

Use Authorization

In presenting this dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree at Idaho State University, I agree that the Library shall make it freely available for inspection. I further state that permission to download and/or print my dissertation for scholarly purposes may be granted by the Dean of the Graduate School, Dean of my academic division, or by the University Librarian. It is understood that any copying or publication of this dissertation for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Signature _____

Date _____

THE EFFECT OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND ENRICHMENT ON HIGHER
EDUCATION LEADERS' CAREER COMMITMENT, ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT, AND LIFE SATISFACTION

by

Amy R. Slack

A dissertation

submitted in partial fulfillment

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Educational Leadership

Idaho State University

2014

Copyright (2014) Amy R. Slack

Committee Approval

To the Graduate Faculty:

The members of the committee appointed to examine the dissertation of AMY SLACK find it satisfactory and recommend that it be accepted.

Dr. Cynthia Lee A. Pemberton
Co-Chair

Dr. Jonathan Lawson
Co-Chair

Dr. Alan C. Frantz
Committee Member

Dr. Debra Easterly
Committee Member

Dr. Gesine Hearn
Graduate Faculty Representative

Idaho State UNIVERSITY

Office for Research Integrity
921 South 8th Avenue, Stop 8046 • Pocatello, Idaho 83209-8046

November 15, 2013

Amy Slack
Stop 8059
Pocatello, ID 83209

RE: Your application dated 11/15/2013 regarding study number 4004: The effect of Work-life Conflict an Enrichment on Higher Education Leaders' Career Commitment, Organizational Commitment, and Life Satisfaction

Dear Ms. Slack:

Thank you for your response to requests from a prior review of your application for the new study listed above. Your study is eligible for expedited review under FDA and DHHS (OHRP) 7. Individual or group behavior designation.

You are granted permission to conduct your study as most recently described effective immediately. The study is subject to continuing review on or before 11/15/2014, unless closed before that date.

Notify the HSC of any adverse events. Serious, unexpected adverse events must be reported in writing within 10 business days.

Submit progress reports on your project in six months. You should report how many subjects have participated in the project and verify that you are following the methods and procedures outlined in your approved protocol. Then, report to the Human Subjects Committee when your project has been completed. Reporting forms are available on-line.

Please note that any changes to the study as approved must be promptly reported and approved. Some changes may be approved by expedited review; others require full board review. Contact Patricia Hunter (208-282-2179; fax 208-282-4723; email: humsubj@isu.edu) if you have any questions or require further information.

Sincerely,

Ralph Baergen, PhD, MPH, CIP
Human Subjects Chair

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my husband, Matthew Dickey, and our children, Connor and Kieran. I could not have persevered and attained this goal without your sacrifices, love, and support during this very long journey.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I must express my appreciation to my committee co-chairs, Dr. Cynthia Pemberton and Dr. Jonathon Lawson. Thank you for believing in me and pushing me to be the scholar you knew I could be. Both of you have demonstrated through your lives how to be a successful leader and have a balanced personal life. Both of you have taught me so much, both personally and professionally, than I could ever express here. I couldn't have made it through this program without your support. Thank you to Dr. Alan Frantz for your encouragement, support, and meticulous editing skills. Thank you to Dr. Deb Easterly for mentoring me during my program and your willingness to serve on my committee. I want to express my appreciation to Dr. Gesine Hearn for mentoring me during the qualitative phase of my research. It was through my conversations with Dr. Hearn that I realized the work-family interface is so much more than work-family conflict.

I want to acknowledge Dr. Peter Denner who taught me that good statistical research is grounded in theory. It was because of my conversations with Dr. Denner and Dr. Hearn that I discovered Work-Family Enrichment Theory. Grounding my research in this theory has greatly enhanced and enriched my study.

I began this journey while working in TRiO Student Services at ISU. It was my supervisor and mentor, Dr. James "Byrd" Yizar, who first encouraged me to pursue my doctoral degree. Thank you for believing in me and encouraging me. A special thanks to

my colleagues in TRiO, Ram Eddings and Dr. Henry Evans. Your continuous encouragement and support will always be appreciated.

I will forever be grateful to Dr. Teri Peterson who encouraged me while we were taking classes together. I appreciate your friendship and support. Thank you for showing me that the world of statistics is amazing and can unleash fascinating discoveries.

I am grateful to the higher education leaders who were willing to take time from their busy schedules to complete my survey and share their personal stories. I could not have completed this research without your help.

My deepest gratitude is extended to my family. I will forever be grateful to my parents, Richard Slack and Rena Parsons, who taught me the importance of a strong work ethic. My parents made numerous sacrifices to provide me with a solid educational foundation that enabled me to pursue my dreams of being the first in our family to earn a college degree. My mother always stressed that I could accomplish anything I set my mind to if I was willing to work hard.

Finally, I express my love and appreciation to my husband Matthew, and our sons, Connor and Kieran. Thank you for believing in me and my dreams!

CONTENTS

| | |
|---|-----|
| LIST OF FIGURES | x |
| LIST OF TABLES | xi |
| ABSTRACT | xii |
| CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION | 1 |
| Problem Statement. | 3 |
| Definitions. | 8 |
| Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations. | 11 |
| Significance of the Study. | 12 |
| CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW | 16 |
| Gender, Work, Leadership-Demographic Trends | 16 |
| Work-Family Balance | 23 |
| Leadership | 31 |
| Literature Review Summary. | 38 |
| CHAPER III: METHODOLOGY | 41 |
| Introduction. | 41 |
| Participants and Sampling. | 42 |
| Instrumentation | 43 |
| Procedures | 47 |
| Design and Analysis | 49 |
| Methods Summary | 51 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| CHAPTER IV: RESULTS | 52 |
| Survey Response Rate | 53 |
| Survey Respondent Demographics | 53 |
| Survey Respondent Demographics Disaggregated by Gender | 61 |
| Reliability Analysis of the Survey Instrument | 71 |
| Research Question Analysis Based on Survey Data | 73 |
| Qualitative Inquiry | 85 |
| Summary of Results | 125 |
| CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION/CONCLUSIONS | 129 |
| Understanding and Describing the Respondents | 130 |
| Survey Response Rate | 130 |
| Survey Respondent Demographics | 131 |
| Survey Respondent Demographics Disaggregated by Gender | 139 |
| Research Question Analysis Based on Survey Data | 141 |
| Qualitative Inquiry | 155 |
| Summary Conclusions | 198 |
| Recommendations and Implications for Action | 200 |
| Areas of Further Inquiry | 202 |
| REFERENCES | 204 |
| APPENDIX A | 230 |
| APPENDIX B | 243 |
| APPENDIX C | 245 |
| APPENDIX D | 249 |

LIST OF FIGURES

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| FIGURE 1: | Results from Multiple Regression Models Showing Predictors for Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction | 149 |
|-----------|--|-----|

LIST OF TABLES

| | | |
|-----------|---|----|
| TABLE 1: | Frequencies and Percentages of Nominal Level Personal Demographic Variables | 54 |
| TABLE 2: | Frequencies and Percentages of Academic Demographic Variables | 55 |
| TABLE 3: | Frequencies and Percentages of Hours Worked Variables | 57 |
| TABLE 4: | Frequencies and Percentages of Spouse Work Variables | 57 |
| TABLE 5: | Frequencies and Percentages of Family Support Policies Variables | 58 |
| TABLE 6: | Frequencies and Percentages of Children Born Pre- and Post-Tenure | 59 |
| TABLE 7: | Frequencies and Percentages of Stress Variables | 60 |
| TABLE 8: | Frequencies and Percentages of Nominal Level Personal Demographic Variables by Gender | 61 |
| TABLE 9: | Frequencies and Percentages of Academic Demographic Variables by Gender | 63 |
| TABLE 10: | Frequencies and Percentages of Hours Worked by Gender | 65 |
| TABLE 11: | Frequencies and Percentages of Spouse Work Variables by Gender | 66 |
| TABLE 12: | Frequencies and Percentages of Family Support Policies Variables by Gender | 67 |
| TABLE 13: | Frequencies and Percentages of Children Born Pre-Tenure by Gender | 68 |
| TABLE 14: | Frequencies and Percentages of Stress Variables by Gender. | 69 |

| | | |
|-----------|--|-----|
| TABLE 15: | Regression Coefficients for Model with Organizational Commitment as the Response Variable | 75 |
| TABLE 16: | Regression Coefficients for Model with Career Commitment as the Response Variable | 77 |
| TABLE 17: | Regression Coefficients for Model with Life Satisfaction as the Response Variable | 79 |
| TABLE 18: | Means and Standard Deviations for Likert Scales Items by Gender | 82 |
| TABLE 19: | Frequencies for the Demographic Variables on the Interview Participants | 88 |
| TABLE 20: | Examples of Raw Data Themes by Theme and Relationship to Research Question | 90 |
| TABLE 21: | Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction | 91 |
| TABLE 22: | Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Impact of Work-Family Enrichment on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction | 99 |
| TABLE 23: | Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Impact of Gender Differences on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction | 108 |
| TABLE 24: | Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Family-Work Conflict on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction | 119 |
| TABLE 25: | Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Family-Work Enrichment on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction | 122 |

THE EFFECT OF WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND ENRICHMENT ON HIGHER
EDUCATION LEADERS' CAREER COMMITMENT, ORGANIZATIONAL
COMMITMENT, AND LIFE SATISFACTION

Dissertation Abstract – Idaho State University (2014)

The purpose of this study was to broaden the work-family literature by exploring perceptions about the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. Much of the work-family literature has focused on work-family conflict. More recent research suggests that occupying the roles of both employee and family member may produce positive outcomes (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) developed “work-family enrichment theory,” which they define as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 72).

