic style. She does not include the 'Adjourning' stage, although, in a chapter on ending a course (Henderson, 1989, p. 108) she says 'members need time to reflect on what they have learned and to reflect on their original learning aims'.

She ends the section on performing by quoting the Chinese Philosopher, Lao-Tse, who said:
A leader is best
When people barely know he exists,
Not so good when people acclaim him,
Worst when they despise him.
But of a good leader, who talks little,
When his work is done, his aim fulfilled,
They will all say 'We did this ourselves'.

Of course not all Workshop participants go through all of these stages. Voluntary participants in shorter workshops who have a definite task to complete in a limited time, or groups who have worked together before, often avoid the storming stage altogether because of their united will. Others may never arrive at the 'performing stage' in which groups begin to organise themselves. It is particularly important that a workshop of short duration is carefully monitored, so that tasks undertaken are readily achievable, in order that participants end up with a feeling of success. Even those people who are apprehensive when they attend a workshop for the first time can begin to grow together when they collaborate in a determined effort to complete a task, often feeling exhilaration before they finish. I call this the ABC DEF stages of a workshop cycle.

A Apprehension and Assessment of Activity
B Bonding and Beginning to grow
C Compromising and Collaborating
D Determined to Develop a group identity
E Experimenting in a safe Environment and feeling Exhilaration
F Finally Fulfilling task, obtaining Feedback and Finishing
The workshops that have "gelled" successfully for me (Chapter 9) have usually been for: Women who required confidence skills; Women Returners and Students needing Study Skills.

5. QUALITIES FOR EFFECTIVE FACILITATION

A good facilitator should be able to promote discussions without controlling or dominating them, promote a climate of acceptance and egalitarianism and openness, intervening only when necessary to improve effectiveness. They need to draw information and views from the group but also to act as a resource expert, to be able to teach group skills and act as a timekeeper and help the group members review and clarify their needs.

The Open University pack on Leading Groups say that the qualities for a group leader should include:

* Good listener
* Able to appreciate other people's point of view
* Able to prompt and ask questions
* Friendly
* Able to keep a balance - to be aware of the right level to pitch discussion, how deep to go, etc.
* Helpful without doing all the work
* Prepared to find out more
* Aware
* Able to lead without being forceful
* Adaptable
* Able to make decisions (Open University, 1988).
After I had analysed the Facilitators' Questionnaire, I telephoned a number of Facilitators and asked them for a list of qualities necessary for an effective Facilitator to possess. Most of them said that this was a difficult question to answer, but eventually they produced a number of suggestions. The most frequently occurring ones are illustrated in Figure 10.3, p. 216.

It might be suggested that this was an insufficient sample of the whole group but I had made the choice by reason of the essential factors of time and expense. I used those Facilitators who had included telephone numbers, omitting those who lived in remote parts on account of the cost of communication. After two evenings of telephoning I had managed to speak to ten persons and since the lists were substantially similar I decided to use these.

A description of the Facilitators' Questionnaire and its analysis follows in the second section of Chapter 10.
An Effective Facilitator should be able to provide a safe environment, which is both happy and relaxed and use unobtrusive leadership to facilitate the best atmosphere for a positive learning experience.
B. THE FACILITATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE

This section explains the reasons for using an opportunity sample and analysing the questionnaire 'by hand'. It looks at the five styles of question used, analyses the replies and considers the implications of the results for supporting the argument that the Workshop method is an effective learning device for women. It considers these matters under the subheadings:

1. TARGET GROUP
2. STYLES OF QUESTION
3. ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONNAIRE
4. CONCLUSION

NB A copy of the Questionnaire 3, with the numerical results, is in the Appendix on p. xvii.

1. TARGET GROUP

This questionnaire was targeted specifically at Facilitators in order to elicit their views on the content and process of the Workshop experience. Earlier investigations had concentrated on finding out why participants found the Workshop method 'user friendly', some saying that they felt that the experience had resulted in a change in their attitudes and even their lives. (Chapter 7).

The target group was an opportunity sample because Facilitators constitute only a small proportion of the population and I had to rely on those whom I contacted agreeing to pass extra copies on to other people that they knew. The first ones were sent off at the beginning of May but this seems to have been a poor choice of
time for people seem to fall into two categories: viz, those for whom this is a particularly busy time of year and those for whom this is really the beginning of Summer! There were a number of disappointing examples such as someone who ran two facilitator training groups and offered to hand out 32 in order to gauge their reactions, then made it optional (which was reasonable) but did not ask them to hand them back if they did not feel inclined to do them. This yielded about four replies, which was not as bad as losing 90 in a cupboard, (Chapter 8) but took much time in follow-up phone calls before discovering that nothing would be forthcoming. This underlines the fact that the questionnaire is an exhausting and expensive exercise for self-funded students, whereas organisations with staff and large budgets are able to use them more effectively.

The Questionnaire might have looked daunting for some people because it was six pages long. The reason for this was in order to use the same questionnaire for those who facilitated workshops in a number of different disciplines, such as confidence skills, training groups and 'encounter' groups, rather than a separate questionnaire for each 'area'. Many of the questions could be answered by ticking the appropriate box with a space left for any optional elaboration. Those who did answer it were generous in their helpful additional comments and I am extremely grateful to them.

It was intended to have the respondents spread evenly among the different disciplines but this proved impossible. They were
also mainly female which meant that the results may have been biased. As there were only 60 replies, the survey was analysed by hand, by ticking off the results on large sheets of graph paper, so that the answers provided an instant scattergram of the results. It was not intended to be a quantitative statistical survey but rather to give a qualitative insight into the process of running Workshops from the facilitators' viewpoint.

2. STYLES OF QUESTION

The styles of question used in the Facilitators' Questionnaire fall into five main categories: CLOSED QUESTIONS; OPEN QUESTIONS; 'INTERMEDIATE' QUESTIONS; 'LIKERT SCALE' QUESTIONS and NUMBER ANSWER QUESTIONS.

2.a) CLOSED QUESTIONS

In the closed questions the respondent was invited to tick a choice of a number of specific options, where, in some cases, one element was of the form, 'other, please clarify', or 'other, please state', followed by a blank space. This provided the opportunity to add additional comments if they desired. The questions in this form were numbered: 3, 6, 7, 8, 10, 12, 13, 14, 17, 18, 19, 22, 23, 24, 29, 32 and 33. The additional comments were not coded but were read, noted and quoted if they were of particular interest.

The main advantage of using closed or forced-choice questions is that they are easier to code whereas even grouped open questions can be mis-interpreted and therefore wrongly classified. Forced-choice questions are classified by the respondents themselves and are unlikely to misrepresent what they wish, as if they do not
feel that the choice is acceptable they are unlikely to answer them. De Vaus says that where 'the questionnaire is long or peoples' motivation is not high, forced-choice questions are useful since they are quick to answer. This is particularly so if the questionnaire is self-administered rather than administered by a skilled interviewer who can establish rapport and increase motivation' (De Vaus, 1986, p. 74).

NB The questions asking for optional personal details, which had been placed at the end of the questionnaire, were also closed questions.

2.6) OPEN QUESTIONS

The open questions needed to be coded and therefore the questionnaires were read through initially in order to discover which answers occurred most frequently. These were then listed and grouped under various headings in order to obtain a set of appropriate categories. The responses were then allocated to a limited number of mutually exclusive 'slots' wherever possible. The decision also had to be made, if someone fitted into several categories, to let one, the first stated, take precedence for coding purposes. These categories are added in handwriting to the annotated Questionnaire in the Appendix, p. xlvii.

These open questions were the numbers 1, 2, 4, 5, 11, 20, 27, 30, 31, and 39. Some were set to investigate whether there was a consensus of opinion among the respondents as to what a workshop was, and others to see if it was possible to discover whether there were specific reasons for some participants thinking that workshops had changed their attitudes.

Oppenheim (1976, p. 41) says that the chief advantage of the
open or free-answer question is 'the freedom it gives to the respondent. Once "he" has understood the question "he" can let his thoughts roam freely unencumbered by a prepared set of replies. We obtain his ideas in his own language, expressed spontaneously.' He goes on to warn that 'free response questions are often easy to ask, difficult to answer and still more difficult to analyse.'

2.c) 'INTERMEDIATE' QUESTIONS
These questions were neither fully 'open' or fully 'closed'. The first part required a specific 'yes' or 'no' answer, followed by a request for comments on, or explanations of, the reasons for that choice. These questions were the numbers: 21, 25, 26, 29, 36, and 37. Two other questions came into this category. Numbers 34 and 35. These gave a choice between "always", "sometimes" and "never", followed by 'please give reasons' or 'please comment'.

2.d) 'LIKERT' SCALE QUESTIONS
These Likert scale questions were on a scale of 1 to 5, with the problem, mentioned when discussing the first questionnaire (Chapter 8) of offering a 'middle alternative'. It still seemed worth giving this additional choice in these questions, numbers 9 and 16, as they helped to illuminate the answers to 6, 7 and 8, about experience, for number 9, and the answers to 17, 19 and 21, about workshop structure, for number 16.

2.e) NUMBER ANSWER QUESTIONS
Only one question required a 'number' answer. This was number 15 which asked for the Facilitators' preferred minimum and maximum of the number of participants in a workshop.
3 ANALYSIS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE.

NB The Categories developed for coding purposes have been added to the Questionnaire (Appendix, p. xvi) and the number of responses per slot for all the questions written in the appropriate place, so that any variation in the answers can be seen. For this reason the written analysis only covers the more significant replies and conclusions.

3.a) PERSONAL QUESTIONS

Questions of a personal nature, such as age, and optional ones asking the respondent’s name were left until the end in case they were felt to be of an intrusive nature. Although fewer males were contacted a high proportion of those who did not reply were male, some University Lecturers because they were ‘too busy’ and other respondents possibly because they may have felt from the covering letter that it was not relevant to them.

The variations of experience and age of the respondents are shown on pages 224 and 225.

3.b) FACILITATORS’ DEFINITIONS OF WORKSHOPS AND THEIR BACKGROUND

Questions 1 and 2 investigated facilitators’ interpretations of what a workshop was in their opinion. These were ‘open questions because it was important to know the answers in as much detail as possible and if choices had been listed it might have influenced their replies.

When it came to coding them it became obvious that more responses should have been allowed for, also the answers to both questions overlapped. This situation was allowed for by allocating 3 possible answers for the two questions or 4 slots per question.
In No 1 the most frequently produced elements in the definitions of a workshop were:

'Active / participative' 44 times
'Experiential' 32 times
'A Group' 26 times
'Focussed aim / task' 17 times

In Question 2 the elements that made a workshop different were that it was:

'practical' 20 times
(able to produce)
'personal growth/self respect' 20 times
'involved all' 17 times
'variety/ multi-activity' 16 times

Question 3 was 'closed' because it only asked for their normal 'title', which for 24 respondents was 'facilitator' and for 19 was 'trainer'.

