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Leadership Legacies

Marilyn L. Grady

How often do we stop to consider the impact leaders have had in our lives? How often do we consider the impact we have in the lives of others? Certainly educators make a difference in the lives of others every day; however, how often do educators consider their leadership legacies?

Recent obituaries and testimonials to Coretta Scott King and Wendy Wasserstein are reminders of the leadership legacies of these women.

About Coretta Scott King (1927-2006), Burch in *The Miami Herald* (February 1, 2006) stated "Coretta Scott King built a legacy from pain and progress, first as the wife who stood tall next to a man bent on changing the ways of this land, then as a widow veiled in delicate black lace, and finally as the curator of Martin Luther King Jr.'s dream" (p. 1). In an article titled, "Civil rights icon dies at 78" by Copeland in *USA Today* (February 1, 2006), Coretta Scott King was called "the queen of black America" (p. 1). In tribute to her, Rep. John Lewis, D-GA, said "Her greatest legacy is that in building the King Center, she built a living memorial to her husband. She fought to get his birthday made a national holiday. She institutionalized his memory for generations to come. . . . She must be remembered . . . as one of the founding mothers of the new America" (p. 2A). House Minority Leader Nancy Pelosi said, "In the nearly 40 years (since Martin Luther King Jr.'s death), she agitated, she struggled and she remained committed to the vision. She was a civil rights leader in her own right, and with her singularity of purpose and tenacity, she often triumphed." (p. 2)

Wendy Wasserstein's (1950-2006) legacy also deserves notice. She was described by Dolen in *The Miami Herald* as "Wendy Wasserstein (was) the Pulitzer Prize-winning playwright who turned the concerns of her generation's women into laughter-laced dramatic art" (January 31, 2006, p. 1). According to Andre Bishop, Lincoln Center Theatre artistic director, "Her plays speak to a lot of concerns of professional, successful, intelligent women everywhere" (p. 1). Among her plays are "Uncommon Women and Others," "Isn't it Romantic," "The Heidi Chronicles," "The Sisters Rosenweig," "An American Daughter," and "Old Money." According to Dolen in *The Miami Herald*, "Wasserstein's best-known role was as the woman playwright of her generation" (p. 4A).

These two women have left incredible leadership legacies. Their vision, persistence, tenacity, commitment, and passion are palpable. As women educators pause to consider their leadership legacies they should keep these models of leadership in mind. According to the authors of *Your leadership legacy: The difference you make in people's lives* (2004), "the legacy you live is the legacy you leave."

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Proposals for presentations at the **20th Annual Women in Educational Leadership Conference** are being accepted! The conference will be October 8-9, 2006, in Lincoln, Nebraska. For information about the conference or proposal guidelines contact Marilyn Grady at mgrady1@unl.edu

Women in History

Marian Wright Edelman: Crusader for Civil and Children's Rights

Shirley J. Mills

"You really can change the world if you care enough."

Marian Wright Edelman

Marian Wright Edelman was born June 6, 1939, at a time when prejudice and segregation were the norm. The Wright family lived in a small, southern town of Bennettsville, South Carolina, where Marian was the youngest of five children. Her father, the Reverend Arthur Jerome Wright, was a Baptist preacher, and her mother, Maggie Leola Bowen Wright, was an activist for the rights of women and African-Americans. Her father expected his children to do two things—work hard at getting an education and serve others through community service. Marian Wright was encouraged by her parents, teachers, and church leaders to live her life with no limits. These key adults kept telling her that she could go anywhere and do anything she wanted regardless of the limits placed upon her by society. These humble beginnings set the stage for a brilliant law career and a career of advocacy for children and marginalized families. With multiple degrees, countless honors, several books, and a long array of national and international experiences to her credit, she is quick to note that her modest beginnings were the foundation of her strength today.

After graduating from Marlboro Training High School, she left Mississippi in the late 1950s to attend Spelman College, a historically black liberal arts college for women in Atlanta, Georgia. There she served as student body president. After graduation in 1960, she realized that a career in law would provide the entry into a life that would enable her to effectively create the changes she believed the country desperately needed. She was accepted into the Yale Law School in 1960. After completing a law degree in 1963, she returned to Mississippi and in 1965 became the first African American woman to pass the Mississippi State Bar Exam and be admitted to the Mississippi Bar.

About the Author

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Marian Wright established the course of her career in Jackson, Mississippi, directing the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) Legal Defense and Educational Office with issues involving racial inequality. In her private practice, she took on civil rights cases. She saw the terrible effects of racial segregation and the healing power of positive action. Her other passion involved improving the lives of children. By experiencing first hand the overwhelming problems of illiteracy, poverty, hunger, lack of health care, and lack of hope, she was stirred to serve her community's poorest children. She assisted with restoring federal Head Start funds, expanded food stamp eligibility, and served as the counsel to the Child Development Group providing health care, food, and education to poor children.

At the urging of Martin Luther King, Jr., and her friend, Senator Robert F. Kennedy, Marian Wright moved to Washington to be of greater assistance to poor people everywhere. She helped organized Dr. King's Poor People's March. It was through her urgings that Congress passed new, expanded child and family nutrition programs throughout the country.

It was in Washington that she met Peter Edelman, a Washington, D.C. civil rights lawyer. They married in 1968 and had three children—Joshua, Jonah, and Ezra.

She founded the Washington Research Project in 1964, a public interest law firm. In 1973 she founded and became president of the Children's Defense Fund, one of the nation's premier advocacy groups for young people. Its mission is to leave no child behind and to ensure that every child is given a healthy head start, a fair, safe, and moral start in life with the support of caring families and communities. It receives funding only from foundations, corporate grants and individual donations to support its multi-million dollar annual budget. As its president, Marian Wright Edelman pushes for many reforms that make the lives of children better including disabled access in schools, affordable child care, immunizations, nutritious

food, educational opportunities, and \$48 billion legislation to create the Child Health Fund. As founder and president of the organization, she continues to urge all Americans to demand that Congress make the right choices for the welfare of all children. Through her unfailing energy and determination, Marian Wright Edelman continues to provide children with the essential necessities for success—educational opportunity, equality, justice, and hope.

In 1996, she founded another children's organization, Stand for Children, which brings together children's rights activists from across the United States to improve the lives of children. In addition to her work with children, she served as director of the Center for Law and Education at Harvard University and is the first African American female on the board of Yale University.

Marian Wright Edelman's most influential political tie was during the Clinton Administration. Former First Lady and current New York State Senator, Hillary Rodham Clinton, was once a Children's Defense Fund staff attorney and chairperson. Through this political tie, Edelman was able to advance the cause of children's rights and the plight of African Americans in general.

Marian Wright Edelman has received countless honorary degrees and many awards including the MacArthur Foundation Fellowship Prize; the Albert Schweitzer Humanitarian Prize; the Hinz Award; the Ella J. Baker prize; and in 2000, the Presidential Medal of Freedom, the nation's highest civilian award, and the Robert F. Kennedy Lifetime Achievement Award for her writing.

She has written many books and articles including *Lantern: A Memoir of Mentor* (2000), a book about the people (lanterns) who helped shape and influence her life; *Guide My Feet: Prayers and Mediations for Our Children* (2000), a book of prayers and mediations for parents and others who try to instill values of faith, integrity, compassion, and service in children; *The Measures of Our Success: Letter to My Children and Yours* (1993), which was her way of passing on the values of hard work, service, responsibility, and faith that were given to her. Her most recent publications include *The State of American's Children* (2005); *I'm Your Child, God: Prayers for Our Children* (2002); and *I Can Make a Difference: A Treasury to Inspire Our Children* (2005). In addition to the many books she has written, Marian Wright Edelman is a prolific author of articles and speeches that are inspiring and filled with hope.

Marian Wright Edelman continues to fearlessly crusade for the rights of the poor and marginalized children. Her unfailing devotion to this cause has proven over and over that it is possible for one individual to accomplish greatness.

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Lessons From Greece: A Body, Mind, Spirit Odyssey*

Linda L. Lyman

Spring Semester 2005 I was a visiting Fulbright professor at Aristotle University in Greece. The purpose of the Fulbright Program is to increase mutual understanding between the people of the United States and the people of the 150 or so countries that currently participate in the Fulbright Program. Details of the opportunities offered and directions about how to apply can be found at www.cies.org. Aristotle University is located in Thessaloniki, a city of a million people in northern Greece. This 2,300 year-old city is a major seaport at the north end of the Aegean Sea. In retrospect, living and teaching in Greece from January through July was definitely *an odyssey* – bringing adventures of the body, mind, and spirit. It was a life-altering journey with multiple layers of learnings to bring home.

After surveying the possibilities for my sabbatical, I applied for a Lecturer/Researcher Women's Studies award in Greece. Once selected for the award, I created the two classes I taught at Aristotle University in the Department of American Literature and Culture in the School of English. One was a lecture style class for 86 undergraduates on *Women and Leadership in American Culture*, and the other was *Gender and Leadership in American Fiction and Film*, a class for five graduate students who became special friends. Teaching in a foreign university with 75,000 students required a steep learning curve. Strange customs included students not being required to come to class, being able to decide whether they wanted to take the spring semester exams in June or September, and getting to take final exams again if they did not pass the first time. I did things I had not done before, like teaching undergraduates and giving lectures incorporating technology in a building not designed for it. The students valued my American approach to teaching and loved giving me their opinions about books and ideas. They said I gave them a vision of a new way to teach.

In addition to the teaching, I completed a qualitative study about the leadership beliefs and practices of Greek women principals. My collaborators were two Greek women professors of educational administration from

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Athens, Dr. Anastasia Athanassoula-Reppa and Dr. Angeliki Lazaridou, who have become friends for a lifetime. We presented our preliminary research findings together at a conference in Patra before I left Greece. I have since presented our findings at the 19th Annual Women in Educational Leadership Conference at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln, and the UCEA 2005 Convention in Nashville. Through working with these extraordinary women and others, I learned that the issues for women who would lead are the same in Greece as they are in the United States. Similar social-cultural, institutional, and psychological barriers to women's leadership restrict opportunities in both countries.

Adventures of the body began when my husband and I got off the plane in Thessaloniki and had to find our way around a city with few right-angled streets. We thrived on the food and learned that a well-stocked Greek kitchen depends on lemons and olive oil. We learned to value sitting in coffee shops, particularly when finding ourselves lost during long walks in the city. We discovered that if we walked downhill we would always end up at the sea and could find our way home. We grew to like knowing that nothing would ever start on time, counted on it in fact. We learned that plans and schedules can always be changed, and it won't matter because time is not linear. Life in Greece had a satisfying human pace even as the mythical gods and goddesses hovered historically. The beauty of this mystical land invited wanderings. One place we wandered was Mount Olympus, the highest mountain in Greece, which in fact is not a single mountain but a massive ridge with several summits. We learned that "olympus" means "all-shining, sparkling," probably because the peaks are covered with snow except for a short time in the summer months and they literally shine during moonlit nights.

Adventures of the mind were many. The differences between Greece and the United States challenged us daily; they stretched our minds and enriched our journey. Just getting around and doing the little things, like shopping for groceries and paying the bills, required mental concentration. Studying the Greek language offered a lesson in humility, although I did manage to learn enough to communicate about basics when we visited villages where not much English was spoken. We learned through our travels in the countryside that communication does not require a common language. We saw the Greek

light in as many places as we could. We saw major monuments of antiquity in Athens and Ancient Olympia, explored the ruins of Agamemnon's palace in Mycenae, were awed by the Royal Tombs in Vergina, and questioned the oracles at Delphi and Dodoni. We visited larger towns and small villages, crisscrossed the mainland and visited the islands of Corfu, Crete, and Rhodes. Yet as we think back to all the beautiful and historic places we visited, clearly it was the people we met who brought light to our lives and gave meaning to our experience of Greece.

Adventures that deepened the spirit were offered to us by the many Greek people who took us into their homes, hearts, and culture. We participated in a meaningful Greek Orthodox Easter celebration in a village by the Ionian Sea, and were awed by the monasteries on the rocks of Meteora. We visited countless Byzantine churches and lit candles in street-side shrines. The Greeks we came to know are above all people of spirit, comfortable with the intermixing of mythology and contemporary reality. Having lived in the magical glow of the light of Greece for six months, we have been living since in its afterglow and we see the world differently.

The light of Greece is unique, according to Nicholas Gage. "In the stark light of the Greek sun, colors become so pure and clear that they are almost audible, but never brash and glaring. Every patch of color glows with a great subtlety of shades," he writes. His words echo those of Henry Miller, who wrote this about Greece, "Everything here speaks now, as it did centuries ago, of illumination . . . Here the light penetrates directly to the soul, opens the door and the windows of the heart, makes one naked, exposed, isolated in a metaphysical bliss which makes everything clear without being known."

So it was for us. Veils quickly fell away as we immersed ourselves in the Greek *now*, lived more fully in *kairos*, the eternal present. Life was newly clear even as we lived in the midst of much that was unknown. Gage wrote, "Seeing the intensity of the Greek light, which tolerates no halftones, no secrets, setting every object ablaze with significance, is the cornerstone to understanding Greece." Another cornerstone is experiencing the warm Greek *hospitality to the stranger*. Remembering them, the names of our Greek friends call up images of hospitality, friendship, and love. To celebrate every special holiday Greeks always return to their family villages. We have decided that "Greece" will be our village, and we plan many returns.

Acclimating to the Professoriate: Perspectives from New Female Faculty Members

Julie Carlson & Janna Frayer

This qualitative focus group study examined the prevailing acclimatization concerns and strategies of 10 new female professors at a mid-sized state university. Emergent themes relative to challenges experienced were, in order of prevalence, *not enough time, teaching effectively, health, job expectations, institutional knowledge, and support*. Somewhat less solidified were similar themes for strategies, also in order of prevalence, in the areas of *using time wisely, teaching effectively, maintaining health, balancing job expectations, seeking support, and getting organized*. Implications for universities are: to recognize the obstacles that new faculty members experience and to implement practices that lessen the teaching, advising, and committee load for the first year.

Background of the Problem

Persons new to the professoriate are faced with the abrupt challenge of balancing teaching loads, scholarship, professional growth, and service while simultaneously learning the physical and psycho-social milieu of their new surroundings (Schaefer Carroll, 2003). Schaeffer Carroll mused that, short of cloning oneself, new faculty are expected to be unofficially enrolled in introductory courses in philosophy, rhetoric, mathematics, technology, and social science in order to gain control over their new balancing act. Feeling alone and somewhat lost while navigating the maze of academe is not uncommon among new faculty members; being female tends to compound the isolation (Collins, Chrisler, & Quina, 1998). Christman (2003) concurred that “the new junior woman experiences a double bind” (§ 25). Being a new junior woman of minority status creates an additional challenge.

Benokraitis (1998) identified a common female phenomenon as the “Oprah effect” (p. 26) whereby females strive to emulate “highly visible women” (p. 26) by trying to achieve beyond what most people can, out serve others, and have all the answers to life’s problems as well. Whether

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internally or externally imposed, female faculty members regularly identify higher concerns than males over issues of culture and climate, isolation, acceptance of research agendas, mentoring, intradepartmental relationships, limited financial and research support, and child care (Christman, 2003). Additionally, (academe) disparities continue to exist between males and females in salary, tenure and promotion rates, teaching and advising loads, and expectations for service.