This study employed mixed methods, engaging a survey-based quantitative inquiry, followed by a qualitative inquiry. The quantitative phase surveyed 159 higher education leaders from six universities, ranging from Carnegie Classified Research High Universities (RU/H), to Master's Colleges and Universities Larger Programs (Master's/L), to Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields (Bac/Diverse). The survey focused on how work-family conflict and work-family enrichment affected career commitment, organizational commitment, and satisfaction with life. Three separate multiple regression models were developed and resulted in significant models that predicted organizational commitment, career commitment, and satisfaction with life. The

qualitative phase allowed for further exploration and explication of themes and trends revealed through the quantitative inquiry and analysis. Using a phenomenological research design, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with 12 higher education leaders. The analysis followed the General Inductive Approach as described by Thomas (2006).

Results from the survey revealed that work-family enrichment increased career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction. Work-family conflict negatively impacted career commitment. The qualitative data further explicated the findings from the survey and revealed gender differences in the ways men and women experience the work-family interface.

This study found that higher education leaders can and do experience both work-family conflict and work-family enrichment simultaneously. The findings derived from this research indicated that work-family enrichment contributed more to perceived organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction than work-family conflict detracted from it. Results revealed that prior research has underestimated the positive outcomes resulting from work-family enrichment.

CHAPTER I

Introduction

In the United States the workforce and workplace have changed over the last forty years (Gappa, Austin, & Trice, 2007; Kessler-Harris & Sacks, 1987; Williams, 2000). The percentage of dual-earner families in the United States has increased significantly (Ford, Heinen, & Langkamer, 2007). Between 1970 and 1997, the percentage of families with a sole male breadwinner declined from 51.4 to 25.9, whereas the percentage of married couples who were dual-earners increased from 35.9 to 59.5 (Jacobs & Gerson, 1998). In addition to the increase in the number of women, dual-earner couples, and single parents in the workforce (Bond, Thompson, Galinsky, & Prottas, 2002), more working individuals are assuming elder care responsibilities (Society for Human Resource Management, 2003). Thus, a great deal of attention has been given to work and family issues in recent years (Ford et al., 2007).

Work-family conflict and stress is not only about paid work hours, but also the double burden of unpaid family caregiving—or the second shift as Hochschild (2003) called it. Bianchi (2006) argues that there has been a “significant ratcheting up of time pressures in American families—especially in single-parent and dual-earner families” (p. 57). Both men and women feel pressure to manage their paid and unpaid work duties (Bianchi, 2006).

In the past twenty-five years, scholars have produced a substantial amount of literature on the connection between work and family lives (Barling & Sorenson, 1997; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999). Researchers have sought to explain the ways in which work and family roles are interdependent (Barnett, 1998, 1999; Edwards & Rothbard, 2000; Lambert, 1990; Repetti, 1987). In the past, work–family literature has focused on the negative associations between work and family life or what has been termed “work-family conflict” (Barnett, 1998; Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999; Haas, 1999; Ruderman, Ohlott, Panzer, & King, 2002). Conflict theorists argue that a person has a finite number of resources. Therefore, experiences in one domain are presumed to deplete the individual’s pool of physical and psychological resources, thereby reducing the resources available in the other domain, and thus creating conflict (Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Goode, 1960; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Hill, Hawkins, Martinson, & Ferris, 2003). Work-family conflict is a type of inter-role conflict where work and family responsibilities are not compatible and thus result in negative effects on each domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Research has indicated that high levels of work–family conflict can have negative consequences, which include lower job and life satisfaction, higher turnover intentions, greater psychological strain, greater somatic/physical symptoms, higher depression, and greater burnout (Allen, Herst, Bruck, & Sutton, 2000; Byron 2005; Ford et al., 2007; Kossek and Ozeki 1998). Work-family conflict has been the prevailing research perspective for the past thirty years (Hill et al., 2003).

More recently, researchers have argued there are both disadvantages and potential advantages to engaging in the roles of worker and family member (Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Butler, 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus,

2002). Enrichment theorists argue that resources are not necessarily finite and that the multiple roles a person occupies can benefit individuals and improve role performance (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). Recent research suggests that occupying the roles of both worker and parent may produce positive outcomes in the areas of self-esteem and greater marital and job satisfaction (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006). Greenhaus and Powell (2006) developed “work-family enrichment theory,” which they define as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (p. 72). Enrichment is distinct from work-family conflict (Frone, 2003). However, enrichment is similar to work-family conflict in that both are considered to be bi-directional in nature (Frone, 2003). That is, benefits can stem from work and be applied to family life. This is known as work-to-family enrichment (WFE). Similarly, benefits can derive from family and be applied to work, which is known as family-to-work enrichment (FWE) (McNall, Nicklin, & Masuda, 2010). Research on work-family enrichment theory has demonstrated positive outcomes in the areas of job satisfaction (Aryee, Srinivas, & Tan, 2005) and family and life satisfaction (van Steenbergen, Ellemers, & Mooijaart, 2007).

The two views of the relationship between work and family domains—conflict and enrichment—are not necessarily incompatible (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001). Both conflict and enrichment may actually be relatively independent, co-occurring processes where commitments in one domain create conflict and enrichment simultaneously (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Although researchers have begun to assess conflict and enrichment in work-family interactions, there is little

understanding of how the two processes combine to determine outcomes (Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007). Information about the effects of conflict and enrichment on work performance is especially lacking; research to date has focused primarily on attitudes and psychological well-being (Graves et al., 2007).

Problem Statement

Helping workers balance their work and family lives is viewed as a business and social imperative (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009). Halpern (2005), in a presidential address to the American Psychological Association, suggested that difficulty combining work and family is the major challenge for the current generation of workers. Halpern argued that without social and employer policies to help workers balance work and family, our ability as a nation to maintain a strong social fabric is questionable.

The conflict between work and family is higher in the United States than in any other industrialized nation (Gornick & Meyers, 2005). One reason for this is that Americans work more hours on average than citizens in other industrialized countries, including Japan (Williams & Boushey, 2010). The typical American middle-class family worked 11 more hours per week in 2006 than in 1979 (Mishel, Bernstein, & Shierholz, 2009).

The proportion of faculty members who say they work more than 55 hours per week grew from 13% in 1972, to 44% in 2003, with no differences reported between men and women (Jacobs & Winslow, 2004; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). In higher education, faculty members report their increasing workloads are the primary source of stress and dissatisfaction with their academic careers (Gappa et al., 2007).

Higher education is under tremendous pressure from external stakeholders, particularly federal and state governments (i.e., legislators, governors, etc.) and other constituent groups to increase faculty accountability and productivity (Alexander, 2000; Bok, 2004; Burke, 2005). This has placed increasing demands on faculty work (Burke, 2005; Gappa et al., 2007). Academics are expected to teach, conduct research, and provide service and administrative functions within their institutions and professional organizations (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995; Boyer, 1990; Gappa et al., 2007; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

According to Ferren and Stanton (2004), “Faculty increasingly express concern about quality of work life and growing demands on their time” (p. 221). Why should colleges and universities ensure they provide an environment conducive to work-family balance? Ulrich (1998) argues that intellectual capital is “a firm’s only appreciable asset. Most other assets (building, plant, equipment, machinery, and so on) begin to depreciate the day they are acquired. Intellectual capital must grow if a firm is to prosper” (p. 15). The essential work of an institution of higher education is “teaching, research, creative endeavors, community involvement, professional service, and academic decision-making” (Gappa et al., 2007, p. 4). Because this work is carried out by faculty members, Gappa and Austin (2010) say: “Ensuring that faculty members are satisfied and motivated by their work and work environment is critically important to every institution’s quality and well-being” (p. 3).

Many early career faculty entering academe are placing a higher priority on their personal lives than senior colleagues historically have done (Gappa et al., 2007). Mason, Goulden, and Frasch (2009) surveyed more than 19,000 doctoral students from nine of

the ten University of California campuses. They found that doctoral students perceived work in academia as “one of unrelenting work hours that allow little or no room for a satisfying family life” (p. 1). Fully 84% of women and 74% of men were somewhat or very concerned about the family-friendliness of their future employer. Only 4% of women and 7% of men were not concerned at all about the issue.

One respondent said, “I could not have come into graduate school more motivated to be a research-oriented professor. Now I feel that can only be a career possibility if I am willing to sacrifice having children” (Female respondent, University of California Doctoral Student Career and Life Survey, as quoted in Mason et al., 2009, p. 1). The authors contended that as a result, academia may soon lose some of the most promising scholars to other career paths.