Question 4 and 5 had to be 'open' because it would have been impossible to anticipate the original training or present occupation of the facilitators.

Of these 27 of the facilitators had originally been teachers or lecturers and 6 had been trainers making a total of 33, whilst 22 facilitators were now tutors and trainers and 13 were facilitators, totalling 35. These were not the same people. On examining the results it seems that many people who were in the teacher category now termed themselves consultants.

3.c) FACILITATORS' EXPERIENCE

Questions 6,7,8 were 'closed' and intended to identify how experienced the Facilitators were and 9 (on the Likert scale)
was to see how they rated themselves, and question 18, later, was to see how often people updated their skills.

Question 10 was 'closed' because it seemed that there were only a limited number of methods of employment.

From the answers to 6 it can be seen that this was an experienced group of facilitators with 41 having had specific training and even more having read relevant information (45) and attended a workshop (56) before running one, with only two people not ticking any items and most people ticking two or three. At least five of the fifteen facilitators who ticked 'other' had run their first workshops as either co-facilitators or assistant facilitators. This would have been a useful category to put in the questionnaire as it is one of the most important ways of learning to facilitate a workshop and the majority of people probably begin in this way.

Most of the facilitators were over forty (Figure 10.4, p. 224) and, from the answers to Question 7, it seems that 21 people had had from 3 to 5 years experience, whilst of the 29 who replied 'other', the majority had had even more experience than this (Figure 10.5, p. 225).

For question 8, 26 people ran workshops for at least 3-6 times per year, whilst 21 rated themselves as 'very able' and a further 20 were only one category down from this (Figure 10.6). Out of the 36 facilitators working for an organisation 22 also worked as freelance trainers.
Figure 10.4

"Workshop Facilitators' Questionnaire:
Age range of Respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 51</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 10.5

'Workshop Facilitators' Questionnaire: length in years of experience.
Figure 10.6

'Workshop Facilitators' Questionnaire:
Self estimate of ability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self estimate of ability</th>
<th>No of Respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (very able)</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (not so able)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3.0 PARTICIPANTS

Question 11 was 'open' because it was difficult to anticipate the possible variation in subjects facilitated. The answers covered a wide area. The most frequent subjects being: Assertiveness (25), Staff Training (15), Confidence and Personal Development Skills and many others including Management, Counselling and Interview Skills. Many facilitated more than one topic and the same people often covered both Assertiveness and Management Skills.

Questions 12 and 13 were 'closed' ones intended to identify the most usual participants of workshops and investigate whether the facilitators thought they ran better with single (22 thought only women compared with 2 who thought only men were best) or mixed gender groups, which were preferred by 39. A preponderance of facilitators (46) led workshops containing both men and women and more led those with solely women (32) in them than solely men (9), more had middle-aged participants (40) than young (26), and only 6 normally led workshops with coloured people, whilst 24 led mixed-race workshops and most (40) normally had white people in their groups.

Those who thought that Workshops ran more smoothly with women only, said that it was because there is 'more bonding and support between women', 'an identity of interests' and 'less competition'. Those who preferred mixed groups said that these were 'nearer real life' and had 'more balanced view points'. Also that 'the quality of exchange of ideas is better'. A number thought that single sex groups were 'more productive than mixed ones' because of 'sharing past experiences', but many thought
that it depended on the subject. Thus for some topics, like assertiveness, single sex groups were better, but for others, like 'training', shared 'life/work' experiences were more important.

Question 14 asked whether they felt workshops would 'work' better with one or two facilitators and 25 answered that they felt that it was better to have two. A large number said that it depended on the topic, the group size and whether the two facilitators could work well together. Those who preferred two said that this 'shares load', 'reduces stress', allows 'individual attention' and 'adds variety and gives momentum to the session'. Those who preferred one said 'one can direct the course of a discussion better than two' and 'I feel one person needs to be utterly responsible, joint facilitation can be confusing unless there is complete accord.'

Seventeen described their style as 'participatory', but said that they might begin in a supervisory manner and then change to the other. Question 15 asked how many participants they felt one facilitator would prefer to handle and the average of the numbers given came to 8 for the least and 15, for the greatest number. Although as even numbers are better for exercises this implies either 14 or 16.

STRUCTURE AND DESIGN

Question 16 was a Likert style question with the same format as 9 and sixteen felt that their workshops were 'tightly structured', whilst twenty one chose the middle category. the workshops were,
19, 20, and 22 looked at the materials that facilitators like to use in their workshops and these are listed in the Appendix on p. xxiv.

Questions 21, 23 and 24 investigated workshop design to see if people wrote their own material or adapted others, their usual length and whether they used a basic 'core skeleton' in their workshops. 44 facilitators said they used a basic core and their comments on this are discussed in the section on Workshop Design (Chapter 9). A majority either adapted other people's material (52), or wrote their own (55) or both, and 22 used all three methods. The Facilitators were fairly evenly spread with their preferences for an optimum workshop length as this obviously must be linked to the type of workshop under consideration (Chapter 9)

ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS

Questions 25, 26, 27, 28 and 31 were about the attitudes and feelings of the Participants, as perceived by the Facilitators, and generally required a 'yes/no' answer with qualification, but clearly most (58) thought that a workshop yielded something that could not be got from other forms of communication and 56 thought that a workshop could act as a trigger for change, supporting these views by saying 'they are empowering', provide 'insight' and 'crystallise...ague subconscious feeling', 'stimulate a new view of self' and gave 'space to reflect and review one's life'. Many thought that participants often felt that there was something 'special' about their first workshop experience, but said that this might be because they had not been to one before because 'all workshop experiences can be revelatory.'
Questions 29 and 30 asked the Facilitators what effect running a workshop had on them. A high number (49) thought that their own attitudes changed as well as their acting as others' 'change agent' (51), whilst 39 thought both happened. All who answered felt that they received personal satisfaction from running workshops and this ranged from 'learning about myself' through 'stimulation', 'excitement', 'challenge' to 'I'm as high as a kite. It becomes addictive!'.

Most felt that they were popular with women because it was a chance to focus on themselves not on others, 'to be valued as a person', 'networking with others' and because of the flexibility to fit into busy lives.

CATEGORIES

Questions 32, 33 and 34 were intended to see which basic category the workshops were in (Nos 32 and 33) and how many contained a 'confidence building' element. Forty two of the replies ticked 'self confidence' as the skill people were most likely to acquire in their workshop, whilst Forty three said the main objectives were 'personal effectiveness/confidence building'.

MONITORING

Questions 35 and 37 were about gender stratification in employment. The answers to this ranged from 'never' to 'all the time'.

Question 36 asked whether the Facilitator had any device to monitor or 'follow-up'. Some said 'evaluation sheets', others have 'verbal feedback from friends', 'requests for more' so 'they must be alright' and many comments like: 'delegates write back years later and refer to it as a career turning point'.

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Question 39 was an invitation to make any further comments and I have discussed some of these in the conclusion.

CONCLUSION

The facilitators who answered the questionnaire were in general very experienced and found their work rewarding. They seemed convinced of the potential value of the workshop in women's lives and that the overall contribution of a well facilitated one was beneficial.

Some warned that workshops 'could be dangerous unless skilfully run' and that therefore 'facilitators need to take responsibility for helping people to cope with any change in their lives.' Another said 'Workshops on their own do nothing. It takes a trained facilitator to work with a group in a sensitive way'.

The material gained from this questionnaire was both rich and rewarding and has helped to give insight into the effect that workshops have, which has much to do with the skill and enthusiasm of the facilitators, and the way in which they are run. It also suggests that it could be productive to extend research in this area. The next Chapter will contain a discussion about the whole investigation into Workshops and the Conclusion.
CHAPTER 11: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

INTRODUCTION

The last section considered the nature of the Workshop phenomenon in terms of its theoretical and practical background, in order to evaluate it as an educational method. It is obvious, both from educational literature (which recommends participative and active methods of learning) and the comments of the participants, that the Workshop is a successful learning method, provided that it is well facilitated.

It is also important to have well-prepared support materials and a suitable environment in order to obtain the best value from a workshop. This is confirmed by the Facilitators’ comments in Chapter 10. Much of its success will depend on there having been very adequate preparation beforehand and a professionally-run workshop will have had considerable time, attention and thought spent upon it, well before the actual day.

This chapter will be reconsidering the original topic of 'an investigation into the use of Workshops to change women's attitudes and increase their educational and employment opportunities' and evaluating whether the research methodology used was successful. It will also consider the actual feasibility of using workshops to effect change in women's attitudes and suggest alternative means of improving equality of opportunity. At the same time it will assess whether, if alternative means are chosen, the workshop might still have a function in this connection. It will also consider ways in which this research might be taken forward.
DISCUSSION

I feel that I have succeeded in the original aim of the research, which was to investigate the workshop method as a change agent (an educational instrument of change) in respect of women's attitudes, so that they can take full advantage of educational and employment opportunities.

In attempting this investigation I looked at the position of women in the past and now in the last decade of the Twentieth Century. I found that I was in agreement with the Hansard Society Report (1990) that states that 'the barriers to equality to women are still general and pervasive' and lists some of these as:

* Outmoded attitudes about the role of women
* Direct and indirect discrimination
* The absence of proper childcare provision
* Inflexible structure for work and careers.

Although the position of women has improved marginally in the last few years, there is still a long way to go to reach equality. Now, in 1992, there are still no women judges in the House of Lords, although there are now two women Cabinet Ministers (Virginia Bottomley and Gillian Shephard) and a woman permanent secretary in the Civil Service, the Director of Public Prosecutions, Barbara Mills.

A report in the Labour Research Magazine (February, 1992) quotes recent Civil Service statistics and says that whilst women represent 49% of all non-industrial civil servants, less than 7% are at the level of under-secretary or above, and although 80% of the NHS Workforce are women only 7% are senior decision makers. The report suggests that things should improve in the public
service unions when NALGO, NUPE and COHSE amalgamate in 1993, as they have said that they intend to appoint women to senior positions in the new union in direct ratio to the female membership. The article says that this should mean that 44 of the 67 national executive places would be reserved for women. Only two unions have female general secretaries at this time, these are Diane Warwick in the Association of University Teachers, and Liz Symons in the senior Civil Servants union, the FDA. The HELM report (1989) quotes a working party report of the Standing Conference of University Appointments Services (on Equal Opportunities) which said 'a considerable number of women graduates have limited career ambitions (and) do not want to find themselves in highly-competitive situations'. This argument is supported by further comments on 'women's typical lack of self-confidence in their abilities' (Chisholm, 1980) and women emphasising 'the importance of helping people' whilst men clearly 'favoured the use of leadership skills' (Chapman, 1989).

