Women leaders combining a career in higher education with raising a family: a study of leadership

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Women Leaders Combining a Career in Higher Education with Raising a Family:  
A Study of Leadership

By

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I. Introduction:

Much of the research within the field of Leadership Studies focuses on whether men and women lead differently and whether women can break "the glass ceiling." This study will examine women leaders in higher education administration who have children and have already broken the glass ceiling, focusing on their work-life challenges and analyzing the structural and attitudinal issues in their organization and society that impact their leadership.

Virginia Schein (1995) identified the larger challenge for society by asking,

How can we restructure work in a society in which work and family no longer are separate, but interface?...It is when this question comes into play that the possibility emerges that women would lead differently (165).

Women would lead differently because they would focus on structural and attitudinal changes to facilitate the interface of work and family. This priority would encourage a work climate in which the work-life interface was recognized and accommodated, and its reality was not denied.

The implication of Schein's comments is that the work-life concerns in contemporary society are structural and attitudinal issues for organizational and political leaders as well as spouses to champion, not the sole responsibility of individual women. If work-life issues were supported, attitudinal and structural changes would be made to support the belief that women should have jobs and fathers should be involved in the care of their children (Bailyn, 1998).

One way to guide such change is to amass information on what is currently occurring (Bailyn, 1998). Consequently, this study explores the issues that current women face when they combine a leadership position in higher education administration with raising a family. It examines the decisions that women in these leadership roles made about work and family at various stages in their lives and examines the work-life conditions that support or inhibit their functioning in these roles.

This study also explores the major four types of work-life negotiation in which women leaders with children engage: negotiation with the organization, negotiation with society/public policy, negotiation with spouse/family and negotiation of roles and responsibilities. This study coins the term "work-life negotiation," as opposed to using the traditional term, "work-life balance" that inaccurately suggests a 50/50 equilibrium
between work and family. Finally, this study examines the styles of leadership women use to negotiate work-life issues.

The need for our society to understand work-life negotiation experiences of women becomes urgent as the numbers of women in the workforce, and within higher education administration specifically, continue to increase. While research in work-life negotiation is needed in all fields, the field of higher education is important to investigate because little research exists about how working mothers live within the higher education community. Most research about work-life negotiation has occurred in the corporate sector. Attention must be given to work-life issues to improve retention and ameliorate the quality of life for women who aspire to become women leaders in higher education administration.

II. Literature Review

Trends and Statistics

Numbers of women entering the workforce are increasing (Bond, Friedman & Galinsky, 1993). Labor force participation rates among married women have increased significantly since the 1960s. In 1966, women’s participation rates were 35% and as of 1994, they rose to 61% (Department of Labor, www.bls.gov). In 1998, about three of every five women were in the labor force if they were of working age (www.bls.gov). Additionally, 70% of American women age 25 to 34 with children are in the labor force (www.thirdpath.org). Thus, the trend of an increase in women’s labor force participation is a well-recognized economic trend.

A direct result of women’s increased educational and occupational opportunities is the dramatic increase in the number of U.S. families in which both parents are fully employed (Gilbert, 5). More dual-earning couples exist and the proportion of dual-earner couples in which wives earned more than their husbands increased from 16% in 1981 to 23% in 1996 (www.bls.gov). Indeed, 72% of mothers with children under 18 are in the work force – a figure that is up sharply from 47% in 1975 but has held steady since 1997 (www.families&work.org).

Not only are these women participating in the labor force, but they are achieving leadership positions. Over the past century, the number of women in leadership positions has increased tremendously. In 1900, four out of every 100 managers were female. By the 1990’s, 42 out of every 100 managers were female (Hackman & Johnson, 316). Women are also achieving their doctoral degrees. In 1998, women earned 42% of all doctoral degrees (American Council on Education, 2001). A study of female executives by the Center for Creative Leadership examined the factors that help women to achieve these leadership positions. The study found that skillful female leaders reported a willingness to take career risks and a desire for success that exceeded that of their male colleagues (Hackman & Johnson, 320).
The representation of women in faculty and administration on college and university campuses has also expanded. In 1997, females made up 41% of all full-time instructional faculty and staff in higher education institutions (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2000). This is an increase from 1992, when only 8% of full-time instructional faculty and staff were females (National Center for Educational Statistics, 1997). Women constituted 45% of the administrative, executive, and managerial positions in U.S. higher education institutions in 1997 (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2000).

**Work-life Conflict**

Work-life conflict exists in many forms. “Work-life conflict” can be defined as a “mutual incompatibility between the demands of work roles and the demands of family roles” (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997, 3-4). When an employee is in a meeting at work, for example, it is physically impossible for her to attend her child’s tennis match. The majority of research on work-life conflict has explored the degree to which family interferes with work, and in fact, the former appears to be more common among employees (Williams and Alliger, 1994). Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) have identified three types of work-life conflict: time-based conflict, strain-based conflict and behavior-based conflict.

Time-based conflict occurs “when the time demands of one role make it difficult or impossible to participate fully in another role” (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997, 4). For example, the trend toward early breakfast meetings makes it arduous for a single parent to bring his/her children to day care, causing him/her not only to rely on others to transport the child, but also to make all the plans and depend on the neighbor or friend to get the child safely to day care (Paasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997a, 4). Time-based conflict can also take place when pressures from one role cause someone to be preoccupied with that role, even while physically present in another role (Greenhaus and Beutell, 1985). For example, an employee may be physically present at work, but thinking of other events going on in his/her life.

Strain-based conflict occurs “when symptoms of psychological strain (e.g. anxiety, fatigue, irritability) generated by the demands of the work or family role intrude or ‘spill over’ into the other role, making it difficult to fulfill the responsibilities of that role” (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997, 4). For example, a parent who is worried about his/her child’s illness may not be able to fully pay attention to his/her job.

Behavior-based conflict occurs “when the behaviors that are expected or appropriate in the family role (e.g. expressiveness, emotional sensitivity) are viewed as inappropriate or dysfunctional when used in the work role” (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997a, 4). For example, a manager may be expected to be aggressive to be accepted and promoted at work. Yet these same behaviors can create dissension in the home. Many senior-level employees must make a conscious effort to alter their behavior when they walk in the front door of their homes (Parasuraman and Greenhaus, 1997).
Prevalence of Work-life Conflict

Work-life conflict is widespread for women who have both a career and family. One in ten families in the United States today is traditional (husband is sole income earner, wife is homemaker). That means that nine out of every ten company employees’ families deal with work-life issues on a daily basis (Freidman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998). Furthermore, one out of every four employees reports having difficulty concentrating on work because of family responsibilities (Freidman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998). Additionally, employees report being tardy to work an average of 7.4 days a year because of child-care problems (Freidman, DeGroot and Christensen, 1998).

Traditional organizations undoubtedly foster conflict between work and family. Sometimes, this is done consciously and individuals deliberately say comments like, “If you want to advance here, this sacrifice must be made.” More frequently, senior-level employees at organizations promote work-life conflict unintentionally by simply creating pressures and demands on the employee, making it hard for him/her to have personal time with his/her family. These demands include travel, dinner meetings, the increasingly common breakfast meetings, weekend retreats, and incredibly long hours (Senge, 1990).

As a result of the prevalence of work-life conflict, organizational change must occur to lessen work-life conflict. It is critical that higher education be a place where the facts and necessities of motherhood can be easily meshed into the work routine (Trombley, Sept. 5, 2003). Currently, most organizations seem to view work-life conflict as a rarity (Deming, 1986). With a tremendous amount of females in the workplace, all of whom experience some kind of work-life issues, we can no longer view work-life conflict as a rarity. This problem of work-life conflict presents an opportunity to create a new work-life template that allows current and future generations of women and men to live integrated, satisfying lives. Leaders in organizations and government must take several steps to achieve this goal (www.thirdpath.org). We must find a new work-life template.

The artificial boundary between work and family is anathema to systems thinking since a natural connection exists between an individual's work place environment and other aspects of life (Senge, 1990).

Work-Life Negotiation

The term “work-life negotiation” captures the ever-changing interplay between work-life issues. Unlike “work-life balance,” “work-life negotiation” captures the imbalanced nature of managing both work and family. Some weeks or even months require more time spent in the home than in the family. “Negotiation” precisely depicts the changing nature of work and family; some weeks work will consume 75% of one's time and family will only occupy 25% of one's time. Other weeks, these percentages will reverse. The word “negotiation” also implies that the matter or affair at hand requires effort to handle it successfully and involves discussion and compromise (m-w.com). While the term ‘negotiation’ has been used in conjunction with the topic of work-life issues (i.e. Sarah Marshall’s dissertation entitled Women in Higher Education Administrators with Children: Negotiating Personal and Professional Lives, 2002), it has
not been coupled with "work-life" to engender the term "work-life negotiation." Negotiation can occur any place that work-life conflict occurs. The four categories of work-life negotiation include:

A. Negotiation with family  
B. Negotiation with organization  
C. Negotiation for social and policy change  
D. Negotiation of roles and responsibilities (the self)

In the United States, dual-career families and those headed by an employed single parent make up 69.9% of all families with children under age 18 and 59.7% of all families with children under age 6 (Powell & Graves, 2003). Consequently, work-life negotiation emerges as an imperative topic to address. Varying perspectives exist on the consequences of work-life interface.

Some research studies show that women benefit from negotiating their work and family roles (Powell & Graves, 2003). When woman hold leadership employment roles while caring for children, some believe they are able to avoid the negative aspects of any one role. Work and family roles complement each other. Consequently, their sense of well-being and contentment increases. Studies by Baruch and Barnett (1987) found that working mothers were less depressed, had higher self-esteem, and were more satisfied with their marriages and their jobs compared to women and men who were not married, unemployed, or childless. In addition, according to the enhancement theory of role accumulation, multiple roles may increase one’s energy by increasing sources of identity, self-esteem, rewards, and resources available to cope with multiple demands (Thoits, 1987).

Other studies conclude that women leaders suffer from negotiating both work and family roles. When individuals participate in both work and family roles to any great extent, they inevitably struggle with time. Either they end up delving into work to escape the home or they sacrifice their career to devote themselves to their family (Powell & Graves, 2003). Still others view working mothers’ situations as a “tradeoff” in which there are benefits as well as costs. The challenge for women is to maximize the benefits while minimizing the costs (Powell & Graves, 2003).

A. Negotiation with Family

Undoubtedly, work-life negotiation is accomplished in various ways. No standard formula exists for creating balance given that spending equal amounts of time and energy between work and family will not automatically work (Smith, 2000). Women must make deliberate and intentional choices about how they want to live their lives, and which organizations fit the choices they have made (Smith, 2000).

Five primary models (www.thirdpath.org) are currently used for parents to negotiate children and work. The first model is shared care. Both parents do the majority of the childcare, while remaining actively engaged in work outside the family.
Parents reconfigure work around family needs and share in their involvement with work, home and children. Parents who do shared care realize that children's needs change over time, and that family solutions consequently need to change over time. Families who practice shared care make up an expanding percentage of the United States parenting experience.

In the second model, *one parent flex*, one parent is employed full-time outside the home, while the other flexes his/her work schedule to share in the caring for the child(ren). One parent is the primary parent, the other serves as back-up. Usually, the family uses part-time outside assistance or childcare when the primary parent is working. The third option, the *traditional model*, uses an approach in which one parent works full-time outside the home, while the other works full-time caring for the child(ren). Only 17% of American families opt this for this Traditional strategy, despite its name.

When both parents work outside the home, the *full-time care model* requires that they employ full-time childcare to care for the children during work hours, which is also the case with some single parents. The *single parent* model calls for the parent to balance earning income and caring for children in many ways. Some divorced or separated parents continue to share the responsibilities of caring for their children, while some employ the help of community and extended family to make this solution manageable. Many of the key concepts for shared care apply to single parents.

Whichever strategy parents choose, most inevitably use other external strategies (ones not directly involving the parents) as well to mitigate work-life conflict: day care and babysitters, support networks and supportive bosses and planned births. If parents can successfully use these strategies, work-life negotiation becomes easier.

**Strategies**

**Strategy I: Planned Births**

Planning births is often identified as a means to improve work-life negotiation. If parents can plan to have children after their career is established, then work-life negotiation becomes easier. However, individuals often assume that couples decide when they want to have children. The reality is, despite birth control, unplanned pregnancies are prevalent. An "unplanned pregnancy" can be defined as "A pregnancy that a woman is not actively trying to have. It could be unintended, a mistake, unwanted, or not at the right time" (Parker, 1997, 1).

Women’s education has been found to influence a woman’s childbearing goals (The Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1996). Woman’s education is consistently included in national fertility surveys, along with other socioeconomic, cultural and personal factors (The Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1996). Surprisingly enough, less-educated women come closer to achieving their reproductive goals than better-educated women (The Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1996). The number of unplanned births among better-educated women are greater than those among less-educated women. Nevertheless, perhaps better
educated women have stronger preferences about the timing of their births and thus are more apt to consider a birth as "unplanned." Furthermore, better-education women typically want fewer children than less-educated women, creating more births that seem "unplanned." However, despite a woman's education level, almost all women find it difficult to achieve the number of children they want and when they want each one of them (The Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1996). If women are successful in the planning of their children, it helps a great deal with work-life negotiation. Nevertheless, planned births are difficult to accomplish.