Considering all that new professors are learning while attempting to balance the demands of teaching with the expectations of the tenure and promotion process, questions arise as to what the main concerns and challenges of new professors actually are and what strategies are used in addressing them. Specifically, this study examined issues of acclimatization experienced by new female professors, isolated from any comparison to experiences of their male counterparts. This study adds to the growing body of knowledge on issues unique to the female professoriate. Dually seeking to discover the primary acclimatization challenges and strategies experienced by women new to the professoriate and to provide a discussion support group for them in hopes of lessening the quagmire, this study strived to accommodate both ideas. The study took place during the 2004-2005 academic year.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this qualitative study was to identify the prevailing acclimatization challenges and strategies of females new to the professoriate. The main research questions were, (a) What are the most prevalent challenges expressed by new female professors?, and (b) What strategies are used by new female professors in acclimating to the challenges of their new positions?

Role of the Researchers

The primary researcher for this study was Julie Carlson, a probationary, tenure-track faculty member. Her experiences in balancing her own work and personal life, and the desire to help others in similar situations, were the main impetus in embarking on this study. Her roles in this study were as the designer of the study, facilitator of the focus group meetings, data collector, and co-analyzer for the study.

Approximately halfway through the data collection stage of the study, Frayer entered the research process as a graduate student and secondary researcher. Her interest in the study stemmed from a possible future pursuit of teaching in higher education and the opportunity for gaining insight into the experiences she might expect. She was the primary researcher for the review of the literature, and co-analyzer of the research data in terms of coding and identifying emergent themes therein. In order to maintain anonymity and to increase trustworthiness for data analysis, the identification of the participants was and remains unknown to Frayer.

Review of the Literature

In this qualitative study, we examined the challenges experienced and strategies used by new female faculty members in fulfilling the responsibilities of their new profession. In a survey of 10 national systems of higher education, Bain and Cummings (2000) determined that less than 10% of professors at that time were women. Furthermore, the proportion of female professors was negatively related to attribution of institutional prestige. Conclusions drawn were that institutional barriers, or the “glass ceiling of academia” (p. 493), existed and resulted in shorter careers, increased tenure issues, and lower levels of academic productivity for women. The question arises as to why people, specifically women, desire such obstacle-strewn professorial positions in the first place.

Review of the literature revealed multitudes of studies contrasting experiences and institutional practices between male and female faculty members in higher education. Although this particular study was not a comparative inquiry against male faculty perspectives, these studies do shed light on specific aspects of the female professorial experience. Those aspects are particularly appropriate for discussion here. This review of the literature examined recent issues pertaining to tenure and promotion, work-life balance, balancing job responsibilities and research, and evaluations of professors by students.

Tenure and Promotion

Originally conceived out of the need or demand for academic freedom in the early 20th century in higher education, tenure has since accrued associations with power and status (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). For many faculty members, tenure is viewed as the only currently viable assurance of job security (Premeaux & Mondy, 2002a) in the political institutional uncertainty of academe, although Tierney and Bensimon (1996) would argue that some institutions do not offer tenure and do protect academic freedom.

In their study of more than 200 faculty members at 12 colleges and universities, Tierney and Bensimon (1996) revealed a plethora of concerns expressed by new faculty members, especially females. Based on these results, they recommended that institutions engage in intentional socialization endeavors such as mentoring, collective and individual orientation forums for the purpose of increasing self and institutional knowledge, articulating the school's mission, becoming a self-reflective campus, and encouraging critical dialogue.

Extensive survey studies conducted by Premeaux and Mondy (1997, 2002a, 2002b; Mondy & Premeaux, 2001) have investigated discrepancies between views of tenured faculty, non-tenured faculty, and deans toward the tenure and promotion process. Across various surveys of faculty at Association to Advance Collegiate Schools of Business International accredited schools, participants agreed that tenure is a necessary system, especially to ensure job security. However, there was substantial acknowledgement that there is a need for improvement in usual tenure processes. Pockets do exist where tenure is viewed as an obstacle to removing unproductive professors who teach obsolete subject matter (Premeaux & Mondy, 2002b).

One of the later studies was a survey 1306 professors at 48 schools in the United States and Canada. Findings confirmed discrepancies between men and women among questions of tenure and academic freedom, tenure modification, and university commitment (Premeaux & Mondy, 2002a). The data indicated that there were statistically significant higher ratings given by females than males on the necessity of tenure for personal faculty security and for ensured academic freedom. Females tended to feel that attaining tenure was a necessary security assurance. More male than female participants claimed that tenure was over applied, despite many women resorting to litigation to settle tenure disputes. The researchers suggested, "Possibly, men are closing ranks to protect the environment that they currently control by admitting few females" (p. 156).

Work-Life Balance

For new female faculty members who also have significant family responsibilities, they often find themselves unwittingly entering into unattainable balancing acts between two fulltime jobs. Dale (1998) queried, "But aren't all working women attempting this sort of thing? No, I think there is a hidden agenda, an unspoken expectation that women will bring and apply their vaunted nurturing skills to campus –the university has replaced *in loco parentis* with *in loco matris*" (p. 130). Coiner (1998) commented that the

responsibility for children remains the last refuge of sexism, the Achilles heel of the women's movement. Even the women the movement has most helped to advance, its educated professionals, have with a sense of *déjà vu* felt that old shock of sudden recognition, that familiar 'click': equal opportunity vanishes around the issue of who will take care of the kids." (p. 237)

Fortunately, there are higher education institutions that recognize the pressures and stresses associated with balancing family with the demands of academic work. In 1996, a seminal work surveyed 95% of all U. S. two-year and four-year institutions of higher education. The study was co-sponsored by the Foundation of the College and University Personnel Association and the Families and Work Institute and resulted in the publication of the Index of Campus Work-Family Initiatives. The Index identified the best practices of colleges and universities in the United States in terms of their implementation of "family-friendly programs" (Friedman, Rimsky, & Johnson, 1996, p. 1). The institutions highlighted were designated as Leadership Campuses, and their practices were proposed as benchmarks for which other colleges and universities should strive to attain.

Other studies have centered on obstacles for women in balancing their work and family responsibilities. Armenti (2004) interviewed 19 female professors at one Canadian university. The study identified obstacles faced on both a personal and professional level as a result of combining childrearing with an academic career. The results revealed childrearing problems, research dilemmas, a willingness to leave the academy, and denial of tenure and promotion.

An earlier study by the University of Michigan (1999) surveyed 1167 tenured and tenure-track faculty at its own institution in terms of workload, work environment, personal-professional life balance, and career satisfaction. In regard to environment and workload issues, more women than men felt their departments were less friendly, less supportive, more competitive, and more elitist. Women reported higher instances of experiencing discrimination

than did men in the areas of heavier workloads, receiving lower pay, less respect from peers, negative reactions from peers toward childbearing, and having others take credit for their ideas. Women also reported higher instances of harassment than did men in the areas of being cursed at by students, being stalked by a student or colleague, being subjected to sexual comments, and being pressured to date colleagues of the opposite sex. Relative to personal-professional life balance, the results indicated that women were more likely than men to rear children prior to beginning their academic careers or to delay starting a family until after they received tenure.

Mason and Goulden (2004) utilized data from the extensive nationally-funded Survey of Doctorate Recipients (SDR) that has been tracking more than 160,000 doctoral recipients since 1979. The SDR is intended to continue until the participants are 76 years of age. The purpose of Mason and Goulden's study was to analyze the impact of life-course factors such as marriage and childrearing on academic careers. Predictably, the study found that tenured women were less likely to be married with children than tenured men and that women with families spend more time in general between professional work, housework, and care giving than men. Furthermore, twice as many women as men indicated that they had fewer children than they had wanted.

Although females comprised over one-third of fulltime faculty members in 2000-01, according to an annual survey by the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), that figure is much lower in terms of full professorship. More than 57% of lower ranked positions such as instructor or lecturer were held by females (§ 3). When proportions of full professors at doctoral institutions were analyzed, only 19% were female.

Based on its survey findings, federal laws, and analysis of current practices, American Association of University Professors (2001) proposed a statement of principles to be adopted by universities in the areas of family responsibilities and academic work. The policies entail enhanced family care and disability leaves, active service with modified duties, alterations to the "tenure clock" (§ 19), and additional institutional support. Specifically, AAUP recommended paid pregnancy leave, paid family and medical leave, short-term emergency leave, and long-term leave for child rearing or extended care giving. AAUP also proposed the adoption of an "active service-modified duties" (§ 17) policy similar to that of the University of California. Such policies allow for temporary modification of duties that still retain a faculty member at full or modified salary. The AAUP also advocated options for stopping the tenure clock, such as flexing the usual timeframe for attaining tenure when caring for a newborn or newly adopted child is necessary. Other types of institutional support were recommended for

subsidized on-campus childcare, financial support for caring for elder parents or family members with special needs, flexibility in scheduling to accommodate unforeseen family needs, and coordination of scheduling with the local K-12 school systems.

Balancing Job Responsibilities/Research

Although differences can be found between institutions of higher learning, generally, faculty members are expected to maintain involvement in teaching, scholarship, committee work, advising, professional development, and service. Bellas (1999) examined gender differences in academic responsibilities that require emotional labor in the areas of teaching, service, research and administration. Bellas determined that teaching and service in the area of advising required the most emotional labor, and that men and women experienced this emotional labor quite differently due to gender roles projected onto their work. In the areas of research and administration, the emotional labor involved was often unacknowledged. Men were found to spend more time in research and administrative activities than women.

Setting out to determine the percentage of research conducted by women, Blake, Bodle, and Adams (2004) conducted a meta-analysis of 6535 refereed articles from 10 journalism and mass communication journals published between 1986 and 2000. The study found that, overall, women produced 28.6% of the articles with the percentage increasing to 39.5% for the years of 1996-2000. The researchers determined that female faculty in journalism and mass communication have been producing very near their per capita in journal scholarship. The findings from this study provide the impetus for similar studies in other disciplines.

Professor Evaluations/Student Perceptions

Performance and evaluation anxiety have been identified as substantial challenges for female professors (Basow, 1998). In a questionnaire completed by 61 females and 47 males at a small liberal arts college, students were asked to describe their best and worst college professors (Basow, 2000). The data revealed that male students tended to value female professors less and female students tended to value female professors more. Although female faculty received higher ratings on interpersonal questions than did their male counterparts, the qualities cited by students describing characteristics of male and female professors differed depending on the students' genders.

Bauer and Baltes (2002) used the Women as Professors Scale and responses to construct vignettes to analyze undergraduate college students' ratings of male and female professor performances. Vignettes containing 20

incidents of teacher behaviors were given to participants to identify the gender of the described professor and rate their performance described therein. Students who held traditional gender stereotypes were found to rate women less accurately and more negatively than those who did not hold traditional stereotypes. The majority of those students were males. Bauer and Baltes concluded that women who are evaluated by people who hold traditional gender-based stereotypes “may receive less positive outcomes than their true performance dictates” (p. 473) such as fewer promotions, less recognition, and perhaps less pay.

When 292 students from two urban Canadian universities were surveyed and asked to choose their best university professor, only 33.9% of the chosen professors were female (Das & Das, 2001, p. 669). The study utilized the Bem’s Sex Role Inventory, the results of which indicated that male professors who were perceived as low in femininity, masculine, or undifferentiated were more often chosen by students as their best professors. Female professors who were perceived as gender neutral, androgynous, or undifferentiated were chosen as best professors. The results were especially consistent for older, more work-experienced respondents who were either male or female. For younger female students, a more feminine gender role in female professors was preferred. Das and Das suggested that female professors might adapt their teaching style to better meet the learning needs of particular groups of students. Although the researchers acknowledged limitations in their findings, they identified the concern and possibility that student perceptions of best professors may be linked to views of what constitutes good leaders. If so, they surmised “management is likely to remain a man’s world for a long time” (p. 674).

Miller and Chamberlin (2000) conducted a survey of sociology students from five classes at a large research university. Student perceptions were analyzed in terms of educational credentials of faculty members as a function of gender. Students were more likely to attribute status for earning a doctorate degree to male instructors than to female instructors, even when those females had attained full professor ranking. Furthermore, students “misattributed” (p. 283) or misguessed the correct educational credentials attained by male professors in an upward direction and in a correlating downward direction for female professors. Miller and Chamberlain determined a definite stereotypical gender bias revealed by the student participants that devalued or discounted female faculty members’ status and credentials. They mused the possibility that males are more likely to communicate their credentials and status to students, and may be more likely to use their own scholarly works as course materials.

Methodology

Design of the Study

In this qualitative study we examined the perspectives of new female faculty members in terms of acclimating to the responsibilities of their positions. This study used a focus group design, and open-ended questions were asked to identify the main challenges, concerns, and strategies being experienced and utilized by the participants. The sessions were semi-structured, providing a list of questions to which participants could respond and readdress in any order, or not respond if desired.

Participants

Purposive sampling was used to identify participants for the study. A total of 25 letters of invitation were mailed to female faculty members in their first year of hire at a mid-sized university located in the central United States. There were 12 positive responses to the invitation, of which 10 subsequently became study participants. These 10 women were arranged into two focus groups, numbering five members each.

Four of the participants were in the process of conducting or completing their doctoral dissertations during at least part of the study period. Two of the participants were hired for fixed-term positions. One participant had worked previously for a few years at another university. One participant was hired into a non-teaching, coordinator position. The participants ranged generally from 30 to 50 years of age.

Data Collection

Four interview sessions were facilitated for each of the two focus groups. These sessions took place during the months of October, December, February, and April of the 2004-2005 university academic year. The intention was to gather data soon after the beginning of each semester and just before the end of each semester, believing that these would be times when challenges, concerns, and strategies would be heavily experienced and therefore easily identified, yet also not intrude on time needed by the participants during the first and last two weeks of each semester for other job-related endeavors.

Each focus group session took approximately one hour to complete. Various open-ended questions were used for each session, but were always focused on identifying the main concerns and challenges being experienced at the time, and strategies used or attempted in meeting those challenges. Participants were provided with guidelines for maintaining confidentiality at the beginning of each session.

To increase trustworthiness and authenticity of the data, field notes of the participants' responses were taken during each session. The eight group sessions were audio-taped and subsequently transcribed. Member checking was conducted whereby transcripts of the sessions were provided to each participant to clarify and verify individual narrative contributions.

Data Analysis

Data analysis was initiated after the October and December focus sessions had been transcribed. Coding of data as described by Strauss and Corbin (1998) was enlisted. Open coding (line-by-line analysis) of the transcripts was initially conducted by the two researchers separately, followed by check-coding with both researchers together which resulted in some adjustments to specific coding terminology. Subsequent axial or pattern coding (relating chunked data through categorical matrices) was conducted, followed by entering occurrences of data by participant into the correlating matrices. Analysis of the matrix data resulted in emergent patterns identified by the study participants of (a) challenges and concerns, (b) strategies, (c) feelings, and (d) positive aspects of the job.

After the February and April focus sessions were transcribed, open and axial coding sequences were again conducted. Constant comparative analysis was utilized with the previously and the newly coded data, and subsequently arranged into the matrices. Once it was apparent that the data categories were saturated, integration of the categories into an interpretive narrative text (selective coding) finalized the data analysis process.

Findings and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify the prevailing acclimatization challenges and strategies of females new to the professoriate. Some of the items identified by the participants were more concerns than actual challenges; some were definite challenges experienced daily. A common concern expressed by participants was the need to address current duties while simultaneously feeling anxious about deadlines and upcoming needs for the near future. In other words, there were items that were concerns for the future that would become actual challenges once their need for completion loomed closer. The main themes relative to challenges and concerns that emerged were, in order of prevalence, *not enough time*, *teaching effectively*, *health*, *job expectations*, *institutional knowledge*, and *support*.

