GENDER STUDIES NEWS AND VIEWS

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Editorial

Gender Research Programme Tenth Anniversary

Eva Hung

The Gender Research Programme's monthly meetings take place at lunchtime. As members take turns to report on the latest activities, others chew on sandwiches and rice with barbecue pork in addition to the contents of the reports. Occasional visitors from overseas sister organizations recognize immediately the format and atmosphere of such mettings – this, as much as anything else, seems to be a fingerprint of gender studies groups around the world.

At the Chinese University of Hong Kong, such lunchtime meetings, and the activities which ensue from the mental deliberation accompanied by physical nourishment, have been taking place for ten full years. Considering that the number of members who can attend these meetings regularly is relatively small, the amount of acivities which has resulted from them seems all the more impressive. As a relative new-comer to the Programme, I am truly amazed by such results, for they testify to the exceptional dedication of individual members.

The quiet persistence with which the Gender Research Programme has pursued certain key issues is reflected in the contents of this commemorative number. Susan Ma's short article on the annual Gender Workshops and the "photo album" of Programme activities are brief retrospectives throwing light on past experience; what is even more important is the perseverance in the study of key issues. Sexual harassment, discrimination at work and community participation, three of the recurrent themes in gender-related discussions, are here given a focused treatment by women from different parts of the world – Margaret Anderson, Li Chunling and Susanna Hoe.

Ten years have brought considerable change to the Programme, the most recent being the appointment of its founding director, Fanny Cheung, as Hong Kong's first Equal Opportunities Commissioner in May 1996. We would like to take this opportunity to wish her a most fruitful career in her new position on an old and well-beloved path.

Sexual Harassment: Purely Academic?

Margaret L. Andersen

Introduction

Begin with several scenarios and ask yourself to think about which of them constitutes sexual harassment.

1. It is the first day of class in a mathematics course. The faculty member opens the course by joking about women and their lack of mathematical reasoning.

2. A student is seeking advice from a faculty member; while in his office, the faculty member brushes up against her, pretending that he did it accidentally.

3. A faculty member is dating one of the graduate students in the department. Other students are angry about this, thinking that it gives this student special privileges. When one student reports it to the department chair and the dean, they both ignore it and accuse her of being overly sensitive.

4. One faculty member in a department is persistently hostile to women. When the students in the department organize a special colloquium on sexual harassment, he organizes a counter movement by posting notices on his door joking about feminists and comically advertising his own new group, a club for men who like to tease women.

5. During class, a faculty member compliments a woman student on her looks. Later that week, he calls her at home, telling her that she is very attractive and that he would like to go out with her.

6. A faculty member invites two women students to his home for extra assistance on a class project. When the first one leaves, he tells the other that he likes her a lot and suggests that they go to a movie together and have dinner sometime.

7. A faculty member tells a student that she is in danger of failing his course, but that he can probably help her improve her grade if she goes out with him. He suggests they have dinner together to discuss this. When she refuses, he quits talking to her and ignores her in class. The student is fearful that he will not grade her work fairly.

Each of these situations is derived from real events. Which of them is sexual harassment? Most of you probably agree that the last case is sexual harassment. It is the most obvious form of sexual harassment—*quid pro quo* harassment—sexual activity in exchange for a grade (or a job condition), but, according to U.S. law and the policy now adopted by the Chinese University of Hong Kong, all of these situations constitute one form or another of sexual harassment.

Defining Sexual Harassment

Simply defined, *sexual harassment is the unwanted imposition of sexual requirements in the context of a relationship of unequal power.* It takes a variety of forms, some more easily recognized than others. Sexual harassment may involve teasing, jokes, touching, leaning over, cornering, unnecessary touching, leering and ogling, demanding sexual favors (accompanied by overt threats), explicit sexual bargaining, and physical assault. Much sexual harassment is suggestive, not explicit; estimates are that a small percentage of sexual harassment cases involve actual or attempted physical contact. This, however, does not diminish the seriousness of all forms of sexual harassment. Sexual harassment compromises the integrity of educational institutions and work environments and produces an inequitable environment for women and those few men who are harassed.

By definition, sexual harassment includes two potential components: *quid pro quo harassment* (i.e., an explicit bargain for exchange of sex for rewards or punishments) and the creation of *a hostile environment. Quid pro quo* is the most widely recognized form, but a hostile environment is just as damaging. A hostile environment is defined to include gender harassment (i.e., singling women out for derision), suggestive joking, sexist remarks about women's/men's clothing, and other behaviors that make women (and, in some cases, men) feel like being sexual objects is a condition of employment or education.

One of the most widely used classifications of sexual harassment comes from Till (1980) who identifies five levels of harassment. They have been used by researchers who have documented the extent of sexual harassment in educational institutions. The different levels Till uses are:

1. *gender harassment* (i.e., sexist remarks and behaviors; joking, singling women out, as in the first scenario above; displaying pornographic material in the workplace or in class; faculty member showing slides of breasts to keep students' attention.)

2. *seductive behavior* (no explicitly stated sanctions, but includes sexual advances and innuendos in the context of a power relationship; can also include asking for dates; inappropriate questioning about student's personal life)

3. *sexual bribery* (exchanging, even implying, sex for grades; comes with promise of reward for sexual activity.)

4. *sexual coercion* (comes with threat of punishment for not participating in a sexual relationship). In both sexual bribery and sexual coercion, the bargain may not be explicitly stated, but is perceived by victim as a condition of education or work. It is the imbalance of power in a professional relationship that makes a sexual relationship inappropriate.

5. *sexual assault* (rare, but does occur)

Sexual harassment takes place both in the workplace and in schools and universities, although much of my focus for our purposes here will be on educational settings. You should remember, however, that the University is not just a place for education; it is also a workplace. Your policies on sexual harassment are meant to protect students and employees. Much of the research on sexual harassment has concentrated on sexual harassment at work, although that does not mean it is less of a problem in education. In my own work as Vice Provost for Academic Affairs, although I am not the first point of contact to receive complaints of sexual harassment, my office is typically involved in administrative decisions about sexual harassment reports and the sanctions we take; I have also had numerous experiences with students and staff who have reported incidents of this nature to me. The opening scenarios were all based on reported events with which I am familiar. All forms of harassment undermine the dignity of the individual, create an intimating work [or educational] environment, and seriously impede the implementation of equal opportunities at work (Gregory, 1995: 422).

Who is Most Likely to be Harassed?

Studies repeatedly show that women are far more likely to be harassed than men, although this can happen to men as well. Studies also repeatedly find that it is those who are most vulnerable—the young, the powerless, the troubled—who are most likely to be subjected to sexual harassment. Research provides the following profile of those most likely to be harassed—those between 25 and 35 years of age, single and unattached (widowed, divorced, separated) women. Among workers, on the U.S., secretaries make up 50% of all complaints filed. Women who work in nontraditional jobs where men have predominated also have increased odds of being harassed.

