I Seminario de Investigación Binacional Oaxaca-San Diego: Un espacio intercultural ISBN 978-607-59619-4-1

# Leadership Roles for Women in Higher Education

#### Stephanie Vásquez

San Diego State University

This literature review investigates the role of Latina women in higher education leadership, concentrating on the factors that determine a woman's ability to ascend to leadership positions, the challenges noted by female leaders, and the techniques they utilize to overcome these obstacles. In order to ensure that the information presented here will help us better understand how women lead, this study focuses on the most significant hurdles women encounter in leadership. This study offers suggestions for persons who are interested in acquiring additional leadership responsibilities. It can also help those in a career transition increase their professional mobility to upper-level jobs, establish the essential abilities, and cultivate the qualities required for leadership success.

## Introduction

The Civil Rights Movement of the 1960s and the Feminist Movement of the 1970s both had an instrumental role in the rise of Latinas to positions of leadership in academia (Medina, 2000). These political movements brought attention to long-standing disparities between the privileged majority (often defined as White, middle-class, heterosexual, and male) and the oppressed minority. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Van, 2009) is a fundamental piece of law that laid the groundwork for affirmative action policies at universities. Racial discrimination in federally financed programs is illegal due to the Civil Rights Act. Affirmative action regulations require schools to aggressively seek out, interview, and admit gualified persons of color for employment and enrollment. For the first time in American history, Latina women were able to attend and graduate from colleges and universities of their choice because to affirmative action policies. The number of Latina women with doctoral degrees increased from 139 in 1976 to 366 in 1991 when they were granted greater freedom of choice in graduate program enrollment (National Center for Education Statistics). These ladies put their doctorates to good use by launching successful careers in a wide variety of fields. Notwithstanding these improvements, the percentage of educated women has remained dismally low (Medina, 2000). Historically, men have held the majority of administrative positions in the higher education sector (Nakitende, 2019). Affirmative action, feminism, and a strong female work ethic have all contributed to more women pursuing leadership and administrative roles in higher education, according to a study published in 2008 by the American Council on Education.

Women are now more visible in the workplace than ever before, and the number of women in managerial and executive roles continues to rise. Notwithstanding these improvements, women are still severely underrepresented in senior leadership roles. The majority of managers in human resources and social and community services are women, although men are still stereotyped as CEOs. As a result, men are disproportionately represented on the glass ladders to promotion (Klenke, 2011). One of the main reasons women are underrepresented in top leadership jobs is because both men and women have a tendency to undervalue a woman's leadership ability, according to a prior study (Valdata, 2008; Eagly, 2012).

The American Council on Education (2007) found that women headed 23% of colleges and universities in the USA. Researchers found that women presided over a disproportionately high number of research and community colleges. A better understanding of the female experience and insight into the role of both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives in women's decisions to assume leadership positions are necessary if we are to help all women who aspire to lead achieve their goal.

Maslow (1970) argues that motivation is what drives people to take action. According to McKee and Phillips (2001), human beings are driven by an inward force known as motivation. To better understand the elements that impact and enhance female leadership achievement, Birnbaum and Umbach (2001) reviewed data from a survey of 2,297 female university presidents in the United States. 6.3 percent of those polled had reached positions of leadership through the more conventional means of academic promotion, they found. In other words, leadership success requires preparation, fortitude, and effort. Positions of authority need preparation, inner motivation, and persistent pursuit of one's goals.

### Women in higher education

Throughout the past, women have attained positions of power in both government and business (Nakitende, 2019). Nonetheless, the significance of women's participation in educational institution decision-making has not yet been fully acknowledged (American Council on Education, 2012; Madsen, 2007). Notwithstanding their efforts and achievements, women continue to be underrepresented in academic administration. Thus, women are more likely to be placed in part-time and non-tenure track positions (Valdata et al., 2008; Eagly & Wood, 2012), which may hinder their professional advancement. When too few women assume administrative positions, educational institutions lose human resources and potential leadership.