Doctoral students today differ from those 30 to 40 years ago. College and university faculty were once primarily men who were the breadwinner for the household. Today, men and women are enrolled in primarily equal numbers across doctoral programs and most will experience living in a dual-income household. According to the U.S. Census Bureau, 63.8% of women holding doctoral degrees in the U.S. were married and living with their spouse (2013). By contrast, the number of men holding doctoral degrees who were married and living with their spouse was 78.6%. The current generation of doctoral students desires flexibility and balance between career and life goals. However, “changes to the structure and culture of academia have not kept pace with these major shifts; assumptions about the notion of ‘ideal worker’ prevail, including a de facto requirement for inflexible, full-time devotion to education . . .” (Mason et al., 2009, p. 1). Likewise, Gappa and Austin (2010) stated:

Colleges and universities are faced with accommodating the new realities encountered by faculty members, who are simultaneously managing their academic careers and their domestic responsibilities as dual-career couples or single-parent families. Balance and flexibility in their careers are critical to them. (p. 5)

The inability to balance work and family responsibilities is one of the most critical factors influencing female faculty to depart from academia (Armenti, 2004). This is significant, because as Glazer (1997) pointed out, there are fewer women in the upper echelons of academia. Fewer women than men hold positions as university deans and presidents (Glazer, 1997). The number of female college presidents has doubled in the past 20 years to 26 percent, but the rate of growth slowed in the mid-1990s (Cook, 2012). When women leave academia, fewer women are in the pipeline to rise to leadership positions (Glazer, 1997; Madsen, 2012).

According to the 2007 American College President study, more than 60% of first-time university presidents came from academic affairs (typically as provost or vice president of academic affairs). One fourth of presidents come from other areas of academia, while less than 20% come from outside of higher education (King & Gomez, 2007).

According to Madsen (2012), 60% of female university presidents were at one time full-time assistant professors with most attaining associate and some full professor rank. Interestingly, nearly all university presidents taught in the college classroom prior to their appointment as president. As expected, the majority of female presidents had earned doctoral degrees.

Purpose. The purpose of this study was to broaden the work-family literature by simultaneously exploring the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. For the purpose of this study higher education leaders were delimited to those working at Idaho State University, the University of Idaho, the University of Wyoming, Boise State University, Dickinson State University, and Utah Valley University and employed at the department chair level and above. This study employed mixed methods, engaging both quantitative and qualitative inquiries.

Research questions. The following research questions will guide this inquiry.

1. What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders' levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?
2. What is the impact of work-family enrichment on higher education leaders' levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?
3. Are there gender differences in these outcomes and/or relationships?
4. Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship?

Definitions

For the purpose of this study the following definitions are used.

Career Commitment. Career commitment is defined as an “affective attachment to a chosen career role or defined line of work.” It is “characterized by the development of personal career goals, the attachment to, identification with, and involvement in those goals” (Carless, 2005, p. 342).

Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education. “The Carnegie Classification is the leading framework for recognizing and describing institutions in U.S. higher education.” The Carnegie Classification was originally published in 1973 and was

last updated in 2010 to reflect changes among colleges and universities. This framework has been widely used in the study of higher education, both as a way to represent and control for institutional differences, and also in the design of research studies to ensure adequate representation of sampled institutions, students, or faculty (Carnegie Foundation Website).

For the purposes of this study, higher education leaders will be surveyed and interviewed from universities in the following classifications:

Bac/Diverse: Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields. Includes institutions where baccalaureate degrees represent at least 10 percent of all undergraduate degrees and where fewer than 50 master's degrees or 20 doctoral degrees were awarded.

Master's/L: Master's Colleges and Universities (larger programs). Includes institutions that awarded at least 50 master's degrees and fewer than 20 doctoral degrees.

RU/H: Research Universities (high research activity). Doctorate-granting Universities that include institutions awarding at least 20 research doctoral degrees and that have high research activity (Carnegie Foundation Website).

Family. Robert Drago (2007) explained that during the 1970s and 80s the definition of family meant a heterosexual, married couple with children. Ronald Taylor (2000) defined family as “an intimate association of two or more persons related to each other by blood, marriage, formal or informal adoption, or appropriation. The latter term refers to the incorporation of persons in the family who are unrelated by blood or marital ties but are treated as though they are family” (p. 420).

Gender. The World Health Organization says gender “refers to the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers

appropriate for men and women” (World Health Organization Website, 2013, Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/topics/gender/en/>).

Higher education. In this study higher education refers to education beyond high school (K-12), especially at a college or university (Oxford Dictionaries). In this study higher education is further delimited to Carnegie Classified RU/H, Master’s/L, and Bac/Diverse universities.

Higher education leaders. For the purpose of this study, higher education leaders will be defined as department chairs or heads, assistant, associate, and university deans, assistant, associate vice presidents, and vice presidents, delimited to individuals working at Carnegie Classified RU/H, Master’s/L, and Bac/Diverse universities.

Life satisfaction. Life satisfaction is determined when individuals assess the quality of their lives on the basis of their own unique set of criteria (Shin & Johnson, 1978). According to Pavot and Diener (1993):

A comparison of one’s perceived life circumstances with a self-imposed standard or set of standards is presumably made, and to the degree that conditions match these standards, the person reports high life satisfaction. Therefore, life satisfaction is a conscious cognitive judgment of one’s life in which the criteria for judgment are up to the person. (p. 164)

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is defined as the “employee’s desire to remain with the organization because they want to” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 3).

Work. Work is defined by Webster’s Dictionary as “physical or mental effort exerted to do or make something; purposeful activity; labor; toil (Neufeldt, 1994). The economist Robert Drago (2007) further defines work by making the distinction between

tasks performed for the family and those for the employer. He delineates “paid” from “unpaid” work. “This focuses on the presence or absence of an employment relationship and is consistent with arguments of economists who believe that housework and care for family should be counted as work, albeit unpaid, in national accounts” (p. 27).

Work-family balance. Robert Drago (2007) explains that during the mid-1990s, practitioners incorporated work-family balance into the professional language instead of work-family balance. For example, in 1996 the Alliance for Work-family Progress was formed following a merger involving the National Work Family Alliance. Drago defines balance as “something that involves a mixture of paid work, unpaid work, and leisure, a definition that makes sense of earlier research, conforms to common understandings of the term, and can help us move towards a better life” (p. 24).

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict (WFC) is defined as a stressor in which work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996).

Work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment (WFE) is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73).

Assumptions, Limitations, Delimitations

Assumptions. The following assumptions apply to this study: (a) The participants will understand both the survey and semi-structured interview questions; (b) The participants in the interview portion of the study will remember and honestly answer the questions as they pertain to work-family balance; (c) The researcher assumes an adequate number of leaders will respond to the survey to be illustrative of the population according

to Gall, Gall, and Borg's (2003) protocol for adequate sample size (for convenience sampling survey research is 100 participants); and (d) The number of leaders volunteering to take part in the interviewing process is adequate according to Creswell's (2007) qualitative interviewing protocol. Creswell recommends between five and 25 participants for a phenomenological study.

Limitations. The following limitations will impact the internal validity and thus the generalizability of the study findings: (a) The willingness of the administrators to complete the survey and agree to an interview may limit the survey findings; (b) The use of self-reported data through interviews and surveys may affect the validity of the results. The Hawthorne effect suggests that a participant will respond based on the perceived expectations of the study (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorenson, 2010, p. 281); (c) The population for the study will be a non-probability convenience sample; therefore there is no scope of inference to the general population; (d) The perceptions and experiences of the participants may be unique to the individual institution from which they are recruited; and (e) Due to time constraints the researcher is limited to a short time frame for data collection.

Delimitations. The following delimitations may impact this study: (a) The study will take place at five post-secondary institutions; therefore no inference beyond these institutions is possible; (b) The sample for the qualitative piece of this study will be a non-probability sample and therefore findings will not be generalizable beyond the individuals in the sample; (c) This study is limited to higher education administrators.

Significance of the Study

Researchers have assumed in the past that the absence of work-family conflict or the presence of work-family enrichment is equivalent to work-family balance (Carlson et al. 2009; Frone, 2003). “The conceptual distinction among work-family balance, conflict, and enrichment and the potential necessity of a concept like work-family balance remains underdeveloped and empirically unsubstantiated” (Carlson et al., 2009, p. 1-2). Research focused on work-family balance is needed on both theoretical and practical grounds (Carlson, Kacmar, Wayne, & Grzywacz, 2006). From a theoretical perspective, the literature is not conclusive in differentiating and understanding the interconnection among key concepts such as conflict, enrichment, and balance (Carlson et al., 2006). From a practical perspective, research is needed to determine whether there is a need to help higher education leaders balance their work and family lives, and if so, whether the current attempts are sufficient (Carlson et al., 2006).