Somewhat less solidified were strategies the women used to attempt to lessen the challenges and concerns they were experiencing. Similar emergent

themes for strategies, also in order of prevalence, were in the areas of *using time wisely*, *teaching effectively*, *maintaining health*, *balancing job expectations*, *seeking support*, and *getting organized*.

A lack of institutional knowledge was identified as a challenge. However, no specific strategies were mentioned to increase that knowledge. *Getting organized* was identified by several of the participants as a specific strategy to help overall, without being directly correlated to addressing any particular challenge or concern. These patterns and themes are discussed in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Challenges

Not enough time. By far, the most often identified challenges dealt with the lack of time the women felt they needed in order to do all that was expected of them. These were expressed in a variety of ways. It came as a surprise to some of the participants that they would spend as much time as they did in meetings and committee work. For some, their departments specifically advised them not to serve on any committees their first semester or year, or to serve only on committees that required little time or effort. Others received no such advice. A similar practice for some departments was to not assign any new advisees for new faculty during their first semester or year. For those participants who did serve on committees and were assigned advisees during their first semester, a lack of transition or “honeymoon” time was identified. A few of the women acknowledged that they had a hard time saying “no” to requests to accept time-consuming tasks.

Another prevalent challenge was the large amount of time needed to prepare for classes. In some cases, previous syllabi from other professors were provided, which helped in planning new courses. Regardless, time for reading course content, preparing handouts, technological presentations, and activities always seemed to be too sparse.

Providing students with what they needed was viewed as rewarding and desirable, yet still time-consuming in terms of answering student phone calls, emails, and meeting with them face-to-face. Non-student related phone calls and emails were also identified as time challenges. There were expectations for all of the participants to maintain scholarly and research activity. However, it was difficult for them to set aside or honor time for research and other job tasks that lay in waiting to be completed sometime in the future.

A few of the women were commuters who either lived in other cities or lived near campus during the week in temporary housing and traveled on weekends back to their permanent homes in other states to spend time with their families. A few women also had assignments involving courses or supervisory roles at extended campus or clinical sites, requiring traveling,

sometimes at great distances. The time needed for travel was identified as contributing to a strong sense of *not enough time*.

Expectedly, a result of *not enough time* was working long hours—coming in to the office early, staying late into the night, and working on weekends. Long hours and taking work home on nights and weekends interfered with quality family time for some. The subsequent need to balance and prioritize time was often stated.

- It's the prep time that just eats you alive.
- I've been putting in 12-13 hour days . . . It's a lot of preoccupation . . . workshops and meetings and grading.
- I'm just getting pulled into every committee . . . I find that I'm so scattered. I mean, my brain is just everywhere. I'm trying to help myself get to a focus.
- Being busy isn't necessarily bad, but I felt that I was always busy, even at times when I didn't perceive I should be . . . I always felt that there was so much to do and so much to try and learn.
- I thought if I worked harder, if I worked longer, if I keep engaged longer, I'm going to do better and it wasn't true. I was going to crash.

Teaching effectively. Teaching in a desirable, engaging, and active way was identified often as a challenge by the participants. At the particular campus where the women were employed, there existed a division specifically intended to help new and returning faculty implement active learning into their course designs. This likely increased the prevalence of this concern.

The need to master course content was tied to the challenge of teaching effectively. Feeling incompetent or being asked to teach outside of one's area of expertise was never mentioned, but rather the need to review content that was previously known and forgotten. Additionally, the desire to be able to answer student's questions was mentioned by some of the participants.

Several of the women experienced a period of adjustment in their expectations in terms of student capabilities. Some stated that their students' writing abilities were lower than they had anticipated. There were expressed concerns over grading of assignments, which sometimes arose over the disparity between student abilities. Concerns over teaching effectively were identified more often, as would be expected, toward the end of each semester in terms of student evaluations of their professors.

- It's a balancing act for me and I'm learning just as much or more than my students are learning right now.
- There is a huge conflict for me in that I too, am an active learning proponent and nothing that I was doing was in my mind appropriate or fit with adult learning methodology that I know to be effective.
- I may not have very big classes . . . but when you're doing a lot of intensive grading or a lot of comments, you're talking a weekend of grading. I like to do a week to get papers back, but even that is becoming difficult on top of everything else.
- I gave the first [student of professor] assessment that the university requires and when I got the comments back, I was just stunned because I thought I was working so hard to make the class understand well and using active learning strategies . . . [some] of the comments came back with 'lack of pedagogy' . . . 'not appropriate for graduate class' . . . I thought, 'Oh my God,' because I thought up to that point . . . I don't know . . . I hadn't perceived that . . . I asked, 'What did I do?'

Health. All of the participants recognized health as a real immediate challenge and a future concern, and expressed these in specific ways. Not surprisingly, trying to eat "right," getting enough sleep, and exercising were prominent challenges. Some were dismayed over their lack of quality time for themselves or with their families and felt their mental or physical health was impeded because of it. For a few, departmental issues at work affected their sense of well-being. Feelings of being stressed, exhausted, and drained were identified.

- When you're here all the time or you're at home prepping or you're driving, you can't get out and get your walk in or physical activity that you should have . . . you get up early in the morning and go to bed late at night.
- I've had a frustrating, entirely exhausting year.
- The exercise has just gone downhill and that is very frustrating because it is a great release . . . I think you need that for balance. It gives you more energy and keeps you well. Right now, I'm having trouble getting it in.
- I think that my life is out of order right now. I think that family needs to come ahead of jobs . . . and yet, I hear this refrain echo down the halls, everyone I talk to [says something] like, 'You have to put that on the back burner.' At my age, you don't get a back burner very long.

Job expectations. At the first focus group session, held soon after the first semester began, the study participants seemed to be well aware of their job expectations in terms of requirements for renewal or continuing employment. A few of the women acknowledged that they had high self-imposed levels of efficacy which led to increased levels of anxiety over meeting the expectations of their jobs.

Challenges related to job expectations were more scattered than in the previous two categories of not enough time and teaching effectively, which seemed to be related to their particular positions. These included three fixed-term assignments, several tenure-track positions, and one teaching doctoral fellowship. Three of the women began their first semester while still completing their doctoral dissertations, and great relief was expressed once the dissertations arrived at their completion stages. For those who were in fixed-term positions, there was an increased sense of pressure to prove oneself in order to be hired again the following year or to be marketable for hire at another institution. A professional development plan was still required for fixed-term hires, and the end of the year summary report was due earlier than those in tenure-track positions.

The job expectations of meeting student needs through advising, meetings, and developing positive relationships were identified often at the beginning of the first semester, yet not mentioned at all toward the end of the first semester. Research and publishing expectations, however, were mentioned heavily at the end of the first semester, as if the sense of time passing had suddenly brought that job expectation closer to the forefront. An additional challenge was keeping up with the different or changing laws and procedures in one's discipline. This was especially true for one participant who worked in Special Education, and was experiencing differences between the state where she obtained her credentials and the new state to which she had just relocated.

- Job expectations? I don't even know what they are.
- Students consume a lot of my time . . . but students have concerns and I need to meet with them. I have a student whose boyfriend committed suicide this semester . . . I need to set aside time for students like that on top of everything else I do.
- I'm seriously concerned that I might not be able to manage what is expected of me. I do have some things that I can contribute but right now there are too many opportunities that are coming my way or requests for my services. I'm concerned about being able to say 'No' and I know I need to do that.

- I probably did myself in this year because I am a fixed term with a known ending to that. I took on responsibilities that I might not have had to, but I did anyway. I'm glad I did because I learned from that.

Institutional knowledge. To a lesser degree than the previous three challenges discussed, learning about the institution was a challenge. Proper procedures to follow, who to ask for help, where to find answers, where places were located, and what resources were available were all mentioned. Although there were informational meetings held, digesting and understanding information pertaining to benefits, terms of employment, and union membership were also mentioned as challenging.

- I spend my time just reading and figuring out, 'Now who's that person? Where should I get that information?' An awful lot of time just connecting to the right people at the right time.
- The other part that also consumes time is finding out information because there's no one to go to in the department just to ask a question of because so many of us are new. I had a research question the other day about funding . . . I spent probably an hour trying to run down that kind of information.
- If I had a written guide. Just something . . . helping with something that I'm finding hard to do, helping me organize next semester, help to access my roster. Just a guide to look at on the wall and I could do it.

Support. The identified need for support was barely mentioned at the beginning of the first semester. Perhaps there was not yet a notion of what kinds of support were lacking, and, therefore, little recognition of what was needed. By the end of the first semester, however, there were specific areas that were identified as lacking. These included the lack of collegial support, of networking with colleagues within or outside of the department, of mentoring, and lack of written information for new faculty members. Three of the participants were discouraged over the lack of technological help with their computers. Either they did not have a computer to use, or they were experiencing problems with getting them fixed.

- There's no support structure. It seems overwhelming sometimes . . . It would be nice if someone would have come forward and said, 'You must really be frazzled this time of the year. Let me tell you what I've done in the past.'
- Going over there [to the instructional technology center] is the most frustrating, vexing process I've ever seen in my life. They treat you with a bit of scorn or at least that's my interpretation. I felt like I have to throw whatever prestige I have to get something done . . . It's trying to navigate all these institutional cultures let alone people's names and who to talk to and work the connections.

Strategies

Using time wisely. The greatest challenges revolved around the need for more time to do one's work. One type of strategy used was to fill previously unfilled time with something useful or healthful. For example, a few people began listening to exercise or informational tapes during travel time and time spent walking from one place to another. Building routines was helpful for some of the women, such as a daily schedule for answering email, grading, reading, and class prep time. Some of the women intentionally began planning for longer-term future endeavors as well as for the present time. The most prominent strategy used was to specifically designate time for research, writing, reflection, and personal non-work time.

- What I'm doing differently is that I have a life outside of the classroom . . . I've decided that as long as I leave the television off . . . if I can just stay on track all of the time, I'm not stressed, and my work is getting done.
- I did learn this . . . There are a couple of people in the department that have online office hours . . . What does that mean? I watch my email [during designated office hours] and will reply to emails then . . . I don't have to be so accessible all the time.
- I have a colleague that I'm doing [research with] . . . and we're like 'OK, we're meeting at the coffee shop on Fridays.' And we have a certain amount of time, and that's what we work on during that time. You don't have to worry about it anymore . . . There's not that guilt that I have to be doing [research] all the time. It will get done.

Teaching effectively. The most often mentioned strategy for increasing teaching effectiveness was adjusting course designs and teaching strategies. Some of these adjustments were made fairly early in the first semester, but for some, the adjustments were made in the planning stages for

the second semester. Gaining confidence in the subject matter and in course management also steadily increased during the second semester.

Other strategies for teaching effectively included intentionally implementing active learning techniques, gathering input from students, altering self-imposed expectations of effectiveness, observing others teaching, relaxing more, and gaining more experience and confidence relative to course management and subject matter.

- I'm teaching a writing intensive class which is a lot of writing. And [I've tried] to come up with a way that would make it fulfill the requirements but not make me [have to] be grading papers every day, so I'm having them do a journal . . . But I'm making it reflective writing so it doesn't mean every time they turn it in I have to grade them on it. I just go through and make sure they're kind of on track.
- I put in a lot of experiential stuff that I couldn't put in before, because now I feel really comfortable with the content.
- I knew halfway through that I would never teach that class that way again, so I wasn't really very happy with the format and how I set it up, but at the same time, it was too late to change it midstream . . . The students gave some really good constructive feedback I'm going to take into consideration for what I'm teaching for class next fall.
- I asked for a mid-term evaluation because at the end of the semester, it's too late to make any changes. [I asked them], 'Just give me what you think so there are no surprises at the end of the year', and if anything, I have an opportunity to get better, to improve . . . I've been very satisfied with that approach to their assessments of me.

Maintaining health. In this category, very specific actions were taken by several of the women. A few ensured they ate healthier foods and ate more regularly. One wrote a reminder to eat in her daily calendar. Several began regular exercise routines or signed up for exercise classes. Maintaining mental health emerged as a more common theme than physical health, however. Strategies included "disengaging" in healthy ways (as opposed to eating when not hungry or watching "bad" television programs), changing work environments (writing, reading or meeting students at a coffee shop instead of at the office), and doing more things to take care of themselves.

- I do well when I journal and [follow] Covey with that weekly kind of thing . . . When I do that, I can stay on top of things . . . What did I do for myself physically? How did I maintain my exercise schedule or my diet or whatever it might be? How did you make sure you got

enough sleep? So if you put those kinds of things in there and you consciously do it . . . you can check them off and you feel so successful.

- Now I have an exercise class . . . It's part of my schedule. That's pretty sacred . . . Exercise is really helpful for my spirit and my mind and getting my YaYas out if it's been a bad day.
- I started to exercise and that's every day. And I read a stress book. And I got that tape [someone] recommended about 'full engagement' and realized my life was kind of out of balance because I was concentrating so much on wanting to do a good job and all the planning for classes and all that. I thought I better do something.

Balancing job expectations. Strategies identified as specifically employed for balancing job expectations included finding purpose, staying focused, engaging in less multi-tasking, altering attitudes and self-expectations, prioritizing tasks, and seeking input from others. For a few, these also involved learning how to say, "No."

- You kind of have to get to the place where, 'Oh well, another day. Oh another crisis. Ok, we can get through this.' Instead of a crisis mentality, [I] now have a solution mentality.
- It's still very busy but not that frantic hectic feeling like you're sinking all the time, like you want to come up for air. I still feel rushed sometimes or pressed for time . . . but overall I feel much more comfortable and confident than last semester.
- I have stopped feeling guilty about it. I realized pretty early last semester that it was very silly to bring home stuff in my briefcase and not look at it.
- I save weekends for my [self] but the week is sacred for teaching and students. As long as I have accepted that that's how it's going to be this semester, the stress has left me and I feel much more productive.

Seeking support. Gaining support by getting involved in campus events for the specific purpose of networking, increasing information, or meeting people were utilized by several of the women. To a lesser degree, support was gained by intentionally seeking it from spouses and partners, from mentors, and from colleagues.

- [I'm] kind of trouble shooting and thinking forward to how much additional support do I need?

- This is part of the balancing of it where you are in a group like this or talking with other people. Even though you feel like you can't make time for it, you need to. I feel pretty good about it, that I am balancing the challenges and expectations.
- I put my foot down and told my husband he had to help with commuting. I was doing all the commuting . . . I feel guilty because I'm the one making the commuting happen, but I had to say, 'This is an equal opportunity because you are going to retire and my income is going to help you retire.'
- There are times when it's important to just go grab a cup of coffee with a colleague or go talk to somebody . . . It's important to take some timeout and develop those relationships.

Getting organized. Attempts to get more organized were not in response to any particular emergent challenge or concern, but were expressed as actions that would help overall with the challenges, concerns and stresses. Most of the participants organized files and implemented some type of organizational system for handling records and course information. Some people relied heavily on day planners. One located maps to help with traveling obligations. Another used an idea notebook to organize her thoughts.