Sexual harassment is not limited to your students. An interesting twist is the number of women professors harassed by male students (Grauerholz, 1989), something labeled "contrapower harassment" (Benson and Thomson, 1982; McKinney, 1992). This is unusual because sexual harassment is typically defined as coming from someone with more power. Here, however, the power relations between men and women in society at-large override the specific power relationships found between students and faculty.

Numerous surveys find that perceptions of sexual harassment vary significantly by gender. Women are more likely to define behaviors as sexual harassment and to judge it more severely than men (Loredo et al., 1995). This means that you are likely to find men and women on your campus (both students, faculty and administrators) disagreeing on the extent and seriousness of this issue. Since men predominate and have more authority in universities, it would be easy to accept their definition of the situation, but I urge you to base your awareness of this problem on the research literature, not people's perception of the problem, since those perceptions are biased by learned gender roles.

Sexual Harassment in Law

British and American law define sexual harassment in the context of sex discrimination. The clearest legal standard comes from the U.S. where sexual harassment is defined as a form of sex discrimination. It was first defined as constituting illegal discrimination in 1964 under Title VII of the Civil Rights Bill, but this was not formally tested until 1986 in a Supreme Court decision (*Meritor Savings Bank vs Vinson*) ruling sexual harassment as violating federal laws against discrimination. Since then, courts have also ruled that institutions (the specific case involved university) was liable for financial damages if they did not pursue formal complaints of sexual harassment. In the U.S. sexual harassment claims permit both compensatory and punitive damages; other costs include internal costs (real and time) in dealing with complaints. Companies lose money through absenteeism, staff turnover, and lower productivity (Husbands, 1992).

British and European law is still somewhat more elusive, although, like in the United States, sexual harassment has been defined as a form of gender discrimination. There has simply not been to-date the same national standard applied as is true in U.S. constitutional law. As I understand it, there is not a single legal standard in Hong Kong defining sexual harassment as illegal, but the policy of this university is modeled on U.S. Law. Therefore, sexual harassment is defined to include: *quid pro quo* and hostile working environment.

You can anticipate the following pattern in the emergence of sexual harassment as an area for university action. First, sexual harassment is not a new problem, but it is newly recognized. This means that many people may deny that it exists or deny that it is a problem here. They are wrong, as we will see in a moment from research done on sexual harassment in Hong Kong universities. The willingness of victims to come forward is prompted by increasing public aware-

ness and education on the subject. When sexual harassment is formally defined through university or state policy and social policies are created that establish procedures for handling complaints, you will find that you will handle cases with increasing frequency. Keep in mind as you handle such cases that sexual harassment does harm both to victims and institutions; it wastes human potential and involves the abuse of power within educational institutions and the workplace.

Causes of Sexual Harassment

There are numerous myths about sexual harassment, including that (a) it is not a serious problem; (b) women ask for it; (c) men are often falsely accused; and (d) it is women overreacting to men's attempts to be friendly, among others. These myths cloud our understanding of sexual harassment, placing the blame on individuals, rather than looking at the societal origins of the problem. We can begin to understand it by thinking about the origins of the problems at three levels: individual, institutional, and societal (McKinney, 1994).

At the **individual** level, sexual harassment emerges from the learned modes of interaction between women and men. Here gender socialization plays a major role in the development and perception of harassing behavior. Women can sometimes confuse sexual attention with being accepted by powerful people; at the same time, men may learn to see women who say "no" as really meaning "yes". Cultural beliefs about gender and sexuality also shape men's and women's attitudes toward sexual harassment—one result being that men are less likely to see certain behaviors as sexual harassment than are women (Barr, 1993); men are then more tolerant of sexual harassment than women. Men may come to believe that these behaviors are natural, expected, and not problematic (Lott et al., 1982). Men high on masculinity core are more tolerant of sexual harassment and least likely to view sexist remarks as sexual harassment (Bursik, 1992). Men are also more likely to believe that people should deal with it on their own, whereas women think institutions are responsible for addressing the problem (Rubin and Borgers, 1990). Women say they find sexual harassment unavoidable and take it for granted (Schneider, 1987; Rubin and Borgers, 1990), although women are less tolerant of sexual harassment than men (Strouse et al., 1994), they appear to put up with it, often blaming themselves and typically seeing it as inevitable (Reilly et al., 1986).

The behaviors and beliefs we learn as the result of gender socialization can be altered through institutional design. **Institutional** causes of sexual harassment include such factors as imbalanced sex ratios in work and educational settings; organizational tolerance of sexual harassment by colleagues; and the structure of some work settings (i.e., close lab sections; mentoring; travel, etc.). Sexual harassment can occur in any setting, but research shows that it is especially prevalent and severe in work settings where serving the needs of the male bosses is part of women's job descriptions—most notably secretaries and waitresses—or in occupations or fields of study that have been dominated by men and where women are newly entering. This indicates that sexual harassment is a mechanism that men use to maintain their power and advantage over women. Again, remember that you can transform these conditions in institutions by working to create a more equitable climate for women.

At the **societal** level, sexual harassment stems from the status of women in society. Patriarchal societies define women as sexual objects, to be controlled and used for men's pleasure. As societal patterns change and more women enter the labor force and careers/educational settings formerly reserved for men, traditional and new societal patterns clash. Old views may predominate, so women in these settings are sometimes at risk. Individual women and men can rise above these contradictions by actively promoting nonsexist forms of relationships. It is important that men demonstrate leadership in this area, so that they communicate to male colleagues that old modes of interaction may not be appropriate ways to develop collegial relationships with women. Sexual harassment tends to be most common and extreme in areas where women have not formerly been — such as in science, engineering and mathematics. Men in these fields have to learn new ways of relating to women as colleagues, because this may still be a new form of relationship for them.

At the societal, institutional, and individual level, sexual harassment is a form of men using their positions of greater power to intimidate women. It is a form of male domination that keeps women in subordinate positions. The specific forms that sexual harassment takes may be culturally shaped, but societal and institutional conditions are in place to generate the behavior.

Effects of Sexual Harassment

The consequences of sexual harassment are many and indicate the importance of developing effective ways to respond in your institution. Note, too, that women describe more negative consequences than do male victims (Reilly et al., 1986). Experiencing sexual harassment has numerous effects, both for individuals and for institutions. Psychologically, sexual harassment results in lowered self-esteem for women. I noted in preparing for this talk that research shows that women college students in Hong Kong do have lower self-esteem than male students (Keyes, 1984); although sexual harassment is not the only source of this, given traditional gender role socialization, it may play a part. Again, changing the climate on campus for women can arrest this trend.