This study contributes to work-family literature in that it is one of the first empirical studies to simultaneously examine work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. Carlson et al. (2006) explored work-family balance, work-family conflict, and work-family enrichment with six key work and family outcomes. Their research was based upon a survey of 1,159 full-time workers in the private sector. Graves et al. (2007) simultaneously tested work-family conflict and work-family enrichment when they interviewed managers in the private sector to explore the impact of marital and parental role commitment on life satisfaction, career satisfaction, and job performance. Schenewark and Dixon (2012) examined how work-family enrichment and work-family conflict simultaneously influenced job and life outcomes for mothers and fathers who were collegiate coaches. Other than Schenewark and Dixon, work-family enrichment

theory has not been empirically tested alongside conflict theory within the higher education setting.

In addition to simultaneously exploring the relationship between conflict and enrichment, this study will contribute to the literature by focusing on both fathers and mothers. Much of the work-family research has focused primarily on mothers (Hill et al., 2003; Hill, Hawkins, Martinson, & Ferris, 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). This research has been important because working mothers typically experience high rates of role conflict as they juggle the time and socio-cultural expectations while fulfilling both the roles of worker and mother (Bruening & Dixon, 2008). The ways in which men in academia experience work-family conflict and enrichment is less understood (Reddick, Rochlen, Grasso, Reilly, & Spikes, 2012).

Higher education female leaders have expressed a sense of guilt over the time spent away from their children (Terrell & Gifford, 2005). There is evidence to suggest that fathers' and mothers' experiences from work-family interactions may be different (Levine & Pittinsky, 1997). For example, fathers may be less likely to utilize work-family benefits because they fear that taking advantage of those benefits may demonstrate a lack of job commitment (Hill et al., 2005; Pleck, 1993). Fathers may view family spillover into work as more problematic than work spillover into family. Fathers may experience guilt over time imbalances, but their guilt may be expressed differently than the way women express it (Barnett, Marshall & Pleck, 1992). Thus, there may be important gender differences in work-family conflict and work-family enrichment that could be uncovered by studying both mothers and fathers.

This study will provide practical insights into ways to improve higher education policies and leaders' overall work and life quality. There is an increasing recognition by

colleges and universities that being “family friendly” is beneficial to institutional mission, success, and productivity. Still, institutions of higher education could do more to be supportive and to make their climates more hospitable, accepting, and facilitative of the success of all their faculty members, staff, and leaders (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2012).

This study will contribute to the higher education literature by providing insights into human resource management both at the individual and the structural levels. There is consistent evidence that increased work-family conflict is associated with poor organizational outcomes (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Evidence is emerging that suggests organizations might benefit from promoting work-family enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Grzywacz & Bass, 2003).

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to broaden the work-family literature by simultaneously exploring the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. For the purpose of this study higher education leaders were delimited to those working at Idaho State University, the University of Idaho, the University of Wyoming, Boise State University, Dickinson State University, and Utah Valley University and employed at the department chair level and above. The literature context will focus on work-family conflict and work-family enrichment in higher education, and will include the following areas: (a) a brief overview of gender, work, and leadership demographic trends; (b) the background of work-family balance, conflict, and enrichment, including an exploration of gender differences; and (c) an overview of higher education leadership and gender differences in leadership.

Gender, Work, and Leadership-Demographic Trends

History of gender and work. According to Hoffert (2003), the gender demographics of the American workforce have ebbed and flowed over time. “Culturally constructed ideas about masculinity and femininity have had a profound impact on how Americans have experienced work” (Hoffert, 2003, p. 538). In the 17th and 18th centuries, “hard labor was absolutely necessary to maintain daily existence and economic growth” (Baxandall & Gordon, 1995, p. xxi). During this time, market-work and family

responsibilities were not as sharply divided by gender (Hoffert, 2003; Williams, 2000). According to Hoffert (2003), farm couples often thought of themselves as “an economic and social unit and their work was a shared experience” (p. 526). In the preindustrial era, men, women, and children all engaged in productive labor (Gillis & Hollows, 2009).

Between 1820 and the Civil War, new industries and businesses helped to create a new middle class in America. The middle class was made up of families in which the fathers worked as lawyers, office workers, factory managers, merchants, teachers, and physicians (Lavender, 1999). Women (for the most part) stayed at home to raise children and tend the home (Hoffert, 2003). According to Lavender (1999), a new ideal of womanhood and a new ideology (The Cult of Domesticity) arose during this time. The Cult of Domesticity embraced the ideal of womanhood that consisted of four “characteristics any good and proper young woman should cultivate: piety, purity, domesticity, and submissiveness” (p. 1). The Cult of Domesticity established that a woman’s most important role was that of wife and mother (Gillis & Hollows, 2009; Hoffert, 2003; Kessler-Harris, 2003; Kessler-Harris & Sacks, 1987; Williams, 2000).

Domesticity became problematic during World War II, when many men were sent overseas to fight in the war. Women obtained relatively well-paid wartime jobs, because men were not in the country to work (Heidler & Heidler, 2007; Kessler-Harris & Sacks, 1987; Kleinberg, 1999). With the end of the war there was a “widely shared consensus that the health of the American economy depended heavily on women returning to the home” (Kessler-Harris & Sacks, 1987, p. 72).

Two and a half million women entered the workforce during World War II, occupying and performing jobs previously held mostly by men (Kessler-Harris, 2003).

Contrary to popular myth, many women did not actually leave the workforce when they were forced out of their wartime jobs (Anderson, 1981). Instead, women found other jobs in offices, hospitals, banks, non-unionized factories, and a variety of personal service occupations. These jobs did not pay as well as those the women lost at the end of the war (Kessler-Harris & Sacks, 2003).

During the 1950s, Betty Friedan was a freelance writer in suburban New York. *McCall's* magazine contracted with her to write an article on how well Smith College had educated and prepared her for life as a wife and mother. Friedan spent a year preparing a questionnaire she sent to her Smith College classmates prior to their fifteenth class reunion. Friedan's female classmates told narratives of how they felt they were going crazy as stay-at-home wives and mothers. These stories became the basis for *The Feminine Mystique*, Friedan's 1963 groundbreaking work, which challenged the ideals of domesticity. The book became a bestseller and electrified the modern women's rights movement (Collins, 2009; Friedan, 1963).

Williams (2000) argued that the philosophy of domesticity remains the norm in American society and that the concept of the "ideal worker" describes one who works full-time and overtime, with no time off to give birth or raise children. When work is structured in this way, caregivers find it difficult to perform as "ideal workers" (Williams, 2000).

Higher education has not been immune to the ideal worker construct. In *The Second Shift*, Arlie Hochschild (2003) recalled her life as a 31-year old assistant professor in the sociology department at the University of California, Berkeley in the early 1970s. She was the mother of a three-month old child. She wanted to nurse her baby and

continue to teach and maintain her responsibilities within the department. Her solution was to take her baby, David, with her for office hours. She recalls making him a little box with blankets, where he was the “perfect guest” from two to eight months of age. Sometimes students waiting in the hall would take him out with them and pass him around. Every four hours Dr. Hochschild put a fictitious student name on the appointment list and fed David alone in her office (p. ix).

Hochschild (2003) freely admitted she sometimes felt envious of the male professors who did not have to bring their children to the University. Instead, according to Hochschild, “they knew their children were in loving hands” (p. xi). Hochschild recounted how “something inside ripped in half” when she saw the wives drive up in the station wagon with their children in tow, “waiting for a man briskly walking down the steps, briefcase in hand” (p. xii). Hochschild recognized that she was “neither and both the brisk stepping carrier of the briefcase” and the mother in the car (p. xii). Hochschild argues that the university is still designed for the brisk stepping men and “their homes for such women” (p. xii).

Demographic trends of gender, family, and work. As the above makes clear, women have been in the workforce in various capacities throughout history. In terms of more recent (1960 forward) American working women trends, women made up 33% of the workforce in 1960 (Moen, 2003). By 2012, that number had increased to 47% (U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Thus, for Americans 40 years of age and under, they have never known a workplace without female colleagues and women bosses. This increase in women in the workforce has meant that dual-earner couples now make up the typical American family (Boushey & O’Leary, 2009; Drago, 2007). According to the

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2013), the share of married-couple families with children where both parents worked was 59%.

American families have become increasingly diverse (Drago, 2007). According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2013), married couples with children made up 40% of households in 1970, but only 24% of households in 2000. Fully 71% of all households were made up of married couples in 1970, but only 49% in 2012.

As recently as 1973, 60% of wives and mothers stayed home full-time (Applebaum, 2000). The average American woman can expect to bear around 2 children (Kirmeyer & Hamilton, 2011). If adoptive and step-children were included women would have more than 2 children each (Drago, 2007). In 2012, 89.7% of children lived with their biological mother. In 2012, there were 5 million stay-at-home mothers — statistically unchanged from 2009, 2010, and 2011 and down from 5.3 million in 2008. In 2012, 24% of married-couple family groups with children under 15 had a stay-at-home mother, up from 21% in 2000. In 2007, before the great recession, stay-at-home mothers made up 24% of married-couple family groups with children under 15, not statistically different from the percentage in 2012 (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013).