Including more women into the labor force helps reform and strengthen educational institutions. If women are excluded from decision-making roles, the institution might not grow or endure. To encourage the next generation to follow in their footsteps, we must recognize the achievements of women in leadership positions.

#### Women's leadership motivation

More women than men are working in part-time and nontenure-track positions in higher education (West & Curtis, 2006), which creates barriers for women to acquire administrative positions such as dean, vice president, and president. Some may consider that women's demands can be adequately satisfied in inferior positions (i.e., part-time or non-tenured) or that they must be prepared to give all of their efforts to their institutions. Despite these misunderstandings, we must recognize the efforts and achievements of women in education leadership.

Numerous reasons encourage women to assume positions of leadership. Nakitende (2019) observed that career planning plays a significant effect in the promotion of women to leadership positions. In Nakitende's research population, women stated that they had followed a standard academic career route, completing kindergarten through high school and then earning a bachelor's degree. Some attended graduate school later on. Oakley (2000) emphasized that career planning is necessary for achieving ambitious objectives. To gain academic positions at a higher level, it is necessary to prepare for and define precise goals. Goal-setting can be a key motivator that propels individuals to achieve their aims. According to the findings of Nakitende's study, women interested in advancing their careers must remain determined and dedicated. It also demonstrates that women in higher education leadership positions were driven by a strong desire to have a positive impact on others, to accomplish personal growth and development, and to construct and support the institution's goals and vision.

Defining motivation in a single sentence is not always possible because it is a complex force. This article summarizes research on the internal and external factors that encourage or discourage the advancement of women to leadership positions in educational institutions. Understanding how to empower future female leaders will depend on our ability to identify and capitalize on people's unique motivations.

Knowing how people's motivations are influenced by their interests, objectives, goals, values, beliefs, attitudes, and decisions is essential for building leadership success. Individuals are motivated, according to Maslow's (1970) theory, by the desire to satisfy their unmet needs, including physiological requirements, social needs, growth, and self-actualization, among other self-related interests or demands. Suppose, however, that a faculty-level lecturer or staff person is dissatisfied with his or her situation. Thus, it may be difficult to convince him or her to undertake new tasks. To increase and maintain an employee's motivation at work, Herzberg (1966) suggests that the office atmosphere or the activity must be appealing and rewarding to a certain degree.

Nakitende (2019) defines *intrinsic motivation* as the act of completing something for the joy of it rather than the value of the outcome. Ryan and Deci (2000) report that intrinsic motivation is a force produced from the activity itself because the task is inherently engaging or provides the individual with a specific amount of fulfillment and satisfaction. Intrinsic motivators—such as passion, competence, achievement, affiliation, values, self-efficacy, self-actualization, and esteem fulfillment—are the internal motivators that feed your values, goals, and needs. *Extrinsic motivation*, on the other hand, is derived from external stimulation or feedback such as reaching objectives and obtaining incentives. Several extrinsic motivating elements were described by McKee and Phillips (2001), including academic training and credentials, mentors, role models, affiliations, progress, feedback, recognition, and family support. To be extrinsically motivated, an individual must believe that his or her efforts will lead to the accomplishment of goals, as shown in Figure 1. Goals, salaries, networking, rewards, role models, promotions, status, the work itself, relationships, and mentors are physical or outside factors that may also stimulate one's motivation extrinsically. These motivating factors listed above may come from within or through outside sources but are necessary in order to reach our goals.