**Strategy 2: Child Care**

Child care can come in various forms: on-site childcare, off-site childcare, and babysitters. On-site child care has been found to be a benefit that affects organizational membership behaviors—that is, joining and staying at the organization. Child-care programs benefit some employee groups and provide little or no benefits for others (Friedman, DeGroot & Christensen, 1998). For example, a single man or woman without children may find a child-care benefit less useful than a mother with small children.

One study (Kossek & Nichol, 1992) found that the presence of a child-care center in an organization had the greatest positive effect on organization morale and behavior of female employees and employees who lacked familial backup care in the immediate vicinity. Childcare benefits enable employees to be at the same starting line with other coworkers in running the race of successful and quality performance instead of starting the race at a disadvantage—that is, a few steps back from the starting line (Kossek & Nichol, 1992).

When women look for quality child-care, they should ideally search for these six elements (Salmon, 2001):

1. Safety, security, and a calm, yet interesting environment that will awaken their interest in sights, sounds, and other sensations.
2. Warm, nurturing, interactions with long-term care-givers, involving joyful feelings as well as sights, sounds, touches, and other sensations to foster learning, language, and attention.
3. Playful emotional interactions with long sequences of smiles and other facial expressions, sounds, and gestures.
4. "Discussions" without words—negotiations with gestures to solve problems.
5. Creative elaboration of ideas through pretend play.
6. Debates and discussions that elicit a child's opinions and foster logical thought.

One of the most important resources for negotiating multiple roles as both parent and employee is support from others (Cohen and Wills, 1985). Support may come in the form of child care from one's extended family, co-workers, or friends and take the form of instrumental or emotional support. **Instrumental support** refers to tangible assistance, such as providing time, skill, advice, or resources to help with child care. **Emotional**
support refers to others providing caring behaviors such as showing empathy, trust, love, or simply listening (Salmon, 2001).

**Strategy 3: Supportive Relationship with Spouse/Partner**

Fathers have greatly increased the amount of time they spend with their children, and they now do more household chores as well (Powell & Graves, 2003). However, while change is occurring, the change is slow.

Still, married women spend more than double the amount of time on household labor than men do, according to a study conducted by the Seidman School of Business at Grand Valley State University (Marketing to Women, 2002). Single women and men spend an equal amount of time per week doing household chores: 16.4 hours for women and 16.0 hours for men. Married women spend 26 hours per week on household tasks, while married men spend 13 hours a week on average. Among unmarried couples living together, the gender difference is smaller: Women spend 17 hours per week, and men spend 13 hours (Marketing to Women, 2002). In a national study, employed wives did 72 percent of the family work (housework and child care), while non-employed wives did 81 percent (Greenstein, 1995). On days off, mothers reported spending nearly two hours more than fathers in child-related activities (8.3 versus 6.4 hours) (Bond, Galinsky, Swanberg, 1998).

Also, fathers who wish to become more involved in family life usually turn more to the children than to the household chores (Powell & Graves, 2003). The tasks of cooking, cleaning, and laundry show the largest gender gap in married couples. Men spend less than half as much time as women do each week on five out of the nine tasks studied (preparing meals, washing dishes, cleaning house, outdoor/lawn care, grocery shopping, laundry/ironing, bill paying, auto maintenance, chauffeuring other household members) (Marketing to Women, 2002). Among college-educated married couples, an even greater division of household labor exists than among those with lower levels of education (Marketing to Women, 2002).

Longitudinal studies show that during the transition to parenthood, women feel more and more dissatisfied about their husbands' participation level in household tasks (Cowan & Cowan, 1992). Thus, parenting emerges as the key issue in the gendered division of labor at home because the drastic asymmetry in workloads and the divergence in life courses between husbands and wives develop when children are born (Deutsch, 1999). Mothers and fathers must learn how to develop a relationship in which each is actively involved in the primary care of their children. If this change can be accomplished, the children who grow up in shared parenting arrangements will most likely continue similar solutions when they become adults and start families on their own (www.thirdpath.org).

“Shared Care” is the term used to describe family structures in which parents are the primary caretakers of children while remaining actively engaged with work (www.thirdpath.org). All Shared Care parents reconfigure work around the family’s
needs. The parents accomplish this by selectively reducing work hours, job-sharing, or working from home. The Principle of Shared Care are (www.thirdpath.org):

- redesign work around the needs of family
- change solutions as the needs of children change
- maximize the use of parental care and extended family
- create a shared involvement of caring for children and earning income

The more intentional couples are about the choices they make, the more satisfied they will be with the results.

B. Negotiation in the Organization

*Why Work-Life Negotiation is an Organizational Issue*

Work-life management is not just a women’s or a parent’s issue. All employees—single or married, with children or without—find managing the demands of work and personal life challenging. Thus, “work-life issues” seem to be a better term than “work-family issues” (Freidman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998).

First, organizations have a social responsibility to aid employees in negotiating their work and private lives to abate their stress. This value judgment recognizes that as social entities, organizations should act as role models and encourage proactive problem-solving to work-life problems. Not all will agree with this judgment (Freidman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998).

Second, organizations bear a legal requirement to address work-life issues. The Human Rights Act of 1993 (N.Z) includes a variety of work-life issues such as barring discrimination in employment based on sex (covering pregnancy and childbirth), marital status, and family status. The Parental Leave and Employment Protection Act of 1987 (N.Z) entitles employees to parental leave and the right to return to work. Furthermore, employers are often sued for stress originating in the workforce and are frequently losing (Friedman, DeGroot, & Christensen, 1998).

Third, effective work-life practices is strategic business. By reducing employees’ work-life conflict and stress, employers ameliorate productivity and morale, and lessen accident rates, absenteeism, and turnover. Plus, an organization can improve its ability to recruit, motivate, and retain a qualified workforce by fitting its human resources practices to work-life needs. This is perhaps the most paramount reason because the bottom line—profitability—is positively affected.

*Profitability from Work-Life Policies*

If work-life conflict decreases, organizations and the entire community will reap the benefits. Work-life conflict often causes valuable women to leave their organizations. Galinsky, Bond & Friedman (1993) found that an average parental leave of about 4.5
months costs 32% of an employee's annual salary, while replacing an employee costs the company between 75% and 150% of salary. Furthermore, a study of Fel-Pro, Inc. (Skokie, Ill.) found that employees with children who used work-life benefits were more apt to volunteer for additional work and be involved in team problem solving, had higher job performance evaluations and suggested twice as many product and process improvements as employees who did not utilize the benefits (Friedman, DeGroot & Christensen, 1998).

Furthermore, a study of Johnson & Johnson employees by the Families and Work Institute in 1990 and again in 1992 showed that employees who use flexible time benefits have lower rates of absenteeism than the overall workforce (Families and Work Institute, 1993). Also, over 50% of 196 companies surveyed said flextime eased lateness and absenteeism, improved employee attitudes, and helped recruitment. Eighty percent said flextime cost them little in administrative, training, or support expense (Friedman, 1991).

**Supportive Bosses/Unsupportive Bosses**

Among women returning to work following childbirth, a supportive supervisor was reported to be as crucial to achieving a lower level of stress as a supportive spouse (Galinsky & Stein, 1990). Within the work environment, support generally comes from two major sources: family-supportive policies created by organizations and family-supportive managers who provide help and understanding to the employees (Salmon, 2001).

Making certain an individual works for a boss that is supportive of his/her work-life interplay is a critical factor to his/her success and happiness. Galinsky & Stein’s studies (1990) show that a supportive supervisor is crucial to the well-being and job performance of employees with significant family responsibilities. When two-parent working families were surveyed, respondents reported that next to receiving a merit raise, they would most like their employers to train supervisors to be more accommodating when family crises arise (Galinsky & Stein, 1990). However, what exactly is a “supportive supervisor?” Galinsky & Stein (1990) characterize a supportive supervisor as one who:

- Has definitions of “work” and “family” that are similar to their employees’ definitions
- Is fair and impartial when dealing with work-life issues
- Feels that handling family issues (particularly those that affect an employee’s performance) is a legitimate part of their role
- Is knowledgeable about corporate work-life policies and encourages their use
• Is flexible when work-life problems arise

Supervisors have potential to become more supportive and sensitive of their employees' work-life negotiation. Literature from psychology (for example, Bandura, 1986) suggests that individuals can also develop sensitivity vicariously – that is, by "stepping into someone else's shoes" and obtaining more information about what someone else actually knows, feels and experiences. Nevertheless, most managers do not receive any training in sensitivity to work-life issues (Friedman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998).

Work-life Policies

Organizations' attempts to assist their employees are typically called work-family or work-life programs. The principles underlying work-life programs are organizational support and flexibility, yet fulfilling essential job requirements is still central (Friedman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998).

Organizational support can take the form of several different programs but also encompasses supportive and empathic management. Flexibility includes treating people differently but equitably. Work-life programs can be categorized in various categories: child care, adult dependent care, alternative work schedules, part-time employment and job-sharing, flextime, parental leave and "cafeteria" benefits (Friedman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998). Organizations should make a serious effort to set policies in each area; ad hoc responses and decisions on a case-by-case basis often create inequity perceptions (Friedman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998).

Alternative work arrangements are incredibly popular with a great deal of employees because flexibility in work schedules allows employees to gain greater control over their work and family lives. For example, parents may find it easier to accommodate their children's regular schedules and predictable events such as teacher conferences and sports games. Additionally, they may respond in a more effective way to emergencies and unanticipated events such as sudden illnesses, weather-related school closings, and mishaps in child care arrangements. Flexibility in work arrangements appeals to all employees, not just parents, because it symbolizes a focus on completing the work rather than how, when, or where the work is done. Alternative work arrangements also create positive effects for employers including decreased absenteeism and turnover and increased productivity (Friedman, DeGroot and Christensen, 1998).

The Specifics of Work-Life Policies

Employers can promote a family-friendly environment in many different ways. Clearly, employees' needs for dependent care vary greatly, and organizations need to consider their financial resources and the diversity of their employees' family lives when deciding how best to address these needs.
Organizations may provide employees various choices of alternative work arrangements, including flextime, telecommuting, part-time work, paid leaves and sabbaticals, unpaid leaves beyond what is legally mandated, job sharing, phased-in work schedules following leaves, and phased-in retirement (Friedman, DeGroot and Christensen, 1998). Generally speaking, organizations do not need all of their employees to hold full-time jobs, adhere to rigidly defined work schedules, or work onsite all of the time. Organizational leaders can be more flexible in what they expect from employees regarding work arrangements, assuming that employees are being productive (Friedman, DeGroot and Christensen, 1996).

The most popular and common type of alternative work arrangement is flextime, which allows for planned variations from typical, full-time work hours. Eleven percent of full-time U.S. workers use an employer-sponsored flextime program (DeGroot, 1996).

Telecommuting involves being paid to do some or all of one’s work away from the work site. It is an increasingly popular type of work arrangement. About 3% of full-time U.S. workers have a formal arrangement with their employers to telecommute from home. Telecommuters report that working at home increases their productivity by cutting down on interruptions and distractions and ameliorating their concentration. The struggle for telecommuters is to disengage from family when necessary since they are in their home (DeGroot, 1996).

**Barriers to Implementing Work-Life Programs**

Several major barriers are known to surface when implementing work-life programs in organizations. These barriers arise because organizations have ingrained cultural values surrounding work and non-work issues. The first hindrance may be the structural difficulties in implementing work-life programs. Many organizations still have rigid, hierarchal systems of organizing work (Smith, 2000).

Second, senior management in the organization may not be willing to take on the extra tasks that work-life programs require. Managers must take on the additional responsibilities of scheduling the right number of employees, dealing with increased paperwork, calculating benefits, pleasing clients, and obtaining specific equipment for telecommuters to run these work-life programs.

Third, many individuals hold the perception that family issues are women’s issues. This view does not account for the involvement of fathers in the family, which is inaccurate and outdated.

Fourth, senior management believes that work-life policies may favor some employees (i.e. those with children) over others, inhibiting equity among all employees. Managers may find it hard to choose which employees can take advantage of specific programs. For example, is it right to prohibit single employees from adopting flexible schedules to fit working parents’ needs?
Fifth, a dearth of evaluation data exists on work-life programs. And finally, many complain that work-life programs are too expensive. However, work-life programs can vary in cost. For example, a corporate child care program may include any or all of the following actions: (1) Offer a caregiver fair. (2) Give employees information about existing caregivers and help them in making arrangements. (3) Grant employees financial assistance towards the costs of child care. (4) Work with school and community organizations to sponsor programs for school-age children of working parents. (5) Operate on-site or near-site centers that provide all-day and after-school care for employees’ children. (6) Offer or sponsor child care programs for summer and school holidays (Smith, 2000).

Leaders in Organizations

Leaders model the way. Exemplary leaders know that if they want to gain support and reach the highest standards, they must be models of the behavior they expect from others (Senge, 1990). Leaders are pioneers – people who will risk stepping out into the unknown. They seek out opportunities to innovate, grow, and improve (Senge, 1990). Leaders must have a level of self-confidence and comfort with uncertainty, unpredictability if they wish to engender change (Boyett & Boyett, 1995).