- I organized all of my intern files for next semester. I felt on top of the world. I felt good setting up files, putting stuff in there, and finding out where [the intern sites] are on a map so that I can plan my visits that are coming up . . . It works when you can have a sense that you've accomplished something.
- What I've done is taken a lot of different things and organized them in different books, kind of like a filing type of system . . . so when I'm stressed and in a hurry, I can find it right away rather than digging through everything.
- I do a course portfolio where I can be planning a class . . . It becomes a useful document for me to just keep that in one place rather than putting notes all over my desk which is what's going on with the stuff I haven't put in that form yet.

Conclusions

Implications

The findings of this research reveal that the most commonly identified challenges and concerns revolve around the lack of time to balance and

complete job expectations, especially in relation to preparing for and delivering instruction, and delivering that instruction in a way the participants felt good about. A natural first response to this challenge for most of the women was to work harder, which often translated into working longer. A secondary response for some was to find ways to work wiser, mostly by prioritizing and getting organized, but also, in some cases, to simply adjust expectations downward of themselves and their students. Maintaining health was also one of the most commonly expressed challenges. This also was tied into *not enough time* since meals were rushed or skipped altogether, sleep routines and exercise were deprived, and personal time was impinged upon.

It is clear that new faculty members need more time than seasoned faculty members to perform their jobs competently. Prepping for classes takes more time. Gaining institutional knowledge, finding one's way around campus, and adjusting to the new position physically and mentally takes more time. Discovering students' capabilities takes more time. Figuring out how to manage time takes time. Advising and committees take away from the extra time needed for these activities. Yet, at many universities, junior faculty carry the larger teaching and advising loads—the opposite of what would be best to offer a transition and learning period for new faculty. For the women in this study, those practices varied between departments. The women who had few or no assigned advisees their first year, or were advised to limit their committee involvement, were also women who described their departments as supportive.

An obvious implication here is that universities need to recognize the strong learning curve that new faculty members experience and should lessen the teaching and advising load accordingly for the first year. A colleague has posited an excellent idea that, in lieu of teaching one course load, new faculty should be enrolled in a learning community specifically for the purposes of sharing institutional knowledge, assistance in teaching strategies, stress and time management, and building shared support. However, if a campus truly is committed to retention of new faculty, the money will be located and adjustments subsequently built into the system. Adjuncts could be hired at much less money than it costs to lose new faculty members on a regular basis. Alternatively, the number of senior faculty receiving course releases for various reasons could be reduced to accommodate a new faculty member's lightened course load. For one of the researchers during her second year of hire, she was the only member of a six-member department teaching a full load, with all of the others on some type of a course release. This certainly appeared to be unsupportive of the trials of new faculty members.

Recommendations for Further Research

Once data analysis began, it became evident that the participants in this study were experiencing a multitude of challenges and concerns, but to a much lesser extent, using specifically planned strategies to lessen those challenges. It is unknown if the strategies that were used were due to each participant's personality and ways of problem-solving, or if many of the women were not yet in a frame of mind to be able to plan strategies due to the tumult they were living.

One recommended area for further research is to extend the time frame of the study over a two or three-year period with the same participants. This would help to determine if, in time, most or all of the women would eventually plan specific strategies, and when during the first few years of hire the utilization of those strategies would most strongly emerge.

It is also not known if the participants in this study who expressed the fewest challenges and concerns were also involved in a formal mentor situation or other university programs intended to assist newer faculty members. An additional area for future inquiry would be to conduct this study at several universities across the United States in terms of challenges and concerns. Comparative analysis would reveal helpful insights to universities who are working on faculty climate and retention issues, especially if uncommon patterns emerge. An extension of this work would be to identify universities with low numbers of identified challenges, and what practices those campuses use to prevent or lessen their prevalence.

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Influencing Others: Women Superintendents Speak (Reluctantly) About Power

Susan J. Katz

The public school superintendency is the most powerful position in U.S. schools. Yet research has shown that women who hold the position have difficulty talking about power (Brunner, 2000). I designed a mixed methods study to investigate how women school superintendents viewed their uses of power. A survey was sent to all women superintendents practicing in four Midwestern states during the 2000-2001 school year and nine women in the sample participated in interviews. Results of quantitative data analysis revealed that there were significant differences in participants' age and years of experience in the superintendency and how they perceived their uses of power. The interviews revealed that women spoke of how their power increased when they shared or gave power away. Consistent with previous research, this study also found that women had some difficulty defining and conceptualizing power in their roles as superintendents.

Women must outperform men for others to consider them equally competent since the standard for what constitutes competence in men is lower than the standard for what constitutes competence in women (Foschi, 1996, cited in Carli, 1999). Brunner (cited in Rader, 2001) speaking of women's opposition to land a school superintendency, especially in a large urban district: "To step into a role that is so heavily masculinized is a real challenge; to make it into a superintendency at all a woman has to be very, very good."

What do these "very, very good" women have to say about leading school districts? Do they feel powerful in the most powerful position in public schools? How do they conceptualize power and use it to influence others? This research conducted in the Midwest during the academic year 2000-2001, investigated how women perceived their uses of power, and how they defined and generally talked about power.

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Conceptual Framework—Power as Influence

The conceptual framework is based on a model of influence by French and Raven (1959), based on the concept that power refers to the ability or potential of an agent to influence a target. It is grounded on the supposition that the leader use of influence or power mobilizes people within the organization to go beyond their individual interests in working toward the common good.

French and Raven (1959) defined power “in terms of influence, and influence in terms of psychological change [in the target person(s)] . . . which includes changes in behavior, opinions, attitudes, goals, needs, values, and all other aspects of the person’s psychological field” (French & Raven cited in Nesler, Aguinis, Quigley, Lee, & Tedeschi, 1999, p. 751). They identified five sources—reward, coercive, expert, legitimate, and referent—that can be divided among three categories—position, mixed, and personal. Boje (2004) identified the following divisions and power bases.

Position Power Types

- **Legitimate Power**—based on the follower’s perception that a source has the right to influence followers and that the followers ought to comply. The leader must stress the legitimacy of her position and set role expectations.
- **Reward Power**—The ability to control resources and rewards. “The higher a person’s position in the authority hierarchy of the organization, the more control over scarce resources the person is likely to have.” (Yukl, 1989, p. 17)

Mixed Type

- **Referent power**—the desire of others to please a person toward whom they feel strong affection (French & Raven cited in Yukl, 1989). The referent power of a leader over subordinates depends

upon feelings of friendship and loyalty developed over time. The referent power of a leader is increased by the leader's acting friendly and considerate, showing concern for the needs and feelings of others, demonstrating trust and respect, and treating people fairly. (Yukl, 1989)

Personal Power Types

- **Expert Power**—a major source of personal power in organizations is used in solving and performing important tasks (Yukl, 1989). The leader possesses special expertise that is in short supply and high demand but is only a source of power if others are dependent on the person for the advice or assistance they need.
- **Coercive Power**—Power derived from control over punishments and the capacity to prevent someone from obtaining desired rewards.

Study Design

Questions that framed the research asked how women defined power, how they perceived their uses of power, and how did they generally talk about power in their positions as superintendents. In-depth interviews were conducted with a small sample of women superintendents who participated in the leadership survey.

Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1999) stated that "there has been very little effort to confirm survey evaluations of leaders with alternative methodologies such as observation and/or interviews" (p. 459). This qualitative methodology was appropriate to explore the interpretation women superintendents give to perceived uses of power, and to encourage them to define and talk about power, and to describe the ways in which they influenced others within their school contexts.

An interactive-relational interview approach as described by Chirban (1996), was chosen because it purposively created a relationship between the interviewer and the participants through establishment of a relationship. This approach to interviewing supposes that a successful interview is more likely to happen when collaboration, personal attributes, values, and feelings are brought and made available by both participants and promises to deliver a clearer, deeper portrait of the person being interviewed. At the beginning of each interview, I took time to talk about my background and varied experiences in education, why I chose to study women school superintendents, and what I hoped to accomplish through the research. I followed an interview guide that listed the questions. The superintendents had access to the guide before the interviews began. At times I deviated from

the guide during the interview, when I commented and asked questions in response to what I was hearing.

Findings

Interviews were conducted with nine women among the four states.

Defining Power

When answering the question of how they defined power, several women did not have an easy definition. When one woman was asked to define power, she hesitated: "Power to me is—hmm, [hesitation] definition of power?" Another participant said, "That's really interesting because I don't think of power that much and I know that that is probably a reality." Another woman when asked the definition said: "Power in what sense?" Some women were able to define power and even go beyond a definition when discussing how they used power. Women talked about building connections with others by sharing power and in one instance by "giving power away."

I think that power is shared. You gain power by having the trust and confidence of the people with whom you work. [I think] there is a certain amount of power that comes with titles. But the actual power of being able to make transformations to make systemic change to move a school district forward really is only the ability to get others to subscribe to your vision to where you want to go and to use their abilities and resources to help you do that. So power to me is very shared. It doesn't sit in this office.

One of the women defined power as the ability to help people realize their potential and capability in the organization; she said she modeled the behavior "that I would expect them to portray." She related that she was quite a task master and was intent on "focusing on the target goals and objectives." But she also was intent on "showing people that I'm human." When asked, "Is there anything you would add or ask if conducting this interview?" The superintendent added more of her thoughts and ideas about power.

I think that power is often viewed as a negative term by people, and they use it negatively but, I don't see it as a negative term; and I think it's a very positive term, and I believe the strength of any leader is not to have power over people, but to have power with people. And when you have power with people, then you are able to accomplish your goals in a much more effective and rewarding way.

Without being prompted in any way about the concept of “power with” and “power over,” she had used the terms that Brunner (1999) exposed in her study of male and female superintendents—two categories of power over and power with/to. In most cases, those superintendents who defined power as “power with/to” were very collaborative in their decision-making style.

One interviewee defined power as action: “Power is really the ability to make something happen. When you do something with the power and [when] you get action to happen, then you’ve achieved power.” She increases her power through trust, “walk your talk,” and the fact that she demonstrates to her staff that she stands for quality and that she cares about them as people.

One superintendent, in her position for 20 years, based her power on the knowledge she brought to the position and the probable respect for her as someone who had been in the position for a lengthy time.

I guess I try to influence people by becoming as well versed on whatever topic it is that I care to present to them and then give them reasons to believe in why I did not believe in it or do believe in it and allow them to make up their own minds. If it’s something I truly believe in and want, I try to explain to them why I think it is necessary. If that’s power, then that’s fine. A lot of people say I have a different kind of power and I’m hoping at least what they mean is that there is respect. And respect in itself does breed power if people listen to you.

When asked to talk about that “different kind of power,” she said: “I think the position gives you power, but I think how you use that depends upon you as a person. I don’t look at myself as being a powerful person in terms of the position. I’m hoping that I’m a powerful person by my background and my knowledge and my experience.” Another superintendent defined power as expertise and “the buck stops here” as she said: “It’s being the one that ultimately has to say I screwed up or we screwed up and we are sorry or we’re standing firm on that. It’s the person that people can talk to.”

Sharing and Giving Power Away

The superintendents talked about sharing power and giving power away in unique ways. One woman said that she gained more power by giving it away; the more she gives away, the more she has. “There is no job in this organization that I can do by myself. And I have lots of power when I go out and say to my colleagues, my directors, and my assistant superintendents, ‘What do you think we should do about this?’” She believed that her power increases when she taps those appropriate resources. “My power increases ten times by doing that because right there I’ve tapped that wealth of influence and information and we are all more powerful because of that.”

Several women talked about the importance of building relationships and sharing their power, and making things happen through the connection with people. Relationships and connections were themes among the women. One woman said very directly that she used referent power to “. . . move a system forward . . . based on the relationships I build.” She explained that by giving power away others could feel powerful in providing input for decision making.

Sources of Influence

The superintendents were better able to define and talk about their power when asked how they influenced others. The idea of building relationships and respect was evident when a superintendent defined her sources of influence as her ability “to build trust, to build respect, to have common goals to see where our common ground is and then we can move together.” When asked if she felt powerful in her position as superintendent she said:

I do. That’s one of the reasons that I went into administration—because it is a way to effect change. I do think there is power in the superintendency because [it is] where others take their lead from the person who is leading the organization and that sets the tone, it sets the vision, it sets kind of what is accepted here. How do we do things around here? And so I do think that there is power there.

One woman talked about power as having a positive meaning. “I think that power is often viewed as a negative term by people, and they use it negatively, but I see it as a positive term.” She stated that power should be used *with* people rather than *over* people. “I believe that when you have power with people, then you are able to accomplish your goals in a much more effective and rewarding way.” One superintendent reported influencing people in her organization through “modeling behavior that I would expect them to portray and by focusing on the target goals and objectives and attempting to show people that I’m human.” She believed her ability to move a system forward, was based on the relationships she has built. “I think its just part of who I am and who I’ve always been. For some reason, most of my life I’ve been able to influence people.”

Another woman’s use of referent power as a source to influence others was clear as she talked about her connectivity to staff through her approachability; all of her staff knew that she kept an open door policy to her office. “People stop by my office routinely after school.” She talked about her belief in “balance and connections.” She said that “if people see why things need to work together and why I’m headed in that direction, then they will go with me. And people know I’m in their corner. People know I’ll be

there for them and they typically will go with me.” She gave an interesting example of how she might go about exercising power in an “indirect way.”

I can stop in a classroom and say “Mrs. So and So and I talked about homework this year. What do you guys think about how it’s going?” I suppose some teachers might perceive that as a little in their face, but I have been know to do that. It’s not that I’m trying to be difficult, but it’s just a reminder that I’m here because kids are part of the process. But I try and keep my suggestions to teachers based on student learning so then students should be part of the evaluation. If I have the occasion that the kids say we didn’t talk about that, I would say, “I’m sure Mrs. So and So is going to get to that because she and I had a conversation about it. I was just wondering what she told you guys or what you’ve noticed.” It can be a very indirect way of exercising power, I suppose.

Summary

Consistent with other research, these findings found superintendents somewhat unable to come up with a ready definition of power; rather they needed to be prompted with other questions, such as: “How do you influence others?” The literature in the area of power and gender can shed some light on this interesting phenomenon. Researchers have studied the relationship of power and gender. Gilligan (1982) wrote that power is often threatening to women since a powerful woman is often a contradiction in both personal and social terms. Dunlap and Goldman (1991) maintained that the literature on school administration was dominated by the conventional definition of power as dominance and control. This conception of power while not traditionally feminine created “unsettled discourse” for women in Brunner’s study . . . “It was not their natural way of thinking or talking about power” (Brunner, 2000 p. 85). Carli’s (1999) research on the effect of influence style on social influence provides evidence of gender differences in power. She explained that women are hindered in their career advancement because they lack the sources of power that their male colleagues possess. The dilemma is especially problematic for a highly competent woman, whose very competence may undermine her authority as a leader. For her, and other people who lack legitimacy, mere competence is not enough.

The most dominant theme of power among the majority of the interview participants in my study was a strong orientation toward personal power. Responses to the question about influencing others emphasized expert power that, according to Boje (2004), is a personal type of power. The majority of the women interviewed had the highest score using expert power on the power measure. The women superintendents talked about themselves as

being powerful by “becoming as well versed on whatever topic that I present,” “providing the resources and information,” and “knowing the research.” One woman hoped that she was a powerful person “by my background, knowledge, and my experience.” Another participant believed that the position was powerful in the sense that it could give her the best ability to effect the most change. “That is one of the reasons why I went into administration, to effect change.” One participant stated that the position was not the power but it “gives you an open door, and once you are in, you’re on your own.” This seems consistent with Abbott and Carecheo (cited in Dunlap & Goldman, 1991) who assert that an individual does not have power, but rather exercises power, when certain conditions exist.