I argued that workshops could be used to assist in overcoming many of the barriers to equality, particularly those relating to lack of self-esteem, the need for leadership skills and the 'inflexible structure for work and careers' (Hansard Society Report 1990). The workshop programme preferred by many women, either in career development or for women returners, should contain advice about employment and training and also teach exercises for improving confidence skills.
It was established (Chapters 7 & 8) that generally women tend to be slightly less confident than the average man, although circumstances may well alter levels of confidence at various times in their lives, but one of the times when they seem to be at their least confident is when they are Women Returners.

The outstanding fact of the whole enquiry, however, is the virtual unanimity of the belief, uttered both by participants and facilitators, that the workshop method is a most useful and effective means of raising the confidence level in the generality of women (Chapters 9 & 10). It would also appear that many facilitators insert confidence-building exercises into a high proportion of their workshops, irrespective of the main subject matter, because they perceive the need of this valuable element.

This element, so named, seems to work and the exercises learned appear to be reusable in many later life situations. This has been confirmed in a number of cases by follow-up communications with ex-participants, who have told me that they were continuing to use confidence building techniques to help them cope with every day life situations.

The Workshop seems also to be effective in assisting life/change decisions, often as a result of peer support combined with a partial absorption of the Facilitator’s enthusiasms. A main factor may, however, be the brief unaccustomed withdrawal from ordinary life into a sympathetic environment, allowing people time to think about their lives and reassess their goals, by focussing on their own needs for a short time.
There is also the relief of discovering that one is not alone in having problems and the opportunity of being able to 'network' with others - even if it is only during the lunch-break.

The main conclusions about the usefulness of the workshop, therefore, are as follows:

* that they act as vehicles for change;
* that they can increase self-confidence and other personal skills;
* that they allow the dissemination of knowledge and information;
* that they show individuals that their problems are not unique (a problem shared is a problem solved syndrome).

Since these conclusions would generally be regarded as beneficial, the positive value of the Workshop is becoming obvious.

I submit that the methodology of the enquiry has been effectively used, in that data obtained from various sources each confirmed the other. As for example, some of the interviewees suggested that some women 'lacked confidence', whilst the questionnaire scores indicated that the average female student's self-esteem was slightly less than the average male's was, even though girls are probably quite confident at that age. This data was confirmed qualitatively by the women participants in workshops who undervalued, or did not recognise, their own skills.

The theory and design of workshops was investigated by a form of action research using the processes of participating in, or facilitating, a number of workshops and designing and developing programmes for other ones. I did not facilitate any on interpersonal skills because I was not qualified to do so, and the 'encounter' type workshop, which deals with feelings and emotions,
can be dangerous if run by people who have not been specially trained in this field.

The methodology could have been used to obtain an even more detailed picture of the use of workshops if time and expense had been no object. If this were possible, it would have been useful:
* to interview personally more people in distant locations
* to have 'pre-interviews' in order to establish which workshops would fulfil particular needs.
* to have counselling and support services available after the workshop has ended
* to visit training organisations and study their methods

CONCLUSIONS AND THE WAY FORWARD

The main problem with using workshops to produce an effective change in attitudes is that they reach a comparatively low number of people. Even the Peppersell/BBC Workshop, which is the largest single enterprise that I have heard of, reached only 960 women. It was also very costly and could only have been mounted by large organisations. Should they ever repeat this initiative, I would hope better use would be made of the publicity and materials. It should be possible to involve both Adult and Further Education Institutes by supplying them with packs of 'materials' and mentioning them in the publicity campaign, so that similar workshops could be held simultaneously in many places.

A precedent for this is the BBC Basic Education Programmes for Word Power and Number Power, which interested and reassured people by using the familiar medium of Television and encouraged students to move on to classes in local education organisations.
Another way of reaching people should be the Open University/300 Group 'Women into Focus' Pack, which will contain exercises that could be used with groups. However, as I mentioned earlier this has temporarily been shelved because of lack of funding.

The research into the use of Workshops in training could be extended by investigating the success of initiatives such as the Opportunity 2000 Project and also by carrying out an examination of firms' training programmes. Preliminary contacts indicate that this could be a fruitful area of research.

Perhaps the most hopeful sign yet is the new EEC Council Resolution (21.5.1991) which states among other matters that 'Equal treatment for men and women must be assured. Equal opportunities must be developed'. It goes on to say that 'better use should be made of women's abilities and gifts so as to permit their full participation in the process of European development'.

This is supported by an EOC report (No 34, 1991), concerning the 'Third Action Programme', called NOW. This states (p.9) that 'women's lack of opportunities for personal and career development is a severe stumbling block to the achievement of equal opportunities between men and women' and (p. 10) two important factors are 'discrimination in education and poor access to training'. It was also suggested that it was very necessary to promote the 'active participation of women in the decision making process' (p 21).

Government backed training programmes, as visualised by the WNC (Chapter 3), should help to improve women's prospects, but there
is an important potential role for the workshop if more use is made of this method as a 'top down' change agent as well as a 'bottom up' grass-roots educational tool.

The most effective manner of disseminating the liberal and progressive policies of the EOC 'NOW' programme referred to above would be to institute the use of workshops at the conferences of the 'decision makers' and the 'gate-keepers'. The key element in achieving results quickly and effective change over the whole spectrum of women in society is to institute greater numbers of women in the 'decision-making' process at all levels.

It is maintained in this thesis that the institution and proliferation of workshops, at all levels of women's educational and employment needs, will be the best way of effecting this end and will contribute to a more equal society for both men and women.

Margaret E Fricker
SECTION 5:

The Appendix
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QUESTIONNAIRES
Dear Student,

Please let me explain why I am writing to ask your help in completing the enclosed short questionnaire.

There is considerable evidence that although more women are entering the professions, there are still very few of them in "top jobs". Various reasons are put forward for this and one is said to be that women undervalue themselves and lack confidence in their own abilities.

I am trying to find out whether women themselves agree with this assessment and, if so, whether an innovatory intervention can take place to change the situation. I do hope that you will find time to respond to these questions in order to help me develop a method of doing this.

The questionnaire will only take a few minutes to complete and does not require a stamp, as it can be returned to me in the enclosed envelope using the University's internal post.

Please try to return it as soon as possible and certainly before the end of April.

Thank you in advance for your help.

Yours sincerely,

(MARGARET FRICKER)
QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is to investigate attitudes of first year female students of the University of Surrey to their taking part in Seminars, Lectures, Student Union Committees, University Committees or other extra-curricular activities.

1) Name and address. (This will be used solely for keeping records of questionnaire returns.)

Name
Address

Please tick where appropriate.

2) Age
   18 - 21 □
   over 21 □

3) Faculty
   Science □
   Arts □
   Social Science □

4) Was your last school (or 6th Form College) for girls only □ or mixed □?

5) 1. Are you at present a member of any University Related Group? Yes □ No □
    11. If yes, please state which ____________________
    1IV. If No, would you like to be? ____________________

6) 1. Are you an official representative of any University Related Group? Yes □ No □
    11. If Yes, please state your office. ____________________
    1IV. If No, would you like to be? ____________________

Please rate your answers to the following by putting a circle round the appropriate number.

7) In your experience do Women ask fewer questions than Men
   1. in Lectures? Fewer 1 2 3 4 5 More
   11. in Seminars? Fewer 1 2 3 4 5 More

8) How do you rate the number of questions you ask compared with Male students?
   1. in Lectures? Fewer 1 2 3 4 5 More
   11. in Seminars? Fewer 1 2 3 4 5 More

9) Please make an approximate estimate of the number of students
   1. in a typical Lecture? ________ Male ________ Female
   11. in a typical Seminar? ________ Male ________ Female

10) Have you any views about the quality of questions that female students ask compared with those that Male ones do?
Please rate your answers to the following by putting a circle round the appropriate number.

11) Would you describe yourself
   1) in Lectures as Not confident 1 2 3 4 5 Very Confident
   11) in Seminars as Not confident 1 2 3 4 5 Very Confident
   111) in life generally as Not confident 1 2 3 4 5 Very Confident

12) How important do you think it is for Graduate Recruiters to be able to see extra-curricular activities listed on your c.v.?
   Not important 1 2 3 4 5 Very important

Please tick where appropriate

13) 1) Have you ever received any 'confidence skills' training? Yes ☐ No ☐
   11) If Yes, please state where _____________________

111) If No, do you think it would have helped you? Yes ☐ No ☐
   IV) Where would you have liked it? At School ☐ University ☐ or elsewhere ☐ please specify _____________________

14) Some confidence skills training may be available without charge. Would you like to participate? Yes ☐ No ☐

15) This training may be in the form of a workshop. How would you react to this method?

16) Please describe your preferred method of being trained?

Thank you for your help. Please return this questionnaire in the envelope provided to the Education Studies Department.

Margaret Fricker.
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name and address (Optional: This will be used solely for keeping records of questionnaire returns and will be treated as confidential).

   Name

   Address

Please tick where appropriate

2. Age: 18-21

3. Sex: Male

4. Faculty:
   - Science
   - Arts
   - Social Science

5. Was your previous place of education for:
   - boys only
   - girls only
   - mixed
   - ?

6. i) Have you ever been a member of any University Club, Society or Committee? Yes No

   ii) If yes, please state which ___________________________________________________________

   iii) If no, would you like to be? __________________________________________________________

   iv) If no, can you give any reason for not being?

7. i) Have you ever held an elected position in any University Club, Society or Committee? Yes No

   ii) If yes, please state your office _______________________________________________________

   iii) If no, would you like to be? ________________________________________________________

   iv) Can you give any reasons for not being?

Please rate your answers to the following by putting a circle around the appropriate number

8. How important do you think it is for Graduate Recruiters to be able to see extra curricular activities listed on your c.v.?

   Not important 1 2 3 4 5 Very Important

9. How frequently does it seem to you that men ask questions compared with women

   i) in Lectures? Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very frequently

   ii) in Seminars? Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very frequently

10. How frequently do you ask questions

    i) in Lectures? Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very frequently

    ii) in Seminars? Never 1 2 3 4 5 Very frequently

11. Please make an approximate estimate of the number of students

    i) In the Lecture you were considering in question 9.   Male   Female

    ii) In the Seminar you were considering in question 9.   Male   Female

12. Have you any views about the quality of questions that female students ask compared with those that male students ask?

13. Would you please state whether you agree or disagree with the following items

   Strongly agree   Agree   Disagree   Strongly Disagree

   a) on the whole, I am satisfied with myself

   b) at times I think I am no good at all

   c) I feel that I have a number of good qualities

   d) I am able to do this as well as most other people

   e) I feel I do not have much to be proud of

   f) I certainly feel useless at times

   g) I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others

   h) I wish I could have more respect for myself

   i) All in all I'm inclined to feel that I am a failure

   j) I take a positive attitude toward myself
14. i) Have you ever received any 'confidence skills' training? Yes No
   ii) If yes, please state where _____________________
   iii) If no, do you think it would have helped you? Yes No
   iv) Where would you have liked it? At School University
       or elsewhere please specify _________________________________

15. Some confidence skills training may be available without charge
    Would you like to participate? Yes No
    This training may be in the form of a workshop. How would you react to this method?