Leaders who are in a position to hire employees should work to promote the careers of more junior women, employing women with less traditional career paths into their organization and advocating for recognition of other women’s potential (Simmons, 1996). These leaders doing the hiring and promotion must re-commit to gender equity. This entails a re-commitment to institutional policies and procedures that affect the campus climate for women in addition to salary, promotion and hiring decisions (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001).

If organizational leaders are to create cultural change, they need to first ensure top management support (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001). Leaders should cultivate major supporters within the organization to work towards cultural change, facilitate cultural change versus programmatic approach, and strategize effective communication and implementation (Kossek, Dadd & DeMarr, 1994).

In Friedman & Galinsky’s (1992) work-life change model, organizations progress through three stages. In stage one, organizations take a programmatic approach in responding to family needs. Initiatives that do not challenge existing norms are tested and such programs are: resources and referral services, flexible benefits plan, and parenting seminars. In stage two, top management begins to champion some programs, a work-life manager or group might be appointed, and personnel policies and benefits are evaluated for their contribution to work-life issues. In stage three, the culture of the company changes to become truly family-friendly. Mission statements may be altered and managers may be evaluated as to how well they handle employees’ work-family conflicts. Work-family issues are mainstreamed as work-life issues and are integrated with other efforts, such as a diversity effort. The researchers are also considering a stage
four culture in which work-life becomes a strategic business imperative (Friedman & Galinsky, 1992).

C. Negotiation for Social and Policy Change

Public Policy

Current Policy: FMLA

While some laws regarding work-life do exist, they are few in number. Clinton signed the Family and Medical Leave Act in August 1993. The bill states that employers must provide a 12-week leave to women and men to mother or father a newborn child. This applies to employers with fifty or more employees within a 75-mile radius of the workplace, and eligible employees must have worked for their employer for one year or at least 1250 hours within the year (Fried, 1998). It was the first bill signed into law by the president. The Clinton Administration heralded this gender-neutral legislation as major progress for working families. Nevertheless, the final legislation was a watered-down version of the original proposal (www.bls.gov). This law recognizes the need to rebalance our priorities (Salmon, 2001). However, despite this bill, women remain the primary users of parental leave policies. Furthermore, parental leave is even underutilized by females (Fried, 1998).

Proposed Changes to Policy

Salmon (2001) realizes that our laws are moving very slowly in the direction of recognizing the imperative role that the nurturing side of human life plays in our development and our future success.

One policy that would lessen the burden for parents of young children (especially economically disadvantaged parents) is high-quality, universal preschool for three and four-year olds. Additionally, Unions must take action making flexibility a paramount component in their bargaining agenda (www.thirdpath.org).

Several societal changes have been proposed, all of which could be achieved through public policy. One proposal is to revamp existing community centers and build additional ones, particularly in communities where churches and social organizations are not as strong and vivacious (Salmon, 2001). These centers could serve almost like extended families in communities without strong familial links among citizens (Salmon, 2001).

To improve day care, a public policy could reduce the number of babies and children that each caregiver has to care for, so they have better relationships with the caregivers (Salmon, 2001). To create incentives for caregivers to provide intimate care and stay with their jobs for longer periods of time, the caregivers’ wages must be improved. The caregivers have the critical responsibility of nurturing children, yet they are paid extremely poorly (Salmon, 2001).
For families who can’t afford expensive child care because they are working just to get food on the table, we must have robust federal, state, and community-level programs that can subsidize the highest quality possible (Salmon, 2001).

If caregivers could be trained for their important work, they would feel better about their job, do a better job of acting towards children in developmentally appropriate ways and make a longer-term commitment to their profession. Policy could also provide appointments with caregivers and parents, so they develop relationships of trust as well.

The real struggle is to realize that properly caring for children will be neither easy nor cheap (Salmon, 2001). Among the large-scale changes that must be made if children’s and parents’ needs are to be met are the following (Salmon, 2001):

- Tax breaks and other governmental incentives to private companies that institute family-friendly policies.
- Education programs that fund the teaching of human development in our schools, beginning in grade school and extending through college.
- Improvements in the quality of day care through direct subsidies and other incentives.
- Welfare policy that factors in support of, and time for, mothers to care for their young children themselves.
- Funding to help communities take responsibility for providing every child with nurturing relationships – even children whose nuclear families may not be able to provide them.
- The real challenge is to recognize that properly caring for children will be neither easy nor cheap.

D. Negotiation of Roles and Responsibilities (The Self)

How does one negotiate her roles and responsibilities? She decides what she wants to be, what she wants to do, how much she wants to do, and how much time she wants to spend taking care of herself whether it be exercise or personal reflection time. In the past, women have negotiated their roles and responsibilities in varying degrees.

Superwoman

In the 1980’s, the trend for women in leadership positions with children was to be “superwoman.” The superwoman believed they could “do and have it all,” balancing a full-time career, engaging in child-bearing and rearing, maintaining a household, and being a loving and supportive wife, all while saving time for personal hobbies and friendships (Marshall, 2002). The superwoman was able to spend at least fifty hours a week working and succeeding in her profession and then return home to prepare meals, care for the children, and keep up with the household responsibilities (Deutsch, 1999).
This seemed like the natural solution since professional women are generally well-organized high-achievers. These qualities cause them to simply work harder when the pressure picks up at work and home, rather than set priorities or to accept a sub-par performance (Kaltreider, 1997). The “superwoman” conception failed to work because most women became burnt out. This type of reaction is called “reactive coping” and describes women who cope reactively by trying to meet everyone’s expectations. Rather than attempting to confront the stress source or alter the meaning of the stressful situation, these women simply try to schedule better, work harder, sleep less or use no conscious strategy at all. This strategy is not very effective in reducing the stress associated with balancing multiple roles (Smith, 2000).

Abandoning Superwoman

The next “solution” proposed was for a woman to happily retreat to the domestic world, living amid a spotless house and giving utmost care to her children (Deutsch, 1999). The second “solution” ignored the depression, low self-esteem and stress that often accompany the role of the at-home mom (Deutsch, 1999).

Opting out of a career is not a viable solution for everyone. Many individuals still find happiness and fulfillment at work, even when their jobs are physically and psychologically exhausting and harmful to their health (Zautra, 2003). Women enjoy a job because it offers time structure to each day, facilitates shared experiences with others outside the home, allows the individual to work towards a goal that transcends one’s own, gives a sense of personal identity and necessitates activity (Zautra, 2003).

The New Superwoman

Today, a new type of superwoman has emerged. Women who have been influential role models for other women often become exhausted by the extra time commitment and workload. Leading women are not only expected to do their job, but to do it in a way which assists and empowers other women. A great deal of women have been appointed to boards and senior levels of organizations with this task as an underlying and additional part of their job description. These extra pressures and commitments – to be ‘a good mother’ as well as leader; to empower others and put one’s own ambitions on hold; to advocate for all women – is part of the current type of superwoman (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001).

Another current trend that is contributing to the new type of superwoman is the number of hours that everyone, both men and women, are working is increasing year by year. For dual-career couples with kids under 18, the combined work hours have grown from 81 a week in 1977 to 91 in 2002 (www.families&work.org). Couples are spending more combined hours at work, and the proportion of families in which both parents work an extended workweek has increased. Moreover, employees are spending more unpaid hours using the Internet to work at home without cutting back on hours at the work site (Powell & Graves, 2003). Women still report that persistence is a way to succeed in their
interactions within their organization and with clients. Doggedness and commitment allow them to win through (Sinclair, 1998).

The irony in this situation is that successful women leaders often suggest that part of their success is due to the well-rounded lives they lead, which includes time for relaxation and renewal, family and interests outside the workplace. However, the realities of senior leadership positions do not always support the matching of espoused values with such activities (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001).

This new type of superwoman often experiences intense stress that can be deleterious to her health. High job demands fire up the cardiovascular system and send chemical messengers to the sympathetic nervous system (Zautra, 2003). Work-life conflict inevitability causes stress that needs to be negotiated. Women are now finding active ways to cope with stress such as exercise, yoga, personal reflection time and laughter (Sutton, 2000). Laughter is now a proven way to boost positive states (Zautra, 2003). Women must make conscious efforts to engage in behavior that decreases stress and promotes their health.

Traditionalists and Baby Boomers

The way an individual chooses to negotiate his/her roles and responsibilities is often correlated with the views of the generation in which s/he grew up. “Traditionalists” are the parents of Baby boomers. Traditionalists generally possess a “by the book” attitude, following rules and responsibilities rigidly (Bradford, Raines & Martin, 1992). They also reward dependability and loyalty.

Baby boomers are the children of the Traditionalists. They usually believe that the workplace should be friendly and warm and equality of opinion should exist. They also typically believe that all workers should be treated humanely and fairly, and interaction among people should be consensual and participatory (Bradford, Raines & Martin, 1992).

Creating a Changed World

Change in Attitudes as well as Policies

In all these types of work-life negotiations, a change in attitudes, not just policies, is needed. For example, negotiation within the family is not going to work if both partners are not wholeheartedly committed to change. Similarly, change is not going to happen if policies within government or the organization are not enforced.

Simply changing the policies in an organization is not sufficient; the attitudes within the organization must change as well. The organizational culture must be supportive and an environment where people feel comfortable taking advantage of work-life benefits. Many organizations consider themselves to be family-friendly, yet fail to create such a culture (Powell & Graves, 2003). Schein (1995) comments that often work-life practices only create surface-level changes. She suggests that even if employers may provide these policies, they are not necessarily family-friendly in their attitudes toward
using them and may maintain a corporate-convenient culture. That is, organizations tend to offer what is profitable for their company without considering the work-life interface. For example, an organization may provide flexible schedules but then schedule meetings in the early morning or late afternoon/evening (Friedman, DeGroot and Christensen, 1998). Other demands might include dinner meetings and the increasingly common breakfast meetings (Senge, 1990).

If the senior administrators do not use and adhere to the work-life policies themselves, the employees below them will be less apt to use the policies. Organizations tend to be run by workaholic senior management, most of whom are married to women who are not employed full time. They are often willing to forgo family activities and outside interests to work at their job (Powell & Graves, 2003). Therefore, senior management often send their employee the message, “Here is our fantastic selection of work-life programs. Is this a fabulous place to work or what? However, sign up for these programs at your own risk. Do not expect us to consider you for career advancement in the future unless you put this organization first” (Powell & Graves, 2003).

In particular, men are likely to avoid using work-life benefits if their organizational culture indicates that their career would suffer if they use them. When organizations offer paid leaves for parents with new babies, new fathers are much less likely to use this benefit than new mothers. Also, if men do use work-life programs, then they often attempt to disguise their participation in these programs. For example, although both men and women use flextime for family-related reasons, men are more likely to lead their coworkers and supervisors to believe that something else has motivated their change in schedule (Powell & Graves, 2003). This difference between male and female employees reflects a broader social norm around care giving, showing that greater expectations exist for women to be the caregiver than men (Friedman, DeGroot and Christensen, 1998).

**Leadership**

*Position Power and Influence*

Power can be defined as the capacity to produce effects on others. Influence is the change in a pinpointed person’s values, beliefs, behavior or attitude (French & Raven (1960). Influence tactics are often thought of as a person’s behavior which is aimed at changing another individual’s values, beliefs, or attitude.

French and Raven (1960) created a Taxonomy of Social Power. In it, they included: expert power, referent power, legitimate power, reward power and coercive power. Expert power is the ability to influence other individuals according to their own expertise, experience, skills or knowledge. Referent power is the ability to influence others according to interpersonal relationships. Legitimate power is the ability to influence others according to the authority of his/her position. Reward power is the ability to influence others according to his/her control over valued resources. Finally, coercive power is the ability to influence others through posing or exercising negative
consequences.

**Leadership Style: Transactional and Transformational Leadership**

Work-life negotiation for women leaders in higher education is essentially a form of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership focuses on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers (Northouse, 2004). Transactional leadership involves the trade of valued things. Transactional exchanges can occur between a variety of people; for example, parent and child, wife and partner, leader and employees, or leader and employers.

Burns's 1978 best-selling book on political leadership contrasts transforming leadership with transactional leadership. He explains that transforming leadership appeals to the values of leaders and works to address large societal issues. Transforming leadership applies to the societal and policy level of work-life negotiation. Transforming leaders in this area work towards alterations in government policy and social reform, promoting the values of justice and equality.

Bass's concept of transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms individuals. It involves an exceptional leader who moves followers to accomplish more than what is typically expected of them or more than they originally intended (Northouse, 2004). Transformational leadership can occur on a one-to-one level or can occur in an entire organization (Northouse, 2004). Transformational leadership can work to make organizations and employees more family-friendly towards work-life issues.