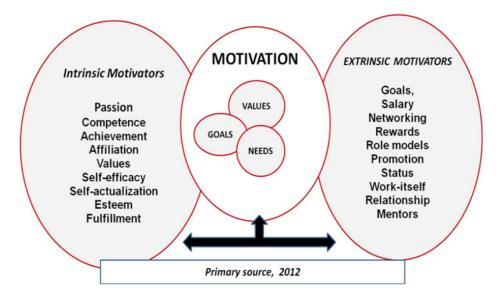


Figure 1: Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivators

# Leadership success strategies

Barsh et al. (2011) demonstrate five resources that may be leveraged to acquire high-level positions and succeed in leadership roles, including: a) having a strong sense of significance—such as doing something you enjoy—may encourage and influence others (namely women) to attain lofty objectives; b) energy management, which involves understanding where personal energy comes from, where it goes, and how to maintain motivation; c) positive framing, which is maintaining a positive outlook and being receptive to various points of view, or in other words, the need for one to develop a constructive outlook on life and the world in order to be effective in leadership roles; d)relationship building—which is essential for professional development—illustrates the importance of networking in leadership through the recognition of key individuals who can advise and support us in various scenarios, as the results of this study demonstrate how women may improve and progress in their professions via networking; e) engagement in other activities, which refers to participation in a variety of activities that may help those interested in career growth obtain fundamental knowledge and skills to grow professionally. As this list suggest, one must be resolute, hopeful, and internally motivated in order to reach his or her goals (Ryan, 2000).

#### Biological arguments that naturalize ethnicity and gender

Biological determinist theories that naturalize gender and race/ethnicity and suggest that some groups are intrinsically more mature, disciplined, or intelligent than others are highly problematic (Ochoa 2013) and promote unequal treatment. West and Curtis (2006) explain that as the level of academic rank increases, the representation of women in higher education administration declines. Men tend to be viewed as more aggressive while women tend to be viewed as more nurturing. These observations in no way determine that women are not capable in high-level positions. Rather, women are more often hired as instructors/lecturers with less chance of being hired or promoted to higher administrative positions. Oakley (2000) analyzed women's career pathways and concluded that gender prejudice in recruiting, selection, assessment, and promotion significantly prevents women's advancement to executive roles. Survey results in Oakley's study indicated that making a difference, assisting others, serving, and having the liberty to make decisions and solve problems are the primary factors influencing women to pursue leadership roles. These factors are crucial to the endurance of women in leadership positions.

Despite this, women in leadership positions who did not set goals for themselves displayed significant self-efficacy. A person's confidence in his or her capacity to perform a task is referred to as efficacy. Efficacy increases a person's motivation, level of effort, and perseverance in the face of hardship. Bandur and Locke (2003) found that those with a strong believe in their own abilities perceive obstacles as opportunities to learn and grow, but those who lack confidence in their capacity to finish tasks view obstacles as a source of risk. Self-efficacy is essential for professional advancement and leadership achievement.

# Looking to the future

Institutions should create a welcoming, supportive, and learning-focused environment for women to help them overcome the obstacles they still encounter. When it comes to leadership in academia, it's important to close the gender gap and increase representation from underrepresented groups, both of which can be aided by increased support for women's advancement. Institutions of higher learning need to provide students with more opportunity to develop their leadership skills through practice and training. New leaders might benefit from leadership training in order to acquire the knowledge and abilities necessary to effectively traverse organizational structures. Mentorship and networking are important for professional development, but early career planning and education are equally crucial. Leadership growth can also be aided by reading leadership literature, performing research, and engaging in self-reflection and evaluation. Finally, organizations should expand and equalize development possibilities for workers.

# Conclusion

Women in leadership positions are beneficial to universities for the same reasons they are to other types of corporations. It is deplorable that many women in academia are appointed to part-time or temporary jobs, which creates barriers for women to reach high administrative positions such as deans, vice presidents, and presidents. Biological determinist perspectives can promote discrimination, such as the idea that males are more committed to higher administrative posts because they are better able to compartmentalize their time between work and family. Women who have children may be viewed as "distracted" or "less dedicated" because of the time and energy required to raise a family. If women are not given opportunities for progression in their careers, it may be difficult for them to attain the highest levels of leadership. In addition, because women are capable of providing dedicated and great leadership, the absence of women in leadership positions is harmful to academic institutions.