Sexual harassment also results in a loss of self-confidence and disillusionment with male faculty and the educational system, in general. It can produce doubts among women about their educational abilities, leading to lower academic success and avoidance of certain courses, majors, and careers. Often, the consequences of sexual harassment are not visible to victims until years later (Glaser and Thorpe, 1986). Sexual harassment can also result in emotional and physical illness.

The end result is blocked opportunities for success and this is why it is a matter of educational equity. Women often change their majors or career paths to avoid sexual harassment. They may avoid certain professors because of the perceived risk. For example, a study at Harvard found that 15% of graduate students and 12% of undergraduates changed their major because of harassment. Sexual harassment also prevents women from entering science, math, and other male-dominated fields where new talent and a more diverse workplace are needed (Eccles, 1994).

For institutions, sexual harassment also has a cost. For work organizations, there may be high turnover, high rates of sick leave and absenteeism, decreased effectiveness. Other costs to institutions include the expenses of investigating cases, potential legal fees, and public embarrassment.

Implementing Change

Sexual harassment has heretofore been legitimated by institutions where people look the other way or define it as inevitable. Denying that it exists only hurts your women students and employees. Clearly, you have made an important commitment to changing your institution and being a leader among your peers in developing greater awareness of sexual harassment and responding to it effectively, when it occurs, through new grievance procedures. As you work through your new policy, keep the following in mind.

Most victims (faculty) do not report the incident formally or file a grievance. Most either ignore the harassment or handle it informally themselves (McKinney, 1994). The more minor forms of sexual harassment are the least likely to be reported. The most common response is to ignore it; those incidents that are reported tend to be the most extreme forms. Most victims use a variety of strategies to handle sexual harassment.

Some victims use internal strategies, such as enduring the behavior or blaming themselves. Self—blaming reduces the likelihood of reporting. Most often, they use external strategies, such as avoiding the perpetrator, confronting the person, seeking social support, or discussing the incident with someone. Victims who do not report it say they do not do so because they want to be able to handle the incident themselves (i.e., not wanting to appear overly sensitive, feeling powerless. Second, they may not report for reasons having to do with the offender or situation (i.e., they hope he will stop, they fear retribution, they are unwilling to hurt the offender). Third, departmental or institutional contexts can affect the willingness of victims to report. Influencing factors include the belief that no one will help, that colleagues tolerate the behavior, or that there are no effective sanctions available discourage people from coming forward. Department chairs and deans have a powerful role here; they can unwittingly condone the behavior, making it more difficult for people to come forward, especially junior faculty and graduate students who are most vulnerable.

In the U.S., we have found that two thirds of those who bring complaints are those who have been fired—the damage already done and where victims' credibility may be compromised if his or her job performance has been adversely affected.

Many incidents of harassment are not reported, although they may be openly discussed among students who in their informal networks identify harassers, share this information and avoid them. This depends on how willing they are to identify and openly acknowledge the problem. Students' doubts that their complaints will be taken seriously and their fears about reprisal are important to remember in designing policies and procedures for handling complaints.

The best faculty see themselves as mentors to students; they know that getting to know students and developing a working relationship is important, but they also know the limits. Faculty should be encouraged to learn the boundaries of professional relationships; the context of education has changed with the greater participation of women. Some behaviors formerly taken-for-granted—i.e., evenings in the faculty members' home, socializing outside of class—mean that faculty have to remodel professional behavior for others and for themselves.

Many universities in the U.S. warn that they may not provide legal protection to faculty who are in consensual relationships with students. Faculty members who develop such relationships with students, even when it is consensual, put themselves at risk if the relationship goes sour. They also run the risk of being accused of bias by other students who do not have such a personal relationship with the instructor. Faculty and teaching assistants are well-advised to postpone such relationships until they have no supervisory role with the student; if such a relationship arises, the university should establish policies that prohibit supervision and evaluation by those in amorous consensual relations.

What can you do? You can educate your staff (chairs, deans, key faculty, secretaries) and students; students may not identify behaviors as harassment. Learning to understand and recognize this problem is a first step. You may want to survey your campus to learn the extent of the problem. Already you have established policies and procedures; training faculty and staff is another step. As you proceed, it is important to have multiple points of contact for registrating a complaint (for example—in my institution, the official place is women's affairs or affirmative action; a survey of graduate students found, however,

that 62% reported incidents to the college dean's office). Anyone who might receive a complaint should learn to handle it well. Faculty members also need to take responsibility when they see others engaging in harassing behaviors; otherwise, they are colluding in it. Their commitment should be to the education of students, not the protection of unethical colleagues.

Conclusion

Several years ago, the feminist poet Adrienne Rich, during a commencement speech, argued that co-education on our campuses is a myth as long as women are harassed on campus (Rich, 1979). She said, "Women and men do not receive an equal education because outside the classroom [and, I would add, sometimes in] women are perceived not as sovereign beings but as prey". Although there is now extensive research on sexual harassment, it is not simply an academic matter. This is a problem that compromises the quality of education. If your students are angry about how they are being treated—or lack confidence—it is less likely that they will learn. The ultimate cost of sexual harassment is to them and to the future of your society. As one U.S. administrator has said, "When you can't do your work because your employment or academic standing or advancement in either depends on your tolerance of sexual advances, that's sexual harassment" (Syracuse University, 1987). It is my hope and my belief that your presence here indicates your commitment to change and your sincere desire to build a campus environment where all students and faculty can prosper.

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HOW DO WE GET MORE WOMEN ELECTED?

Susanna Hoe

There are too few elected women representatives throughout the world and many of the obstacles women face in getting elected are universal. But not all. Some are culturally dictated. To compare Hong Kong's Legislative Council (Legco) elections of September 1995 (the last before 1997) with stories told in the Women in Politics workshops at the United Nations Women's Forum at Huairou (Beijing) may be useful for the future.

September 1995 was the first time that all seats in Legco were up for election of some kind (direct, indirect, functional constituency). Previously, most women in Legco had been appointed. In the lead up to 1991, there were 13 women in Legco (21.6%) – 2 officials, one indirectly elected (Elsie Tu, District Board), and 10 appointed.

By November 1993, following elections in September 1991 that included directly elected seats and functional constituences, there were 8 women: 1 directly elected (Emily Lau), 1 indirectly (Elsie Tu), 5 appointed, and 1 official (Chief Secretary Anson Chan) (13.3% in all). But the 2 elected members represented only 5.6% (of the elected part of the assembly).