Many of the responses to the question about defining power and influencing others also emphasized referent power. Several women mentioned the importance of “making things happen through the connection with people,” “getting people to believe,” and “moving the system forward based on relationships.” One woman mentioned that her approachability was an effective way to influence others. She said that people know she is approachable, and they know she keeps an open door policy. Another participant said she believed that she used referent power to influence others and was told so by one of her assistant superintendents. This idea of caring for others through connection and relationship-building was noted by Gilligan (1982) who believed women’s sense of integrity is involved in an ethic of caring as women see themselves in a relationship of connection and in the activity of caring for others. Thus, women equate power with giving and care.

Several of the participants talked about feeling powerful when they shared power or gave power away, “the more you give away, the more you have.” Two participants talked about tapping the abilities and resources of others to help implement change. “We’re all more powerful because of that.” Another participant used power with people, not over people. “I believe that when you have power with people then you are able to accomplish your goals in a much more effective and rewarding way.” Kouzes and Posner (1987) stated that when leaders give away power, they build for themselves and create power for others. Their research found that leaders can give power away by giving people important work to do on critical issues and others are strengthened when the leader gives visibility to them by providing recognition for their efforts. Several of the interview participants said that they made a special effort to recognize staff members in front of the board or during other events. One participant said that she frequently had staff report to the board on issues that they had worked on or had an interest in, rather than the superintendent always reporting to the board.

An interesting finding in this study and consistent with what has been documented in the literature was the reticence on the part of some participants to define power. They were better able to respond when asked to talk about how they influenced others. Similarly, Brunner (2000) found that women in her study had difficulty defining power, that it seemed unnatural for them. She said that because women did not feel safe to talk about power in most settings, “they did not have the language to talk about it even in the safety of a private interview” (p. 85). Gilligan (1982) wrote that power is often threatening to women since a powerful woman is often a contradiction in both personal and social terms. Dunlap and Goldman (1991) maintained that the literature on school administration was dominated by the conventional definition of power as dominance and control. This conception of power which is not traditionally feminine “created unsettled discourse” (Brunner, 2000, p. 84) for the women in Brunner’s study. “It was not their natural way of thinking or talking about power” (p. 85).

Brunner (2000) reported the superintendents “in their caring practice and heartfelt perceptions” (p. 36) could change the way all people—men and women—perform in the position. These findings suggest that these “very, very good” women are enjoying their positions yet facing those difficult times; and have to rely on men to mentor them into their positions because so few women are in the role.

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Supreme Court Rulings on Abortion: *Roe v. Wade* and Selected Progeny

Donald F. Uerling

Introduction

Abortion is one of the most controversial and contentious issues of our time. Few topics generate as much public debate or leave as little room for political compromise. This article presents a discussion of selected United States Supreme Court decisions on abortion and the legal reasoning supporting those decisions.

It should be noted initially that laws regulating abortion are enacted by either state legislatures or the Congress. Disputes over abortion arise when a statute that regulates abortion in some way is challenged as being in violation of individual constitutional rights.

Since 1971, there have been 28 Supreme Court decisions that have addressed various issues related to abortion. Most addressed state or federal statutes that provided specifically for abortions; a few involved statutes that addressed broader issues including abortions. Although each decision was of some importance, the major principles of law pertaining to abortion were established in three major decisions -- *Roe v. Wade* (1973), *Planned Parenthood of Southeastern Pennsylvania v. Casey* (1992), and *Stenberg v. Carhart* (2000). The principles and reasoning of these three decisions are the focus of the discussion that follows.

Roe v. Wade (1973)

The Decision

The “landmark” decision was *Roe v. Wade* (1973), which held that a Texas criminal statute imposing restrictions on legal abortions was unconstitutional. Because the statute made no distinction between abortions performed early in pregnancy and those performed later, and it limited to a single reason, “saving” the mother’s life, the legal justification for the procedure, it could not survive the constitutional challenge.

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Although this decision was quite controversial and certainly broke new ground in the field of constitutional law, it should be noted that the basic holding was by a 7-2 vote. *See Roe* at 115.

History of Criminal Abortion Laws

The *Roe* opinion provided a thorough discussion of the history of criminal abortion laws. Two points are especially worthy of note:

It perhaps is not generally appreciated that the restrictive criminal abortion laws in effect in a majority of States today are of relatively recent vintage. Those laws, generally proscribing abortion or its attempt at any time during pregnancy except when necessary to preserve the pregnant woman's life, are not of ancient or even of common-law origin. Instead, they derive from statutory changes effected, for the most part, in the latter half of the 19th century. *Roe* at 129.

[A]t common law, abortion performed *before* "quickening" -- the first recognizable movement of the fetus *in utero*, appearing usually from the 16th to the 18th week of pregnancy -- was not an indictable offense. *Roe* at 132.

Constitutional Right to Privacy

A constitutional challenge to a statute restricting abortion must rest on some individual right grounded in the Constitution. In *Roe*, the Court found that a woman had a right of privacy that encompassed an abortion decision.

The Constitution does not explicitly mention any right of privacy. In a line of decisions, however, . . . , the Court has recognized that a right of personal privacy, or a guarantee of certain areas or zones of privacy, does exist under the Constitution.

...

This right of privacy, whether it be founded in the Fourteenth Amendment's concept of personal liberty and restrictions upon state action, as we feel it is, or, as the District Court determined, in the Ninth Amendment's reservation of rights to the people, is broad enough to

encompass a woman's decision whether or not to terminate her pregnancy.
Roe at 152-53

Right to Abortion is not Absolute

While *Roe* held that the Constitution protected a woman's right to choose to end a pregnancy, the Court also made clear that this right was not absolute and that a state had important interests in both the health of the mother and the potential life of the unborn child.

[Some] argue that the woman's right is absolute and that she is entitled to terminate her pregnancy at whatever time, in whatever way, and for whatever reason she alone chooses. With this we do not agree. *Roe* at 153.

[A] State may properly assert important interests in safeguarding health, in maintaining medical standards, and in protecting potential life. At some point in pregnancy, these respective interests become sufficiently compelling to sustain regulation of the factors that govern the abortion decision. The privacy right involved, therefore, cannot be said to be absolute.

...

We, therefore, conclude that the right of personal privacy includes the abortion decision, but that this right is not unqualified and must be considered against important state interests in regulation. *Roe* at 154.

Constitutional Protections

When the government seeks to regulate by legislation an individual's exercise of constitutional rights, the burden of justifying such a regulation depends on the nature of the interests involved.

Where certain "fundamental rights" are involved, the Court has held that regulation limiting these rights may be justified only by a "compelling state interest" . . . and that legislative enactments must be narrowly drawn to express only the legitimate state interests at stake. *Roe* at 155.

[T]he State does have an important and legitimate interest in preserving and protecting the health of the pregnant woman . . . and . . . it has still *another* important and legitimate interest in protecting the potentiality of human life. These interests are separate and distinct. Each grows in substantiality as the woman approaches term and, at a point during pregnancy, each becomes "compelling." *Roe* at 162-63.

With respect to the State's important and legitimate interest in the health of the mother, the "compelling" point, in the light of present medical knowledge, is at approximately the end of the first trimester. This is so because of the now-established medical fact, . . . , that until the end of the first trimester mortality in abortion may be less than mortality in normal childbirth. It follows that, from and after this point, a State may regulate the

abortion procedure to the extent that the regulation reasonably relates to the preservation and protection of maternal health. Examples of permissible state regulation in this area are requirements as to the qualifications of the person who is to perform the abortion; as to the licensure of that person; as to the facility in which the procedure is to be performed, that is, whether it must be a hospital or may be a clinic or some other place of less-than-hospital status; as to the licensing of the facility; and the like. *Roe* at 163.

This means, on the other hand, that, for the period of pregnancy prior to this “compelling” point, the attending physician, in consultation with his patient, is free to determine, without regulation by the State, that, in his medical judgment, the patient’s pregnancy should be terminated. If that decision is reached, the judgment may be effectuated by an abortion free of interference by the State. *Roe* at 163.

With respect to the State’s important and legitimate interest in potential life, the “compelling” point is at viability. This is so because the fetus then presumably has the capability of meaningful life outside the mother’s womb. State regulation protective of fetal life after viability thus has both logical and biological justifications. If the State is interested in protecting fetal life after viability, it may go so far as to proscribe abortion during that period, except when it is necessary to preserve the life or health of the mother. *Roe* at 164.

Roe established the basic constitutional principles pertaining to the regulation of abortion, and these principles remained essentially unchanged through ensuing years.

Planned Parenthood of Southeast Pennsylvania v. Casey (1992)

The Decision

The next major abortion decision was *Planned Parenthood of Southeast Pennsylvania v. Casey* (1992). *Casey* held that four of five provisions in a Pennsylvania statute regulating abortion were constitutionally permissible.

Casey was basically a five to four decision. There were five separate opinions -- the Opinion of the Court, two concurring in part and dissenting in part, and two dissents. The opinion of the Court was an unusual “joint opinion” by three justices.

Reaffirming *Roe v. Wade*

In *Casey*, the Supreme Court reaffirmed the basic principles of *Roe v. Wade* (1973). The Court emphasized the importance of its institutional integrity and the rule of stare decisis.

After considering the fundamental constitutional questions resolved by *Roe*, principles of institutional integrity, and the rule of *stare decisis*, we are led to conclude this: the essential holding of *Roe v. Wade* should be retained and once again reaffirmed. *Casey* at 845-46.

Roe's essential holding, the holding we reaffirm, has three parts. First is a recognition of the right of the woman to choose to have an abortion before viability and to obtain it without undue interference from the State. Before viability, the State's interests are not strong enough to support a prohibition of abortion or the imposition of a substantial obstacle to the woman's effective right to elect the procedure. Second is a confirmation of the State's power to restrict abortions after fetal viability, if the law contains exceptions for pregnancies which endanger the woman's life or health. And third is the principle that the State has legitimate interests from the outset of the pregnancy in protecting the health of the woman and the life of the fetus that may become a child. These principles do not contradict one another; and we adhere to each. *Casey* at 846.

[I]t is a constitutional liberty of the woman to have some freedom to terminate her pregnancy. We conclude that the basic decision in *Roe* was based on a constitutional analysis which we cannot now repudiate. The woman's liberty is not so unlimited, however, that from the outset the State cannot show its concern for the life of the unborn, and at a later point in fetal development the State's interest in life has sufficient force so that the right of the woman to terminate the pregnancy can be restricted. *Casey* at 869.

Evolution of the Law

The *Casey* decision did make two significant adjustments to the analytical approach articulated in *Roe*. The Court (1) abandoned the trimester approach in favor of the concept of viability to determine when the interests of the state can override the constitutional interests of the woman and (2) established the undue burden standard to determine when a state law unconstitutionally interferes with the woman's liberty interest. The language of the *Casey* opinion is quite instructive:

We conclude the line should be drawn at viability, so that before that time the woman has a right to choose to terminate her pregnancy. We adhere to this principle for two reasons. First, as we have said, is the doctrine of *stare decisis*. Any judicial act of line-drawing may seem somewhat arbitrary, but *Roe* was a reasoned statement, elaborated with great care. We have twice reaffirmed it. . . . Although we must overrule those parts of *Thornburgh* and *Akron I* which, in our view, are inconsistent with *Roe's* statement that the State has a legitimate interest in promoting the life or potential life of the unborn, . . . , the central premise of those cases represents an unbroken

commitment by this Court to the essential holding of *Roe*. It is that premise which we reaffirm today. *Casey* at 870.

The second reason is that the concept of viability, as we noted in *Roe*, is the time at which there is a realistic possibility of maintaining and nourishing a life outside the womb, so that the independent existence of the second life can in reason and all fairness be the object of state protection that now overrides the rights of the woman. See *Roe v. Wade*, 410 U.S. at 163. Consistent with other constitutional norms, legislatures may draw lines which appear arbitrary without the necessity of offering a justification. But courts may not. We must justify the lines we draw. And there is no line other than viability which is more workable. To be sure, as we have said, there may be some medical developments that affect the precise point of viability, see *supra*, at 860, but this is an imprecision within tolerable limits given that the medical community and all those who must apply its discoveries will continue to explore the matter. The viability line also has, as a practical matter, an element of fairness. In some broad sense it might be said that a woman who fails to act before viability has consented to the State's intervention on behalf of the developing child. *Casey* at 870.

The woman's right to terminate her pregnancy before viability is the most central principle of *Roe v. Wade*. It is a rule of law and a component of liberty we cannot renounce. . . . Yet it must be remembered that *Roe v. Wade* speaks with clarity in establishing not only the woman's liberty but also the State's 'important and legitimate interest in potential life.' [citation deleted] That portion of the decision in *Roe* has been given too little acknowledgment and implementation by the Court in its subsequent cases. *Casey* at 871.

As our jurisprudence relating to all liberties save perhaps abortion has recognized, not every law which makes a right more difficult to exercise is, *ipso facto*, an infringement of that right. *Casey* at 873. . . . Only where state regulation imposes an undue burden on a woman's ability to make this [abortion] decision does the power of the State reach into the heart of the liberty protected by the Due Process Clause. *Casey* at 874.

The very notion that the State has a substantial interest in potential life leads to the conclusion that not all regulations must be deemed unwarranted. Not all burdens on the right to decide whether to terminate a pregnancy will be undue. In our view, the undue burden standard is the appropriate means of reconciling the State's interest with the woman's constitutionally protected liberty. *Casey* at 876.

A finding of an undue burden is a shorthand for the conclusion that a state regulation has the purpose or effect of placing a substantial obstacle in the path of a woman seeking an abortion of a nonviable fetus. A statute with this purpose is invalid because the means chosen by the State to

further the interest in potential life must be calculated to inform the woman's free choice, not hinder it. And a statute which, while furthering the interest in potential life or some other valid state interest, has the effect of placing a substantial obstacle in the path of a woman's choice cannot be considered a permissible means of serving its legitimate ends. *Casey* at 877.

Some guiding principles should emerge. What is at stake is the woman's right to make the ultimate decision, not a right to be insulated from all others in doing so. Regulations which do no more than create a structural mechanism by which the State, or the parent or guardian of a minor, may express profound respect for the life of the unborn are permitted, if they are not a substantial obstacle to the woman's exercise of the right to choose. Unless it has that effect on her right of choice, a state measure designed to persuade her to choose childbirth over abortion will be upheld if reasonably related to that goal. Regulations designed to foster the health of a woman seeking an abortion are valid if they do not constitute an undue burden. *Casey* at 877-78.

The Court's Summary

The Court summarized its ruling in *Casey* by setting out several important principles:

- (a) To protect the central right recognized by *Roe v. Wade* while at the same time accommodating the State's profound interest in potential life, we will employ the undue burden analysis as explained in this opinion. An undue burden exists, and therefore a provision of law is invalid, if its purpose or effect is to place a substantial obstacle in the path of a woman seeking an abortion before the fetus attains viability.
- (b) We reject the rigid trimester framework of *Roe v. Wade*. To promote the State's profound interest in potential life, throughout pregnancy the State may take measures to ensure that the woman's choice is informed, and measures designed to advance this interest will not be invalidated as long as their purpose is to persuade the woman to choose childbirth over abortion. These measures must not be an undue burden on the right.
- (c) As with any medical procedure, the State may enact regulations to further the health or safety of a woman seeking an abortion. Unnecessary health regulations that have the purpose or effect of presenting a substantial obstacle to a woman seeking an abortion impose an undue burden on the right.
- (d) Our adoption of the undue burden analysis does not disturb the central holding of *Roe v. Wade*, and we reaffirm that holding. Regardless of whether exceptions are made for particular circumstances, a State may

not prohibit any woman from making the ultimate decision to terminate her pregnancy before viability.