Bass & Avolio (1994) contend that transformational leader motivates and influence others through four ways:

- **Idealized Influence** – Behavior that arouses strong follower emotions and identification with the leader
- **Intellectual Stimulation** – Behavior that increases follower awareness of problems and influences followers to view problems from a new perspective
- **Individualized Consideration** – Includes providing support, encouragement, and coaching followers (e.g. mentoring)
- **Inspirational Motivation** – Includes communicating an appealing vision, using symbols to focus subordinate effort, and modeling appropriate behaviors (i.e. this is a type of charisma)

**III. Methodology:**

*Method of Data Collection*
This study uses a narrative and qualitative inquiry interview method to collect data and explore how the women negotiate their roles as both higher education leaders and mothers. Qualitative interviews cover only a few topics, but cover them in depth (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). A narrative inquiry method supplies accounts that demonstrate some scheme for organizing, categorizing and comprehending the relations of objects and events described (Grubium & Holstein, 1997). This narrative method implies that lives are “storied” in one way or another (Grubium & Holstein, 1997). Narration embodies the relation between narrator and culture, which is a way of bridging hows and whats (Chase, 1995). If one can identify what the culture wants and needs, s/he can better facilitate change in these areas. Polkinghorne (1988) highlights narrative as a principle means of understanding because it links actions and events into an understandable composite. Since this study aimed to understand the lives that women leaders lead, a narrative qualitative, narrative inquiry method was appropriate in order to gain a deep understanding of their perspectives.

I used a tape recorder to retain the interviews in an accurate form. Research participants often like being recorded because they perceive tape-recording as a reliable way to get their message accurately (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). I also took notes in addition to the taping. I took this precaution in case my tape recorder malfunctioned.

Additionally, I strategically spaced the interviews. I allowed ample time between each interview to refresh myself and reflect on what was just said in order to enhance my future interviews (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

Research Questions

The following research questions and related questions drove my study:

Women with children have broken through the “glass ceiling” to positions of leadership in higher education, but at what cost?

- What challenges do women leaders with children experience in higher education administration?

- What strategies do women leaders use in their negotiation with their families and organizations as well as with their own roles and responsibilities.

- What styles of leadership make it possible for women leaders in higher education with children to negotiate work-life issues?

Beyond strategies used by individual women leaders, “How can we restructure work in a society in which work and family no longer are separate, but interface?” (Schein, 1995, p. 165)
• What can leaders in organizations and public policy do to help these women with work-life challenges?

**Interview Protocol and Participants**

An interview protocol is the type of conversational guide that was used for the interviews and is attached in Appendix A. An interview protocol is the most elaborate type of conversational guide because all main questions appear on it. The instrument is adapted from Sara Marshall’s dissertation (2002) entitled *Women Higher Education Administrators with Children: Negotiating Personal and Professional Lives*. I added two questions of my own at the end of the protocol to better address the leadership and public policy components that help drive my research. This interview guide is flexible and was slightly adapted to each interview. The interview guide offers a framework from which to work, so that the same type of material is covered in each interview. The protocol’s questions cover my main subjects, and each question subtly flows into the next question. The probes skillfully clarified and completed the main questions. In the interviews, I then asked follow-up questions to gain even more depth.

I asked open-ended questions to encourage participants to tell narratives. The first question was especially open-ended to encourage an informal chat; I asked about their career path. Since I was eventually asking about the private sphere of their lives, I wanted to gradually progress into this private realm. At the conclusion of the interview, I asked questions like, “Is there anything you would like to share that I did not cover?” to put closure to the interview; I did not want to leave them hanging once they had opened up and spoke about their private family lives with me.

Interviews were conducted primarily in person, but three interviews were conducted over the telephone. Interviews lasted between 40 and 90 minutes and were tape recorded (See Appendix B for informed consent). Prior to each interview, I e-mailed a list of preliminary interview questions and a copy of the consent form to participants. The tape recordings of the interviews were then transcribed.

I contacted senior administrators at colleges and universities to introduce my study and ask for nominations of higher education women leaders with children. I asked them for women who fit the sampling criteria and whom they thought would provide valuable perspectives to the study. The nominated administrators were then contacted via e-mail to request their participation. At the end of the interviews, I also asked the participants for additional nominations. Thus, I used a snow-ball sampling method.

**Limitations**

Some limitations to this study exist. The sample size of this investigation was small (10 people), so the study should be used with caution if applying to wider audiences. Also, as a single, upper middle class woman without children, I may not fully comprehend the complexity of the participants’ experiences. Additionally, some of the
interviews were shorter than I would have liked because participants had unexpected conflicts in their schedules. Therefore, I did not get the full richness and depth of their stories. Additionally, the telephone interviews were less detailed than the face-to-face interviews. In phone interviews, many conversational cues are absent, which makes telephone interviews very difficult (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). Face-to-face interaction seems to provide a better setting for trust and mutual respect to develop. Perhaps I should have altered the interview structure more to adapt to the phone communication. For example, I should have made an effort to only communicate with the interviewee by phone beforehand to establish a relationship prior to the interview.

“Expert” or “commonplace error” may have occurred during some of the interviews; I may have assumed that the interviewee knew more about work-life issues than she actually did. Also, I may have been too “primary question oriented”; that is, perhaps I was too concerned with asking the specific questions on my interview protocol, so I did not probe responses that may have needed additional questioning. In being concerned with the primary questions on my interview protocol, I may have also succumbed to the pitfall of “initial-response satisfaction” by accepting an interviewee’s initial response as an accurate and complete reflection of the interviewee’s attitude and opinion. I know I was not very tolerant of silence either and fell prey to “silence strain.” I could have been better at allowing silence as a probing technique to elicit more detail from the interviewee (Gordon, 1980).

The interviewee may have filled the silence by continuing and modifying or adding to what they just said. Finally, I only met with each of these women once, and the best interviews are typically over several separate encounters (Rubin & Rubin, 1995).

IV. Presentation of the Data

Ten participants were in the study. I contacted more than ten participants, but some were unable to participate in the study due to schedule conflicts. All participants are female higher education (colleges and universities) administrators who have children. Seven different universities are represented in this study from three different states (two Mid-Atlantic states and one Western state). All the participants hold leadership positions; they are in the senior management of their higher education institution. All women have had at least one school-age child while in their current position. I included women administrators from both public and private universities. All participants work full-time and have a salary. Their ages ranged from 35 to 67 years old, with the majority of women in their late forties or early fifties. All women were married except for one, although two women were on their second marriage. Each woman had at least two years experience in a senior management leadership position.

A. Negotiation with Family

Strategies

Strategy 1: Planned Births
Planning births is a strategy used and recommended by six of these women. Without children, they agreed, it’s easier to advance in one’s field. Three individuals recommended having children later in life. One individual in particular advised others, “Do what you can for your career now and really think about when you would like to have children.” Nevertheless, three others see significant drawbacks in having children later: “It’s much harder physically and mentally to handle the children when you’re older. So you kind of struggle with, do I spend my early years advancing my career as far as I can and not having kids or do I try to do both at the same time?”

Seven participants indicated that planning births is an arduous strategy to successfully employ. More often than not, these women found complexities in planning their children. These difficulties emerged as one of the most consistent themes throughout the interviews. Again and again I heard statements like, “I think people sometimes think I’ll get married and then I’m just going to get pregnant. That’s not how it works.” Or, “One of the shocks of reality is that biology is not always subject to the calendar.” Three women mentioned trying to conceive for four or more years without success. Another woman became pregnant before she was married. A few of the younger women used fertility drugs, but that caused its own set of problems.

The prevalence of these problems was underscored when one woman uttered, “Out of my close friends, the seven of us, only two of us have really not had issues around having children and the other five have had huge difficulties in having children.”

Eight of them attempted to plan, but the strategic process rarely worked out. Two of the women started their doctoral work because they thought they were unable to have more children, but as soon as they got into their work, they became pregnant.

Planning children is a joint process with one’s partner. One traditionalist woman stated that her husband was upset when she announced she was pregnant because he had not taken his oral examinations yet. She simply replied with, “How-do-you-do, okay. You know, you participated in this.”

Strategy 2: Child care

Finding the right day care was emphasized as an important concern by over half of the women. The right day care is a facility that is close to one’s home, staffed by trustworthy employees and a place at which the children enjoy spending time. One woman described how she evaluated the employees: “I would try figuring out why they were sitting and what was motivating them about all of this...basically, trying to identify people who basically cared for children.” At least three women spoke to the enormous expense of day care. A woman who currently has her kids in day care in the Northeast pays $24,000 a year.

Only two of the ten women had an on-campus day care when their kids were young. She conveyed that the day care was “wonderful because [she] would be able to go
over at lunchtime and be with Matt and Paul\(^1\). [They] would take a walk on the campus, so it was just ideal that they were there.” The other person who spoke of an on-campus day care had a negative experience. This day care was both for people who worked at the university as well as for people in the neighborhood that needed child care. She expressed her dislike for the day care with the following anecdote. This conversation took place after her son, Tony, started a new day care because of the poor quality of the university one:

The classic was after Tony’s first day of his new day care, we’re leaving and I said, ‘Well, how did you like it?’ and he said, ‘Yeah, it was great, the kids don’t hit me here!’ So of course I’m thinking, ‘Oh, God, what have I done to him?

Over half of the administrators had something to say about the topic of on-site childcare in universities. Many spoke against it:

It was all the rage to do on-site childcare as an employee benefit in the 80’s. Didn’t work. Lots of liability and the problem is, if you can get your kid in, you get this great benefit if it’s well-run; if you don’t, you don’t get anything and the employees who don’t have children or whose children are grown are irritated. We don’t have one here and I don’t intend to establish one.

Another woman had a similar opinion, but spoke more about the expense of operating on-site day care:

Day care facilities are enormously expensive to run. It’s everything. It’s the paid employees. It’s the hours you have to do. It’s the facility of which you have to take care. It’s a very expensive enterprise. Generally speaking, you’ve got to be prepared to lose money.

Five women expressed how they thought babysitters are a more dependable source of child care. Among the interviewees, babysitters were generally used more frequently once the children were in school. Those who spoke about babysitters seemed to have similar thoughts and opinions toward them. Children also seemed more pleased with babysitters because they allow for less formalized care than day care or after-school programs.

Working at universities, three women mentioned the readily available source of students to babysit. However, a downside also exists to hiring university students:

The problem was that nobody ever stayed around for a couple of years. Their schedules change. They have class at

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\(^1\) Names are changed throughout text to ensure confidentiality of participants and their families.
4 p.m. so that’s not going to work and one guy was a basketball player so seasonality became an issue...You just have to be flexible.

For those who had older children, another struggle surrounding babysitters was when to stop having them come. One mother expressed, “There were those tenuous years where you don’t know whether they’re old enough to be home on their own when they come home from school...It was a huge worry being at work and knowing they were home.”

Extended family, friends, and co-workers such as secretaries/assistants (not paid outside of work hours) were named by nine people as the best source of care. Extended family was rarely close by for most of these women, but for those who had nearby family, it helped tremendously: “Without my dad pitching in I’m not sure how it all would’ve worked out because in a crunch, I could depend on him being there. After school, my dad would pick Sam up and walk to a museum or library, which made a world of difference.”

Secretaries/Assistants were most often mentioned as the most supportive co-workers. One administrator said, “I have my secretary who’s very close with the children and does a whole heck of a lot after work for me.” Another explained that she and her assistant have children of similar ages: “We kind of had this whole family and we both had children who were growing up at the same time.”

**Strategy 3: Supportive Relationship with Spouse/Partner**

Varying degrees of support from spouses/partners were reported. While the majority of spouses seemed supportive of the woman’s job, one woman’s ex-husband admitted to her at the end of the relationship that “her success has compromised my success, and I did everything I could to undermine her confidence.”

About half of the women shared household responsibilities with their husbands and about half did not. For those women that did not receive household help from their spouses, they expressed frustration. One woman exclaimed,

> Just sharing the responsibilities is helpful. Getting home and instead of sitting in front of the television and saying, ‘I’m tired. I’m tired.’ We have the same kind of job. He should contribute. I would like him to help me with the kids, putting them to bed without me having to ask him to do it.

Ensuring that responsibilities are shared while maintaining a loving relationship takes effort. This type of statement was repeated by over half the women. An interviewee advised,
One of the messages I try to bring to other women especially those who have or want a partner is that you need to work at loving your other and what you can’t do is to forget that component of your life is also important. You have to develop the other person and along with that is making sure that as a woman leader you take care of yourself.

Another woman shared how she and her husband lost the love in their relationship for awhile when she felt like she was supervising all the household activities and chores: “‘Thank you’ and ‘I love you’ had just kind of fallen away because we were so stressed out and busy.” One woman who engaged in a long-term commuter marriage suggested that partners consciously make “dates and go out, just the two of [them]. It works well to reconnect, just unwind and de-stress.”

B. Negotiation with Organization

*Flexibility in Higher Education Administration*

At least four of the women articulated that the degree of flexibility in higher education leadership positions depends on the type of position that the woman holds. A Dean of Continuing Studies further explains this point: “If it’s student affairs or student counseling or anything in that area, I think flexibility would be very challenging.” For example, a Dean of Students has to drop everything if a student is about to commit suicide.

Another woman stressed that flexibility varies greatly depending on the university. She urged women to “Find an institution that works for you and your status in life because some universities are more supportive than others.” She once worked at a university that “didn’t cut [her] any slack – Meetings started at 6:30 am in the morning.”