It was natural, therefore, that these figures should suggest that the more democracy there was, the fewer women Legco members there would be. This was reinforced by the opinion of an appointed District Board member; she is quoted as saying, following the 1991 elections, that the old appointment system 'helped potential candidates who were housewives and not prepared to compete with men in direct election.'

When women were appointed, they performed well; but they hesitated to stand for election and, when they did so, the results suggested that the electorate preferred men. The 1995 elections seem to have contradicted this analysis. In 1991, 6 women stood for direct election, and 1 got in; 2 stood in functional constituencies and one succeeded. These figures are more useful when followed by those for 1995, when 16 women stood for election (out of 138 candidates) and 7 were successful. That is, 43.5% of women candidates got in. This suggests that, increasingly, when women stand they have a strong chance of success. The problem, therefore, seems to lie more with persuading women to stand than with getting them elected.

It should be said, however, that the 7 women who won all had a high profile before the election. Four (Selina Chow, Emily Lau, Miriam Lau and Christine Loh) were Legco members who had spoken out on controversial issues and chaired committees which got publicity. Elizabeth Wong, who stood in the functional constituency that included civil service voters, had recently retired as Secretary for Health and Welfare. Voters also included such diverse groups as hawkers and hairdressers so that Wong's nickname Fung Wong Nui (the Phoenix) – the name of a well-known and loved opera singer (now dead) whom she resembled – is likely to have provided high name recognition.

A sixth, Margaret Ng, wrote a regular and outspoken political column in both Chinese and English language newspapers widely read among lawyers (her functional constituency). Chan Yuen-han had stood previously and was a well-known trade unionist. What is equally interesting, Chan Yuen-han succeeded when at least two senior male members of her political party (pro–China Democratic Alliance for the Betterment of Hong Kong) failed. Emily Lau topped the poll among candidates elected in geographical constituencies, and Elizabeth Wong overall.

The evidence that a good woman can win is, admittedly, fairly sketchy but it is worth building on. Does it confirm that women should make their name through some service before expecting to win a national election? How much should they rely on political parties? How willing are political parties to select women? How can women best fund their election campaigns? These are questions ripe to be explored. In doing so, I shall introduce as examples women politicians from around the world; a comparison of first hand stories may throw some light on the situation in Hong Kong.

Three caveats should be made: in mixing district with parliamentary level elections, I may be creating false analogies, but it seems more likely that political and social cultures cross that divide. The following are anecdotes, rather than scientific data; other women in the countries concerned may have different stories to tell. The political situation in Hong Kong after 1997 may differ from that being addressed here.

In Huairou on 6 September, Suzuyo Takazato

described how she came to be elected as a local councillor in Okinawa, in a constituency with an electorate of 300,000. The political culture of Japan might be assumed to resemble that of Hong Kong more closely than that of India, Sweden, the United States, Uganda and Zimbabwe, which will also be discussed. Because of Hong Kong's colonial history, and the recentness of direct elections, the corrupt element of financial backing so endemic in Japanese politics has not yet made its mark. However, there is certainly corruption in Hong Kong's business community and police force, in spite of the Independent Commission Against Corruption .

At the age of 49, in 1990, Suzuyo Takazato was a social worker and activist in a regional women's enviromental group. In attempting to help women, she came to realise that the structure of Japan's society was unjust and that women needed to go into politics to reform it. She was persuaded to do so by women friends. Most men in her position seek party or union backing but she had no intention of incurring the political and financial debts that corruption made inevitable. Because it was assumed that she would not win, no companies were interested in backing her.

She and a core of 20 women became innovative. They decided where their limited money should be spent and how to use resources differently. Office space was given priority and a group of women fanned out in the locality and found a house awaiting demolition. Its services had been disconnected so a plumber and electrician friend were called in. A friendly local printer supplied 20,000 flyers at half price. Takazato held small meetings on street corners, and she got the 3,000 votes needed to win.

The second time she stood, a big bank came with a cheque which she refused, protecting herself from the pressure that acceptance would have entailed, though she did accept personal help from the banker. Now there are 5 women in the 44 councillor assembly.

In India, it emerged, 33% of seats are reserved for women at the village and district level, together with 33% of chairs of punchayats (village councils). If women are not elected (presumably because not enough stand) the seats remain vacant. At parliamentary level, members have a certain amount of money to spend in their constituencies. Some women MPs decided, therefore, that they would give this money for bricks and mortar in villages which elected women. As a result, 75% of punchayats are now headed by women. That is relatively straightforward but, to get into the party system, you have to enter the male network, to make concessions to the exclusive system. Women who have managed to do so have been criticised. Some have succeeded by default. In a punchayat in Maharastra Province, two factions supporting men candidates were split over who should stand; they ended by supporting a woman as a compromise candidate. Now, with support from the women's movement, a coalition has emerged on women's issues across party lines.

Hilena Barkosh, a local politician in Sweden (Liedinger City) for 10 years, explained the women's campaign there. There has been a debate about the quota system. Now progress is being made not through legislation but as an agreement among parties. The new national election slogan is 'every other politician a woman'. More women are being elected in the cities than in rural areas. There is a danger of too many women being elected: local decision-making will be downgraded, with the implication 'leave politics to the women'; and decisions will be made instead in boardrooms.

Jane Angvik is a 47 year old American from Anchorage, Alaska. She went into politics when she was single; now she is married with a 12 year old daughter. As a city planner, designing cities that people can live in, she was catapulted into politics when 2 fire brigades from different areas squabbled over whose fire it was and the building burnt down. She was determined to change a system that allowed such muddle.

As she puts it, 'Local government is where women started'. Water, sewers, housing and health are close to home. For 25 years, many women have sat on city councils and on school boards - 'that is our strength'. Over the past 4 years, women have started to run for State legislatures. Now, 50% of local government representatives are women; it is 25% at State level. At national level it is 'pathetic': there is only one woman governor (in 50 states); (there were 3 until November 1994). But women are training to run and serve.

This has thrown up new problems. As Angvik put it, 'When you have more women running, you also have more women losing. Women have a tendency to think when they lose, "the electorate must be right; I'm no good"'. But they must cultivate a more positive mentality. 'You run, you lose; you run, you lose; you run, you win.' Then there is the problem that women don't like 'bad things' said about them; they find it hard to say, 'please give me the money', 'please vote for me'. That is not all: as Angvik suggests, "Serving is a lot harder than getting elected. Every time you cast a vote, you make an enemy. The more enemies you have, the more bad things they say about you". She warned, 'You've got to prepare your mother!'

Winnie Bianima has been a member of Uganda's Constituent Assembly for 4 years. She decided to run in her home area because, although she had been away for a while, her family was well-known there. She could hardly have foreseen the local reaction: as soon as she announced her candidacy, 14 men said they would stand too. This was finally whittled down to 6 men standing against her.