- (e) We also reaffirm *Roe*'s holding that "subsequent to viability, the State in promoting its interest in the potentiality of human life may, if it chooses, regulate, and even proscribe, abortion except where it is necessary, in appropriate medical judgment, for the preservation of the life or health of the mother." *Casey* at 878-79.

The Pennsylvania Statute

At issue in *Casey* were five provisions of the Pennsylvania Abortion Control Act of 1982. The Court's rulings on those provisions provide a useful overview of some major restrictions on access to abortion:

- A provision that a woman seeking an abortion give her informed consent prior to the procedure, and specifies that she be provided with certain information at least 24 hours before the abortion is performed, was ruled constitutional;
- A provision mandating the informed consent of one parent for a minor to obtain an abortion, but providing a judicial bypass procedure, was ruled constitutional;
- A provision defining a "medical emergency" that will excuse compliance with the foregoing requirements, was ruled constitutional;
- Provisions imposing certain reporting requirements on facilities providing abortion services, was ruled constitutional; but,
- A provision commanding that, unless certain exceptions apply, a married woman seeking an abortion must sign a statement indicating that she has notified her husband, was ruled unconstitutional.

The Importance of Casey

Casey is perhaps the most important Supreme Court abortion decision subsequent to *Roe v. Wade*. As a review of subsequent cases from courts at all levels shows, *Casey* is cited often as the controlling authority.

Stenberg v. Carhart (2000)

The Decision

Stenberg v. Carhart (2000) struck down a Nebraska statute that criminalized "partial birth abortion." *Stenberg* was a five to four decision, with eight separate opinions -- the opinion of the Court, three concurrences, and four dissents.

The Conflicts

Justice Breyer, in delivering the Opinion of the Court, explained succinctly the nature of the social and legal conflicts over abortion:

We again consider the right to an abortion. We understand the controversial nature of the problem. Millions of Americans believe that life begins at conception and consequently that an abortion is akin to causing the death of an innocent child; they recoil at the thought of a law that would permit it. Other millions fear that a law that forbids abortion would condemn many American women to lives that lack dignity, depriving them of equal liberty and leading those with least resources to undergo illegal abortions with the attendant risks of death and suffering. Taking account of these virtually irreconcilable points of view, aware that constitutional law must govern a society whose different members sincerely hold directly opposing views, and considering the matter in light of the Constitution's guarantees of fundamental individual liberty, this Court, in the course of a generation, has determined and then redetermined that the Constitution offers basic protection to the woman's right to choose. *Roe v. Wade*, 410 U.S. 113 [parallel citations deleted] (1973); *Planned Parenthood of Southeastern Pa. v. Casey*, 505 U.S. 833 [parallel citations deleted] (1992). We shall not revisit those legal principles. Rather, we apply them to the circumstances of this case. *Stenberg*, at 920-21.

Established Principles

The Court noted that three established principles determined the issue before it and set them forth in the language of the joint opinion in *Casey*.

First, before "viability . . . the woman has a right to choose to terminate her pregnancy." 505 U.S. at 870 (joint opinion of O'Connor, Kennedy, and Souter).

Second, "a law designed to further the State's interest in fetal life which imposes an undue burden on the woman's decision before fetal viability" is unconstitutional. 505 U.S. at 877. An "undue burden is . . . shorthand for the conclusion that a state regulation has the purpose or effect of placing a substantial obstacle in the path of a woman seeking an abortion of a nonviable fetus." *Ibid*.

Third, "subsequent to viability, the State in promoting its interest in the potentiality of human life may, if it chooses, regulate, and even proscribe, abortion except where it is necessary, in appropriate medical judgment, for the preservation of the life or health of the mother." 505 U.S. at 879 (quoting *Roe v. Wade*, 410 U.S. at 164-165). *Stenberg* at 921.

The Nebraska Statute

The Nebraska statute at issue in *Stenberg* prohibited any “partial birth abortion” unless that procedure is necessary to save the mother’s life. It defined “partial birth abortion” as a procedure in which the doctor “partially delivers vaginally a living unborn child before killing the . . . child.”

Holdings

The Supreme Court held in *Stenberg* that Nebraska’s statute that criminalized the performance of “partial birth abortions” violated the Federal Constitution, as interpreted in *Casey* and *Roe*.

- The Nebraska statute lacked the requisite exception for an abortion “necessary, in appropriate medical judgment, for the preservation of the life or health of the mother.” The State may promote but not endanger a woman’s health when it regulates the methods of abortion.
- The Nebraska statute’s language prohibiting “partial birth abortion” did not track the medical differences between D&E and D&X, but covered both. Using the law’s statutory terms, it was impossible to distinguish between D&E (where a foot or arm is drawn through the cervix) and D&X (where the body up to the head is drawn through the cervix). Both procedures can involve the introduction of a “substantial portion” of a still living fetus, through the cervix, into the vagina -- the very feature of an abortion that leads to characterizing such a procedure as involving “partial birth.” Physicians who use D&E procedures, the most commonly used method for performing previability second trimester abortions, would fear prosecution, conviction, and imprisonment. The result is an undue burden upon a woman’s right to make an abortion decision.

Partial-Birth Abortion Ban Act of 2003

The federal *Partial-Birth Abortion Ban Act of 2003* presents a basic issue similar to that involved in the Nebraska statute struck down in *Stenberg v. Carhart* (2000). The federal Act makes criminal the performance of a “partial birth abortion” that results in the death of a fetus. The Act contains an exception allowing the performance of “a partial-birth abortion that is necessary to save the life of the mother.” Id. § 1531(a). The Act does not, however, contain an exception for the preservation of the health of the mother.

Three federal courts of appeal have ruled on constitutional challenges to the Act, *Carhart v. Gonzales* (2005), *cert. granted* (2005); *Planned Parenthood Federation of America v. Gonzales* (2006); *National Abortion Federation v. Gonzales* (2006). All three have held that the Act is

unconstitutional because it does not include an exception for abortions necessary to preserve the health of the mother.

The Supreme Court has agreed to hear the case from the Eighth Circuit and may also hear the cases from the Second Circuit and the Ninth Circuit. Given that *Stenberg v. Carhart* (2000) requires the inclusion of a health exception whenever “substantial medical authority” supports the medical necessity of the abortion procedure, it seems likely that the Court will hold that the federal Act is unconstitutional.

Conclusions

A review of the legal principles discussed above leads to a number of conclusions about statutory and constitutional law pertaining to abortion.

- Both state legislatures and Congress will continue to enact statutes that regulate access to abortion. Any such statutory provisions, however, must be consistent with Supreme Court holdings, or the legislative efforts will be pointless.
- The basic holding of *Roe v. Wade* (1973) will not be overturned. The Court will continue to recognize the right of a woman to choose to have an abortion before viability and to obtain that abortion without undue interference from state or federal statute. The rule of *stare decisis* will hold.
- While the State may impose some conditions on access to abortions even before viability, those conditions must not impose an undue burden on the woman’s right to choose.
- There will be more emphasis on the State’s power to restrict abortions after viability, so long as the law provides exceptions for pregnancies that endanger the woman’s life or health.
- Much future litigation will be centered on these two issues:
 - ✓ Does a specific statutory restriction pose an undue burden on a woman’s access to a previability abortion?
 - ✓ Does a specific pregnancy so endanger a woman’s health that she may not be compelled to forego a postviability abortion?

Abortion will continue to be a controversial and contentious topic in American society. When “Freedom of Choice” is pitted against “Right to Life,” there is little room for compromise.

References

United States Supreme Court Cases

- Roe v. Wade, 410 U.S. 113 (1973)
- Planned Parenthood of Southeast Pennsylvania v. Casey, 505 U.S. 833 (1992)
- Stenberg v. Carhart, 530 U.S. 914 (2000)

United States Court of Appeals Cases

- Carhart v. Gonzales, 413 F.3d 791 (8th Cir. 2005), *cert. granted*, - U.S. - (2005)
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United States Statute

- Partial-Birth Abortion Ban Act of 2003, Pub. L. No. 108-105, 117 Stat. 1201 (codified at 18 U.S.C. § 1531)

Leading Ladies: Women University and College Presidents: What They Say about Effective Leadership

Mimi Wolverton
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In this paper, we report the importance five women community college, college, and university presidents place on certain leadership tenets. Interestingly, the advice they offer for other women who aspire to leadership often ties to the perceived importance of certain tenets. We report these data and speculate about implications for future women leaders in higher education.

Slightly more than 20% of college and university presidents are women, with the majority of them at the helm of community colleges or small private four-year colleges (Corrigan, 2002; Fisher & Koch, 2004). Although much has been written about leaders and leadership, we unfortunately know little about women who fill the role of college or university president.

Few studies focus on women as leaders and those that do are limited in scope. For instance, Astin and Leland (1991) and Morrison (1996) combined women in staff and line positions in order to generate large enough samples for their studies. Helgesen (1990) interviewed five women CEOs, and Jamieson (1995) based her findings on the examination of media representation of women in prominent positions over time. Despite such limitations, the conclusions drawn by these authors and others suggest that women leaders interpret effective leadership differently than men do (Chliwniak, 1997; Eagly & Johnson, 1995; Helegsen, 1995; Kanter, 1977; Tinley, 1994).

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We challenged conventional wisdom about gender-based differences in leadership and assumed that women leaders across industries would be more similar than different in their views about what is important if a leader is to be effective. One basic assumption undergirded this study: Effective leaders hold decidedly similar views of what constitutes effective leadership, regardless of gender or work environment (Wolverton, 2002; Wolverton & Poch, 2001).

Fisher and Koch (2004), after surveying more than 700 college presidents (19% female, 11% minority) concluded, "[G]ender is a nonfactor as a determinant of presidential leadership" (p. 114). They did discover

differences in behavior but suggested that these differences stem from demographic differences. The evidence of distinct behavior attributed to women presidents was somewhat contradictory. Women placed a higher value on consensus and reported that they are more likely to be described as warm and affable than are men, findings generally supportive of conclusions drawn by Chiwniak (1997), Helgesen (1990, 1995), and others. Women considered themselves more assertive, less likely to believe that one-on-one interactions are productive, and less likely to delegate responsibilities—findings inconsistent with a collaborative image (e.g., Astin & Leland, 1991; Helgesen, 1990, 1995). Furthermore, Fisher and Koch (2004) found that women were more apt to use email and other forms of technology that insulate them from direct personal contact with others, which seems to be at odds with the notion of a “supportive, democratic, participative, caring, sharing” form of leadership that women supposedly exhibit (p. 89).

Fisher and Koch (2004) found significant demographic differences between men and women in their study. Fewer women held doctorates. Women were younger and had spent less time in higher education, in a previous presidency, and in their current presidency than their male counterparts. They noted that these differences in background and experience, not a fundamental predisposition toward a unique approach to leadership, account for differences in behavior.

Two threads ran through the current articles, books, and research about effective leadership. First, this body of knowledge is disjointed. Authors investigated divergent yet equally important aspects of effective leadership. Second, much of the literature is written by men about men, particularly white men. We created from the existing literature a series of tenets, of effective leadership that built a base of knowledge about what men contribute to effective leadership. The determination of these tenets required our judgment. We believe we are justified and accurate. Participants in the study agreed with the tenets and when given the opportunity to add to the list, failed to do so.

Our primary research question was; Do women differ from their male counterparts in how they interpret what each tenet means? We asked the women in the study to interpret each of the tenets and provide examples of how they were manifested in their own leadership activities. In addition, the women related their experiences as leaders in terms of tenet relevance, the best and worst decisions they have made as leaders, the challenges they faced, and advice they gave for aspiring leaders.

In this paper, we report the importance five women community college, college, and university presidents placed on these leadership tenets. The

advice they offered for other women who aspire to leadership tied to the perceived importance of certain tenets. We report these data and speculate about implications for future women leaders in higher education.

The Nine Tenets of Effective Leadership

Nine tenets defined in the literature include passion, reflection, competency, communication, cultural sensitivity, stamina, energy, resiliency, the ability to be focused yet engaged in forward thinking, respect for individuality, and credibility. Some are multidimensional.

Tenet One

Effective leaders are passionate about their organizations. They exhibit extraordinary commitment not only to the organization but to its people. Passionate leaders see their organizations and people for what they can become. They build capacity by fostering professional growth in those around them so that they can share power by working through others in the pursuit of organizational goals. This willingness to invest in individuals and to work with them to move the organization forward instills loyalty and encourages the generation of creative solutions to real problems. In other words, leaders who are passionate about their organizations inspire those around them to strive to reach their potential (Allen & Meyer, 1996; Argyris, 1998; Astin & Leland, 1991; Bensimon & Naumann, 1993; Fisher & Koch, 2004; Gardner, 1993; Goffee & Jones, 2000; Greenleaf, 1998; Kotter, 1990; Mintzberg, 1998; Peck, 1983; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Padilla, 2005; Reichheld, 2001; Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002; Yukl, 1998).

Tenet Two

Effective leaders are reflective. They are self-aware, self-disciplined, self-confident, and self-assured. *Self-awareness* manifests itself in a sense of conviction undergirded by an unerring sense of right and wrong. They trust their own intuition. They believe they can make a difference. *Self-discipline* refers to an ability to manage oneself by understanding personal and leadership priorities, challenging one's assumptions and excuses, and examining one's actions. It allows effective leaders to establish professional and personal balance in life. *Self-confidence* refers to a belief in one's abilities and sense of timing. It grows over time and is the direct result of leadership experiences as children, youths, and adults in family, school, and athletic activities. *Self-assuredness* derives from awareness, discipline, and confidence. It provides leaders with the ability to accept and make sense out

of ambiguity, the courage to take intelligently thought out risks and act decisively, and the humility to admit when they are wrong. Self-assuredness allows leaders to laugh at themselves as well as with others. In other words, to be themselves and to lead in their own way. In essence, it gives them executive presence. The combination of these four personal resources constitutes reflectiveness (Bass, 1990; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Collins, 2001; Drucker, 1993, 1999; Fisher & Koch, 2004; Fisher, Tack, & Wheeler, 1988; Goleman, 2000; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Heitfetz, 1994; Morrison, 1996; O'Toole, 1995; Padilla, 2005; Sorcher, & Brant, 2002; Thomas & Gabarro, 1999; Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002; Zaleznik, 1989).

Tenet Three

Effective leaders are competent. They possess the intelligence and mental capacity to get the job done. They continue to learn from their surroundings, mentors, and exemplars. They possess a strong work ethic, hold high self-expectations, and make constructive use of feedback. And, they possess a deep reservoir of tacit knowledge—that invisible understanding called common sense, which lies behind intelligent action. Competence affords them the opportunity to shape their environments in ways that enable the organization to accomplish its results-oriented goals (Collins, 2001; Drucker, 1999; Goleman, 2000; Goleman et al., 2002; Hansen, Nohria, & Tierney, 1999; Jamieson, 1995; Kanter, 1977; Mintzberg, 1973; Morden, 1997; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Sorcher & Brant, 2002; Thomas & Gabarro, 1999; Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002; Yukl, 1998).