Six women spoke in more general terms, expressing their belief that higher education administration is much more flexible than the corporate world. One woman proclaims her stance on this issue:

I would say that the pace of the University life makes it a much more accommodating place for having a family than the corporate world. The corporate world is not half as flexible as this field. I find it interesting that people talk about, oh, the place of higher ed and oh, it’s such a problem and it’s glacial. Really, in my view, there’s no excuse in a university environment for people having difficulties raising a family.
However, while over half of the women believe that higher education is more accommodating than the corporate world, they still see the need for significant change within Universities surrounding work-life issues, unlike the woman quoted above.

Individuals also had differing opinions about whether senior level administrators receive more flexibility than others in terms of work-life negotiation. One woman expressed, “Now, the higher up you go in administration, the harder it becomes to manage it all.” Another thought that leadership positions give you the flexibility to manage your own hours even more.

Supportive University Policies and Supportive Supervisors

Flextime seems to be the most widely used friendly company policy towards work-life issues in the companies of the participants. An example of flextime that one administrator’s employee uses to ensure a full-time schedule, yet have some flexibility, is a schedule that includes nine days working longer days and then a day off every other Friday. Four women mentioned they work in an organization that uses flextime. However, none of the women I interviewed use flextime.

Five of the interviewees allow for a more informal flextime schedule for their employees. For example, one boss recognized that the interviewee was working extra hours on weekends and at night, so she told her to just keep track of her hours “at some point you can, if you need a couple hours or you need to take the morning off, use those instead of taking your official time.” Nevertheless, the interviewee did not take advantage of this offer of informal flextime.

One woman spoke of a program at her university in which they hire a company to assist their employees with work-life issues: “If you’re having a crisis or you need help with your parents or your kids or whatever, they hired a company that can get you the resources you need.” For example, she continues, “If I needed day care I could go to these folks and tell them information about my kids, and then they would give me background research and give me a list.” Additionally, this company offers counseling.

Public universities, because they are under state regulation, offer less family-friendly policies. When asked about the possibility of job-splitting or job sharing, one administrator said that “Job splitting is feasible, but you’d have to document it pretty rigidly.” She also mentioned that telecommuting is very uncommon: “It would almost be unheard of for there to be a full-time employee who is spending substantial amounts of time at his/her home.”

All the respondents indicated that supervisors who were supportive of family issues make an enormous difference in their contentment on the job since the “supervisor sets the tone.” One woman explains the influence of a supervisor on one’s happiness at work:

If s/he is not supportive, it can just make your life miserable because if your son or daughter gets sick and you
need to leave, they can’t stop you. But if they don’t support you, it can be detrimental to you professionally, but it can also make you sick to your stomach. You hate your work, and you hate going to work.

Three of the women stated that if the boss has children himself/herself, s/he tends to be more supportive. One woman even got her current senior level position when she was eight months pregnant. When she asked her boss about it, he said, “It doesn’t matter. Once you have the baby, we can re-configure things.”

While the majority of the women had supportive bosses in the past, two had unsupportive ones. One woman who had a disabled child had to get up with her son every morning at 5:00 a.m. for therapy because of an unsupportive boss. She further describes his actions:

Oh, if I would come in five minutes late or anything, which wasn’t often, he’d say, well, you need to take your lunch hour and make up that time and that kind of stuff. He had no clue the pressure he put on me. If he had agreed to let me take Nancy during maybe 8:00 or 9:00 a.m. then I could just use my lunch hour, but he wouldn’t let me do that. He made me do it early in the morning.

The other unsupportive boss did not allow the interviewee to stay home from work when the kids were sick or go on the occasional field trip with her children.

Change – What to Do

Two of the women spoke about the difficulty and slowness of change within university life, commenting, “Higher ed you think would be on the progressive end of change in work-life policies. They’re not.” In order to make change, interviewees had several suggestions. “Demanding it” were the words of more than a couple women: “I think what needs to happen is that people rising up into positions of power need to demand it.” Another underscored that “We’ve got to get on the bandwagon. We’ve got to push it. We’ve got to get in there and start demanding that HR offices, professors, provosts and other people in key positions are educated on what we need to do to retain women and why we need to retain them.”

The other common thread in six of the interviewees’ suggestions was the need for men to strive for change: “Men are key to the picture because we need men to start saying this as well as women.” Additionally, six women thought we need to consider men when considering work-life issues. An interviewee stated, “What we need to be doing as an institution and an employer is looking at family-friendly policies, not assuming that it’s all the mother’s responsibility.”

III. Negotiation for Social and Policy Change
Lack of Knowledge about Policies

Four respondents indicated that there is a lack of knowledge about the current work-life policies in their organizations and society. Ambiguous responses to their questions about work-life policies resulted in statements such as, “whatever you get, two months or whatever” and “I’m not exactly sure what they are” were used when describing the specifics of the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA). They know if their institutions use the “standard maternity policy,” but they do not know what it involves.

More Public Policy Needed?

Much dissension exists among interviewees around whether or not men and women should receive more time and support than the FMLA requires. Three respondents were against additional policies. One traditionalist woman articulated, I don’t think you can dictate everything through public policy. I believe that so much of this is personal and what we have right now is tremendous, tremendous governmental intrusion in the lives of Americans. It’s huge.

Four others, mostly younger women, specifically and strongly advocated more public policy surrounding work-life issues and believe getting women involved in politics is critical:

I think the more women we get involved in regional, local and national politics and get more women elected to those kinds of positions – that’s what’s going to help us. Laws will change things. It needs to be a constant effort, and we all have to buy into it and that’s tough because some people just say, well, I don’t really want to get involved with it.

Male Attitudinal Changes

All ten of the women in this study see some progress in males’ behavior surrounding housework chores, child care and overall responsibility for family issues. However, the change is slow: “I think more and more men are taking more and more responsibility in terms of everyday chores, but quite honestly, I think change will occur in baby steps.”

Rather than assessing the present as positive, the majority of the women looked to the future as more encouraging. Most of women’s spouses “don’t understand what it can be like to get kids ready in the morning for school and then come and face a job that’s very demanding because their lives have just not been that way.” However, they look to younger women’s lives and see change in the nature of marriages: “I see these younger people that I’ve hired that are newly married, and they have a 50/50 kind of deal.”
D. Negotiation of Roles and Responsibilities (The Self)

*Superwoman Leaders – Can they do it All and Have it All?*

Four of the women actually like to “do it all” because they think it’s possible. A woman directly stated, “I think you can basically have it all. I think I have had it all.” Another interviewee stated, “I still at this stage in my life do everything...It’s not unusual for me to go home at lunchtime and throw in a couple of loads of wash, mop and dust the furniture.” Often, even when these women were given the opportunity to take time off or leave early from work, they refused.

Three of them worked up until the day they had their children and returned just one or two weeks after the birth of their children. One woman articulated, “I was doing email the morning I was induced with him at noon and then “I came in the week after [Jose] child was born and signed papers and purchase orders.” Another woman had a commuter marriage for 21 years. During this commuter marriage, she was juggling kids, a dissertation and a job. She would teach her class and then drive four and a half hours to take a night class. She would spend the night and then leave at 4 a.m. to get back for a 9:30 a.m. class: “I had to teach the next day, so it was very very difficult.” In the ten years she had this routine, she never once had a substitute.

These women went to great measures to make their career and family work. The two women I interviewed who were traditionalists were especially hard workers. One described her generation as having a “workhorse” work ethic: “I’m just a pluggier. I work hard and long and it’s helped me to make the transitions to different levels.” Another traditionalist woman admitted, “I don’t know that every woman would have done what I did. I don’t know. I just don’t know. In retrospect, it’s a lot of work. And you have to really really want it.” A couple of women reflected back on their hectic lives when the kids were younger, and they cannot believe they endured the chaos, but somehow they “just rose to the occasion.”

Three other women described “having it all” and “doing it all” as nearly impossible. These women consistently mentioned the difficulty of negotiating work-life issues. One administrator, when asked how she does it all, she simply said, “Well, it’s hard.” Some of these women struggle with saying “no” to something at work because of something at home. One administrator explained that “No matter how much you love the kids, you’re conflicted because you’ve worked so hard to get to this point.”

The common thread of exhaustion ran through the comments of about seven of the women. A president stated,

> It’s exhausting. And I can tell you it’s exhausting, because when you are the president, your every living, breathing, walking moment is spent thinking about the organization, how to make it better, how do I make it improve, how do I secure its future?
This same woman described being a mother as exhausting as well: “You juggle the schedule. You’re running here and there. You’re frantic about making it in time for the person to go home or for you to pick up the child or whatever...It’s a little bit kooky.” Yet another person admitted that she was “fatigued all the time.”

*Outsourcing, Streamlining and Relaxing*

One way six of these women negotiate these issues with themselves is by outsourcing certain chores and tasks. One woman labeled “outsourcing” as her primary strategy. She says people laugh when she describes her entire life as “outsourced,” but it is true. If she does not outsource, she gets sick in the process of trying to do everything. She utters,

I had to hire somebody to come and clean the house and I had to just recently send out the laundry because that’s the reality of my life...I’ve outsourced all these other things so that when I’m home, I’m playing with the kids and I’m not cleaning the house or doing the laundry. I mean, last night Jackie and I spent a half hour blowing bubbles before she went to bed.

This same woman even attempted to streamline her life by getting a very short hair cut. She explained to the hairdresser, “I used to have long hair. I said without shaving it, how short can I go?” Yet another woman joked about the topic of outsourcing, saying she agrees with what one C.E.O. said about it: “You know how they say it takes a village, well, I just buy the village!”

Having a cleaning person was noted by four women as making a significant difference in the administrator’s wellbeing: “The day the maid comes I’m in the best mood. I mean, it’s crazy. It makes my day because things are orderly. Maybe I like it so much because everything else seems in disorder.”

Outsourcing contributes to more leisure time. Only one interviewee addressed having personal time alone to herself. She talked about every week booking something that is fun for herself. Spending time alone takes deliberate planning: “When you’re a parent, you’re never alone. You have to try to build in that alone time. Sometimes it’s just a short half hour of sitting calmly and listening to music.” She encourages others to:

Have some kind of leisure activity that whether its writing poetry or painting or dancing or walking or some kind of hobby. As people get up to retirement, most satisfaction studies about people and leisure say if you have a hobby outside your work environment just for yourself, you will be more satisfied. Often, those interests turn into real second careers.
Four women mentioned exercise as a time to relax and refresh. One woman walks every day with another person in her office. Another person frequents the university gym as a way to release tension and interact with the students in a social setting.

One president affirmed,

You have to make sure that as a woman leader you take care of yourself. Nobody’s going to take care of you unless you take care of yourself, so driving yourself into the ground, exhausting yourself, not exercising enough and not dancing once in a while, denying all the stuff that makes you human is wrong.

Guilt

For about half of the women, guilt is a factor with which they have to deal:

You may feel a little bit of guilt because you may not be able to be at every field hockey game, soccer game or lacrosse game. You may not see the first of different things, and you also have to learn to deal with what other people might be saying because I think there’s still a stigma – Johnny is misbehaving because his mom isn’t home and works all day.

However, the other half of women experience very little guilt: “Frustrated, yes. Guilty, no.” One woman stated that because she feels the work she is doing is important and talks to her kids about it, she does not feel guilty. Another woman made the point that if you feel guilty, it is not worth being at work. She sees that “with some women, when they’re at work, they wish they were at home, and when they’re at home, they feel guilty about not being at work.” She describes this as a “self-destructing” cycle.

Creating a Strong Network of Support

Four women advocated finding a strong network of support to help themselves logistically and emotionally. One woman deemed this the best piece of advice she could give and particularly highlighted female friendships as paramount: “The best piece of advice I can give you is create a strong network of women with whom you can work. I mean, no matter who you meet, for instance, you could call me next week and I would be willing to give you whatever you needed.”

Another woman called these people “significant other people”:

To help you and your children grow and prosper in society, you need to find significant other people in your life. It doesn’t matter who they are but you’ve got to find
somebody that loves your children just as much as you love your children. One significant other I found was this neighbor lady who sort of acted as a surrogate grandmother.

One traditionalist woman spoke of a supportive and influential professor that was especially meaningful to her. This professor had children and taught a Strategy class in graduate school and was highly successful in her career. She is now at the London School of Economics, but when she taught this interviewee, she brought in maternity clothes for her one day. At this time, the interviewee was one of the few women in the class and certainly the only pregnant one. By doing this gesture, “in her own way, she was signaling, you know good for you, you can do it, and I did.”

E. Leadership, Power and Influence

Empathy and Influence

Over half the women make a conscious effort to influence their co-workers in some way. When asked about influencing others, the majority of women expressed that they influence by offering flexibility in schedules to their employees. One woman uttered that if a child is sick, “You have to go. You have to be with your child.” She explained that she is able to do this because the employees work hard when they are at work, so when an emergency happens, “I don’t even think about it. I just let them go.” In fact, she contributes much of her success as a Dean to her handling of work-life issues.

Two women mentioned having lengthy discussions with their employees before the employees go on family leave. When an employee told a Dean I interviewed that she would be back in six weeks, the Dean replied, “Okay, if you want, you can come back, but let me tell you that psychologically and physically you may not really want to come back after six weeks. You’re welcome to take three months if you’d like.” This same woman articulated,

I want my employees to have the flexibility to make those decisions about family leave and then we’ll figure it out as an organization. But having said that, I’ll also say that I can’t have people who are here and don’t really want to be here. In other words, if they say, okay, I want to work half-time, that’s great, but then I want them working half-time. I don’t want them working 10 hours a week. I have an obligation as the Dean of this organization that people are going to work hard.