There are approximately 68 million fathers in America, a 4 million increase since 2008, with approximately 26 million having children under 18. In 2009, there were an estimated 158,000 stay-at-home fathers. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2010), these married fathers with children younger than 15 have remained out of the labor force for at least one year primarily so they could care for the family while their wives work outside the home. Among the nation's 11.2 million preschoolers whose mothers are employed, 24% are regularly cared for by a father during their mother's working hours.

This amounted to 2.7 million children (U.S. Census Bureau, 2010). Concurrently, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (2013) reported that men's participation in the national labor force decreased from 88.5% in 2008 to 87.9% in 2009.

The rate of divorce doubled in the U.S. from 9.6/1000 marriages in 1963 to 19.3/1000 marriages in 1974 (Michael, 1988) and leveled off during the 1990s (Drago, 2007). In 2002, 21% of children lived with a homemaker mother and breadwinner father, 5% of children lived with a single father, 23% of children lived with a single mother, and 43% of children lived with dual earner parents (Drago, 2007).

Gender, education, and leadership demographics. In 1982, women surpassed men in the number of bachelor's degrees earned (U.S. Department of Education, 1995). In 2010, post baccalaureate enrollment was 59 percent female (U.S. Department of Education, 2013). However, women's enrollment has not steadily increased over time. In 1940, women represented 41.3% of college graduates. This number slipped to 23.9% in 1950, increasing to 35% in 1960 (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1975). By 2009–2010 this trend had shifted dramatically with females earning 58 percent of bachelor's degrees, 60 percent of master's degrees, and 52 percent of doctoral degrees awarded (U.S. Department of Education, 2013).

Despite women's success in educational attainment, few women are making it to the "O" level—CEO (chief executive officer), CFO (chief financial officer), CIO (chief information officer), CTO (chief technology officer), COO (chief operating officer)—or similar positions on the academic ladder. Of this group of leaders, according to Eagly and Carli (2007), only 6% are women. In the United States, women occupy approximately

50% of the management and professional positions. However, only 2% of Fortune 500 and Fortune 1000 CEOs are women (Cheung & Halpern, 2010; Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Almost half of the women in top executive posts have no children, and almost half of all women in the United States earning salaries greater than \$100,000 have no children (Dye, 2005; Hewlett, 2002). Similar data exist for women who achieve the highest ranks at research universities. For example, only one third of women without children who begin working at research universities ever become mothers. For those who attain tenure, women are twice as likely as their male counterparts to be single 12 years after attaining their doctorates (Mason & Goulden, 2004).

Gender and higher education leadership demographics. According to the 2011 Digest of Educational Statistics, women make up 48% of full-time tenure-track professors on American college campuses. According to Cheung and Halpern (2010), the increase of women in lower managerial levels has created a pipeline of women ready to enter into top-level executive positions in the United States. This simple pipeline metaphor might suggest that women will continue to increase at greater numbers at the associate and full professor rank, as well as in administrative positions. However, that number does not tell the full story. According to Ward and Wolf-Wendel (2012), the higher the academic rank and the more prestigious the institution, the greater the underrepresentation of women among faculty ranks. Women are also underrepresented in fields like Science, Technology, Engineering, and Math (STEM). An analysis of the data, however, shows that while women have made progress in many fields at the incoming levels, they do not steadily progress into associate and senior ranks as the pipeline metaphor suggests (NCES, 2011).

Summary. Overall, the nuclear family that consisted of males as the breadwinners has declined over the past 40 years with the number of women in the workforce increasing to levels on par with men. Women's educational attainment in postsecondary education has now exceeded that of men in the United States. Women, on average, have two children over the course of their lifetime, which means that women and families must balance both work and family responsibilities over the course of their lifetimes. According to Mason, Wolfinger, and Goulden (2013), women faculty who have children often face negative consequences in their early academic careers. Further, as women advance through the faculty ranks, women continue to pay a price in terms of lower rates of family formation and fertility, and higher rates of family dissolution. Alternatively, for men in academia, having children has been found to have positive or neutral effects.

Work-Family Balance

Work-family balance is an underdeveloped concept, despite the term being used widely in work-family literature (Carlson et al., 2009; Grzywacz & Carlson, 2007; Valcour, 2007). Frone (2003) defines work-family balance as a situation where an individual's work and family lives experience little conflict while enjoying work-family facilitation. Voydanoff (2005) views work-family balance as a "global assessment that work resources meet family demands, and family resources meet work demands such that participation is effective in both domains" (p. 825). Valcour (2007) defines balance in terms of an individual's self-appraisal of effectiveness and satisfaction with one's work and family life. Kofodimos (1993) describes balance as "finding the allocation of time

and energy that fits your values and needs, making conscious choices about how to structure your life, and integrating inner needs and outer demands” (p. 8).

Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) suggested an alternative definition of work-family balance as the “accomplishment of role-related expectations that are negotiated and shared between individual and his/her role-related partners in the work and family domains” (p. 458). Carlson et al. (2009) argued that this definition shifts the construct from the psychological domain into the social domain, thereby making it observable. Further, there are no requirements on how role-related responsibilities are accomplished. This is important because balance is attainable even in the presence of work-family conflict. Finally, this definition is unique from others, because neither effectiveness nor performance in personal or professional spheres are necessary conditions for work-family balance. “This feature is important because work-family balance does not mean that an individual is a ‘superstar’ in both the work and family domains” (Carlson et al., 2009, p. 4).

Role theory and work-family conflict. Much of the research on the work-family interface is rooted in the broader concept of role theory (Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Role theory has been used to explain the relationship between work and family (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Thompson, Beauvais, & Allen, 2006). Role theory recognizes that individuals occupy multiple roles simultaneously. Two prominent roles are those of family member (specifically spouse/partner and parent) and worker (specifically, a wage earner) (Schenewark & Dixon, 2012).

Over the past fifty years, sociologists, psychologists, organizational behaviorists, and work-family scholars have examined the nature of the work-family interface (Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Most of the research on role theory and work-family interface has focused on two major paradigms: conflict and enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Conflict theorists have argued that a person has finite resources in time and energy. The multiple roles a person occupies all compete for these limited resources, placing the roles in conflict and competition with each other (Adams, King, & King, 1996; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly 1983; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). Work-family conflict is a “form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). The current work-family literature emphasizes the conflict between multiple roles that workers and parents assume (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

The conflict perspective holds the assumption that work and family are separate and incompatible roles, and the relationship between work and family comprise a zero-sum entity (Hill et al., 2003). Therefore resources, such as time and energy (which are assumed to exist in fixed quantities) used in one role are not available to fulfill another role (Barnett et al., 1992; Hill et al., 2003; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006).

This depletion of resources results in tension and conflict and may produce psychological distress, and decreased marital and job satisfaction (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). By contrast, individuals with lower levels of work-family conflict are found to report greater employee commitment and job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Tiedje, Wortman, Downey, Emmons, Biernat,

& Lang, 1990). Thus, from a conflict perspective, the best outcome is to reduce work-family conflict, leaving the impression that nothing good can come from pursuing multiple roles (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Marks, 1977; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012).

Work-family enrichment theory. Sieber (1974) and Marks (1977) both questioned whether resources such as time, money, and energy were finite. Expanding on this idea, enrichment theorists argue that resources are not necessarily finite and that the multiple roles a person occupies can serve to enhance and enrich each other, resulting in positive outcomes (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). There is evidence that having multiple roles, such as those of parent and employee, produces positive outcomes, such as higher self-esteem and greater marriage and job satisfaction (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006). Therefore, several scholars have argued it is important to examine the positive effects of combining work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002).

Research has supported the claim that work and family roles can have a positive impact on each other (Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Both men and women who engage in multiple roles have reported lower levels of stress-related mental and physical health problems and higher levels of well-being than their counterparts with fewer roles (Barnett & Baruch, 1985; Crosby & Jasker, 1993; Simons, 1992; Thoits, 1992; Wethington & Kessler, 1989). Ruderman et al. (2002) found that high-level managerial women occupying multiple roles had higher levels of life satisfaction, higher multitasking skills, and higher self-esteem and self-acceptance. Barnett and Gareis (2006) found women with

multiple roles benefited from the reward of earning a salary, doing challenging work, utilizing their talents, having access to health benefits, and receiving social support.

Men also seem to benefit from occupying multiple roles. Crosby (1991) found multiple roles increased psychological resources by offering diverse opportunities for gratification and validation of life. Barnett et al. (1992) showed that men's psychological well-being benefitted equally from their roles as worker, spouse, and father, with fewer reported physiological symptoms of distress. Men benefit from creating satisfying relationships with their children (Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Farrell & Rosenberg, 1981; Kalmijn, 1999; Lein, Durham, Pratt, Schudson, Thomas, & Weiss, 1974). For fathers, multiple roles can significantly impact their perceptions about job and career commitment and life satisfaction (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Hill et al., 2003; Veroff, Douvan, & Kulka, 1981).