Tenet Four

Effective leaders are great communicators. They have their finger on the pulse of the organization. They are informed. They read people well. They listen and learn from individuals at all levels of the organization and from those outside the organization with whom it interfaces. They are open, share information, and continually communicate the values of the organization and a clear, compelling, and motivating reason for why it exists. In short, they possess well-honed interpersonal skills (Conger, 1992, 1998; Cox, 1994; Drucker, 1999; Gardner, 1993; Goleman et al., 2002; Hesselbein, Goldsmith, & Beckhard, 1996; Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Jamieson, 1995; Mintzberg, 1973; Padilla, 2005; Pestrak, 2001; Robertson, 1998; Useem, 2001).

Tenet Five

Effective leaders understand the role that culture plays in shaping the way they lead. On a *personal* level, effective leaders grasp how race, ethnicity, gender, and family influence their thought processes and actions. *Organizationally*, they pay close attention to the culture that exists within the workplace and how it shapes what gets accomplished, the way in which it gets accomplished and by whom. Leaders must also possess a comprehension of the basic framework within which scientific and technological change take place within their organizations. On a broader *societal* level, effective leaders sense the political and economic climate within which they and their organizations must function. Possessing these multiple layers of understanding helps effective leaders delineate their organizations' responsibilities to the larger communities in which they reside (Bass, 1998; Cox, 1994; DePree, 1992; Fisher & Koch, 2004; Gardner, 1993; Gherardi, 1995; Heifetz, 1994; Helgesen, 1990, 1995; Hesselbein et al., 1996; Joplin & Daus, 1997; McCracken, 2000; Morrison, 1996; Padilla, 2005; Schein, 1992; Wheatley, 1992; Yukl, 1998).

Tenet Six

Effective leaders possess the physical and emotional stamina, energy, and resilience needed to persevere in the long run. Such tenacity provides a bedrock of stability for the organization. It fosters patience, optimism, a tolerance for ambiguity, an air of personal control, and reliability. These leaders are neither crushed by defeat nor over-elated by victory. They simply persevere (Contu, 2002; Gardner, 1993; Goleman, 1998; Goleman et al., 2002; Jones, 2002; Loehr & Schwartz, 2001; Padilla, 2005; Sheriff, 1968).

Tenet Seven

Effective leaders are focused yet forward thinking. They provide purposeful, pragmatic leadership that is based on a comprehensive broad-based view of the organization's current direction and an anticipation of where the organization needs to head in the future. They perceive opportunities and push their organizations to pursue them. They create new environments through innovation (Bass, 1998; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bruch & Ghoshal, 2002; Burns, 1978; Conger, 1992; Drucker, 1999; Fisher & Koch, 2004; Gardner, 1993; Greenleaf, 1998; Heifetz, 1994; Hesselbein et al., 1996; Kanter, 1977; Kotter, 1990; Lerner & Almor, 2002; Mintzberg, 1973; Peck, 1983; Peters & Waterman, 1982; Sheriff, 1968; Wheatley, 1992; Wolverton, Gmelch, Montez, & Nies, 2001; Yukl, 1998; Zaleznik, 1989).

Tenet Eight

Effective leaders respect and value individuality. They treat people fairly and appreciate and acknowledge the contributions that others make to the organization. They understand that diversity in gender, race, culture, background, and perspective within the workforce strengthens and enriches their organizations (Argyris, 1998; Burns, 1978; Cox, 1994; DePree, 1992; Drucker, 1999; Friedman, Christensen & DeGroot, 1998; Gardner, 1993; Gherardi, 1995; Helgesen, 1990, 1995; Joplin & Daus, 1997; Mintzberg, 1998; Morrison, 1996; Padilla, 2005; Wheatley, 1992).

Tenet Nine

Effective leaders possess credibility. Leaders do not control or even create credibility. They can put in place some of the basic building blocks of credibility, but those with whom they interface determine who is credible and who is not. The building blocks of credibility are trust, integrity, and power. *Trust* is a multifaceted concept. A leader's ability to create an atmosphere of trust depends on a demonstrated willingness to be vulnerable (which springs from self-assuredness), confidence, benevolence (showing respect to others), competence, honesty (doing what you say you are going to do and being willing to admit your mistakes), openness (which signals reciprocal trust), authenticity (which comes with self-assuredness), and being forward thinking and inspiring. *Integrity* is possessing a sense of right and wrong (self-awareness) and taking responsibility for one's actions. And finally, *power* arises from demonstrated performance (competence), but it depends on a willingness to share it with others for the good of the organization (passion). To some extent it rests on an individual's ability to build community within the organization, based on widely communicated shared values. Credibility, coupled with a sense of direction and the ability to get things done, provides a telling definition of leadership (Burns, 1978; Conger, 1992, 1998; Drucker, 1999; Fisher, 1984; French & Raven, 1959; Gardner, 1993; Heifetz, 1994; Hesselbein et al., 1996; Johnson, 2001; Kouzes & Posner, 1993, 1995; Nester-Baker & Tschannen-Moran, 2001; O'Toole, 1995; Thomas & Gabarro, 1999; Wolverton & Gmelch, 2002; Yukl, 1998).

Participant Selection and Data Collection

We purposefully selected women, thought to be effective by their peers, based on who had at least three years in their current position. We believe that especially for women, longevity in the position suggests effectiveness. The parents control over organizational budgets and more than five

employees reported directly to them. Researchers involved in the project suggested some of the participants and colleagues unattached to the project identified potential participants. Participants were selected based on their ability to inform the study.

Two university presidents, one four-year college president, and two community college presidents were interviewed. These five women led institutions in northeastern (2), southeastern (1), midwestern (1) and western (1) states. They were ethnically diverse; one African American, one Latina, one Native American, and two Anglo women. Together these women represented nine decades of higher education administrative experience.

This was a qualitative case study (Yin, 2003). This design allowed comparison of women across institution types to determine whether common threads or patterns in their views about and experiences in leadership existed (Babbie, 2001; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003). A semi-structured interview protocol was developed and piloted prior to participant interviews (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Yin, 2003). All interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Interviews ranged in length from 2 to 3 1/2 hours. ATLAS.ti software was used to categorize the data by themes and patterns (Babbie, 2001; Merriam, 1998; Miles & Huberman, 1994). In addition, archival materials were gathered on each participant and the organization she led (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Merriam, 1998; Yin, 2003).

What Women Presidents and Policy Makers Say is Important and Why

Although some differences in perception of importance exist across these women, three tenets, in particular, were listed as most important to the majority of the participants—competence, credibility, and communication. Each of the participants placed competence on her list of most important tenets—indicating that this characteristic was an important building block for success. One leader stated, “You know, we can talk about the importance of good communication skills and good human relations skills and enthusiasm and commitment and so forth, but if you’re not competent, it doesn’t matter.” A second leader said, “As a woman, you’re dead if you aren’t extremely competent.” In relaying the importance of competence, another indicated that leaders have to be competent if they expect others to be competent, “You take the lead; you set the standard; you set the expectations—people rise to high expectations not low ones.”

The participants said it was vital that effective leaders develop and maintain credibility with all groups they encounter. “If you want people to

follow you, they have to be able to take to the bank what you say,” was the way one leader described the importance of credibility. Another indicated that to be effective, the people you work with must believe that “my word is my bond.” Reputation for these leaders is an important component of getting the job done. They indicated that trust and reputation are earned over a period of time and difficult to rebuild if broken or tarnished. They also pointed out that it is difficult to build a team without a credible reputation for integrity. As stated by one of the leaders, “People have to know who they are following.” In other words they have to be able to trust that the opinions, values, priorities, and attitudes that the leader presents to them today are the true core of that leader and that core will remain essentially the same.

In the view of these women, the ability to be a great communicator is an essential for an effective leader. One leader emphasized, it is important to communicate “in a variety of formats to a variety of people.” The leaders believed that a great communicator communicates through oral and written language, listening, and being visible. The participants suggested that it is important to “walk around a lot,” (i.e., be visible and accessible to as many individuals in the organization as possible). One of the women noted that open communication is one of the best ways to defeat “the grapevine” (i.e., the often destructive rumor mill that can flourish when leaders do not communicate sufficiently with those within the organization). Another woman commented that she makes sure to be aware of what is on the grapevine so that she can keep it in check and correct any misinformation. Participants also stated that a great communicator knows when to be succinct in delivering information and when to elaborate and understands that the purpose of the message (e.g., information, persuasion) shapes the communication. The participants also talked about the need to encourage the people they work with to also be good communicators. In addition, leaders commented on remembering the purpose of communication. One said, “You can’t build teams if you’re not a good communicator.” Another said: “You can’t be a leader without being able to communicate goals, vision, aspirations.”

For two presidents, passion was essential. One woman said: “It’s number one.” Another suggested that “you must understand the organization, understand its people, and demonstrate that you are committed to it and them. You model commitment.” It is the passion that some of the leaders say helps them be good communicators as they represent the organization to its constituents and that helps fuel the physical and emotional stamina and energy they need to perform effectively. The need to be forward-thinking also surfaced, with one leader stating that a future orientation is the most

important characteristic of an effective president. “Any CEO who is not future-oriented is going to quickly have the organization in a non-viable place . . . you can’t live in the status quo.”

Today’s Women Leaders Speak to Aspiring Women Leaders

The five presidents in our study were very encouraged about the possibilities for women who wish to follow them into leadership positions in higher education administration. One of them said, “I think the notion that women aren’t taken seriously is fast fading.” They also recognized that women who aspire to leadership will face serious challenges. One of the leaders stated, “There is no door that can’t be opened,” but, women must be very careful about making the correct choices for themselves.

One participant cautions in her view of the opportunities; “I think there are a lot of opportunities out there, but I think the barriers are high. I believe there is a backlash at women as powerful, assertive women.” Another president expressed concern that not enough women are preparing for higher education administrative positions because they can pursue more lucrative fields. Concern was also expressed that prospective female leaders are getting a negative perception of higher education leadership positions. One president noted, “[M]y concern is that many women . . . see long hours; they see the challenges; the issues; the stress . . . [and] aren’t willing to make the sacrifice that they perceive to be involved with being president and vice-president.” She said that sitting presidents and other leaders should do a better job of presenting the rewards of leadership positions. This president acknowledged that when family is involved these choices can be very difficult, a perspective presented by the leaders who mentioned the importance of balancing work and family. Several made statements such as,

Now women, I think, are sometimes conflicted, particularly if they want to be married and raise a family. And I think they have to decide where their balance is going to be and what’s most important, which may mean that they wait until their children are older before they go into administrative positions, when they have the time and aren’t conflicted about the demands at home.

As one put it, “The presidency is all consuming. You must make a conscious decision to pursue it in lieu of something else—something has to give. Because women stop out to have families, it slows the move of women into

the presidency.” This person added, “You need to be young enough to survive—don’t wait too long.”

The participants also discussed the importance of appropriate preparation for leadership. Although presidents from different types of institutions disagreed about the details they generally agreed that prospective leaders need to find ways to understand and participate in the prevailing faculty culture of higher education. One president suggested: “Spend time in rank. Get the right types of experience. Be a faculty member. If you are a full-time administrator, then teach as an adjunct. You can’t understand the culture if you have not served in the role.” Another suggested, “Be the best at whatever you do, if you want to be a president; get a Ph.D. in a discipline, not higher education.” They also supported involvement in professional development opportunities available through professional associations as a way to build leadership experiences.

Several noted that it is important that aspiring women leaders find opportunities to educate themselves about the financial aspects of higher education. Understanding the budget was mentioned as an essential skill for effective leaders. During the interviews, each of the leaders discussed budget challenges she faced. Fiscal responsibility is a priority for each of these presidents and experiences gained along the path to the presidency helped prepare them to meet this responsibility. Although the president is not the one directly managing the institutional budget, the president must provide direction for those who do and be able to make sure that her directions are carried out appropriately.

Another important financial aspect of institutional leadership is fundraising. As one participant stated, “The issue of asking for and raising money . . . that’s something you have to do now . . . Some [women] are not very comfortable with it . . . I see that as a huge challenge.” Another agreed stating, “. . . usually they know nothing about . . . and have little experience with budgeting and fund raising.”

Prospective leaders need to adopt strategies for avoiding burnout and for re-kindling their energies. The women shared the importance of taking care of oneself if one is to be successful and effective in the presidency. As one stated, “I came in running a short sprint and recognized that this is a marathon.... [S]o you have to pace yourself more.” To maintain the energy level needed to be an effective leader, each of the presidents made sure to make time to exercise on a regular basis. This sentiment expressed by one of the leaders was shared by all. “It takes a lot of energy just to face the challenges that leaders in education have to face.” Another offered,

And this gets back to that time that you need to reflect and take care of oneself. Whether you take an hour out of each day or you take a day out of a week or a day a month. However you do that, you need to have some time just for yourself to re-energize and to get your emotional stability together and to do something physical.

“These jobs are absolutely endless . . . [Sometimes you have to] say, ‘Hey, for my well-being, I just ain’t gonna go to that event tonight.’”

Implications

At one time it was not uncommon for women to find themselves “falling into positions” (i.e., they advanced within the organization without conscious preparation or direction). As higher education has taken on more of a business model and the skills needed to be an effective institutional leader have become more complex, these incidental advancements are disappearing. Women must be purposeful in obtaining the education and experiences that prepare them for leadership. They must engage in deliberate, long range career planning that moves them through a series of jobs that provide professional development through hands-on experience.

Women who aspire to leadership positions as presidents build their careers. They need to be sure that they develop a reputation of competency in their fields and in their ability to perform administrative tasks. The five presidents indicated women in their positions are scrutinized carefully and criticized freely and must demonstrate their competence for the positions they hold.

Competence is a cornerstone for an effective presidency, and each president interviewed placed this among the top characteristics for effective leaders. Along with a reputation for competence, aspiring women leaders must build a reputation for being credible. Their interactions with co-workers, staff, students and upper administrators must prove to constituents that the prospective leader has integrity, authenticity, and can be trusted to act honestly. In addition, would-be women leaders should seize opportunities to practice their written, oral, and interpersonal communication skills. According to the presidents, an effective leader needs to be able to communicate clearly her passion, energy, values, and vision to all the institution’s constituencies. With good communication skills, a leader stays connected to the pulse of the organization and can “rally the troops” to her cause—both important aspects of effective leadership.

Although the leadership literature is based primarily on the views and experiences of male leaders, we found that the nine tenets we distilled from

the leadership literature have meaning and significance for the women we interviewed. The implication of this finding for women who aspire to leadership is that their preparation should be very similar to that of aspiring male leaders. Competence, credibility, and communication, the most important tenets for the presidents who participated in this study, are important for all leaders. Since women still are shaped by societal expectations and influences, we may have more work to do in certain areas but our male counterparts also have their special challenges. Although gender parity has not been achieved in higher education, a woman who aspires to be a leader in higher education and prepares herself for leadership through education, experience, and professional development can expect to enjoy the success that has been attained by the women leaders in this study.

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Voices of Women in the Field

Can You Top This?

Ramona Miller

Starting school and closing the doors, all within 21 days! Certainly this must be a mistake, but the truth is, it did happen in our school district during September of 2005.

Starting school in the fall is always an exciting time for educators and students. The excitement for the staff of 11 was high and the building was ready to welcome the students back to school. By nine o'clock, on the first day of school, there were only two students. Three days later there were four students. Where were the other 70 students who were enrolled in the school in May? They were registered at the Charter School that was one mile away!