The campaign lasted many months and she began to build up support from women. In a society where 35% are Muslim women who 'suffer oppression from polygamy', the women wanted a woman representative. So the 6 men got together and found another woman to stand, so that she could divide the woman vote. She was a married mother – Bianima is single. On platforms Bianima's female opponent declared, 'I'm the only woman standing'. Bianima's response was, 'I'm not so lucky to be married or to have children'. She was accused of being 'loose and wild, dangerous to society, not tamed by a man; in Parliament she will steal other women's men'. As Bianima explained her response, 'I stuck to issues affecting the Constituent Assembly (drawing up a new constitution for Uganda after years of civil war) and women's rights.'

She lacked money, and a corrupt local government backed one of her male opponents. She found it hard to knock on doors but the women who worked with her gave her money and approached other women, and companies, to do so. Her resources lay not only in her women supporters but in her own 'womanly style'. She took time to deal with individual problems; 'men stand on a platform'. The men candidates used paid campaigners; hers were volunteers. 'I sat in kitchens, sat on the grass', she remembers. The response from her opponents was 'Look what she's doing for votes. Isn't she cheap!' Bianima prevailed: She got 60% of the entire vote; the other 7 candidates shared the remaining 40%.

In the 284 member Ugandan Constituent Assembly, 7 women have been directly elected over the past 5 years, bringing the total to 9. In addition, affirmative action brought in another 39 women. They form a caucus and create alliances with NGOs working on behalf of the disabled and youth. And they run women's training seminars and workshops.

Winnie Bianima's experience as a single woman was confirmed by a later Zimbabwian workshop on women in politics. In Zimbabwe, the split (among women) is not on party lines, but between married and unmarried. Single status is used as a means to discredit women. This is allied to age. Vivienne, 46, is accused by other women of being too young - she is running against a 64 year old man. Women who wear trousers are equally disparaged.

Then there is the nature of politics itself. As Vivienne explains, 'It takes a lot of money. You have to buy a lot of party cards in the run up to adoption as a candidate. You buy the cards and give them to the voters.' Money has another aspect. Vivienne's car did not transport voters as well as her opponent's. 'You're dusty,' she was told. Her opponent also slaughtered a cow for the voters. Vivienne was told when she arrived to pick voters up, 'You're a little late.'

One political party adopted a woman because they were told to, not because they had a change of heart. In spite of this, she convinced the voters. But, as Vivienne put it, politics is dirty – do I have to sink to this level? And she added, The women we have are not positive role models for us (in the women's movement) when they get into power. This led her to ask two questions: Should we clean up (politics) before we enter the arena? Do we need to educate women that there is nothing immoral about being in politics?

In this NGO workshop, one of the aspects that emerged most strongly was the need for women to support each other. This perhaps stood out because in other countries – Japan, Uganda – it is that very support that has been so effective.

The need for the support of women for women leads usefully to drawing some conclusions.

CONCLUSION

In Zimbabwe, there is a need for women to be reconciled. In Uganda, the potential for a similar split has been averted by Winnie Bianima; she has been able to tap the well of women's support, both from volunteers and voters, that should be available in all societies.

How far is it available in Hong Kong? And how much was it used in 1995? Of course, not all women candidates are gender conscious; some, indeed, consciously avoid women's issues, or being seen as a woman candidate. Emily Lau has her own agenda, but she has responded positively to the women's movement since she was elected in 1991. Asked publicly about women's support and the woman vote, she insisted that she could only answer anecdotally: women did tend to come up to her during the campaign and say, 'We're voting for you, Emily, and our family too.' A Chinese newspaper survey suggested that Christine Loh had equal support from men and women; her opponent, Peggy Lam, was favoured by older women. Support from women to women at every level seems to be a resource still to be fully explored.

As for the' womanly style' of Winnie Bianima, this has little to do with traditional femininity but more a 'woman-centred' approach: listening – to the ideas and grievances of voters – as much as talking. This approach was also used by Suzuyo Takazato in Japan. It draws too on the co-operative approach of women – the candidate and her volunteers operating as a team. This team, as the above accounts have shown, has the capacity for fund-raising in a woman-centred way and, therefore, to a large extent eschewing the corruption of traditonal male campaigns – corruption that ensnares long after votes are counted.

Just after her 1995 election win, Elizabeth Wong explained that 'without party support, electioneering costs were prohibitive.' She called on political parties to set up special funds to enable women to stand for election. Christine Loh had her own innovative fund-raising techniques. But all women candidates could look more at 'woman money' techniques tried by women elsewhere.

Fundraising for women is becoming a fine art in countries such as Britain, Australia and the United States, through what is known as Emily's List. By this means, people of particular political leanings, mainly but not exclusively women, contribute to a fund devoted to the training, adopting and election of women candidates. Interestingly, such fund-raising techniques are prohibited by law in, for example, Bangladesh and Korea. There seems no reason, however, why a scheme similar to Emily's List should not be used in Hong Kong.

Elizabeth Wong talked of the problems of financing women's candidature. If correctly quoted, she seemed to be separating finance from women as members of political parties. This ambivalence is not peculiar to her. While it is true that the most successful political party in the 1995 elections, the Democrats, did not field a single woman candidate, this is not yet a bone of contention between parties and Chinese women political activists. Hong Kong women are not necesarily party animals, even if they know firmly which way they lean.

Of the 7 successful women candidates, 4 stood as independents. Two stood for a party – the Liberal (which they helped found) – which has not been conspicuous for its attention to women's issues. What is more, Chinese members of the women's movement, when asked whether or not they taxed the Democrats with their lack of women candidates, reply at a tangent. They claim that they were more concerned about the response of political parties to a 10 point platform for women, on whether or not 'their focus was on women-sensitive policy.'

Two aspects of Chinese culture may well be at work in the tendency for the women's movement not to force the issue with the political parties, and the fact that women are standing and winning as independents. The first is the non-confrontational nature of Chinese interchange at its ideal. Then there is the historical and continuing image of the 'strong woman' epitomised not just by women Legco members such as Emily Lau, but also by civil servants such as Chief Secretary Anson Chan and former senior (appointed) Exco member Lydia Dunn.

It would seem, therefore, that affirmative action, such as formal quotas, either at national level or within parties, is not an issue that would garner much support among women acitivists in Hong Kong. It would seem, too, that Hong Kongs youthful political culture and the size of the legislature would not lend itself easily to such methods. It might be useful, however, to look at a couple of examples, if only to reject them as impractical.