16. Please describe your preferred method of receiving confidence skills training

__________________________________________________________

Thank you for your help. Please return this questionnaire in the envelope provided to me in the Educational
Studies Department.

Margaret Fricker
Dear Student

I am a research student in the Department of Educational Studies looking at certain aspects of student life and would be grateful if you could help me by filling in the enclosed questionnaire which is being sent to all first year undergraduate students at Surrey University.

The questionnaire should only take a few minutes to complete and can be returned to me using the University's internal post. You may use the same envelope in which it was delivered, firstly crossing out your name, or if you prefer, another envelope. The information you give me will be kept strictly confidential, the responses being aggregated into total numbers.

I would be grateful if you could return it to me by Monday 6 June at the latest.

Thank you in advance for your help.

Yours faithfully

MARGARET FRICKER
**Questionnaire for First Year Undergraduates**

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<th>Female</th>
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<th>21 and over</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

6. (a) Have you ever been a member of any University Club, Society or Committee for at least a term?

   - Yes | 188 | (9)
   - No  | 34  | (10)

(b) If NO please go on to question 9

(c) Please state the areas of interest covered by the above clubs and societies

   - Sporting | 126 | (11)
   - Political | 7   | (12)
   - Religious | 4   | (13)
   - Departmental | 45  | (14)
   - Arts/Music | 61  | (15)
   - Other      | 57  | (16)

7. Have you ever held an official or elected position in any University Club, Society or Committees?

   - 56 Male and 50 Female

   - Yes | 106 | (17)
   - No  | 81  | (18)

   If YES please state which

   - Chair | 23  | (18)
   - Vice-Chair | 4 | (19)
   - Secretary | 23 | (20)
   - Treasurer | 17 | (21)
   - Other    | 60  | (22)

   and go to question 10

   If NO go to question 8

8. If you have not held an office or elected positions, would you like to have done?

   - Yes  | 31  | (23)
   - No   | 50  | (24)
If YES please give reasons for not doing so

If NO please give reasons why you do not want to do so

Please go on to question 10.

9 If you have not been a member of any University Society, Club or Committee, would you like to be?

Yes 21 No 12

If YES can you give any reasons for not being one?

If NO please give the reasons why you do not want to be a member

10 Please state whether you agree or disagree with each of the following items:

(a) on the whole, I am satisfied with myself
(b) at times I think I am no good at all
(c) I feel that I have a number of good qualities
(d) I am able to do things as well as most other people
(e) I feel I do not have much to be proud of
(f) I certainly feel useless at times
(g) I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others
(h) I wish I could have more respect for myself
(i) All in all I'm inclined to feel that I am a failure
(j) I take a positive attitude toward myself

Please rate your answers to the following by putting a circle round the appropriate number

11 How important do you think it is for Graduate Recruiters to see extra curricular activities on your cv?

Not important 1 2 3 Very important 4 5

12 What benefits do you think would accrue from extra-curricular activities in terms of your career?

13 In lectures and seminars or tutorials, how frequently does it seem to you that men ask questions compared with women?

In lectures Never 1 2 3 Very frequently 4 5
In seminars/ tutorials Never 1 2 3 Very frequently 4 5

14 How frequently do you ask questions?

In lectures Never 1 2 3 Very frequently 4 5
In seminars/ tutorials Never 1 2 3 Very frequently 4 5
15 Please make an approximate estimate of the average number of students in the situations that you have been considering.

In lectures
- Male: □ 1 (55), (56)
- Female: □ 1 (57), (58)
- Approx Total: □ 1 (59), (60)

In seminars or tutorials
- Male: □ 1 (61), (62)
- Female: □ 1 (63), (64)
- Approx Total: □ 1 (65), (66)

16 Course has
- Male students only: □ 1 (67)
- Female students only: □ 2 (68)
- Mixed sexes: □ 3 (69)

17 Have you any views about the quality of questions that female students ask compared with those male students do?

18 (i) Have you ever received any "Confidence skills" or "Assertiveness skills" training?
- Yes: 53 □ 1 (71)
- No: 16 □ 2 (72)

(ii) If YES please state whether at
- School: □ 1 (73)
- University: □ 2 (74)
- Elsewhere: □ 3 (75)

(iii) If NO do you think it would have helped you?
- Yes: 62% □ 1 (76)
- No: 38% □ 2 (77)

(iv) Where would you have liked to have had this training?
- School: □ 1 (78)
- University: □ 2 (79)
- Elsewhere: □ 3 (80)

19 (i) Some "Confidence skills" or "Assertiveness training" may be available for a limited number at no cost, would you like to participate?
- Yes: 64% □ 1 (81)
- No: 36% □ 2 (82)

(ii) If YES please write your name here

20 Please tick your preferred method of receiving assertiveness or confidence skills training.
- Lecture: 35 □ 1 (83)
- Book: 18 □ 2 (84)
- Workshop: 94 □ 3 (85)
- Other: □ 4 (86)

If other please specify
WORKSHOP PARTICIPANTS AND THE PARTICIPANTS’ QUESTIONNAIRE.

It has already been stated (Introduction, p. 12) that four fifths of women returners are aged between 25 and 49. Those who came to the Farnham careers workshop included 31% between 31 and 40 years old and 19% between 41 and 45 (see p.158). These figures are also shown on the Histogram on p. x which has a similar spread of ages to those shown at a Woking AE. Course on 'New Opportunities for Women',p. xii, with the greatest number, 9, being between 36 and 40 and 4 being between 41 and 45 out of a total of 14 participants, which makes 92% in this age range in the 'main stream' Course and gave 70% in the 'pilot' Course. These courses at Woking, run by Marie Rice, were for sixty hours (two hours per day for 6 weeks) and were 'for women considering a return to the labour market'. They were Courses, but many individual activities were Workshops.

The age range 30 – 45 seems to be fairly typical for participants in Women Returners or Career Development Workshops. Most of the first group have been out of the job market for a number of years and need help in order to make informed choices as to how, when and whether to go back into paid employment. The second group have already returned to the job market, but feel that they need help in moving up the career ladder. Both groups can lack confidence. Workshops need to:

* Inspire women to achieve their full potential and take control of their lives.
* Help them to assess the types of jobs that will be needed in the future.
* Assess and teach the qualities and skills needed to do them.
* Ensure that they know how to obtain these skills.
* Help them to organise/negotiate family responsibilities so that these fit in with their plans.
* Introduce them to the concepts of mentoring and networking.
* Teach them job-hunting skills.

They must also teach people to value themselves as they are.

In the current recession learning job hunting skills will not guarantee success. It is important to point out the realities and explain that it might be better to train in the use of IT skills (Information Technology) so as to be well qualified when things are easier, because IT and science related jobs are the only ones with many vacancies in this part of Surrey apart from low paid jobs related to 'care' and 'catering'. It is equally important to turn participants into a 'support group' wherever possible, so that new found confidence and enthusiasm is not damaged by temporary setbacks.

The next pages show the Histograms for ages and qualifications of the groups mentioned above, followed by the questionnaire that was given to some of the Pepparell Unit/ BBC Conference participants and a few of the comments that they made.
Careers Development Workshop

Number of Participants


Age of participants
Careers Development Workshop: Qualifications.

- O' Level / GCSE
- A Level
- Professional
- Degrees or equivalent

Number of Participants

0 1 2 3 4 5

O' Level / GCSE
A Level
Professional
Degrees or equivalent
Woking A.E. 'New Opportunities for Women' Course

Age Profile of students in Pilot and Mainstream groups

Educational Achievement of students in Pilot and Mainstream Groups

(Graphs by kind permission of Marie Rice)
Dear Participant,

The Pepperell Unit has kindly agreed to give you this questionnaire in order to help me in a research project. My enquiry is about the effects and uses of workshops in encouraging women to set goals and explore new ideas, which may assist them when seeking employment. I would very much appreciate it if you could fill this in now (it should only take a few minutes) or send it to me as soon as possible. Thank you for your help.

Yours sincerely,

Margaret Fricker.
(1, Nightingale Rd, Guildford GU1 1ER, Surrey.)

QUESTIONS ABOUT WORKSHOPS GENERALLY

1) Have you ever gone to a workshop like this before? Yes__No__

( A 'workshop' implies a group 'learning/sharing' experience which is active and participative, lasting from as short a time as a few hours to a few days, provided it is finite & self-contained)
If 'No' go on to question (6).

2) What was/were the topic(s) of any previous workshop(s)?

3) Where did it/they take place?

4) Did you obtain any lasting benefit from the previous workshop(s)?
Yes__No__ Please elaborate on this and indicate how long you felt its/their benefit, or influence, lasted.

5) Do you feel that the workshop(s) 'triggered' any change in direction for you? Yes__No__
Please elaborate, saying how and why, if possible.

QUESTIONS ABOUT TODAY'S WORKSHOP

6) Please tick names of workshops that you attended today:
1] Personal Effectiveness__2] Selling Yourself__3] Retraining__

7) Please tick two others that you would like to have gone to:
1] Personal Effectiveness__2] Selling Yourself__3] Retraining__

8) Which workshop session do you think will have been the most useful to you? Please also state why, if possible.

xvii.
(9) Which 'insight' gained, or which technique learned today, will be most useful, do you think, in your future?

(10) Do you feel anything that happened today has 'triggered' any changes in your present feelings about work or life? Yes___ No___ Please elaborate

(11) Would you have liked to do a 'follow up' session in a month or two's time to re-inforce techniques that you have learned? Please tick: Yes ___ No ___. If 'Yes', would you have wanted it in one month ___, three months ___, or other (please state how long) __________

(12) What other information/ technique would you have liked to have learned today?

Please rate answers to 13 and 14 on a 1 - 5 scale (where 1 = most and 5 = least) and make further comments if possible.

(13) Which do you think is the most useful method of imparting this type of information? a) A book___ b) A lecture___ c) A Workshop___ d) A video___ e) Other___ (please specify) __________

(14) Which of the following did you find most important today? a) Confidence boosting __ b) Stimulating atmosphere ___ c) Contact with others in similar situations ___ d) Group leaders' enthusiasm __ e) Other ___ (please specify) __________

It would be helpful if you could answer these OPTIONAL QUESTIONS:

FAMILY: Married (partnered)___ Widowed___ Divorced___ Single ___
CHILDREN: None ___ One ___ Two or more ___ Any under school age ___
EDUCATION: UP TO GCSE EQUIVALENT ___, A LEVEL ___, DEGREE LEVEL ___
OTHER (please state) _____________________________________________

Are you currently working? Yes___ No __. If Yes, tick F/T ___ Or P/T ___. Would you like a different job? (please specify) __________________

Are you job-hunting? Yes ___ No ___. Original occupation _______________. Please use the space below to make comments on any questions or give any further views about the use of workshops as a medium. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP.
The questionnaire was distributed at the Manchester Pepperell Unit/ BBC 'Back to the Future' Conference. The Pepperell Unit had 80 returns of their evaluation sheet, but I had only 17 replies to my questionnaire.