However, state leaders have less influence over their employees in terms of flexibility surrounding work-life issues. An interviewee at a public university stated, “We aren’t free to do whatever we want here. A state agency says that you begin your work day at 8:15 in the morning and you conclude at 5pm and you have 45 minutes for lunch if
you are a classified employee.” In other words, they cannot tell employees to go home if they have a work-life dilemma. She continues,

At a public university, once you open up the Pandora’s Box for flexibility for anyone, it’s for Suzy, it’s for Jane, it’s for Tom, it’s for Bill, and it’s very difficult on a person-by-person basis to make those decisions without it having an impact on your other employees.

Four women leaders described their ability to influence students within the University as important to their leadership and to their goals. One woman identified influencing students as her biggest reward:

The biggest reward is interacting with people and hoping that you will impact them in a positive way. Students are coming during some pretty pivotal years as it relates to their development. The hope is that I can support them in developing into the person they will ultimately become. Hence, you see candy and Kleenex in my office dependent on what their needs are. Sometimes it’s not about candy or Kleenex at all. It’s about a long conversation on a Friday evening when a student is betwixt and between in terms of “What do I want to do with the rest of my life?”

Four women used the word “role model” to illustrate their ideal function in the students’ and co-workers’ lives. A Dean of Continuing Studies said that “Leadership is about caring enough about other individuals to get them to advance to the next level and reach their potential.” Through this leadership role she plays, she serves as a role model. A Dean of Students I interviewed consistently strives to be a positive role model for work-life integration. She stated, “Increasingly the students coming out of college really do say I don’t want to completely segregate my personal life from my professional life, and they like to see role models.” Her aim is to promote what she wants for her own students, and that is high quality work-life negotiation.

Two of these women mentioned that their way of influencing students is by involving their spouse and children in the “university family.” One Dean also encourages her male co-workers to bring their children to events on campus. She believes it is important for male students to have a positive male role model too.

**Leadership Style and Position Power**

Three women discussed wanting to become leaders because they wanted to put their “female leadership style” and management theory into practice. A President elaborates, “I wanted to help run an organization that was truly a team where everyone who sat there helped with decision making, where we were in support of each other, where just respect and honesty and dignity and integrity were a central core part of the organization.”
Being the president seems to be the aspirant goal for a few individuals who were not already presidents. "The presidency," one woman explained, "gives you the ability to frame the organization and to apply a set of principles that you’re hoping will work. When you’re the president, you don’t have to report to anyone." While one can impact great change at most senior level administrative positions, one can impact the most change as President. One Dean of Continuing Studies desires to be President because she "wants to be able to create a system at college that is conducive to women, to employees in general where you’re productive and you’re not stifled and stymied by traditional work-life issues."

Seven of them explained that they wanted to become leaders within higher education because they love “serving students” and “doing good.” A president claimed, “Being the President is the best job on earth. It’s a gift.”

In many ways, the leaders interviewed found that being a parent makes you a better leader and conversely, being a leader makes you a better parent. Just as some women wished to be a role model for their students, four of the leaders talked about wanting to act as a role model for their children: “Part of wanting to be successful in my career is because I want them to be able to be successful in their life, and so I tell them every night when we say our prayers that Mommy works hard so that it’s easier for you in the long run.” Similarly, another woman articulated, “I love that Katherine sees me in this job and interacting with students and watches me as a professional because I think it gives her a sense of her possibilities.”

One woman expressed how often leaders make parental analogies, and not just women leaders. She used the following examples:

Just because you order somebody to do something doesn’t mean they’re going to do it. You learn your essential powerlessness over other people, that every person is different and your children aren’t little replicas of yourself and your employees aren’t going to be little replicas of yourself, so I think you learn patience and to understand peoples’ points of views.

Two women also mentioned how people are more open to conversing with you if they know you are a mother, which can be a strategic leadership tool. A President stated, “Being a parent does matter. It’s very interesting. Your staff will say things to you and confide in you and depend upon you in ways that would be different if you were not a mother.”

More than half the women believe they would not be as effective a parent if they did not hold a satisfying career as a leader. One woman affirmed, “I’m realizing that I do the work I do because I’m good at my work and that makes my children’s lives all the
much easier because I’m fulfilled. I’m very fulfilled in my job.” A Dean of Students stated her beliefs on her job:

My job makes me happier and makes me a better mom because when there’s a lot of tension and I’m not happy, that can translate into unhappiness in my home. I think what makes me a good mom is that I’m happy in my professional life.

V. Analysis and Interpretation

A. Negotiation with Family

Strategies

Strategy 1: Planned Births

Like the current literature suggests, the interviewees expressed that planning births is a clear strategy. However, the interviewees’ comments slightly diverged from the literature in stating when to plan births. The body of literature explains that if women give birth to children later in life, work-life negotiation is ameliorated. While three women indicated they believed in such a statement, three others thought that having children later brought more physical and psychological strain.

The literature states that in national fertility surveys, less-educated women have come closer to achieving their reproductive goals than better-educated women (The Alan Guttmacher Institute, 1996). The fertility surveys hold true in this study, considering that the women who communicated difficulty planning births all had Ph.D’s.

Strategy 2: Child Care

The literature and interviewees concur that a secure day care (trustworthy employees) as well as a place that stimulates children’s growth are imperative qualities of the right day care. The women in this study also added that proximity to their home is a critical component to a day care. This is a logistical, realistic and important reflection that the literature does not suggest. Proximity may seem trivial, but it makes a paramount difference in the lives of the respondents. Perhaps the literature needs to heed a more realistic standpoint when considering the selection of day care.

While research shows that on-site child care has tremendously positive effects on various aspects of an organization such as morale and membership behavior (Kossek & Nichol, 1992), only two women had the luxury of an on-campus day care when their kids were young. Of these two women, only one had a positive experience with it. Several women spoke against it. The literature seems to depict on-site child care as more positive than it is in the interviewee’s perception of reality. The enormous expense and liability to the university surfaced as the primary problems with on-site child care.
The literature gives little attention to babysitters even though they seem to be the most common and dependable source of child care. Since babysitters are a less formalized type of day care, they may require transactional leadership to successfully work. For example, many interviewees use students at their university as babysitters, and students typically have hectic and changing schedules. The woman who talked about students’ hectic schedules indirectly spoke to the necessity of transactional leadership in negotiating babysitters: “Their schedules change. They have a class at 4:00 p.m., so that’s not going to work. One guy was a basketball player so seasonality became an issue.” These women leaders must focus on exchanges to make their schedules compatible with their babysitters’ schedules. This transactional leadership between the women (leaders) and the babysitters (followers) happens frequently and continuously, which speaks to the prevalence of transactional leadership in general. Transactional leadership refers to the bulk of leadership models since it deals with the “daily stuff” (Burns, 1978).

The best source of day care, according to the interviewees, infrequently appears in the current body of literature: extended family, friends and co-workers (such as secretaries/assistants). Women leaders should be cautious about using co-workers for ethical reasons. The women leaders have positions of power and influence that impact the employees that report to them. The co-workers may not want to babysit, but do anyway because of the leader’s power and influence.

Surprisingly, the interviewees hardly mentioned the instrumental and emotional support from friends even though they mentioned experiencing it with extended family and co-workers. Perhaps these women do not have time for friendships outside of work and family.

**Strategy 3: Supportive Relationship with Spouse/Partner**

Having a supportive relationship with your spouse/partner is a productive strategy that appears unchallenged in both the interviews and literature. Achieving this supportive relationship where the two individuals are in love and share in the work-life negotiation is more challenging. Only half the women interviewees felt like they have achieved this type of relationship.

Although this study identifies the woman as leader in the workplace, her role changes to “partner” at home. The partners are inextricably bound together and constantly influence one another. In relationships, since “leader” and “follower” are simply roles, both individuals play the leader or follower depending on the circumstances. Kelley (1988) suggests that even at different times of the day, leaders play both roles. Kelly further explains that instead of seeing the leadership role as more active and above the follower role, one should think of the two roles as equal but different activities.

Though family relationships are not the same as leader-follower relationships in the workplace, transactional and transformational leadership theories are still useful. Striving for a healthy, loving relationship requires both transactional and transformational leadership.
Bass (1985) explains that transformational and transactional leadership are distinct but not mutually exclusive processes.

The couple engages in transactional leadership when negotiating schedules as well as daily household labor and child care. This transactional leadership is necessary, but is an exchange process and does not generate a great deal of enthusiasm (Yuki, 2002). An appreciation and recognition for the transactional leadership each partner uses seems to be highly important. When the woman feels like she is the only one using transactional leadership with individuals such as babysitters, personnel and schools, she feels resentful. For example, one woman expressed, "Just sharing the responsibilities is helpful... He should contribute. I would like him to help me with the kids, putting them to bed without me having to ask him to do it." This Dean wants her husband to increase his transactional leadership with individuals such as care providers and also with the kids.

Keeping love in your partnership necessitates transformational leadership. Transformational leadership texts typically do not use the world "love," yet the description of transformational leadership describes many characteristics of love. Transformational leadership is concerned with "emotions, values, ethics, standards and long-term goals, and includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings" (Northouse, 2004, 169), which are also elements of a healthy, loving relationship. Partners also engage in a "connection that raises the level of motivation and morality in both the leader and the follower," which is also arguably a goal of a partnership (Northouse, 2004, 170). A Dean of Continuing Studies spoke of these connections between love and transformational leadership, emphasizing the effort that needs to be put into it:

One of the messages I try to bring to other women especially those who have or want a partner is that you need to work at loving your other and what you can’t do is to forget that component of your life is also important. You have to develop the other person and along with that is making sure that as a woman, you take care of yourself!

Bass’s inspirational motivation thus works in a relationship and plays an important role when negotiating work-life issues. The women leaders must communicate high expectations to their partners, inspiring them through motivation to become committed to and a part of the shared vision of raising healthy and happy children while remaining happy and healthy themselves (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

Additionally, the women must use the transformational leadership factor of individualized consideration. By using this factor, the leaders will provide a supportive climate in which they listen carefully to the individual needs of followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It involves high levels of caring, supporting and listening. One woman spoke of the work she and her husband had to put into their relationship when support for each other had diminished. She articulated, “‘Thank you’ and ‘I love you’ had just kind of fallen away because we were so stressed out and busy.” One couple used individualized consideration by planning special dates and activities for just the two of them to foster the caring,
supporting and listening of one another. She talked about how these dates worked well to “reconnect, just unwind and de-stress.”

Power, as defined by French & Raven (1960), is the capacity to produce effects on others, and it manifests itself in partner relationships. The most common power type at work in romantic relationships is referent power, which is the ability to influence others based on partner relationships (French & Raven, 1960). A partnership is undoubtedly an interpersonal relationship that involves a high degree of influence on one another. If two individuals are in love with one another and respect each other, they clearly influence one another. For example, a partner may decide to sacrifice watching a basketball game with his friends because he loves his wife and wants to help her out with bathing the children.

B. Negotiation with Organization

Flexibility

A few women expressed that their high degree of flexibility stems from their senior-level leadership position. When these women spoke of their position, they were highlighting the legitimate power that their position offers. Being in senior-level administration, some feel that they possess the ability to influence others based on the authority vested in their position. For example, if they want to cancel a meeting with one of their assistants to finish a report, they can, because they have the legitimate power to do it.

Two other women felt differently. They thought that because senior-level administrators bear a lot of responsibility, they possess less flexibility. For example, they cannot just take a day off from work because their presence is required at numerous meetings and appointments.

This disagreement among the women about flexibility seems typical. Clearly, every job has more flexible aspects and less flexible aspects, and one’s opinion about flexibility depends on which aspects of flexibility they choose to focus. Perhaps this study should have been clearer about what “flexibility” entails to get a narrower spectrum of replies.

Over half of the women believed that higher education administration offers greater flexibility than the corporate world in terms of work-life negotiation. This flexibility should make transactional leadership (i.e. negotiating telecommuting between leader and follower) easier. One would think that leaders can better negotiate work-life programs if flexibility is a value to the organization.

Lack of knowledge about Policies

While the lack of use of work-life programs is found in the current literature, the lack of knowledge about the policies themselves is rarely identified in the body of literature. This study shows that the leaders themselves in higher education administration do not even know the policies. Four respondents were unaware of the details of the Family and Medical Leave Act (FMLA). Perhaps this lack of knowledge correlates with the under-utilization of
work-life programs. Fried (1998) writes that parental leave is even underutilized by females. How can an employee use the policies if neither s/he nor his/her boss knows the policies? If "knowledge is power," and the senior management does not possess knowledge surrounding work-life policies, they possess little power. The commonly used "knowledge is power" phrase refers to expert power because it is the ability to influence others based on one's knowledge or expertise (French & Raven, 1960).