In Bangladesh, of the 300 National Assembly seats for directy elected members, 30 are reserved for women. Najma Siddiqi, in a 1993 paper presented in Hong Kong, explained that the 30 women are, for all practical purposes, selected by the party in power and are chosen on the assumption that they would 'blindly support the programme' of that party, rather than for more positive attributes such as proven record of service.

In Britain, the opposition Labour Party set up a scheme which requires constituency associations to shortlist only women candidates in half the party's winnable seats in each region. Although party members voted for the scheme, it has proved controversial in its implementation, and has recently been found illegal by a local industrial tribunal. In spite of that, this affirmative action could make a substantial difference at the next election: the party could win 350 seats (of a 651 member parliament); of these, 78 could be women; (at the moment there are 39 Labour women MPs). In Australia, a Women's Party was recently announced. However specific and problematic the application of such schemes, more women in national assemblies worldwide is likely to have a knock-on effect, to provide impetus for progress.

In Hong Kong, because the future of Legco is so uncertain, we should be hedging our bets, not relying only on getting more women elected to Legco. The women's movement needs to continue to strengthen itself at all levels. Raising women's political consciousness should be given priority, so as to encourage them to be involved in local government. At the same time, women making their mark in the community in non-political ways should be encouraged to understand the position of women, particularly the less-advantaged, with a view to becoming interested in standing for election in the longer term.

The two way communication between women Legco members and the women's movement that was useful between 1991-95 should be built on and strengthened. So should the loose women's caucus within Legco. All women concerned with women's advancement should be ready to monitor the implementation of the recently-passed anti-discrimination legislation, to make sure it is used to reform aspects of Hong Kong's system that work against women's equality - recognising that legislation is not an end in itself, but only a tool.

When the direction of Hong Kong's political system becomes more clear, after 1997, women's continuing spade work in the community should be ready to bear fruit. What is more, it may be that Hong Kong political womens tendency towards independence can be seen as an advantage. In this young political system, it is still possible, as in few other places, to stand and win as an independent. And the party system can be not just a barrier to women, but a straight-jacket too. Independence is, therefore, a state to be espoused rather than regretted. The challenge is to get more women ready to chance their arm.

Susanna Hoe is a historian and author of the book *The Private Life of Old Hong Kong: British Women in the Colony 1841-1941*.

中國社會科學院的男女平等條件與女性的職業發展

李春玲

1994年6月至1995年8月期間，受美國福特基金會資助，「中國社會科學院職業女性的發展、參與和社會地位研究」課題組在社科院內進行了問卷和訪談調查，以瞭解和評估社科院的男女平等條件及其對職業女性發展的影響。中國社會科學院是大陸最高級的社會科學研究機構，其在職女性總數爲1485人，佔社科院總人數的35.6%。課題組於1994年10月在全院女職工中實行普查性的問卷調查，根據各所（局）在職女職工的實際人數發放問卷，在20天內共回收有效問卷1238份，回收率達83.4%。與此同時，根據學科分佈，在全院挑出三個研究所（哲學研究所、社會學研究所、語言研究所）發放男職工問卷，這三個研究所男性共352人，在回收的問卷中，根據全院男職工總體的年齡、學歷、職稱級別、職務級別和工作性質的實際分佈，篩選出217份有效問卷，與女職工問卷調查結果進行比較。

一、男女平等實現程度

從女職工對於自己所處部門的男女平等條件的評價來看，社科院內部實現男女平等的程度高於全國平均水平，社科院女性獲得的職業發展條件和機遇也優於其他階層的婦女。根據全國婦聯在全國範圍的調查，大約60%左右的婦女認爲在其周圍環境中男性獲得的晉升、發揮自己所長和接受專業培訓的機會多於女性。然而在社科院，超過2/3的女職工在評價本部門的個人發展條件（包括晉升、培訓、工作安排等）時，都聲稱男女基本平等或很平等。

儘管如此，仍有許多女職工感受到不平等現象的存在，約半數女職工認爲在分配住房方面男女不平等，31.1%的女職工認爲在提拔幹部方面存在着男女不平等，21.2%的女職工認爲職稱評定方面有男女不平等現象。

一些調查數據也證明女職工的職業發展機遇少於男性。在專業職稱和行政職務晉升方面，雖然男女兩性在初級和中級級別晉升中速度無多大差別，但女職工晉升到高級專業職稱和局級行政職務所花的年限比男職工要長。女處級幹部晉升到局級幹部的平均年限爲7年，而男處級幹部晉升到局級平均僅爲4年。女助理研究員晉升到副研究院平均需7.1年，從副研究員晉升到研究院爲6.2年，而男科研人員這兩級晉升所需平均年限分別爲6.5年和5.9年。另外，獲得晉升的女性的比例也遠遠低於男性。女研究人員中僅有4.7%爲研究員，而男性的相應數爲23%，女行政人員中僅有1.1%晉升爲局級幹部，而男行政人員中有17%爲局級幹部。

二、造成不平等的現因

造成這種現象的一個最重要的因素是男女受教育程度的差異。在社科院這類工作性質的領域中，學歷高低是決定職業發展水平的一個關鍵因素。女職工學歷普遍低於男職工，是造成兩性發展機會差異的一個重要根源。在社科院中，14.4%的女職工達到碩士和博士學歷，37.8%爲大學本科學歷，29.6%爲大學專科學歷，還有17.7%的女職工是中專以下學歷。女職工平均受教育年限達到15年，女科研人員達17年。社科院女職工文化水平遠遠高於全國婦女的平均水平。根據1990年人口普查數據推算，我國女性在業人口平均受教育年限爲5.7年，全國女專業技術人員平均受教育年限爲10.9年。但社科院女職工與本院的男職工相比，學歷水平的差距明顯。男職工中達到碩士和博士學歷的佔36.8%，這一比例是女職工相應比例的兩倍半。男職工的平均受教育年限比女職工多一年。學歷較低影響到女性在專業領域的競爭能力和職業發展的自信心，使她們在與男同事的競爭中處於劣勢。

這種競爭起點上的差距也帶來了工作領域中的分工和人員結構上的性別差異。在從事與科研相關工作的女職工中，只有60%是直接從事科研或科研管理工作的，另有40%爲科研輔助人員，她們只是從事一些輔助性質的工作，很難獲得職稱或職務的晉升。

在從事科研和科研相關工作的女職工中，專業職稱級別分佈顯現出一個金字塔結構，研究員僅佔4.7%，副研究院佔20.6%，助理研究員佔37.2%，另外的37.8%多爲研究實習員、未定職等人員。而男職工的專業職稱等級結構則類似一個矩形，研究員佔其中的23%，副研究員36.8%，助理研究員佔31.6%，研究實習員或未定職人員不到10%。