Younger, more ambitious women may misinterpret the lack of female role models in educational institutions' top positions as a sign that leadership roles

are reserved for men, discouraging them from pursuing those careers. A powerful motivator, representation is. A strong woman's motivation might come from within, from her own potential, or from the external elements that surround her when she sees herself reflected in another strong woman's position of leadership. Providing women the opportunities to take on leadership roles is crucial to their continued professional success. This means that schools need to examine their own procedures, policies, and laws to see if they help or hinder the rise of women to administrative roles in the classroom.

## References

- American Council on Education. 2008. Too many rungs on the ladder: faculty demographics and the future leadership of higher education. [Online] Available From: http://www.acenet.edu/AM/Template.cfm?Section=Home&TEMPLATE=/CM/Contentisplay.cfm&CONTENTID=33570 [Accessed 12 September 2011]
- American Council on Education, 2007. The American college president: Washington, DC Barsh, J., Cranston, S., and Lewis, G., 2011. How remarkable women lead: The breakthrough model for work and life. Crown Pub
- Birnbaum, R., and Umbach, P. D., 2001. Scholar, steward, and spanner, stranger: The four career paths of college presidents. The Review of Higher Education, Vol. 24(3): 203-217. DIO: 10.1353/RHE.2001.001
- Herzberg, F., 1966. Work and the nature of man. Cleveland: World Publishing Company
- Klenke, K. (2011). Women in Leadership: Conntextual Dynamics and Boundaries, Bingely, UK: Emerald Group Publishing Limited
- National Center for Education Statistics. 2014. Table 301.20, Historical summary of faculty, enrollment, degrees, and finances in degree-granting postsecondary institutions: Selected years, 1869-70 through 2011-12. [Online] Available From: https://nces.ed.gov/programs/ digest/d13/tables/dt13\_301.20.asp?current=yes [Accessed 24 April 2022]

- Oakley, J. G., 2000. Gender-based barriers to senior management positions: Understanding the scarcity of female CEOs. Journal of Business Ethics, 27:321-334
- Ochoa, Gilda L., 1965-. (2013). Academic profiling : Latinos, Asian Americans, and the achievement gap. Minneapolis, MN :University of Minnesota Press
- Ryan, M., and Deci, E., 2000. Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: Classic definitions and new directions. Contemporary Education and Psychology 25: 54-67. Doi:10.1006/ ceps.999.1020 [Online] Available From: http://mmrg. pbworks.com/f/Ryan,+Deci+00.pdf
- Valdata, P., Mendoza,V., Luma, L., Hawkins, B., Pember, M. A., and Nealy, M. J., 2008. Women redefining leadership. Diverse Issues in Higher Education. 25(3): 16 van Ameijde, Jitse D. J.; Nelson, Patrick C.; Billsberry, Jon and van Meurs, Nathalie (2009). Improving leadership in Higher Education institutions: a distributed perspective. *Higher Education*, 58(6) pp. 763–779.DOI: https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9224-y
- Walton, K., and McDade, A., 2001. At the top of the faculty: Women as chief academic officers. In: Women administrators in higher education, Nidiffer, J., and Bashaw, C.T., (Eds), Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 2001, pp.85-100
- West, M. S., and Curtis, J. W., 2006. AAUP faculty gender equity indicators 2006.
  Washington, D.C: American Association of University Professors. [Online] Accessed From: http://www.aaup.org/NR/rdonlyres/63396944-44BE-4ABA-9815-5792D93856F1/0/AAUPGenderEquityIndicators2006.pdf [Accessed 9 September 2011]

Derechos de Autor © 2023 por Stephanie Vásquez

Este sitio de libros está bajo una licencia Creative Commons de Atribución Internacional 4.0

Usted es libre para compartir, copiar y redistribuir el material en cualquier medio o formato y adaptar el documento, remezclar, transformar y crear a partir del material para cualquier propósito, incluso comercialmente, siempre que cumpla la condición de atribución: usted debe reconocer el crédito de una obra de manera adecuada, proporcionar un enlace a la licencia, e indicar si se han realizado cambios. Puede hacerlo en cualquier forma razonable, pero no deforma tal que sugiera que tiene el apoyo del licenciante o lo recibe por el uso que hace.