Work-family balance in higher education. The typical academic career is viewed as one where a new doctoral graduate attains a tenure-track position at a college or university. The tenure process typically takes six- or seven-years. The reward is the promotion to associate professor and tenure. This means a continual contract, protection of academic freedom, job security, and the lifelong right to due process. The criteria for tenure typically include three components. These are teaching, research, and service, though many institutions, and particularly the most prestigious, weigh research more heavily (Boyer, 1990; Drago, 2007; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2012). The culture of tenure creates an environment of competition that rewards dedication to the position—the professorship—above all else in life (Drago, 2007; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2012).

Because of the pressures associated with the pre-tenure years, the work-family conflict dialogue has been particularly pertinent in higher education. In 2001, the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) noted that the inability to limit work, tendencies to compare oneself to the “giants” in one’s field, and high incidences of work overload make it difficult for academics to balance work with private life. Gender disparities are commonly cited (Santos & Cabral-Cardoso, 2008); research documents higher levels of work family conflict among female academics (Finkel & Olswang, 1996; Varner, 2000; Williams, 2000). Other research shows that women report overload and under appreciation at higher levels than men (Duxbury, Heslop, & Marshall, 1993).

There are a number of biases that create work-family conflict for women in academia (Armenti, 2004; Probert, 2005). This is particularly true for tenure-track positions where there is an overlap in the tenure period and women’s childbearing years (Moen & Sweet, 2004). A study by Perna (2001) revealed that institutions had policies for maternity leave, but less than half had policies for job assistance, flexible scheduling, and/or paternal leave. In addition, for those institutions with such policies in place, few were utilized. Mason et al. (2009) found that many women left tenure-track positions after they had children. In addition, Armenti (2004) found the inability to balance academic and family responsibilities was a critical factor in influencing women’s departure from academia.

According to Reddick et al. (2012), less is known about work-family conflict for male tenure-track professors. Reddick et al. found that male tenure-track assistant professors “felt pervasive conflict and strain” (p. 5). In addition, the professors felt the financial compensation did not allow for the resources to hire outside housekeeping help,

which put a strain on marriages. The majority of the men interviewed in the Reddick et al. study cited “their preferences for parenting differently than their own fathers, who seemed to have a more ‘work comes first’ mentality” (p. 10). While Reddick et al. focused on men’s experiences, the respondents unanimously shared the belief that while they faced work-family conflict, their female peers were at a greater disadvantage. Men in the study argued that women “are still perceived as the primary caregiver” (p. 6). One respondent said, “I think it’s probably part of the reason why our department, and probably many other departments, were dominated by males . . . the system is not terribly friendly to women” (p. 6).

Work/life balance in higher education leadership. Bornstein (2007) argued that careers of female faculty are often hindered by family pressures, making it difficult to stay on a direct career path toward presidential and other leadership positions. Women tend to drop in and out of the workforce during their childbearing years to accommodate family needs, rather than focus on their career (Madsen, 2012). In addition, many women also follow their spouses’ career moves instead of their own, further placing their career at a disadvantage (Madsen, 2012).

Thus, women in higher education who have children often obtain leadership positions that follow an informal versus formal career path. According to Madsen (2012), women administrators in higher education who are single often follow career paths that are considered traditional and similar to their male colleagues. However, for women with children, “researchers have found that most of these women had informal, emerging and nontraditional career paths” (p. 60). Madsen explains that many of these women did not aspire to leadership positions through a portion of their career. In spite of this, all of the

women “worked hard, performed to the best of their abilities, and responded to encouragement from others” (p. 60).

Beeny, Guthrie, Rhodes, and Terrell (2005) explored work-family balance issues among senior student affairs leaders. The researchers found that among senior student affairs officers, 80% of respondents felt confident they could set limits regarding personal and professional boundaries. However, only 53% perceived their current level of work-family balance was “better than average” (p. 142). Fully 85% were satisfied with their career choice, but 67% knew at least one person who had left student affairs because of work-family conflict. Interestingly, there were significant gender differences when it came to “feelings of balance, perceived expectations, issues of control, and satisfaction and retention” (p. 144). Women were more likely than men to report they were actively seeking employment in another field. While Beeny et al. did not measure work-family enrichment, one respondent said, “I’m not sure that they (other professionals) achieve balance any better than we do, but those who are happy are passionate about their work and enjoy doing it” (p. 146).

Summary. Most of the research on the work-family interface has focused on work-family conflict. Work-family enrichment theory is another paradigm to use in exploring work-family balance (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Work-family enrichment theory offers a way to demonstrate that individuals who are engaged in both work and family roles can be valuable and productive employees *and* positive family members (Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Because work-family conflict and enrichment are not opposite each other, individuals may experience both conflict and enrichment at the same time. In addition, it has been established that the work-family

interface is bidirectional, with work influencing family and family influencing work (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006).

Leadership

According to Northouse (2012), there are many ways to finish the sentence, “Leadership is. . . .” (p. 1). After reviewing leadership literature, Stogdill (1974) argued there were almost as many ways to define leadership as there were people who had tried to define it.

Leadership and higher education. According to Nidiffer (2001), leadership in higher education is a much-studied phenomenon. Most of the theories that have emerged in the general leadership literature have been applied to the context of higher education (Kezar, Carducci, & Contraras-McGavin, 2011). Thus, higher education scholars have drawn upon multiple sources and used studies of leadership within corporations and the military as a foundation, then expanded the literature with their own empirical studies of institutional presidents (Nidiffer, 2001). These studies were then interwoven with the organizational scholarship on higher education. A rich and complicated literature resulted; one that attempted to illuminate a most complex human phenomenon, including a few studies that concluded that leadership does not matter at all (Nidiffer, 2001).

Higher education leadership theory is derived from both organizational and leadership theorists. Higher education leadership theory can trace its roots to eighteenth- and nineteenth-century philosophers and historians who subscribed to the “Great Man Theory.” This trait theory argued that good leaders possessed certain personality traits such as boldness, confidence, courage, strength, and even certain physical traits (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989; Northouse, 2012). The desirable leadership

traits discussed were primarily those associated with men and masculinity (Nidiffer, 2001).

According to Northouse (2012), the most widely cited research on leadership and power is that of French and Raven. The research of French and Raven (1959) examined how leaders influenced their followers. Social power theories predicted that leaders influenced others because of the office (official), their personality (informal), or a combination (formal). Five different types of power were important: legitimate (office or position held), reward (power to give rewards), coercive (capacity to punish), expert (perceived expertise), and referent (when followers identify and with and care for the leader) (French & Raven, 1959). In studies examining the different types of power, researchers found that coercive power was negatively correlated, legitimate power was neutral, reward power was inconclusive, while expert and referent power were generally positively correlated with satisfaction and productivity (Bensimon, et al., 1989).

The leadership style approach focuses on what leaders do (behavior) and how they act (process) (Chin, 2007). Transactional leaders focus on getting things done; they are task-oriented, act with directness, and use rewards to achieve the organization's goals (Bennis, 1984; Chin, 2007). Transactional leaders must meet follower expectations by engaging in a relationship in which both parties exchange things of value. Transformational leaders act as catalysts of change (Aviolo, 1994). Transformational leaders tend to be visionary (Tichy & Devanna, 1986) and seek to *change* follower expectations (Nidiffer, 2001).

Burns is credited with initiating a movement defining leadership as a transformational process (Northouse, 2012). According to Burns (1978), transformational

leadership occurs when “one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leader and follower raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Their purposes, which might have started out as separate but related, as in the case of transactional leadership, become fused” (p. 20). Bass (1985) compared *transformational* leadership to transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is “the lower order of improvement —the result of leadership that is an exchange process: a transaction in which followers' needs are met if their performance measures up to their explicit or implicit contracts with their leader” (p. 27).

Transformational leaders are often concerned with “end values such as liberty, justice, and equality” (Bensimon, et al., 1989, p. 9). It is for this reason that transformational leadership is viewed as a more ethical form of leadership (Wilcox & Ebbs, 1992). Transformational leadership has become associated in more recent history with the ability to change an organizational culture (Nidiffer, 2001).

All of the theories discussed assume logic and rationality among organizations (Nidiffer, 2001). Individuals within well-functioning organizations share beliefs and values that make up the organizational culture (Peterson & Spencer, 1991). “Leaders may influence culture, but culture cannot be ‘managed’ in the traditional sense of the word. In fact, culture can significantly constrain leaders” (Nidiffer, 2001, p. 107).

Effective leadership is best understood within the context of the organization (Bensimon et al., 1989). Bolman and Deal (1991) argued that organizations must be viewed through four different lenses: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. Successful leaders must be “cognitively complex” and have the ability to view their

organization through multiple frames, depending upon the situation (Bolman & Deal 1991; Nidiffer 2001).

Emergent leadership theory is one of the more recent developments in the literature (Nidiffer, 2001). Emergent leadership is collectivist in nature and assumes a relational context where leaders share power, information, and decision-making with other members of the organization (Guido-DiBrito, Noteboom, Nathan, & Fenty, 1996). Emergent leaders are participatory, flexible, ethical, authentic, connective, and team-oriented (Nidiffer, 2001).