與這種分工結構和等級結構的性別差異相一致，在學術成果方面，男女科研人員也存在差距。在被調查的444個直接從事科研工作的女職工中，有267人寫過或參與寫過專著（佔60%），共寫或參與寫573本專著（累積數），即人均1.3本。444個女科研人員撰寫的學術論文共3220篇，人均7.3篇。雖說這些學術成就已算得上是碩果纍纍，但男科研人員的學術成果幾乎超過女科研人員2/3倍。在被調查的男科研人員中，有82.6%的人寫過或參與寫過專著，人均2.1本，人均所寫論文13.5篇。

女研究人員獲得或參與研究項目的機會一般少於她

們的男同事。在女研究人員中僅有36.7%的人申請過國家或院裏的社科基金項目，申請成功率爲64.4%，而男研究人員中59%申請過項目，成功率爲76.5%。88.3%的女研究人員參加過研究項目，其中僅有21.7%的人承擔過課題負責人，而男研究人員中96.5%參加過研究項目，其中51.8%的人承擔過課題負責人。所有這些數據表明在晋升和獲取工作機會方面存在着明顯的性別差異。

造成男女職工職業成就差異的另一個原因是傳統性別觀念的影響。女性自身的性別觀念與其進取願望的强弱和職業發展水平的高低有着密切的關聯，與此同時，女性工作環境中他人（尤其男性）的性別觀念對女性能否獲得與男性同樣的發展機會、能否進一步激發女性的成就慾望也是至關重要的。

傳統觀念爲男人和女人確定了固定的、相分離的角色和位置，即男人在社會上拚搏進取，女人在家庭中育兒助夫。今日的婦女進入了社會，對男女的傳統角色模式提出了挑戰。但傳統性別觀念對人們的影響仍然是很大的，對社科院的女性也有影響。26.2%的社科院女性贊同「男人以事業爲主，女人以家庭爲主」，16.7%認同「丈夫的成功就是妻子的成功，妻子應不惜犧牲協助丈夫成功」，16.7%的女性認爲「男人比女人更擅長於理論研究工作」，6.2%認爲「男人生來比女人强」。而且有接近90%的女性認爲在發展職業的能力上女性有弱於男性的方面，如安於現狀、對挫折承受能力强、創新意識不强和缺乏邏輯思維等。這些女性對本性別羣體的評價也低於對男性羣體的評價。這自然影響了女性追求職業成就的自信心。

社科院男職工的性別觀念對女性職業發展也有不利影響。調查結果顯示，社科院內部男女職工性別態度的差距很大。①男職工贊同「男人以事業爲主，女人以家庭爲主」的比例比女職工多13.5%，男職工贊同「男人生來比女人强」的比例比女職工多15.4%，男職工贊同「男人比女人更擅長於理論研究工作」的比例比女職工多12.3%，贊同「丈夫的成功就是妻子的成功，妻子應該不惜犧牲協助丈夫成功」的男職工的比例比女職工多5.9%，認爲「不生孩子的女人不是完善的女人」的男職工的比例比女職工多12.6%，認爲「女比男强，好景不長」的男職工比例比女職工多6.7%，這說明男職工對於女性角色模式的要求與女職工自身的設計有很大的不同。這可能是限制社科院女性謀取更多的職業發展機會的一個重要因素，因爲男性在社科院的領導階層中居主導地位（各研究所的主要負責人和學術委員——他們掌握着職稱和職務晋升的決定權——幾乎都是男性），他們的性別觀念或多或少、或明確或潛在地影響着對女職工的培養和提拔。

註①：這裏指的差距大是相對於全國的情況而言。根據全國婦聯在全國範圍進行的調查，男女兩性對本文中所提及的性別觀念的認同程度幾乎沒有差異。參見陶春芳、蘄永萍主編的《中國婦女社會地位概觀》，中國婦女出版社，1993年，462–464頁。

GENDER RESEARCH PROGRAMME

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Conference on Violence Against Women: Chinese and American Experiences (1994)
《中美婦女被侵隄經驗》國際研討（一九九四年）
（左起：李銀河女士、卓安婷女士、王行娟女士、余景蓮女士）



Conference on Violence Against Women: Chinese and American Experiences (group photo)
《中美婦女被侵隄經驗》國際研討與會者合照



1995 Gender Worshop: group discussion.
一九九五年兩性角色交流會——婦女健康面面觀（小組討論情況）

兩性角色交流會——回顧與前瞻

馬淑儀

性別研究計劃成立迄今已有十載，除了一向負責支持及統籌校內外人士在兩性角色的學術研究、活動和資料交流外，成員更理解到踏入九十年代，社會政治文化及經濟急劇轉變，學術界不但要充份掌握社會上的各種變化，還要扮演一個推動各階層進行意見交流的重要角色。自一九九一年首次舉辦的《兩性角色交流會》，直至現在已有五屆，旨在促進學術與社會現實的對話和整合，在探討和分析性別研究課題的過程中，建立穩健的學術根基，從而尋找出問題的根源或進一步提出改善的方法（張妙清，1995，p.7）。

第一屆兩性角色交流會

一九九一年五月舉行的兩性角色交流會，主題是《九十年代香港家庭——矛盾與出路》，旨在探討九十年代香港家庭因社會、政治、經濟的變遷而面臨種種的矛盾，期望在矛盾中可尋求出路。

性別研究計劃選擇「家庭」作爲首屆交流會的主題，原因有三：首先是鑑於男女兩性角色在客觀及主觀條件上未能同步改變，而家庭是突出兩性關係及矛盾的一個主要舞台；其次，家庭是制定社會政策時所需用的主要單位。最後，變遷中的香港社會已與實際家庭的狀況出現了一段距離，因而有探討的必要。

一直以來，「男大當婚，女大當嫁」、「成家立室」、「生兒育女」等等已被視爲人生必然的出路，若有另外選擇，例如獨身、單親、離婚、或不生育兒女時，便被認爲是異常行爲。而且兩性在家庭中擔任的傳統角色可以用「男主外，女主內」來形容；在大部份國家中，女性還要扮演「入得厨房，出得廳堂」的角色。隨着時代的轉變，香港婦女教育水平提高，就業、健康、生育等方面都有明顯的改變，她們的分析及判斷能力也顯著的增强，女性出外工作增多，經濟地位亦趨向獨立，由此引至傳統的性別角色及家庭角色起了變化。首屆兩性角色交流會正是針對此一事實，希望在實質社會服務及社會價值觀兩方面取得協調和進展。

第二屆兩性角色交流會

於一九九二年六月六日舉行的第二屆兩性角色交流會，主題是《工作環境中的性騷擾》。是次交流會首先界定「性騷擾」的定義，進而探討本港的工廠、政府或私人機構、甚至學院等環境中的性騷擾問題，從檢討兩性關係的角度，來尋求改善現況的出路。