Supportive University Policies and Supportive Supervisors

As the literature suggests, supportive university policies can take the form of alternative work schedules such as flextime, telecommuting, part-time work, paid leave as well as sabbaticals and phased-in work schedules following leave. Flextime was found in four organizations in this study, but none of the interviewees themselves used it or mentioned even contemplating using it. Flextime policies may be used more often by women at lower levels of the organization, but women leaders have the "authority" to be more flexible in how they schedule their own work and whether or not they use this flexibility. On the other hand, the demands of the job may narrow their flexibility.

While the participants did not use flextime for themselves, four of the interviewees advocated flextime among their employees. However, the existence of flextime as one of the only formal work-life programs is troublesome. On-site child-care is considered a work-life program, but was only seen in two organizations. One woman talked about phased-in work schedules following leave, but again, only one organization. While higher education may be known to be more flexible than the corporate world, the universities in this study have very few formal work-life programs.

Furthermore, a couple interviewees made negative statements about work-life programs. One President articulated that they are just too expensive, which is a common statement in the literature. Another complaint about work-life programs found in both the interviews and in current literature is that leaders feel that work-life programs create inequity perceptions and favor those with children over others. However, as Friedman, DeGroot and Christensen (1998) suggest, treating people the same is not equitable. Treating people differently according to their needs is equitable.

Others may have been hesitant to make negative comments about work-life programs for fear of appearing to be unsupportive boss. For example, they may not directly say that the extensive paper work to establish and administer the programs holds them back from implementing more work-life programs, but this may be the case, as the literature suggests.

A supportive boss feels that handling family issues is a "legitimate" part of their role (Galinsky & Stein, 1990). The use of the word "legitimate" directly highlights the legitimate power at work in these leader-follower interactions. Since these women leaders have authority due to their position, they possess the ability to address work-life issues. Additionally, a supportive supervisor is knowledgeable about work-life policies and possibilities and encourages their use. This knowledge refers to the expert power these
women possess since they have the ability to influence their employees based on their knowledge.

Whether or not they realize it, these leaders also possess reward power, which is the ability to influence others based on control over desired resources. If the leader chooses not to use her reward power in the area of work-life issues, she will ignore work-life issues and cause the employee to spend less time with his/her children, leading to a more hectic lifestyle. If the leader chooses to implement work-life programs, current research shows that both the leader and follower will experience positive rewards. The employee will spend more time with his/her children and maintain a healthier lifestyle. Additionally, the senior administrator will lead employees who are likely to experience lower absenteeism (Families & Work Institute, 1993), be more apt to volunteer for additional work and perform better on the job (Lambert, Hopkins, & Easton, 1992).

**Work-Life Issues and Organizational Change**

Organizations must consider themselves not only as institutions that want to make a profit, but consider themselves as having responsibility for the well-being of the individuals in their organization (Freidman, DeGroot, and Christensen, 1998). Organizations should not just institute work-life programs to make themselves look wonderful, but should go beyond this self-orientation. An organization should allow women to develop as fully as they would like. Beyond achieving goals of the organization, they should also achieve goals desired by the individual. Organizations can achieve both self-orientation and an ethic of care, creating a win-win situation.

Achieving this type of organization would involve transformational leadership on the part of not only the women leaders, but all organizational leaders. Transformational leadership occurs inside an organization. Rather than the leader asking, “What can I get from this person?,” the transformational leader would want to know each employee’s work and life situation in order to make appropriate decisions. The transformational leader would have a vision, derived from the collective interests of sundry individuals and departments within the organization (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

What would transformational leadership look like for these universities? While interviewees called for “demanding it” or “getting on the bandwagon,” these comments are fairly general. Kossek, Dadd & DeMarr (1994) speak more specifically, explaining that leaders should facilitate cultural change in addition to a programmatic approach. The programmatic approach implies a transactional leadership approach, “exchanging things of value with subordinates to advance their own agenda as well as their subordinates’ agenda” (Kuhnert, 1994, 10). However, with transformational leadership, the needs of the followers and society are at the core of the agenda, and positive benefits for the leader and the organization will merely be a consequence of the transformation.

**C. Negotiation for Social and Policy Change**

*More Public Policy Needed?*
Whether or not more public policy is needed remained a controversial question in the interviews. A significant generational difference manifested itself in this question. The two traditionalist women (parents of Baby boomers) interviewed firmly articulated that more public policy was not needed. One university President uttered, “I don’t think you can dictate everything through public policy. I believe that so much of this is personal.” Clearly, this woman does not believe that the “personal is political.” Sociologists would see this statement as typical of her generation. Traditionalists adhere to the traditional chain of command, which has typically separated the personal and political (Bradford, Raines & Martin, 1992). They reward loyalty and dependability on the job and would likely view family leave as breaching both loyalty and dependability.

Conversely, the majority of the Baby boomers in this study believe that more public policy is needed. For example, one Baby boomer directly spoke about the necessity of policy change: “I think the more women we get involved in regional, local and national politics and the more women we get elected to those kinds of positions – that’s what’s going to help us. Laws will change things.” These Baby boomers most likely want policy change because they believe workers should be treated humanely, which involves issues such as family leave for men as well as women (Bradford, Raines, & Martin, 1992). They seem to believe that changes in policy will produce changes in behavior, even if attitudes are slow to change.

However, although many Baby boomers believe in additional public policy, they did not mention any specifics to change policy. For example, no one spoke of the proposed changes to policy such as universal pre-school for three and four-year olds, which the current body of literature addresses. And, no one spoke of the proposed improvements in day care such as reducing the caretaker to child ratio or training caregivers for their work. Perhaps the women lack knowledge in these areas just as they have a dearth of knowledge regarding current work-life policy.

After hearing about the rigid structure in public universities, additional policy seems especially needed for state universities to make their environment more flexible. The President of a state university says, “Public universities, because they are under state regulation, offer less family-friendly policies.”

Government leaders (not just the women governmental leaders) must work towards transforming leadership. Transforming leadership differs from transformational leadership. While Bass’s (1985) transformational leadership addresses the type of leadership inside an organization, the transforming leadership that Burns describes deals with the type of leadership that concerns large societal issues.

Changes in public policy can transform society. Burns (2003) writes that “in broad social and political terms, transformation means basic alterations in entire systems” (24). If governmental leaders can change the laws that form the system, transformation can occur. He also emphasizes the importance of leaders’ initiative, explaining that “every human change begins with someone having an intention, taking an initiative” (17). The human role
in human change is critical; the role of governmental leaders in human change is powerful.

Many individuals are skeptical of significant policy changes and frightened by transformation because great change often requires adjustment. However, Burns comforts these individuals, "For those who are worried – All this does not mean total change, which is impossible in human life. It does mean alterations so comprehensive and pervasive and perhaps accelerated, that new cultures and value systems take the place of the old" (Burns, 2003, 24). Words such as "comprehensive" and "pervasive" underscore the need for philosophy and orientation to change in addition to simply the policies. If the policies change, but the attitudes do not, transforming leadership has not taken place.

**Male Attitudinal Changes**

Attitudinal change in addition to policy change is paramount. While some women (especially traditionalist women) may need to change their philosophy and orientation toward work-life issues, male attitudinal changes are critical as well.

Every woman I interviewed sees progress in the majority of males’ attitudes, but the most of the women believe that the change is slow. These women tend to see more progress in the beliefs and actions of younger males, not necessarily their own husbands. One woman talked about this change in the nature of younger marriages: “I see these younger people that I’ve hired that are newly married and they have a 50/50 kind of deal.”

Such attitudinal changes require Burns’s concept of transforming leadership, which addresses large social and political issues. Transforming leaders’ visions should promote equality, enabling women to develop as fully as they would like unobstructed by work-life conflict. Burn’s (1978) concept of transforming leadership uplifts a whole person and the whole group (i.e. women), pushing for justice.

Changes in attitudes reflect changes in values. As Burns (2003) suggests, “Leaders embrace values; values grip leaders” (211). The stronger the leader’s values are, the more they can affect their followers and transform them. Consequently, according to Burns, if policy leaders value work-life issues for both men and women, these leaders will cause a great change in males’ and traditionalist women’s attitudes.

Several researchers like Schein (1995) believe that women leaders often value work-life issues more than men leaders. Schein offers the example of Norway. Norway’s prime minister is a woman and seven of its 17 Cabinet members are female. Women clearly govern differently in Norway because “despite falling oil prices and huge spending cuts, the Norwegian government increased its emphasis on women and children” (165).

Bailyn offers a case study of Sweden and Swedish policy on work-life issues. Women are also heavily represented in Swedish government. Swedish policy stresses that women should have jobs and that fathers should be involved in the care of their children (Bailyn, 1998). Sweden made a serious effort to change gender roles, mostly by encouraging men to become more connected to family life.
D. Negotiation of Roles and Responsibilities

_Superwoman Leaders – Can they do it all and Have it All?_

The original kind of superwoman is still evident in four of the ten women respondents. A statement that shouted this superwoman mentality was: “I think you can basically have it all. I think I have had it all.” The fact that two of the four “superwomen” were traditionalists is significant. These traditionalist women did not take advantage of formal or informal work-life programs even when they were offered to them, probably because it deviates from the traditional view of organizational leaders (Bradford, Raines, & Martin, 1992).

Obviously, since the interviewees were still in their current role, none of the interviewees had “retreated to the household” and “abandoned Superwoman” as the literature suggests some women do when they feel overwhelmed. About half of the women did talk about the great difficulty of managing it all though.

_Role Modeling_

The “new type of superwoman” was seen again and again in the interviews. Four women used the word “role model” to describe themselves. This new type of superwoman feels that she should _empower_ other women while staying committed to her own job. The ways in which these women empower is by leading by example and developing others through coaching, forging a partnership, developing knowledge and skills, etc (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 2001). For example, two women stated that they make a conscious effort to influence students by involving their spouse and children in the “university family.”

As a role model, the leader engages in Bass’s _transformational leadership_. She uses idealized influence. Idealized influence describes leaders who act as role models for followers and therefore followers want to emulate them (French & Raven, 1960). Senge (1990) also speaks to being a model of behavior. Senge writes that exemplary leaders know that if they want to gain support and reach the highest standards, they must be models of the behavior they expect from others.

These women also employ the transformational quality of individualized consideration. Transformational leaders use individualized consideration by acting as coaches and advisors while trying to assist individuals in becoming fully actualized. In one interview, a Dean told me that if I called her next week or a year from now, she would do anything she could to help me because she likes to support other younger women. Simmons (1996) concurs, asserting that leaders should work to promote the career of more junior women and advocate for recognition of other women’s potential.

_ Outsourcing, Streamlining and Relaxing_

Outsourcing is supposed to contribute to more leisure time and relaxation, but in
reality, it only made the lives of the women in the study function-able, and the majority of them still lack ample relaxation time. Perhaps these women are not negotiating their roles and responsibilities enough if only one person mentioned the importance of the personal time that she creates. No one mentioned time for personal hobbies except exercise. Therefore, this study agrees with the current literature, which states that the realities of senior leadership positions do not always support the values of relaxation and interests outside the workplace (Nidiffer & Bashaw, 2001). This statement is likely true for men as well.

Hobbies outside the workplace may include spending time with friends. This study found that while many women have found a strong network of friendships to help in the care of their children, they do not spend relaxation-building time with these friends. These friendships work in a transactional way in that the friends exchange child care and other house work favors. The friendships do not often entail simply watching a movie together or going out for coffee, spending quality time with one another. Perhaps this type of friendship is rare among interviewees because they do not have time for such friendships.

Outsourcing requires transactional leadership in that the leader works with her followers (e.g. cleaning persons) and exchanges services for money, both are valued things. Relaxing also necessitates transactional leadership for these women. In order to relax, the women must schedule relaxation into their daily agenda and make arrangements that will allow time for leisure. For example, a woman may arrange for her husband to take care of the children on Wednesday evenings during her painting class and in turn she cares for the children on Saturday morning while he plays golf.

If women can negotiate their roles and responsibilities better, they are less likely to experience guilt that is sometimes associated with work-life negotiation. Half of the women interviewed experience guilt and half do not. The women who experience little guilt are typically those who outsource more, exercise and have husbands who share in child care and house work. They may experience less guilt because they have more time for themselves and for their children.

Limits to Negotiations

Since the respondents reported little personal time for hobbies and friendships outside the workplace, perhaps negotiation is not enough. Most women repeatedly described their work-life negotiation as “hard” or “very very difficult.” Work-life negotiation should not be this arduous. This study suggests that women may have reached the limits of negotiations and must look toward social and policy solutions to makes their lives easier.

E. Comparison with Similar Study

Since this study used the interview protocol from Sarah Marshall’s dissertation (2002) entitled Women Higher Education Administrators with Children: Negotiating Personal and Professional Lives, one must compare her findings with the findings in this study.
Marshall’s study and this study possess numerous similarities. Both studies speak of the limited personal time that women possess when negotiating work-life issues. This manifests itself in a pronounced lack of personal friendships outside of work. The participants in both studies also concur that the rewards of being both a mother and administrator are greater than the frustrations. Additionally, interviewees in both studies talked about how being a mother is actually advantageous in the workplace and some skills are transferable. Furthermore, both studies agree that being a women leader also benefits the family in terms of the women’s fulfillment and happiness.