Of these, only four had ever attended a workshop before. One said that the earlier workshops (on the Church, Feminist theology and Assertiveness) had had an 'ongoing, permanent effect' and 'opened up new vistas and sparked off new interests'. Another said that she had previously attended one on 'Personal Development' and that 'it is still working'. She said that it had built self confidence and 'boosted my self-esteem, making me feel a worthwhile person'.

They also seemed to have gained much benefit from the conference workshops, even though they were only 45 minutes long, and said: 'they made me feel that I can do whatever I want with my life and be successful', 'it has made me sit down and analyse the future and what I want from it more rigorously'... and 'It encouraged me to be more positive'.

The workshops that they found most helpful were:

- (6 people) Personal Effectiveness because 'it showed me how by changing emphasis negatives can become positive'
- (4 people) Planning your life: 'inspiring' and 'It made me feel that there is no limit to what I can do if I really try'
- (4 people) Selling yourself because 'it helped to translate basic knowledge and experiences into convincing skills',

Ages: Of those who ticked the age question, 8 were 35 - 45 and 4 were 45 - 55, and two thirds of them had two or more children.

The additional information that they would have liked to have been included: Body Language, more detailed and relevant information on training, more solid information about jobs available, and furthering a career once you are in a job.

This is similar to the information that the Farnham Workshop participants said that they would have liked, when I telephoned them, so I included training opportunities and an input from an expert on the current job-market in the Women Returner’s Workshop that I hope to run on February 6th, 1993 (see p.xl). It is still too soon to know if this will run, or if those who said that they would like this type of programme will actually attend.

Concluding this discussion on the participants questionnaire, as I have said repeatedly, it does seem that workshops help many people at a stage when they have lost confidence and feel vulnerable and, from observation, most women seem to feel happy with the workshop format. However, I have only interpretation to support a case in favour of Roger’s model of 'Adoption of new attitudes as a person progresses from awareness, through interest and evaluation (of whether their needs are being met) to trial and adoption'. Those who rejected both the Farnham and the Pepperell Unit workshops seemed to do so very early on, in fact about the time of the first coffee break.

The next pages concern the Facilitators’ Questionnaire.
Dear

I do hope that you will be able to help me in the following matter.

I am a post-graduate student in the Educational Studies Department of Surrey University working on the topic of: "The Workshop method as an educational instrument of change in women’s attitudes to help them overcome gender stratification in employment and increase their promotion prospects."

There are many reasons given for the lack of equal opportunities in employment. I am investigating whether women’s own attitudes are an important obstacle to change and whether the Workshop method could hold a key position in altering this situation.

To aid my investigation I would find it helpful to know more about the methods used by, and the opinions of, those Facilitators who run workshops.

I would be most grateful if you could fill in the enclosed questionnaire and also agree to a possible 'follow-up' discussion, later.

Thank you for your help.

Yours sincerely,

( Margaret Fricker )
1. How would you personally define a workshop?  
   Experiential  
   Group  
   Active/participatory  
   Focused on aim or task.  

2. How does a workshop differ from a group discussion/Seminar/Conference?  
   Involves all  
   Practical  
   Variety/multi-activity  

3. What are you usually called? (please tick one box only)  
   a) Workshop Leader  
   b) Facilitator  
   c) Trainer  
   d) Co-ordinator  
   e) Other (please state)  

4. What was/were your original training/career(s)?  
   Nurse  
   Teacher  
   Trainer  
   Psychotherapist  
   Secretary  
   Other  

5. What is/are your present occupation(s)? (please give details of each)  
   Tutor  
   Psychotherapist  
   Consultant  
   Facilitator  
   Counselor  
   Other  

6. Before you ran any Workshops, did you: (please tick all relevant boxes)  
   a) read relevant information  
   b) have any specific training  
   c) attend one as a participant  
   d) other (please state)  

7. For how long, approximately have you been running Workshops? (please tick one box only)  
   a) less than one year  
   b) 1 - 2 years  
   c) 3 - 5 years  
   d) Other (please state)  

8. How frequently do you run Workshops? (please tick one box only)  
   a) weekly  
   b) monthly  
   c) 3-6 times per year  
   d) Once a year or less  
   e) Other - (give details)
9. How experienced would you rate yourself (in terms of your ability to run Workshops) on a scale 1 - 5?

Please ring number: (very able) 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (not so able) (24)

10. Please explain how you are employed as a Workshop Facilitator.

(please tick all relevant boxes)

a) by an organisation (25) 36
b) as a freelance (26) 36
c) in your own organisation employing others (27) 22

d) other (please clarify) (28) 9

QUESTIONS ABOUT THE STRUCTURE OF YOUR OWN WORKSHOPS

11. What subject(s) do you usually facilitate?

(29) (30) (31)

12. Do you think workshops 'run more smoothly' in the above subject(s) with:

(please tick one box only and give reasons)

a) women only (32) 22
b) men only (33) 2

c) mixed groups (34) 18

13. Of what types of people do your groups normally consist? (please tick as many as are applicable)

a) mixed races (33) 24
b) white (34) 40
c) coloured (35) 6

d) men (36) 9
e) women (37) 32
f) mixed sexes (38) 46
g) young (39) 26
h) middle-aged (40) 40
i) other (please state) (41) 13

14. Do you think Workshops work better with one or two facilitators? (please comment)

a) one facilitator (42) 12

b) two facilitators (43) 25

15. What is your preferred minimum and maximum number of participants with one facilitator: Min... (43, 44) 7-51 (48)

Max... (45, 46) 14-38 (49)

16. How would you say that your workshops are structured?
Please ring on scale 1-5. (Very tightly) 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 (Rather loosely) (47)

17. Would you describe your most frequently used style of facilitating as:

Please tick one only.

"supervisory" (6 said 'both')

"participative" (2)(48)

18. Please tick relevant box(es) if you have updated your facilitating skills in the last two years by:

reading literature (49) 4.2

attending courses (50) 3.6
19. Do you include the following in your workshops?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Always</th>
<th>Sometimes</th>
<th>Never</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a) a general introduction about subject</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b) an explanation about workshop style</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c) preparation for students beforehand</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d) an 'icebreaker'</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e) a practical input of knowledge</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f) links to student's past experience</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g) facilitators definition of objectives</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h) opportunity for participants to define objectives for workshop?</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i) identification of personal goals</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j) group exercises</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k) individual exercises</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l) skills practice</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m) role playing exercises</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n) brainstorm</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>o) mindmaps (Respondents said that they did not recognize this term.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>p) snowballs or pyramids (This term also obviously needed further explanation. Some respondents did not understand term.)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>q) handouts</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>r) use of visual aids</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s) a debriefing</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>t) drawing together experiences at end?</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u) exchange of participants' addresses</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>v) an evaluation sheet</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w) some form of follow up meeting</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>z) other (please state) ...</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. If you frequently answered 'sometimes', please explain what affects this choice of activities and make comments on anything else above including whether you use different terms. 24 respondents made comments</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
21. Is there a constant 'core skeleton' to your workshops?  
(If Yes, please elaborate on what this consists of.)

Yes 1 (76)  
No 2

22. Please tick the visual aids you frequently use.

- a) Blackboard
- b) Whiteboard
- c) Handouts
- d) Flip chart
- e) Over head projectors
- f) Audio-cassette
- g) Videoed information
- h) Videoing participants
- i) Other (please state)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visual Aid</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blackboard</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Whiteboard</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handouts</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flip chart</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over head projectors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio-cassette</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Videoed information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Videoing participants</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23. With reference to the 'materials', do you:
(please tick as many boxes as applicable)

- a) Use other people's unchanged
- b) Adapt other people's
- c) Design your own

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material Type</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use other people's unchanged</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adapt other people's</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design your own</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24. What do you think is the optimum length of time for a whole Workshop in your subject? (please tick one box only and give your reasons)

- a) 1/2 day
- b) 1 day
- c) 2 days
- d) 3 days
- e) Other (please state)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Duration</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1/2 day</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 day</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 days</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 days</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

QUESTIONS ABOUT ATTITUDES AND FEELINGS ABOUT WORKSHOPS

25. Do you think participants get anything from Workshops that they do not get from other forms of communication, eg group discussion, lectures, videos, books? (Please explain)

Yes 1 (90)  
No 2

26. Do you think that a workshop, even of short duration, can act as a trigger to change someone's approach to their life or career? (If Yes, how do you think this occurs?)

Yes 1 (91)  
No 2
27. Can you quote any anecdotes or personal experiences for 26? 35 said they could. 15 said they could not.

28. Some people say that their first discovery of the 'Workshop phenomenon' was special. Later Workshops may not have such a dramatic impact on them. Others do not agree.
Do you think that there is such a thing as a 'first workshop revelation' syndrome. (Please comment if you have any views)
Yes [1] (92) 25
No [2] 16

29. How are you affected when running W'shops? (please tick one or both answers)
- My own attitudes change too [1] (93) 49
- I act as others' change agent [1] (94) 51

30. What do you personally get out of running a workshop?

31. Why do you think it is that workshops are popular with women?

32. Do you think people in your Workshops are most likely to acquire:
(please tick one box only)
- knowledge [1] (95)
- skills [2]
- self confidence [3]

33. Would you classify your Workshop's objectives/field as mainly:
(please tick one box only)
- Career training/development [1] (96)
- Middle Management skills [2]
- Women Returners (Professional) [3]
- Women Returners (general) [4]
- Personal effectiveness/confidence building [5]
- Other (please specify) [6]

34. If you did not tick e) in question 33, would you say if you include a 'confidence building' exercise as part of the other workshops. (please give reasons)
- always [1] (97)
- sometimes [2]
- never [3]
35. Do you include an awareness, or warning, about gender stratification in employment in your workshops? (please comment)
   a) always □ 1 (98) 8
   b) sometimes □ 2 29
   c) never □ 3 16

36. Do you have any method of ascertaining whether there is a long term benefit from a workshop? Please explain what is involved e.g. monitoring or 'follow-up'?
   a) Yes □ 1 (99) 26
   b) No □ 2 26

37. Do you think that your Workshops contribute in any way to a decrease in gender differentiation in Women's Employment?
   a) Yes □ 1 (100) 18
   b) No □ 2
   If Yes, please state which methods or exercises you use might do this.