Higher education, leadership, and gender considerations. Scholar Virginia Valian (1999) argued there are implicit and nonconscious sex differences that play “a central role in shaping men’s and women’s professional roles” (p. 2). These differences, which Valian referred to as “*gender schemas* affect our expectations of men and women, our evaluations of their work, and their performance as professionals” (p. 2). Gender schemas are not usually articulated. In fact, “most men and women in the professions and academia explicitly, and sincerely, profess egalitarian beliefs” (p. 2).

Both American culture and American higher education are filled with images of what a leader should look, act, and be like. According to Eagly and Carli (2007), society has conscious and unconscious mental associations with women, men, and leadership. Research has shown that people associate different traits with women and men and they link leadership qualities more with men. Women tend to be associated with communal qualities that convey a concern for people. These traits include being “affectionate, helpful, kind, and sympathetic, as well as interpersonally sensitive, gentle, and soft-spoken” (p. 3). By contrast, men are associated more often with “agentic qualities, which

convey assertion and control” (p. 3). Agentic qualities “include being especially aggressive, ambitious, dominant, self-confident, and forceful, as well as self-reliant and individualistic” (p. 3). The agentic characteristics are often associated in people’s minds as leadership skills (Eagly & Carlie, 2007).

University presidents and leaders are expected to embody leadership traits and characteristics patterned after these male norms (Chliwniak, 1997; Nidiffer, 2001). Research has shown that presidential search committees select certain candidates and eliminate others based on strongly held cultural beliefs about leadership and leaders (Amey & Twombly, 1992). Amey and Twombly found search committees viewed positively attributes such as aggression, vision, strength, determination, and courage; those traits were also typically associated with men more often than women. The physical characteristics desired of leaders were typically white, male, and middle class. Amey and Twombly concluded that women candidates *fail to look like* leaders in the opinion of search committees and thus, lacked what was *needed* to be president of a university.

Similarly, Crowley (1994) conducted a historical study of the metaphors used to describe university presidents throughout American history. His research confirmed what Amey & Twombly found and he reaffirmed that cultural ideals about university presidents were overwhelmingly male. The images attributed to college presidents applied to both the antebellum presidents as well as those who served later and have been considered by historians as the greatest university presidents in our history—Charles Eliot (Harvard), David Starr Jordan (Stanford), Charles Van Hise (Wisconsin), William Rainey Harper (Chicago), Daniel Coit Gilman (Johns Hopkins), and Andrew White (Cornell) (Crowley, 1994; Rudolph, 1962; Thelin, 2004; Veysey, 1965).

By contrast, a person who is perceived as one who does not look like a leader by virtue of one's race, class, or some other variable, must overtly demonstrate his or her competence by proving to be a good leader. The result is that some with leadership potential may not attain leadership roles because of a perceived lack of skills (Nidiffer, 2001). To provide women with academic leadership opportunities, the American Council on Education (ACE) established the Office of Women in Higher Education (OWHE) in 1972 to report on the dearth of women in senior leadership positions and advocate for equal opportunity for women. In 1977, OWHE established the National Identification Program (NIP) to recognize promising women administrators and assist them in preparing for presidential roles (Shavlik & Touchton, 1984).

Limiting who is perceived, and therefore chosen as a leader deprives higher education of potential talent and the hope that new leaders might find solutions to some of higher education's most pressing problems (Kuk, 1994). Anita Harrow (1993) argued:

women must join the higher education leadership ranks at a faster rate. . . . It is time for new voices, new perspectives, new strategies, new ways of working with people; all qualified individuals capable of making significant contributions to the advancement of higher education must have the opportunity to serve. (p. 145)

Research shows that men and women use power differently (Astin & Leland, 1991; Chliwniak, 1997). Astin and Leland conducted research consisting of 77 case studies exploring women leaders during the 1940s through the 1970s. Based on their findings, they asserted that women typically have a distinct female leadership style and a different view of power. Their belief is that women often view "power as energy that transforms oneself and others, and identifies the effective leader as one who empowers

others to act in their own interests” (Astin & Leland, 1991, p. 1). Similarly, Chliwniak (1997) argued that women leaders in general are more collaborative and democratic. According to Niddifer (2001), this participatory leadership style is one preferred most by faculty members and viewed as most compatible to an academic culture.

Women often feel they must defy the cultural expectations of gender roles and choose to “act like a man,” adopting leadership styles created by men in order to secure leadership positions. The result is the “double-bind” where women are “incompetent if too feminine or abnormal if too masculine” (Nidiffer, 2001).

According to Caldwell-Colber and Albino (2007), women not only lead in different ways based upon their gender socialization, but also some women are also *feminist* leaders. “Feminism is a politics. It is a politics directed at changing existing power relations between men and women in society” (Weedon, 1987, p. 1). Feminist leaders try to balance their roles both as leaders of the organization and their desire to bring about change in power structures—not only for women, but also underrepresented groups. Feminist leadership according to Caldwell-Colbert and Albino (2007) “...values people, relationships, absolute fairness and equity, honesty, collaboration, and communal goals and achievements” (Caldwell-Colbert & Albino, 2007, p. 85).

According to Heim and Golant (1992), leveling the playing field and compressing hierarchies are often goals of women in leadership. Similarly, feminist leaders often do not desire to exert their power, but rather share power through collaboration. This leads to the importance of consensus in feminist leadership, but there are times when consensus may not be possible for a variety of reasons. Sometimes, agreement cannot be reached due to self-interests and this leads to the suppression of minority needs and views.

“Feminist leaders are outspoken on issues of inclusion and empowerment, and forceful in advocating for diversity and strategies that express, rather than oppress, minority views and opinions” (Caldwell-Colbert & Albino, 2007, p. 76).

Feminist leadership evolves from the fact that it is difficult to separate who a person is from the leadership style one relies upon. “We are what we have learned, who has influenced us, and the culture in which we have grown and lived. Even if we wanted to separate ourselves as leaders from those things that have shaped us human beings, it would be impossible” (Caldwell-Colbert & Albino, 2007, p. 80).

Summary. Effective higher education leadership is a combination of relational skills that involves both transformational and transactional skills. “Successful leaders need to develop cognitive complexity and become skilled in acting as symbolic leaders, become politically savvy, maintain attention to goals and objectives, *and* build strong relationships on campus” (Kezar et al., 2011, p. xi). Research suggests that successful leadership theory should include a blended model—one that takes the stereotypically female and stereotypically male attributes and blends them into an integrated set of successful leadership abilities (Harter, 1993; Nidiffer, 2001; Sargent & Stupak, 1989).

Literature Review Summary

Most of the research on the work-family interface has focused on two major paradigms: conflict and enrichment (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). Work-family conflict causes stress when work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996). The research suggests that work-family conflict causes a decrease in career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Tiedje et

al., 1990). This study has the potential to determine if that is the case among higher education leaders.

Research also supports work-family enrichment theory suggesting that having multiple roles, such as that of paid worker and parent, produces positive outcomes, such as higher career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction. This research will examine the positive effects of combining paid and family roles concurrently among higher education leaders.

Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) suggested that work-family balance is achieved through the process of negotiating unpaid work and family responsibilities with one's partner. This is important, because balance can still be achieved despite the presence of work-family conflict. Furthermore, there is no expectation of performance, so one does not need to be a "superstar" in either or both the work or family domains. How each partner in the family navigates this negotiation process will be important in determining whether there are gender differences in the roles and/or expectations between partners.

Understanding gender differences is important, because the literature suggests that work-family conflict is a primary reason many women leave tenure-track jobs after having children (Armenti, 2004; Mason et al., 2009). Furthermore, the literature suggests that the careers of female faculty are often hindered by family pressures that make it difficult for them to remain on a direct career path toward higher education leadership positions (Bornstein, 2007). This research explored how work-family conflict and work-family enrichment have impacted the career paths of higher education leaders. Permitting the higher education culture to be inhospitable to women may result in the attrition of women during their childbearing years. This deprives higher education of potential talent

and new leaders who may find solutions to some of higher education's most pressing problems (Harrow, 1993; Kuk, 1994).

CHAPTER III

Methodology

Introduction

This study employed mixed methods, engaging both quantitative and qualitative inquiries. The purpose of this study was to broaden the work-family literature by simultaneously exploring the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. For the purpose of this study higher education leaders were delimited to those working at Idaho State University, the University of Idaho, the University of Wyoming, Boise State University, Dickinson State University, and Utah Valley University and employed at the department chair level and above. In terms of the quantitative inquiry, multiple regression was used to assess how work-family conflict and work-family enrichment impacted higher education leaders' organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction. The quantitative data established the foundation for the qualitative research.

The qualitative research design used a rigorous methodology called "phenomenology." This method allowed the researcher to gain a deeper understanding of the participants' lives, experiences, and perceptions, while investigating the underlying meanings and influences of the experiences (Creswell, 2007). Through phenomenology, this study explored (a) the impact of work-family conflict; (b) the impact of work-family enrichment; (c) gender differences in these outcomes; and (d) how the "second shift"

impacted higher education leaders. The methods will review the: (a) participants and sampling, (b) instrumentation, (c) procedures, and (d) design and analysis.