一般人對性騷擾概念十分模糊，以致造成一些富爭議性的流行說法；最普遍的誤解是：女性喜歡男性的挑逗和讚賞；另外的誤解是這類行爲屬於正常社交的一部份；最後的誤解是女性也要負上一部份責任，尤以服飾方面，切勿帶有挑逗的成份，而且女性個人是有能力拒絕性騷擾行爲的。其實這些誤解都是由於討論不足而產生的。這次交流會提高了大衆對此問題的關注和了解，爲日後作進一步探討鋪路。

第三屆兩性角色交流會

於一九九三年五月十五日舉辦第三屆兩性角色交流會，主題是《婦女與社區參與》。在過去十年，九七臨近，政府還政於民期間積極推動市民參與社區事務，例如參與區議會，大厦業主立案法團，互助委員會等公共事務；還有參與公共服務團體如童軍、扶輪社、獅子會等。但整體而言，婦女參與者寥寥可數，尤其是政治參與及領導層面更爲罕見。香港婦女在參與政治方面；在立法局中，只有約一成半的非官守議員是女性，與其他國家情況相若，例如在英國國會裏只有百分之九議員是女性，而在美國衆議院裏，也只有百分之十一議員是女性。故此，無論在香港或外國，婦女參政仍然偏低。這次交流會旨在研究如何推動香港婦女參與社區活動，與及理解她們面對的阻力。最重要的是要使男性意識到女權抬頭並不代表不如以前，而是對雙方都有利。這個「伙伴」關係能夠改變整個社區，融和雙方長處和短處，使社區更美好（鄧素琴，1994）。



主題：小女人、小男人：成長路上的角色塑造及其矛盾
（左起蔡寶瓊博士、張妙清教授、林煥光先生）

第四屆兩性角色交流會

一九九四年五月舉辦的第四屆兩性角色交流會，主題是「小女人、小男人——成長路上的性別角色塑造及其矛盾」。鑑於男女性別角色的成長，主要是受到家長和學校培育的影響。父母在家庭中，有一種權威，自幼教導子女甚麼是對，甚麼是錯，這便是一種傳統和保守的文化與社會教育。然則家庭及學校的直接或間接影響，能否幫助或規限男女兒童發展本身的潛能？而性別角色的塑造，對日後男女兩性在社會上所得的機會和資源會否構成不平等的條件呢？這些問題都是值得我們探討及關注的。若能把男女兩性獨特的個性融合爲一，即是剛柔兼具的雙性化來教育成長中的兒童，男女兩性成長後處事時均會有較大的彈性，在學科成績的表現也會較好（麥肖玲、李泳欣，1995）。

第五屆兩性角色交流會

一九九五年五月二十日舉辦的第五屆兩性角色交流會，主題是《婦女健康面面觀》，目的是回應同年九月在北京舉行的世界婦女會議，主題是「平等、發展與和平」。婦女健康是列入爲「發展」中的重要環節。正如世界衛生組織謂，若我們教育一名婦女保健常識，她會將學到的知識推廣至家庭各成員，例如選擇食物、烹調方式等，以促進全家健康。況且，生兒育女不再是婦女的唯一使命，加上香港的經濟發展，醫療科技的進步，飲食營養及衛生環境的改善，婦女的生產死亡率直線下降，婦女的壽命大大延長。再者，七零年代推行的六年免費教育及九年强迫教育，令婦女接受教育的機會也顯著地提高，出外就業相應增加。她們下班後，除了肩負家務，還要幫助孩子溫習功課，對內對外，婦女們面對多重壓力，因而直接影響她們的生理及心理健康（馬淑儀、黃世忻，1995）。



主題：婦女健康面面觀
（左起郭媚女士、陳兆儀醫生、鄧霜飛醫生、梁冬陽醫生）

總結與前瞻

回顧五屆兩性角色交流會，內容廣泛，能關顧兩性角色在身體、心理、情緒、人際、社交、經濟及教育的需要而定立主題，並邀請各階層的朋友聚首一堂，交流意見，達至互相溝通果效。

還有，香港中文大學已在今年成立了三個關注校園性騷擾問題的專責小組，處理教育調查及投訴性騷擾的事件，並對侵犯者作出應得的處分。性別研究計劃除對性騷擾有「跟進」外，若能針對其他四屆交流會主題所提出的寶貴建議，與政策制定者、前線工作者及消費者進行積極跟進，加上編印交流會小册子，必能令交流會的影響力擴大。

總括五屆經驗，以「性別與傳媒」爲題的一九九六年兩性角色交流會也有突破，由過去半天的交流會延長至一整天，並配合外國人士參與，交流會除以廣東話爲主外，還設有英語翻譯，以減少溝通的障礙。

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性別研究資訊

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性別研究計劃十周年

孔慧怡

香港中文大學性別研究計劃的每月聚會總是在午飯時間舉行，會員輪流報告各項活動及研究課題的新發展時，大家一面聆聽，一面利用空檔吃預訂了的三文治或者叉燒飯。偶然有海外婦女研究組織的成員到訪，聚會的形式和氣氛都讓她們感到非常熟悉。這種輕鬆的氣氛與分秒必爭的工作方式，似乎正是世界各地婦女研究團體最顯著的共通點。

在香港中文大學，這種兼顧肉體糧食與精神養料的聚會已有十年歷史了，而由這些聚會衍生的各項活動和研究，也已經有了一定成果。事實上，能定期出席月會的性別研究計劃成員人數並不多，相對之下，各種活動和研究項目的數量就更令人印象深刻了。作爲性別研究計劃資歷尚淺的一員，我對這些工作成果所體現的熱誠和投入實在由衷佩服。

《性別研究資訊》第十期與十周年紀念特刊同時出版，正好給我們一個機會，重溫中文大學性別研究計劃多年來默默耕耘的幾個領域。馬淑儀爲本期撰寫的「兩性角色交流會「回顧與前瞻」及近年各項活動的圖片固然是過去寶貴經驗的一部分，但更重要的是鍥而不捨地探討各項性別研究的主要課題：性騷擾、事業上的歧視和女性參與社會事務是婦女研究的幾個重要主題：本期分別由來自三個不同地區的Magaret Anderson、李春玲和何書心以專文探討。

俗語有云：十年人事幾番新。對性別研究計劃來說，發展與變化自然也是常規；本年五月，計劃的發起人張妙清教授被香港政府委任爲平等機會委員會主席，正是其中一項新發展。在此我們謹祝她在新的工作崗位上繼續發揮所長，爲建立一個更公平的社會作出貢獻。