38. Would you be prepared to give participants in one of your workshops a short questionnaire to investigate their attitude to the workshop phenomenon?
   a) Yes □ 1 30
   b) No □ 2

39. Please make any further comments about workshops as a method of changing people's attitudes, or any other comments, below:

PLEASE TICK FOLLOWING TO HELP CLASSIFY ANSWERS:

Are you
Female □ 1 (101) 55
Male □ 2 5

Please indicate age range:
30 or under □ 1 (102) 2
31-40 □ 2 11
41-50 □ 3 24
over 50 □ 4 22

Are you
Single □ 1 (103) 6
Married/partnered □ 2
Widowed/separated/divorced □ 3

THANK YOU FOR FILLING THIS IN. (The following replies are optional)
NAME
ADDRESS
TEL No

XX11.
### Workshop Facilitators' Questionnaire Respondents

#### Age range of facilitators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age of respondents</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 51</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Length in years of experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No of years</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&lt; 1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>over 21</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Self estimate of ability.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Self estimate</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (very able)</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (not so able)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF ITEMS/EXERCISES INCLUDED BY FACILITATORS IN RANK ORDER OF THE MOST 'POPULAR'. (Reference no. 19, Facilitator's Questionnaire).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Description</th>
<th>Facilitators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. General introduction about subject</td>
<td>53.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Group exercises</td>
<td>49.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. An ice breaker</td>
<td>42.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drawing together experiences at end</td>
<td>42.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Links to student's past experience</td>
<td>41.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Practical input of knowledge</td>
<td>40.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Skills practice</td>
<td>37.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Facilitators definition of objectives</td>
<td>35.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of visual aids</td>
<td>34.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Debriefing</td>
<td>32.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Participants definition of objectives</td>
<td>31.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation about Workshops style</td>
<td>31.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Role-playing exercises</td>
<td>27.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Obviously the choice of items used is partly dependent on the nature of the workshop and its length. A number of facilitators mentioned this point and also said that it depended on the participants' needs and whether they thought that they would feel comfortable with an exercise (e.g., role play). Some also said that they would arrange for an exchange of addresses if networking was part of the agenda or if participants asked for this to be done. Several said that they were not sure what was meant by pyramids or snowballs, but talking to a number of people afterwards, I realised that it was the term that was unfamiliar and that some people who use these call them 'small group work'.

LIST OF VISUAL AIDS MOST FREQUENTLY USED BY FACILITATORS. (Reference: no. 22, Facilitators' Questionnaire).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Visual Aid</th>
<th>Facilitators</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Handouts</td>
<td>53.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flip chart</td>
<td>53.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Over-head projector</td>
<td>34.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Videotaping participants</td>
<td>12.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Audio-cassette</td>
<td>11.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Several people pointed out that one was dependent on what was supplied by the organisation providing the accommodation. This underlines the fact that it is important to check this beforehand and also to make sure that one always has a flip chart and felt-tip pens with one, in case there is nothing to write on. Some people also mentioned 'posters of information' and many people make their own or prepare flip chart pages beforehand.
THE FACILITATORS' QUESTIONNAIRE SUGGESTIONS FOR CORE WORKSHOPS AND SOME OF THEIR COMMENTS ON WORKSHOPS AS A METHOD OF CHANGING ATTITUDES.

The Facilitators' Questionnaire yielded much valuable information and a variety of views (some of which are mentioned in Chapter 10). It seems useful to follow these with details of core workshops, (Q.21) and comments about the use of the workshop in changing peoples' attitudes (Q.39).

A number of answers included the fact that a 'confidentiality agreement' must be negotiated at the beginning of each Workshop.

Many Facilitators listed a core workshop that is similar to those discussed on pages 134, 140 and 147 in Chapter 9 and page xxiv in this Appendix. Some of these were as follows:

A. 'F.6' used '1. Introductions, 2. Icebreaker, 3. Expectations/Fears, 4. Group work on behavioural patterns, 5. Variety of teaching methods, 6. Discussion or Role play, 7. Feedback and Conclusion'.


Several Facilitators suggested a general pattern similar to the Kolb learning cycle, to be sandwiched between an introduction and a conclusion. One said that you can start anywhere in the cycle, 'provided you go clockwise!'. Others said that it depended on the subject, eg. media presentation. Skills had to have a format of 'interview / play back / feedback'. Another said that beginnings and endings 'usually consist of participants' expectations (wants) and concerns (don't wants). The end will be what people would have liked to be different, what they appreciated and what they want to do as a result of this'.

Answers to Q.39 (asking for comments about workshops as a method of change) included 'Attitude change comes from within. Workshops allow this to take place', 'in a supportive atmosphere, problems and difficulties - the delegates own and other people's - are sympathetically revealed and can bring about changes in behaviour'. They are shown different ways, skills and techniques which may change their attitudes - or may not - depending on basically whether they want to change or indeed are able and 'Participants say that they have learned a lot in the sessions - but what they mean is that they have 'rediscovered' things for themselves'. Finally one warned against instigating change which may be difficult to cope with without support in normal context, because 'that would be irresponsible'.
CASE STUDIES
GROUP A: ASSERTIVENESS SKILLS WORKSHOPS (PROGRAMME 1)

An Ice-breaker
The difference between Assertiveness and Aggression
The Bill of Rights
Three ways to become more Assertive
The Broken Record
How to say 'no'.
How to accept compliments
How to accept criticism
Debriefing

As explained on pages 146 and 147 (Chapter 9) I modified Programme 1 to become the Confidence Skills Workshop.

GROUPS D AND E: THE CONFIDENCE SKILLS WORKSHOP (PROGRAMME 2)

This programme had three sections. I illustrated it with a diagram of a three-legged stool and said that one's self-confidence depended on three things. These were:

Self-Esteem (see Programme 3)
Assertive Communication
Good Preparation ('Thinking Time' and Relaxation Techniques)

I used Programme 2 for some time with varying success. It included some elements of an Assertiveness programme in it but veered more towards looking at techniques to improve one's self-esteem. It also included relaxation exercises so that people could learn to deliberately relax themselves before difficult situations such as job interviews.

Some workshops that should have been disasters were successes, as for instance at a Conference, D1, when speeches 'overran' and I only had one hour. I decided to concentrate on the self-esteem section (see below) and afterwards many people telephoned me from all over the country to say how useful it had been and how much they had enjoyed it. This made me decide to experiment with isolating the self-esteem element and uniting it with other types of workshops see Programmes 3 and 4.

The other occasions when I used Programme 2 were with the M Phil/Ph D and 'Short Course' students (E1 and E2: mixed sexes) when it went well and two SMOL (Short Modules of Learning) groups E3 and E4, both female, when with identical topics, one was very successful and the other was not that good. The differences might have been that with the first I arrived very early and had managed to arrange chairs and wall posters before anyone else arrived and with the second, two days later, they were already in the room because they had previously had a class there. I was also rather tired and then discovered that several of them were experienced facilitators.

XXX


The other one on this (D3) could have been better although it improved after a while. This was a mixed AE Taster session and it turned out that one of the men thought that it was going to be about running a business!

From these experiences I learned that:

* one should screen / pre-counsel students where-ever possible
* .. never produce leaflets explaining exactly what is involved
* there should be no preconceptions about whether mixed or single sex groups are better for particular topics.
* one must not only arrive before the group but also make sure that one has access to the room before they arrive.

GROUP F : THE STUDY SKILLS WORKSHOPS F1,F2 and F3

One of these was with a boys’ school and the other with a girls’ school. For the boys’ one I had an initial training session with the masters where I was supposed to lead them in workshops so that they could see how they would work for a fifth year conference. They entered into the spirit of it and enjoyed Pat Cryer’s ‘Gathering Data Quickly’ exercise, which I suggested should be on how time is wasted. They made illuminating comments such as ‘The MCR wastes too much time playing Snooker’ and ‘gossiping!’ . For the boys’ conference I moved around the school giving advice when required to do so. The Programme for this is on page XXXI.

The girls’ school wanted a workshop on confidence skills as well something about time management. The programme for this is on page XXXII.

GROUP G : PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT (PROGRAMME 3)

This consisted of the following exercises and was the nucleus of the self-esteem element. It also sometimes included a section on ‘interview’ skills.

The Self-Esteem Exercises
Ice-breaker : ‘My name is ...I like myself because...’
Discussion about Confidence and Self-Esteem
Hearing something good about oneself
Brainstorm on ways of raising one’s confidence

GROUP H : WOMEN RETURNER WORKSHOPS (PROGRAMME 4)

These contained the self-esteem element referred to above, plus items on topics about job-hunting, educational training etc.

For a typical programme see page XXXIX

Some of the exercises mentioned above are described in the following pages. Out of them the women were very interested in any exercises on raising ones’ self-esteem and relaxation. The other most popular ones were the ‘snowball’ or ‘pyramid’, although not everyone called it this and the ‘Gathering Data’ one.
PLANNING WORKSHOPS

Introduction

In preparing to run a workshop it is necessary to decide what design materials to use because the success of the workshop will depend in part on its design and in part on the manner in which it is facilitated.

The previous chapter considered the key requirements of facilitation and this chapter will concentrate on the key elements of design.

In the answers to the facilitator's questionnaire many of them said that they used all three methods listed in question i.e.

They used other peoples materials unchanged
They adapted other peoples materials for their own use
They designed their own material

When people run workshops for the first time it is probably wise to use someone else's material, said everyone.

DECIDING ON WORKSHOP CONTENT

In order to 'brainstorm' the necessary requirements it is helpful to ask oneself the followig key questions.

WHO, WHAT, WHERE, WHY, and HOW?

At the simplest level these questions can cover:

Who is the workshop for?
What is it about?
Where will it be held?
Why is it required?
How will it be structured?

These basic questions can be extended to form a useful checklist, which could be used in the pre-preparatory stage of designing a workshop, when one needs to find out as much as possible about a group before tailoring material to its needs. This activity is sometimes called a 'needs assessment'.