In terms of structure, the two studies’ Presentation of Data sections are structured differently. Marshall presents each woman’s story separately, while this study sets up the Presentation of Data in terms of themes. Marshall starts off with a brief biography of the woman before describing the interview itself. For example, she writes, “Donna Vance is the Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs at a mid-size public regional university in the Midwest” before continuing with Vance’s statements and opinions.

The most significant difference between the two studies surrounds the “What now?” question. I added the following sixth question to this study’s interview protocol, which was not included in Sarah Marshall’s protocol:

6. **What now?** Researchers have been talking about how women negotiate work and family for awhile now. In the 1980s, they discovered that professional women were attempting to be "superwoman," leading a chaotic life while juggling motherhood and work. In the 1990s, researchers found that many women with families left or never entered the professional domain simply because of the difficulties of this negotiation between work and family.

6.1. As a woman who wishes to enter higher education as a career, neither of theses choices seem satisfying to me. Thus, the questions I’m grappling with are, “What now? What’s next?” In other words, are there better alternatives?

6.2. While choosing to have a child is a woman’s individual choice, the fact remains that women are society’s only child bearers. As a result of this fact, what changes would you suggest we make as a society to reduce or lessen “child bearing consequences” for women who aspire to be leaders?

Underlying this sixth question is the premise that work-life negotiation may work, but it is incredibly arduous. As a result of this difficulty, change must occur. Consequently, his study asked, “What now?”
Sarah Marshall’s research examines the current condition of work-life negotiation for women leaders in higher education administration with children. She concludes that combining work and family “can be done” with “a passionate commitment to both work and family” (Marshall, 2002, 188). However, while this study concurs that it “can be done,” it also advocates for leaders to encourage significant organizational and societal change. While Marshall argues that being a women leader with children in higher education administration “can work,” I argue that it is difficult to make work, and leaders must work for significant change. Marshall’s research does not include this leadership component; the component that drives this research. This study not only examines the women leaders, but it also looks at organizational and governmental leaders, both male and female, that must strive for change. While Marshall advocates that both male and female leaders must be “aware,” this study encourages them to be more than aware and actually push for change.

Not only does this study place more emphasis on organizational and policy leaders, it also places more emphasis on spouses and male attitudinal changes than Marshall’s study. While Marshall categorizes support from spouses under the heading of “Support Systems” along with child care, babysitters and extended family, this study gives partners/spouses a separate section apart from the other support systems because of partners’ significance. This study advocates the need for men to start addressing work-life issues and greater sharing of household chores and responsibilities. While Marshall’s study seems to indicate that spouses have already come to a “new understanding,” I argue that this understanding is only beginning among many men in terms of attitudinal and practice changes.

VI. Conclusions and Recommendations

Conclusions

Women leaders in higher education administration with children face challenges that necessitate competence in “work-life negotiation.” Women leaders use negotiation in the family and organization to help make their lives functional.

While strategies such as planning births, seeking out the right child care and developing a supportive relationship with one’s spouse/partner exist, they are difficult to execute. This study found that interviewees disagreed about whether to have children earlier or later. Dissension also existed surrounding whether on-campus day care was beneficial. Consequently, each person must adopt his/her own strategies that are right for him/her.

While all interviewees agreed that a supportive relationship with one’s spouse/partner is tremendously advantageous, these relationships seem hard to achieve. Most participants reported that younger males seem more supportive of their spouses and work-life negotiation in general than their own husbands. The participants also expressed that outsourcing chores such as cleaning is critical to making their work-life negotiation more manageable.
Higher education, which often has a reputation of being more flexible than the corporate world, actually provides very few formal work-life benefits and programs. This conclusion is worrisome. Perhaps it is because universities do not possess the monetary resources to run work-life benefits such as on-site day care. Or perhaps higher education institutions do not see the need for such formal programs because administrators believe that flexibility is already inherent in the culture. Nevertheless, higher education still seems to provide greater flexibility than the corporate world.

This study shows a lack of knowledge about the work-life policies themselves in addition to a lack of use of these policies. Perhaps a correlation exists between the dearth of knowledge surrounding work-life policy and the under-utilization of work-life programs.

Furthermore, the original Superwoman is still evident in many of these women. Some still like to "do it all" and claim to "have it all." The new type of Superwoman was also seen in the respondents' narratives. They often feel the need to act as role models for their employees and students in addition to staying committed to their own job.

All the time spent negotiating with families and organizations leaves these women little time for reflection, relaxation, and renewal. While these women typically have friendships with co-workers or friends who perform transactional tasks for them like babysitting, they reported having little personal time for friendships and renewal outside of work. These women may be missing an opportunity for the kind of personal development and interests that can take place in personal friendships and leisure activities. This may result in a significant "cost" for women leaders with children.

This study and others (Marshall, 2002; Bailyn, 1998; Salmon, 2001; Fried, 1998) suggest that women may have reached the limits of their ability to resolve work-life and self-renewal issues through individual negotiations. They must look toward social and policy solutions to move forward. Changes surrounding work-life issues in organizations are often inadequate because the attitudes towards work-life issues must change in order to make the benefits successful.

Traditionalist women and men are the populations that desire the least change surrounding work-life issues. The traditionalist women in this study express hesitation in implementing additional structural and policy changes to improve work-life issues in organizations. Often, one thinks of men as being unsupportive of work-life issues, but this study shows that some women are also ambivalent or opposed to creating more work-life benefits and policies. The Baby boomer generation tends to be more supportive of creating additional work-life programs and policy than the traditionalist generation.

Schein (1995) asked, "How can we restructure work in a society in which work and family no longer are separate, but interface?" Younger generations of women leaders would most likely focus on the structural and attitudinal changes to facilitate the interface of work and family. Organizational and governmental leaders who support work-life issues, whether male and female, must work to change the attitudes of traditionalists who
do not see the need for change in work-life policy on an organizational, governmental and cultural level.

Recommendations

To respond effectively to Schein’s question and the issues identified in this study, higher education institutions should act as social change leaders to enhance work-life interface for women (and men) leaders with children. In the race to attract the best and brightest among younger scholars and administrations, universities might begin to lead the way in creating strong work-life cultures and programs. Companies often attract the type of employees they seek through their reputation as “the most family-friendly” or “the best company for which to work.” Perhaps The Chronicle of Higher Education and popular publications such as Choice, Atlantic Monthly, Time or Newsweek should publish information about the most family-friendly colleges and universities for which to work.

Education about work-life policies would be beneficial for both the leaders of organizations as well as the employees. This education could take the form of a short workshop or seminar. If more people know the specifics of policies such as the FMLA, they would be more apt to use them. Leaders should especially know the policies of their organization surrounding work-life negotiation and communicate these policies to their employees. This expert power can help them influence others.

In order to encourage male attitudinal change, higher education institutions should create more Gender Studies courses in addition to or in place of their Women’s Studies courses. Work-family negotiation is not just a women’s issue, yet it is insufficiently addressed in disciplines outside of Women’s Studies. If males’ attitudes are to change, these attitudes should ideally be formed before they commit to starting a family. Creating more supportive relationships between partners would ease the challenges of work-life negotiation.

Several theories of leadership provide insight into and direction for these issues. Partners should continue to strive towards and engage in relationships that involve mutual transformational leadership. Inspirational motivation can be used to communicate high expectations to each other. These high expectations can inspire partners to become committed to the goals of the family. Individualized consideration should also continue to be used to provide a supportive climate for spouses in which they listen and respect each other’s needs. For example, couples must continue planning special dates together as a time to reconnect and express their ideas, emotions and needs to one another.

The women leaders interviewed in this study engage in transactional leadership (the exchange of valued things) in negotiating with child care providers and with their partners, making exchanges to allow their job schedules to work with their babysitters and spouses. Women leaders should continue to use this strategy to make their own lives easier. By skillfully practicing transactional leadership in negotiating work-life issues, leaders also act as positive role models for their employees and children.
Governmental leaders, both men and women, should strive to exhibit Burns’s transforming leadership. Burns (1978) argues that “the ultimate goal of transforming leadership is to enhance the well-being of human existence” (3). Transforming leadership would allow women to develop as fully as they would like to in organizations, promoting their contentment and fulfillment. Leadership, as Burns (1978) argues, should work towards a collective purpose and social change. For example, a transforming leader would strive to create an organization that feels responsible for its employees’ well-being in addition to generating profit. Transforming leadership can work to enact public policy, change societal attitudes and institutionalize organizational practices to foster beneficial work-life interface.

Future Research

Much research is still remaining in the field of work-life negotiation, work-life interface and leadership studies in higher education. This specific study could and should be altered to investigate different populations. All interviewees were heterosexual, and the situation for gay couples with children may be different. Similarly, the situation for single parents could also be highly divergent from married parents. Only one interviewee was a single parent.

Future studies could include more ethnic/racial diversity by including African American, Latino and Asian women leaders in majority and historically African American and Latino colleges and universities. This study should also be conducted for male leaders in higher education administration with children. This research would help to further understand males’ attitudes towards work-life issues and why they are or are not supportive of additional work-life benefits and policy.

More research is needed on the flexibility of higher education administration for women leaders. This research would investigate what “flexibility” entails and look at both formal and informal flexibility in the organizations. Perhaps another study should also have a more stringent criterion for “leaders.” This study assumes the participants are leaders based on their legitimate power, not their leadership qualities themselves.

Ways in which organizational and governmental leaders can change individuals’ attitudes (traditionalist and men and women) towards work-life issues must be investigated. More research is also needed to determine if women leaders in higher education administration with children actually do lack time for transformational friendships. Furthermore, if these friendships are missing from their lives, then research is needed to see how the absence of such friendships affects them and those around them.

Despite the need for future research, the hope is that this specific study provides insights into the work-life negotiation in which these ten women engage. It also hopefully offers insights into the potential impact of organizational and governmental leaders, both men and women, who work towards improvement in work-life benefits, policies and attitudes.
Works Cited


Married Women Spend more than twice as much time on housework compared to their Husbands (2002, March 3). Marketing to Women, 15, 3-8.


INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. Initial Question. As you know, I am interviewing you today because I am very interested in how women leaders in higher education with families negotiate their roles as parents, spouses or partners and professionals. If I could, I would like to start our conversation this way: you have achieved this senior-level position and also have a family. I am curious to learn about your professional advancement.
   1.1. What has been your career path up until this point?
   1.2. Coupled with your professional development, please also explain the evolution of your spouse and children.

2. What strategies do women in higher education leadership with children use to negotiate their complex and competing roles as parents and professionals?
   2.1. Through my research, I have discovered that managing a career and a marriage with a family can be tricky and complex. I’m curious to learn how you manage?
   2.2. What strategies do you use to make it all work? For instance, what support systems are key to your success? How do you handle unforeseen problems or unexpected obligations at home and at work?

3. What rewards and frustrations come from being a mother and a positional leader?
   3.1. Are there times when being a professional as well as having a family is difficult? What trade offs, compromises, or tensions have you experienced? Tell me about those times.
   3.2. Now on the flip side, are there times when being a professional as well as having a family is rewarding and meaningful? What rewards or benefits have you experienced? Tell me about those times.

4. How do institutional structures and processes support or encumber female higher education leaders with children?
   4.1. Women sometimes think about when they will marry or have children. I’m sure you considered when to marry and when to have children. Tell me about your decision to have each of your children. What factors did you consider with the birth of each child?
   4.2. How did your supervisors and co-workers react to each pregnancy? How have they reacted to your parental obligations over time and currently?

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2 This interview was used and adapted with permission from Sarah Marshall, Ph.D. Women in Higher Education Administrators with Children: Negotiating Personal and Professional Lives, Loyola University of Chicago, 2002
4.3. Many higher education institutions offer various work/family benefits. These may include job sharing, part-time work, extended leave, day care, or flextime. What types of work/family benefits are available to you?

4.4. Have you used or considered using them? Why or why not?

4.5. If these benefits are NOT available to you, do you wish they were?

4.6. How can your employers be more supportive of your personal and professional needs?

4.7. Why do you think that some work/family benefits go unused?

4.8. As a senior leader of your institution, how do you influence the working parents in your division?

5. **Summary Question.** When you reflect back on what you have learned throughout your time as a professional as well as a spouse and parent, I suspect there are things you would have done exactly the same and other you would have done differently. Based on that experience, what advice do you have for new women higher education administrators who are contemplating starting a family?

6. **What now?** Researchers have been talking about how women negotiate work and family for awhile now. In the 1980s, they discovered that professional women were attempting to be "superwoman," leading a chaotic life while juggling motherhood and work. In the 1990s, researchers found that many women with families left or never entered the professional domain simply because of the difficulties of this negotiation between work and family.

6.1. As a woman who wishes to enter higher education as a career, neither of these choices seem satisfying to me. Thus, the questions I’m grappling with are, “What now? What’s next?” In other words, are there better alternatives?

6.2. While choosing to have a child is a woman’s individual choice, the fact remains that women are society’s only child bearers. As a result of this fact, what changes would you suggest we make as a society to reduce or lessen “child bearing consequences” for women who aspire to be leaders?

7. **Concluding Questions**

A. Is there anything else that you would like to share that we did not cover?
B. Is there anything you thought I would ask that I did not?
C. Are there others would that you would recommend I interview?