The School Board was committed to keeping the public school open, for at least one year, "so that everyone could work with the changes." The question, however, came very fast, "Can we keep a building open for four students?" Would more students enroll in the next couple of weeks? The reality of the situation was that it was not financially sound to keep the current staff and the building open for four students.

Seven days into the school year, the School Board made the decision to transfer the students to another school within the district that was 22 miles away. The parents and students had four days to make decisions about enrollment options for their children. At the same time, the teachers were attempting to keep the school routine as normal as possible. How do you integrate students into a new school and classroom? Three of the students would be going to the district school and the other student would transfer to a neighboring school district. We planned a day for the receiving classrooms to take a field trip to the school that was closing. We felt that it was important for the receiving students to understand what the other school was like. The staff planned some of the typical end of the year activities for the students that included a picnic/field trip to the Mouth of the Mississippi River. It was very necessary for the staff and the students to be able to put some closure to a very short school year.

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The staff, in my opinion, has had a harder time with the closing and transition to the other school in the district than the students have. The closing was difficult because the teachers typically do not change schools during the year. Students move more freely during the school year so the transition for them was much easier. The Board gave the staff one week to pack the supplies, books and other school items. The question that still is unanswered is, was the week too long or too short for staff?

It was more difficult for staff to make the transition for many reasons. Although we talk about being flexible and able to deal with change, it is hard for teachers to deal with change of this magnitude in such a short time. One of the teachers was assigned to a new classroom that was formed because of the number of students, once the transfer was made. For the second time in a month, he was starting a new classroom, new grade level and in a new school. Four of the teachers became special teachers either in Title 1, Title 7 or a combination of many different assignments. Some staff resigned their positions or were placed on unrequested leave of absence.

The start of a charter school in a district can be a positive or negative influence within a district. It is important that the communication lines stay open so that everyone can work for the betterment of the students. Keeping the lines of communication open depends on many different situations but when parents have many different options for educating their child, it becomes even more important. The communication lines were blocked in our district and it created additional issues for everyone.

Needless to say, opening and closing a school within a 12 day time span is not recommended. The time span of a year is often not long enough. Closing the chapter is a very difficult task—particularly if you are the principal.

FIRST THINGS FIRST: WRITING STRATEGIES

Marilyn L. Grady

Writers are Readers

The inspiration for writing is reading. By reading a wide range of authors, you enhance your writing craft. Reading is the window to different writing styles, different uses of language, and different means of engaging the reader.

There are a number of very successful writers in the field of education. Their success is measured by their name recognition and the prominence of what they have written. If you see a name in print frequently, then you have a measure of a writer's success. Reading these authors provides insight into what is publishable in education outlets.

However, do not limit your reading to education. Read broadly to enrich your knowledge of writing technique. Reading the classics, the best sellers, and prominent books in disciplines that align well with education such as politics, sociology, communication, public relations, business, health and wellness may open additional avenues for you as you develop your writing skills.

"Writers learn to write by imitation." (Kooser & Cox, 2006, p. 41) We want as many models of writing as possible. We want models of those who have been successful, and hopefully, prolific authors. We want models of the best. Using the writing styles of successful authors, it may be possible to identify a template for writing. A template, a format, a formula, or a habit may be helpful in structuring your writing.

One of the most important types of reading for writers is books about writing. Develop a reading habit that includes books about writing. Perhaps every six months you should read such a book. A first book you might want to read is *Writing brave & free: Encouraging words for people who want to start writing* (2006). Written by Ted Kooser, the U.S. Poet Laureate and winner of the Pulitzer Prize in Poetry, and Steve Cox, an editor and publisher, it provides the inspiration you need to continue writing!

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Book Review

Wheatley, M. J. (2005). *Finding Our Way: Leadership for an Uncertain Time*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.

Bonnie McKay Harmer

Readers familiar with Margaret Wheatley's 1992 best-seller, *Leadership and the New Science*, will discover that her most recent book, *Finding Our Way* (2005), initially offers similar food for thought, but it is delivered in a more practical, less theoretical manner. Midway through the book, *Finding Our Way* takes an unpredictable turn in the road, eventually taking readers through Wheatley's personal journey of frustration, fear and hopelessness, finally to resurface in a very different place. Wheatley's writing flows easily with compelling imagery and personal insights that are apt to attract a broad general audience.

In her 1992 book, Wheatley beckoned readers to examine how recent discoveries in quantum physics and chaos theory were applicable to organizations and leadership. She unveiled discoveries within the 'new science,' including the ability of highly complex systems to adapt and self-organize. Then, highlighting the incongruence between the natural order—the way in which complex systems self-organize in science versus how human constructed organizations have formed in Western culture, she called for a paradigm shift in organizational leadership. This paradigm shift was aimed at finding a simpler way to lead organizations, seeking a way to partner with naturally occurring patterns rather than controlling or conquering them. One criticism of *Leadership and the New Science* was that it did not provide any directives to leaders to help them operationalize her new leadership paradigm. To be fair to Wheatley, she had clearly stipulated that her intention in the 1992 publication was not to provide such a book.

[*Leadership and the New Science*] is not a book of conclusions, cases, or exemplary practices of excellent companies. It is deliberately not that kind of book... I no longer believe that organizations can be changed by imposing a model developed elsewhere... the new physics cogently explains that there is no objective reality out there waiting to reveal its secrets. There are no recipes or formulae, no checklists or advice that describe 'reality.'

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There is only what we create through our engagement with others and with events. Nothing really transfers; everything is always new and different and unique to each of us. . . ." (Wheatley, 1992, p. 7)

Thirteen years later, it appears Wheatley has had a change of heart and is now quite willing to engage with the reader in a more personal manner, sharing conclusions and offering numerous examples of exemplary leadership. In *Finding Our Way*, the reader is immediately struck by Wheatley's candor, including her confession that in *Leadership and the New Science* she used science "to get the attention of those who could hear this message in no other form. What was 'my message' from the new sciences has grown in depth and strength into a 'new story.' It is sourced from many traditions, not just Western science... I am less focused on persuasion and more engaged in the telling of a story that gives hope and possibility to us all" (p. 16).

Finding Our Way presents a more practical picture of the steps to be taken to move individuals, groups, organizations and communities toward a simpler, more harmonious, self-organized existence based on living systems theory. In *Finding Our Way*, Wheatley's writing remains unpretentious and informal—often inviting readers to take a moment to reflect on their own experiences as she illustrates particular concepts. At other times, she writes with an almost spiritual quality. She blends poems, artwork, and short essays into the book, giving readers opportunities to read it in short increments without losing the flavor in the process.

Wheatley indicates in the introduction to *Finding Our Way*, that each of the essays in the book (all of which have been previously published in a journal, magazine or book) has been updated, revised or substantially added to prior to inclusion in this book. She emphasizes that this publication is not just a collection of articles, but it is actually "two stories" (p. 3) that present the story of the new leadership in a different manner. Acknowledging the book as two discrete stories may have been Wheatley's attempt to account for the dramatic change in tone and approach that occurs in the book. Perhaps it was an attempt to prepare the reader for the lack of a cohesive whole or the redundancy between some of the essays? The first 'story' (part)

of the book could be considered a guidebook providing leaders with practical examples of how to implement the living systems theory. The second story of the book contains essays that are more reflective, introspective and much more personal in nature.

She describes the first story as the description and application of the new living systems paradigm. This first section familiarizes the reader with the concepts of self-organizing; changing, creating, learning and adapting that form the foundation of living systems theory. A variety of essays, poems and text address topics such as how leaders shift from control to order; how leaders can evoke the innate creativity of others; how healthy communities can be created and how leaders can lead when change is out of control or when their integrity is threatened. These essays, according to Wheatley, all represent her current thoughts regarding leadership within the living systems paradigm.

Wheatley's first essay provides an overview for those unfamiliar with living systems theory.

[The predominant Western model has viewed] the universe as a grand, clockwork machine... our bodies were seen as the ultimate machines . . . In most of our endeavors—in science, health, management, self-help—the focus is on creating better-functioning machines...The language and thinking is mechanistic. When we [humans] created this story of complete dominion over matter, we also brought in control's unwelcome partner, fear. Once we are intent on controlling something, we feel afraid when we meet with resistance. Since nothing is as controllable as we hope, we soon become entangled in a cycle of exerting control, failing to control, exerting harsher control, failing again, and panicking. The fear that arises from this cycle is notable in many of us. It's especially notable in our leaders . . . the world becomes scarier as we see daily the results of our ignorance and confront our true powerlessness. (p. 18)

Wheatley contends that when the inadequacies of the mechanistic model become more apparent, more individuals, groups and communities will seek out a new approach, a new story. They will choose a simpler way of organizing; a way which respects and trusts the natural order in ways that are simpler and more organic. Wheatley invites others to journey with her and to retell what she calls the "new story":

The certainty of cycles, the triumph of order over chaos, the diversity born from life's creativity, the innate artistry of each of us, the enduring beauty of the human spirit- these are what I write about. From Minoan times till now, the story hasn't changed. But it is important that we reclaim it and retell it before we are swept away by eruptions of our own making. (p. 8)

There are numerous examples provided of successful leadership within the new story, yet virtually all of these successes are in developing countries, not in Western culture. Nonetheless, these examples do celebrate some wonderful outcomes that have occurred through new forms of leadership. Wheatley shares the story of a South African university that has been created by a group of volunteers who set out to provide education for several thousand students from South Africa's poorest rural communities. Each entering class, of approximately one thousand students, is selected by the current students. The students rely on the deep communitarian values of Africa. All one thousand students take the same class together, the same exam, they live together, cook together, even go job hunting together. No one ever struggles alone; everything they do is within the community. They also spread their leadership in innovative ways. Wheatley recounts her visit at the CIDA University, where she met a group of thirty students who were trained in HIV/AIDS awareness. They had just returned from a four-day visit to outlying villages where each student had pledged to provide HIV/AIDS education to one thousand individuals per student. These thirty students had successfully educated thirty thousand villagers in only four days. The CIDA students outperform traditional students academically and in the workplace. Wheatley added, "They radiate belief in themselves and their potential to serve their nation" (p. 165).

The next section of the book, which Wheatley refers to as the second story, is presented in chronological order. By presenting this series of essays in order, she hoped the reader would discern how her emphasis has shifted, how her topics have changed and evolved over time. There is a definite change in emotional tone in these essays as Wheatley moves from the hopeful, inspired messages at the beginning toward an increasingly frustrated plea of desperation. One of the first essays in this second story is titled "Living our Interconnectedness." This essay begins with the following message of hope:

The dense and tangled web of life—the interconnected nature of reality—now reveals itself on a daily basis . . . think about how much you've learned about people, nations and ways of life . . . We're beginning to realize that to live peacefully together on this planet, we need to be in new relationships, especially with those far distant from us. (p. 204).

This optimistic attitude and celebration of the new shared meanings does not last into the next essays. Wheatley regrettably reports that the heightened uncertainty in the world within recent years has negatively impacted organizational leadership. In her opinion, this has spurred leaders to retreat to

their conventional command and control approach. Improvements which had occurred in the 1990s, spurred by new understandings in human motivation, learning organizations and innovation, have been quelled or extinguished. Wheatley includes an essay called "Raising our Children" where she gives examples of the "disturbing" indicators of stress and anxiety disorders in children. She contends that our society is acculturating children to be constantly busy; "Children's lives have become miniature versions of our own lives...children no longer need to wait until adulthood to feel overcommitted and overwhelmed" (p. 224).

Wheatley's desperation is foreshadowed in the beginning of the book as she announces, "Today, we need many more of us storytellers. The need is urgent; because people are forgetting there is any alternative to the deadening leadership that daily increases in vehemence. It's truly a dark time because people are losing faith in themselves and each other and forgetting how wonderful humans can be, how much hope we feel when we work well together on things we care about" (pp. 4-5).

The final essays of the book are described by Wheatley as being deeply personal, yet it is doubtful that readers will be prepared for the disclosures in her closing essays. They push beyond the previous nudges for reform; to a darker, lonely, hopeless place. These essays acknowledge feelings of vulnerability and uncertainty that are discomfiting. They force readers to join the author, wandering through the darkness, searching for new meanings and any glimmers of hope as leaders in this difficult new reality. Wheatley's poignant words of self-doubt penetrate these personal essays in an incredibly revealing manner. In her essay titled, "Beyond Hope or Fear", Wheatley begins;

As the world grows ever darker, I've been forcing myself to think about hope. I watch as people far from me and near me experience more grief and suffering. Aggression and violence have moved into relationships, personal and global... Decisions are made from insecurity and fear. How is it possible to feel hopeful, to look forward to a more positive future? . . . I am struggling to understand how I might contribute to reversing this descent into fear and sorrow, what I might do to help restore hope to the future. In the past, it was easier to believe in my own effectiveness. If I worked hard, with good colleagues and good ideas, we could make a difference. But now, I sincerely doubt that. Yet without hope that my labor will produce results, how can I keep going? If I have no belief that my visions can become real, where will I find the strength to persevere? (p. 261)

This last portion of the book presents the reader with confusion and uncertainty. Since Wheatley herself appears to have lost hope that her endeavor will lead to the outcomes that she, and presumably the reader,

desire; what lies ahead? What happens when the leader's hope is challenged? Writing with literary prowess, a tension arises in the reader when it is clear that Wheatley herself has become skeptical; a sense of urgency and a genuine desire for resolution is evoked in the reader—yet uncertainty prevails.

With the support of friends, whom she cites with gratitude, Wheatley challenges herself to journey through her despair, to gain new meanings, new knowledge and new appreciation for the emotions she is experiencing. She explores the relationship between hope and fear. She is reminded by a friend of the Buddhist teaching that hopelessness is not the opposite of hope; fear is. She discovers that when hope exists, fear is always present, ready to usurp one's confidence if the desired outcomes are not achieved. As Wheatley dwells with this realization, and allows the feeling of hopelessness to flood over her, she discovers that by replacing hope with hopelessness, the fear is abated. Without fear, without feeling a need to achieve specific measurable outcomes, but to carry on her work, to lead by sharing the 'new story' because of its inherent worth and truth, she transcends. She writes,

We are consoled and strengthened by being together. We don't need specific outcomes. We can live beyond hope or fear. All we need is each other. Hopelessness has surprised me with the gift of patience. As I abandon the pursuit of effectiveness and watch my anxiety fade, patience appears . . . This is how I want to journey through this time of increasing uncertainty. Groundless, hopeless, insecure, patient, clear. And together. (pp. 263-264)

At the outset of *Finding Our Way*, Wheatley invites readers to join her on a journey. The journey begins quite predictably, providing the exemplars that readers have sought. She provides relevant examples to illustrate creative, adaptive and empowering approaches to leadership that nurture and celebrate human capacities. Many of these examples are from enterprises in developing countries where the structure is more accommodating to the new leadership paradigm. The second part of the journey is very different; it is an emotional trek through difficult, uncharted territory. Yet, the journey is worthwhile; culminating in a rich new perspective that is liberating, leaving us in a radically different place than where the journey began.

It is one of the great ironies of our age that we created organizations to constrain our problematic human nature, and now the only thing that can save these organizations is a full appreciation of the expansive capacities of us humans. (p. 21)

References

Wheatley, M. J. (1992). *Leadership and the new science: Learning about organization from an orderly universe*. San Francisco, CA: Berrett-Koehler.