CHECKLIST OF QUESTIONS

SECTION A : QUESTIONS ABOUT GROUP MEMBERS
1. Organisation or Target members of Group
2. Purpose of Workshop
3. Expected size of group
4. Age range of group
5. Which single gender, mixed gender.
6. Is workshop voluntary or mandatory
7. Do members already know each other
8. Do they know anything about the subject
9. Length of time required for workshop
10. Will single or several sessions be required
11. Suitable times for necessary breaks
12. Number of workshop leaders expected
13. With whom should programme changes be negotiated

SECTION B : QUESTIONS ABOUT WORKSHOP ENVIRONMENT
1. Size of room/facility
2. Comfortable Seating
Comfortable temperature/lighting
3. Refreshments available
4. Equipment available eg white board, flip chart
5. Visual aids eg OHP
6. Video equipment
7. Photocopying facilities

PLANNING THE WORKSHOP
It is said that 'learning is the process of preparing to deal with new situations'.
Effective learning takes place when there is a change in the behaviour or attitude of the learner.
Activity...
The stages of planning the workshop should cover the following:
1. PREPARATION: assessing needs of clients
2. AIMS: goals or overall purpose of the workshop
3. CONTENT: topics and methods used
4. SEQUENCE: best order of exercises

1. PREPARATION
First investigate target group finding information about numbers, age, background as indicated in checklist.
Assess the needs of the group, (diagnosis).
Prepare publicity posters, leaflets, press releases to advertise the workshop. Check whether funding available.
2. AIMS
Identify aims and objectives first.
(Aims relate to the purpose of the workshop
Objectives relate to achievements of individuals)

RELATED TO KNOWLEDGE
AIMS

RELATED TO SKILLS

RELATED TO ATTITUDES OR APPROACHES

Turn aims into objectives by asking what will participants know/think/feel by the end of his workshop?
Objectives can be turned into a flow chart to assist in planning organisational steps.

3. CONTENT
List objectives and consider methods of achieving them.
Collect materials, exercises
Write or rewrite material anew each time geared specifically to the needs of the group.
Prepare handouts, posters or acetate sheets

4. SEQUENCING
a. Sequence workshop elements in stages
   eg Introductory 'Icebreaker'
b. Body of workshop
   Use variation in style, group size and length of exercises
c. Conclusion
   Evaluation and debriefing
PROCEDURE FOR FACILITATING A WORKSHOP AND GROUP EXERCISES.

Workshops can provide a useful learning experience because participants are actively involved (Chapter 9). It must be noted that it is necessary for a person to have the experience of being a member of a group on a number of occasions, before becoming a group leader or facilitator, in order to gain insights into group dynamics, group learning and the leader's role (Chapter 10).

The purpose of a training workshop is to draw out participants' own experience and give them the opportunity to practice skills in a friendly environment (Chapter 10), whilst the role of the group leader is to stimulate, listen, focus and integrate discussion throughout the workshop (Chapter 10).

Size of group: from 8 - 16, ideally 12. Larger groups would require two leaders so that they can be split up into smaller practice sessions.

Environment: Informal and comfortable, with chairs that can be moved into one large circle so that everyone can see each other and feel equally involved, making both verbal and non-verbal communication easier.

Preparation: It is important that the workshop should be introduced with an explanation of the style of learning involved and a description of its aims, i.e. to generate new thinking and/or practise new skills, in order that any anxiety should be dispelled at the beginning. The boundaries of the discussion and its confidential nature should also be indicated. An atmosphere of warmth and welcoming informality should be established from the beginning. One way to do this is to serve tea or coffee, another is to enable people to introduce themselves through an 'ice-breaker' exercise.

TECHNIQUES AND EXERCISES USED IN WORKSHOPS

A. THE ICE-BREAKER
People may find it difficult to co-operate in a task before they have got to know each other. The ice-breaker is intended to ensure that people pay attention to each other and to create a friendly atmosphere. However some people may find them threatening so it is important to emphasize that they are merely meant to help people introduce themselves and that anyone who wishes to do so may opt out of this, or any other, exercise.

1. The 'Ice-breaker' may simply consist of people giving their name and saying where they have come from and why they have come. (Allow 15 minutes).

2. The Name Game is to help people remember each other's name. It begins with the first person saying their name: 'I am Jane' and the second saying 'This is Jane - and I am Jack' so that the last person (with help from the other participants) has to repeat a dozen names or more (Allow 25 minutes).
3. The Introduction Game. The group divides into pairs and each one takes a turn at either talking or listening to the other one (3 minutes each), whilst making notes about their partner. Then each member introduces the other to the group. This is only suitable as part of a longer workshop as it can take 40 minutes.

4. I use an element, as part of a self-esteem exercise, where everyone says why they like themselves or 'pass' if they do not wish to say anything. I usually begin by writing my name on a piece of paper (often the reverse side of a strip of wall paper) and saying ‘My name is Margaret and I like myself because I am enthusiastic’. This is fairly quick, leaves the names in view so that people can remember them and usually lightens the atmosphere when people crawl on the floor to write their names!

B. THE SNOWBALL OR PYRAMID

The 'Snow Ball' or 'Pyramid’ is an exercise where participants first work alone, concentrating on clarifying their own thoughts, then share their notes and discuss items with their neighbour, finally making up a group of four to discuss problems further and electing a spokesman in order to give their conclusions in a plenary session, so that they can be used in a general discussion by the whole group at the end.

Pyramidding can make complex tasks more manageable, especially if each stage is progressively built up. It was developed by Northedge (1975, pp. 10 – 19) to be used for Open University tutorial groups of mature students. It is important to have some variation in the tasks because it would be boring if people found themselves explaining the same thing over again to a different audience.

The Participants first work:
1. On their own (2 minutes)
   They write down their own views or information that they know about the topic that is to be discussed.
2. In pairs (5 minutes)
   They compare their lists and move on to the next stage of a task where they may have to work out a specific procedure between them.
3. In fours (10 minutes)
   Two pairs combine together and explain to each other what they have done so far. They then may have to use the procedures that they have worked out to evaluate or solve a situation. They then appoint someone to report back to the plenary session.

This is an effective method of obtaining information or suggestions of solutions to a problem from a large number of people and its success may be measured by the cheerful sounds of conversation that usually accompany this exercise. In some versions the final comments are made on a page of a flip chart and may be used as the basis of a written report.

C. BUZZ GROUPS are helpful to encourage maximum participation at any one time. Useful if groups are large or too many people are trying to contribute at once. Group is divided into sub-groups of 3 or 4, set a clear task, discussion occurs for a few minutes (bive of activity) and each group reports back to the whole group.

xxxii.
D. BRAINSTORMING
Useful when you wish to encourage wide and creative thinking about a problem or when some people seem to be inhibiting a general discussion.

The key to successful brainstorming is to separate the generation of ideas, or possible solutions to a problem, from the evaluation of those ideas or solutions.

a) The rules of brainstorming must first be explained to the group. They are:
   (1) All ideas are welcome. (Suspend judgement, don’t reject any suggestions.)
   (2) Criticism is ruled out during the general discussion stage.
   (3) Quantity of ideas is the aim (to improve the chances of some good ones coming up.)
   (4) Ideas may be combined and improved eventually.

b) The nature of the problem is then stated to the group.
c) A period of silent thought is allowed while they write down their ideas.
d) The group is asked to call out their ideas which are recorded, on a blackboard, OHP transparency or a flip-chart for all to see.
e) When all the ideas are listed they can be discussed together, whilst looking for common themes and priorities and evaluating the outcome of the brainstorm.

E. ROLE PLAY
Role playing is a technique, which is valuable for teaching interpersonal and communication skills, but some people find it threatening so it should be used with care. It is a good idea to sit in on a role play session before using it on your course or ask a Psychology colleague for help. Also, of course, only use this technique if people freely volunteer.

Rules
a) Explain the nature and purpose of the exercise.
b) Define the setting and situation.
c) Ask for volunteers for different roles (safer than selecting.)
d) Provide players with a description of the role and allow time for them to prepare and practice.
e) Non-players should act as observers.
f) Allow sufficient time for the role play.
g) Discuss the experience with players and observers.

THE END OF THE WORKSHOP
The workshop should not continue beyond its timetabled end in case some people have to go elsewhere. (Although people may stay on informally if they wish). Five minutes before the estimated end, everyone's attention should be drawn to the time and they should be asked if anyone has anything further to say. Then the discussion should be closed by repeating the objectives and giving a brief summary of what has been thought to have been achieved. (The debriefing should bring together the necessarily varied experiences of the group and they should be given the opportunity either then or later to evaluate the workshop).
GATHERING DATA QUICKLY

- based on a workshop devised by Pat Cryer.

SYNOPSIS
This activity provides a quick and cost-effective way of gathering information quickly from a group and ranking the items in order of importance to those involved in the exercise.

The participants, initially working individually, produce statements of their views on various aspects of what is being evaluated. Then go on, in groups, to prepare questionnaires on the basis of these statements. Finally everyone completes the questionnaires.

Number of participants: preferably more than ten.

Physical setting: A large room with good areas of spare wall space. Also chairs and tables should be movable.

Time required: about one and a half hours.

MATERIALS:
- Double-sided masking tape
- An O.H.P., transparencies and markers
- Writing materials for each participant
- About 100 cards or strips of paper (4 per A4 sheet)
- Elastic bands for convenience (optional)
- 6 Sheets of Flip Chart Paper, rulers and thick 'pens'

PREPARATION
The organiser decides beforehand on several broad topic headings under which data will be collected. Numbers them and writes them on individual pieces of paper and lists them on an O.H.P. Eventually there will be one questionnaire for each of these topics.

The organiser must also arrange the room in advance, setting aside an area of wall space for each topic and putting up labels, with strips of masking tape placed underneath (Figure 1). The participants will eventually walk around and place their comments on these strips under the appropriate label (Figure 2).

One questionnaire should be drafted for each topic on a large piece of paper with a thick felt tipped pen and using the same layout. (See O.H.P. for suggested format.)
GATHERING DATA QUICKLY

THE ACTIVITY

1. Introduction and explanation of procedure. (5 minutes)

2. The organiser shows the list of topics on an O.H.P. and asks the participants to think about them and then write their comments on cards/paper strips (only one per card) ready for sticking under the appropriate topic heading on the wall. (15 minutes)

3. The participants are then asked to walk round sticking their comments in position and read the other cards. (5 minutes)

4. They are then asked to sit down again. (1 minute)

5. The organiser then asks for groups to volunteer to be responsible for each of the topics. (Or allocates them to them.) Then gives each group/topic a sheet of paper and a felt tip pen, and asks them to collect the cards and use them to frame the questionnaire statements which will be written into the questionnaires.

6. It must be explained that these must be unambiguous statements which can be agreed or disagreed with. (5 minutes)

6. The groups prepare their questionnaires. (30 minutes)

7. The groups then place the questionnaires on the walls where the cards were. (5 minutes), whilst the organiser collects the cards.

8. The organiser discusses a common method of filling in the questionnaires (with a thinner pen because of space) and the participants walk round and do this. (10 minutes)

9. The organiser leads a brief discussion on the findings and comments on the most noteworthy topics, finally thanking the participants for their help. (5 minutes)
WORKSHOP PRESENTATION

PRESENTATION AND PACKAGING OF MATERIALS

THE PRESENTATION

A4 is the obvious size for the materials that are to be prepared for the workshop, mainly because of the ease with which they may be photocopied. This applies to information sheets, preparation reading matter, the masters for transparencies, activity exercises, and handouts and notes for the participants to keep.

If possible, copies made on a wordprocessor should be laser printed to give it a professional look.

Some of the material will be intended to be copied for the participants and this should be printed on white paper, however the instructions for the facilitators are often printed on coloured paper to prevent indiscriminate photocopying of copyright materials.

PACKAGING

It is also important to provide a 'container' for the materials. This can consist of a cardboard or plastic envelope or folder for loose papers but it looks more professional if an A4 sized 'binder' is used, so that instructions and exercises can be filed in a logical order.

INSTRUCTIONS

If the Workshop is to be used by anyone other than those who have written it clear instructions are of paramount importance, as is a consistent and ordered sequence of steps and procedures, particularly if an organisation or training establishment is intending to identify a distinctive 'house style'.

PROCEDURES SHOULD BE LISTED UNDER THE FOLLOWING HEADINGS:

1. (On the Title Page)
   TITLE OF WORKSHOP

   AUTHOR(S) AND DATE OF PRODUCTION

   CONTACT ADDRESS AND TELEPHONE NUMBER

   ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

2. (On the second page.)
   INDEX OF CONTENTS WITH PAGE NUMBERS

This should distinguish between instructions for general exercises and the resource masters for handouts.

xxxv.
3. (On the third page.)
AN INTRODUCTION

This should begin with an explanation of the intended purpose of the workshop, its aims and objectives and give a synopsis of the material to be covered and way in which it should be run.

It is important at this stage to warn against the wisdom of inexperienced facilitators running workshops without having been trained or at least attended a similar session as a participant.

4. (On the fourth page)
OPERATIONAL DETAILS
this section should cover:
THE RECOMMENDED PHYSICAL SETTING i.e. a comfortable room of sufficient size with movable chairs and tables.
THE TARGET AREA OF PARTICIPANTS and the level of the workshop, including whether they should already possess some expertise.
TIME REQUIRED FOR WHOLE WORKSHOP— with a break down into sectors if variations are feasible.
RECOMMENDED NUMBER OF FACILITATORS FOR THE STYLE OF WORKSHOP
RECOMMENDED NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS – with maximum and minimum variations for the workshop to work.
REQUIRED RESOURCES – including materials such as photocopies which need to be prepared beforehand and items such as 'blue tac' and equipment such as OHPs, whiteboards, tape recorders, etc.

5. (On subsequent pages)
PROCEDURES will make up the bulk of the workshop materials and will mainly consist of the individual exercises and activities, which will indicate the workshop format and will also include:
AUTHOR’S NOTES ON EXERCISES AND ACTIVITIES
These should cover what the facilitator should expect at every stage and indicate how long each item should take.
They should also make clear how the materials should be used and whether anything can be safely left out or must always be included and which items should be photocopied and handed out for individual or small group activities and which are suitable for display on overhead projectors or flip charts in plenary sessions.

N.B. it is preferable to distinguish the procedures of the workshop activities and exercises from the masters for the handouts which can be numbered for identification and filed in a separate section, such as the appendix.

6. At the back, either separately or in the appendix, there should be:
a. A list of organisations which do similar work.
b. A Bibliography.
Programme for Workshop on Confidence Skills: Facilitator's notes.

Introduction: What is a workshop? Explanation of some activities used such as 'brainstorm', 'role play' and the 'snowball'.

Self-confidence is based on three 'legs':
A) Self esteem
B) Ability to communicate assertively.
C) Personal effectiveness.

Participants divided into groups with each of three facilitators.

Workshop (A) Self esteem.

- If we are lucky we acquire self esteem from our families in our childhood, but if we have not been able to do this it is still possible to improve our self esteem for ourselves when we are adults by practising several techniques.

  Exercise 1 (also the ice breaker) 'Learning to like oneself.' Going round the circle everybody says 'My name is X', writing at the same time on a large piece of paper which is placed on the floor between them, 'I like myself because I am....' 'enthusiastic'.

  Exercise 2

- It is also important to hear someone else 'praise' you. In this exercise people move into pairs and write on a piece of paper three things that they do well, or have improved on, or are proud of. They then exchange papers and 'say them back' to each other.

  Exercise 3

- Discussion of 'brief case/shopping bag' of tricks that one can use to make one feel good about oneself.

  Exercise 4

- 'Brainstorm' of items that make participants feel good or help them cope when their self esteem is low and increases their inner core of confidence.

  Exercise 5 (optional use here or at end) Relaxation exercise.

Workshop (B) Being able to communicate clearly and assertively.

- First difference between aggression and assertiveness discussed. Point out that assertiveness techniques need to be renewed.

  Exercise 1

- Hand out 'Bill of rights' and discuss it.

  Exercise 2

- Ways of speaking clearly and assertively and saying what you really mean - 'I' mode.

  Exercise 3 Role play of broken record (optional participation).

  Exercise 4 Saying 'no' assertively, e.g. drinking and driving.

- If time also: Accepting criticism without devaluing oneself. Guidelines for handling conflict. Giving praise and criticism.

Workshop (C) Personal effectiveness. (In the afternoon.)

- Exercise 1 Workshop on time management (see notes and handouts).

- Exercise 2 Looking at nonverbal communication (see handout).

- If time discuss 'Mastering one's own environment', including use of preparation and thinking time and being prepared for life's opportunities.

- Finally 'Relaxation exercise' if not used in workshop (A).
STAFF TRAINING

Monday 5 June
2.00-3.00 Introduction to Workshops and Group Leadership.
   (Including example workshop: BOOK-SKILLS.)
3.00-4.00 Workshop Exercise: 'Brainstorming' - MOTIVATION.
4.00-4.30 Tea.
4.30-6.00 Workshop exercise: 'Gathering data quickly' - RESEARCH/TIME.
6.00-6.30 Debriefing & discussion of Pupil conference.

PUPIL CONFERENCE

Wednesday 21 June
10.00-10.45 Management Skills 1. 'Snowball' Workshop: TIME MANAGEMENT.
10.45-11.15 Coffee, Dining Hall.
11.15-12.45 Study Skills 1.
12.50-1.30 Consultation with Margaret Fricke.
7.30-8.30 Management Skills 2. 'Gathering data quickly' Workshop:
   POSITIVE LIFE MANAGEMENT.

Thursday 22 June
9.30-10.45 Study Skills 2.
10.45-11.15 Coffee, Dining Hall.
11.15-12.45 Study Skills 3.
7.30-8.30 Debriefing and discussions in House Groups, including Role Play

Study Skills 1....Essay-writing.
Study Skills 2....Note-taking (by faculty).
Study Skills 3....Book-skills (by faculty).
Dear Women Returner

Thank you for your enquiry about the Women Returners' Workshop on Saturday 6 February.

I have enclosed the programme for the day as promised and would be grateful if you could reply as soon as possible, preferably by Friday 29 January, in order that we can confirm that it is running on Monday 1 February.

Yours sincerely

MARGARET FRICKER
Curriculum Manager

WOMEN RETURNERS' WORKSHOP : SATURDAY 6 FEBRUARY 1993

9.30 - 10.00am : Coffee and registration
10.00 - 10.15am : 'Where am I now' exercise
10.15 - 11.15am : Exercises on Self-Esteem and Selling yourself
11.15 - 11.30am : Break
11.30 - 12.30pm : Exercise on filling in your personal 'Work-Value' chart
12.30 - 1.00pm : Some Training options
1.00 - 1.30pm : Lunch-time : Please bring sandwiches, coffee/tea will be provided
1.30 - 3.30pm : We hope that Marie Rice will join us for the afternoon to discuss the current job-market, interview skills and, if there is time, further negotiable topics.
3.00 - 3.00pm : 'Debriefing'

I would like to attend the above workshop and enclose the enrolment card and £15.00 fee. (If you are entitled to a discount due to being registered as unemployed, the fee is £3.75.)
BILL OF RIGHTS

1) I have the right to be treated with respect.
2) I have the right to have and express my own feelings and opinions.
3) I have the right to be listened to and taken seriously.
4) I have the right to say no without feeling guilty.
5) I have the right to ask for what I want.
6) I have the right to ask for information from professionals.
7) I have the right to make mistakes.
8) I have the right to change my mind.

NON-VERBAL COMMUNICATION

Your body creates a total impression. Non-verbal messages either reinforce or negate what you are saying verbally.

POSTURE
Relaxed, upright, well balanced. Face the other person directly at a distance which is comfortable for their cultural background.

EYE CONTACT
Try to be at the same eye-level. Maintain a gentle, direct and relaxed gaze.

FACIAL EXPRESSION
Relaxed, open and friendly. Firm and pleasant. No frowning.

GESTURES
Can enhance and emphasize words if used naturally and in moderation. Balanced, relaxed gestures show a willingness to express yourself openly and freely.

TONE OF VOICE, VOLUME, ETC.
Low pitched, relaxed, firm, medium volume.

APPEARANCE
Wear clothes that suit the occasion. Find a personal style that feels comfortable as well as helping you express yourself.
SAYING "NO" ASSERTIVELY

Keep your reply short

Avoid long rambling justifications and apologies

Take responsibility - avoid using "I can't"

It sounds like an excuse - gives the other person ammunition for arguing that you can’t come tonight - I've got to do my ironing - I can't leave it any longer - ”

"Oh, that's no problem - bring it along with you - I've just got one of those fancy new irons!

Acknowledge the person who asked

"Thanks for asking me, Fiona, but I really don't feel in the mood for going out tonight."

Ask for more time

You don't have to give instant responses to requests - "can I think about that?"

Tell the other person what your needs are

Remember - you are not rejecting the person only the request. There is no law that says you must feel guilty!!

DENCE BUILDING EXERCISE for two people.

Sometimes we know that we are quite good at something, or have achieved something that we are proud of, but we are too "modest" to say so. In this exercise we are going to write a few things down.

E.g. 1) Something that you think you are better at than average.

2) Something you have improved on in the last year(s).

3) A difficult thing that you have accomplished.

Now write your name down on the paper and then exchange it with your partner. Then tell your partner what they are good at so that each of you hears someone else tell you about something that you have done well.
3 TIPS TO BECOMING MORE ASSERTIVE:

i) Decide what you want or feel and say so specifically and directly.

ii) Stick to your statement repeating it if necessary, over and over again.

iii) Assertively deflect any responses which might undermine your assertive stance; e.g. acknowledge other persons statement and restate your own.

GUIDELINES FOR HANDLING CONFLICT ASSERTIVELY.

1. JOIN WITH the other person/s in working towards a WIN/WIN outcome.
2. Keep a clear picture of the person separate from the issue.
3. Make "I" statements.
4. Be clear about your desired outcome.
5. Listen to and look at each other.
6. Check out that you have heard and understood each other.
7. Ask open questions to help explore and clarify the issue.
8. Take one issue at a time.
10. Stay with it until you are both/all happy with the outcome.
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF BOOKS USED IN WORKSHOPS

TEACHING (ACSET) WORKSHOPS


STUDY SKILLS WORKSHOPS


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