Participants and Sampling

This study utilized both quantitative and qualitative research methods, and was conducted in two phases with the quantitative data being collected first, followed by the qualitative inquiry. Participants were surveyed from among leaders at Idaho State University (ISU), the University of Idaho (UI), the University of Wyoming (UW), Boise State University (BSU), Dickinson State University (DSU), and Utah Valley University (UVU) and defined and delimited to department chairs or heads, deans (including assistant and associate levels), and vice presidents (including assistant and associate levels). ISU, UI, and UW are Carnegie Classified RU/H: Research Universities (high research activity). DSU and UVU are Carnegie Classified Bac/Diverse: Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields. BSU is Carnegie Classified as a Master's L: Master's Colleges and Universities (larger programs) (Carnegie Foundation Website). The institutions represent a convenience sample of baccalaureate, master's, and doctoral granting universities. While selected in part based on their proximity and accessibility to the researcher, because of their diverse Carnegie classifications they will provide breadth in terms of variance across the Carnegie classifications.

In Phase I of the research process the researcher conducted a census (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2008) survey of all leaders meeting the inclusion criteria to gather respondent demographic data, as well as query perceptual data based on rank-order survey responses pertaining to work-family conflict, work-family enrichment, organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction. Based on a review of web-based publically

available directory information, there were 445 potential respondents in the target population. The survey was sent electronically utilizing the Survey Monkey platform.

Phase II of the study employed a nonprobability self-selected sample for the qualitative phase of this study. Survey respondents were asked to participate in a post-survey follow-up interview. The survey instrument concluded with a query asking respondents whether or not they were willing to participate in an interview, and if so, their preferred method of follow-up contact. The respondents were later contacted and interviews began once the quantitative data had been analyzed.

Since all of the participants chosen met the criteria of experiencing the phenomenon of being a higher education leader at the department chair level or above, this type of sampling is also called criterion sampling as described by Creswell (2007). Twelve educational leaders were selected to participate in a semi-structured interview. Selection criteria was based on: (a) willingness and availability to participate in an interview; and (b) intentional demographic diversification (e.g., age, gender, years at the institution, administrative rank, number of children in household, etc.). Creswell recommends between five and 25 participants for a phenomenological study. Morse (1994) recommends six participants for a phenomenological study. Mason (2010) argues “the guiding principle should be the concept of saturation” (p. 1).

Instrumentation

The quantitative and qualitative phases of this study employed different instruments.

Quantitative instrumentation. For the quantitative phase of the study, data was derived from a survey accessible to identified higher education leaders via an email

invitation with a survey monkey hyperlink. The quantitative instrument began with a paragraph on informed consent. The survey instrument included three parts: (a) questions were asked to establish demographic data; (b) Likert-scale questions were used to establish the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction; and (c) an invitation to participate in a follow-up interview. The instrument appears in Appendix A.

Demographics. The survey instrument included demographic information such as age, gender, marital status, children in the home, years of professional experience, etc. Demographic information was collected to better understand the work-family interface. Gender, age, and children living at home have consistently accounted for variance in predicting work-family conflict (Byron, 2005; Carlson, 1999; Clark, 2001; Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1997; Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000; Higgins, Duxbury, & Lee, 1994; Thompson et al., 2006).

Explanatory Variables. There were two explanatory variable constructs: work-family enrichment and work-family conflict.

Work-family enrichment scale. The first explanatory variable measured work-family enrichment. Work-family enrichment is defined as “the extent to which experiences in one role improve the quality of life in the other role” (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006, p. 73). It was measured using an eighteen-item scale from Carlson et al. (2006) (Appendix A). Carlson et al. (2006) detailed background information for the scale, including development and validation. The scale is bi-directional in that it assesses both directions of work-family enrichment (i.e., work-to-family enrichment and family-to-work enrichment). This instrument was chosen as it was the only instrument validated to measure enrichment as defined by Greenhaus and Powell (2006).

Respondents rated the degree to which each statement described their experiences on a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Carlson et al. (2006) reported a coefficient alpha of .92 for the whole instrument, indicating high internal reliability. Carlson et al. (2006) also reported that the nine work-to-family items had a coefficient alpha of .92, while the nine family-to-work items achieved a coefficient alpha of .86.

Work-family conflict. Work-family conflict is defined as a form of inter-role conflict where some functions of each role spill into those of the others (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This explanatory construct was measured using a ten-item scale based on the work of Netemeyer et al. (1996) (See Appendix A). The scale is bi-directional in that it assesses both directions of work-family conflict (i.e., work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict). Respondents rated the degree to which each statement described their experiences on a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Netemeyer et al. (1996) reported a coefficient alpha of .88 for work-to-family conflict and of .86 for family-to-work conflict.

Response Variables. There were three response variable constructs: organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction.

Organizational commitment. Organizational commitment is defined as the “employees’ desire to remain with the organization because they want to” (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p. 3). Allen and Meyer’s (1990) eight-item scale of organizational commitment was used to measure this construct (Appendix A). A five point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5) was used. Allen and Myer (1990) reported a coefficient alpha of .87 for their affective organizational commitment scale.

Career commitment. Carless’ (2005) five-item scale was used for measuring career commitment (Appendix A). Career commitment is defined as an “affective attachment to a

chosen career role or defined line of work.” It is “characterized by the development of personal career goals, the attachment to, identification with, and involvement in those goals” (Carless, 2005, p. 342). Respondents rated the degree to which each statement described their experiences on a five-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5). Carless (2005) reported a coefficient alpha of .83 for the career commitment scale.

Life satisfaction. Finally, life satisfaction was measured using the Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) created by Diener, Emmons, Larsen, and Griffen (1985). For this item, a seven-point Likert-type scale with responses ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree was used to capture responses. The SWLS assesses global life satisfaction and is suited for use with different age groups. Diener et al. reported a coefficient alpha .87 for the SWLS.

Quantitative validity/reliability. According to Ary, Jacobs, and Sorenson (2010), the interpretation of validity has changed over time. The traditional definition of validity was the extent to which an instrument measured what it purported to measure. More current definitions of validity involve interpretations of the instruments. Validity is important when instruments are created to represent constructs that are not directly measurable. As defined by Ary et al., reliability is the “degree of consistency with which it measures whatever it is measuring” (p. 254).

Qualitative instrumentation. The qualitative phase of this study consisted of one-on-one interviews with identified and selected higher education leaders. Three instruments were employed for this phase of the study; the researcher, an interview protocol, and an audio recording device. A draft of the semi-structured interview protocol

with a guiding set of questions can be found in Appendix B. The guiding questions were developed based upon the literature review.

Qualitative validity/reliability. Creswell (2007) lists multiple terms that have replaced the quantitative term of validity. These terms include confirmability, objectivity, credibility, dependability, and others. To achieve validation in qualitative studies, Creswell recommends utilizing a variety of validation strategies. Checking for qualitative reliability means assessing whether the information obtained through the qualitative data is accurate (Creswell, 2007). This study employed rich, thick description and member checking. Member checking is a frequently used approach to ensure validity and involved taking the interview summaries back to the participants to ensure the information reflected their lived experiences (Creswell, 2007). Member checking may reveal factual errors needing correction or the participants may recall new facts or have new perceptions about their experience (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). For reliability, Creswell recommends good quality recording and transcription. This study employed a good quality digital recorder. The researcher personally transcribed all of the interviews and double-checked the transcriptions with the recordings.

Procedures

This section will describe the procedures for the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. Before beginning the data collection, the researcher obtained permission from the Idaho State University Human Subjects Research Committee to conduct the study. Once Human Subjects approval had been obtained, the researcher identified the survey population and sample from among university leaders who were department chairs or heads, deans (including assistant and associate deans), and vice

presidents (including assistant and associate vice presidents). The approach for the survey followed Dillman's (2007) protocol. An e-mail address list of potential respondents was compiled utilizing each University's on-line campus directory. Directory information included name, position title, email, and office location, and phone number. The survey was sent to potential respondents via e-mail utilizing Survey Monkey. Following Dillman's protocol, a postcard announcing the survey was sent one week prior to the launch of the survey. A follow-up e-mail message was sent a week prior to the survey closing. The survey data was collected, compiled, and analyzed.

Once the quantitative analysis was complete, the researcher began the qualitative phase of the study. A semi-structured interview protocol was used to guide data collection for this phase of the study. The protocol included a series of open-ended, probing questions to explore participant past experiences and perceptions around the issue of work/life balance. Twelve leaders (six men and six women) were invited to participate in the interview process. The leaders interviewed were selected to intentionally diversify the interview sample from among those who volunteered to participate when completing the quantitative survey.

Each interview lasted approximately between 15 to 60 minutes and was held at a location most convenient for the participant, such as the participant's office. Participants were also given the option to conduct a telephone or Skype interview. Before the interview, each participant was provided with a letter explaining the general purpose of the study and providing informed consent (Appendix C). The participants signed the informed consent document prior to beginning the interview process.

The researcher began by reintroducing the topic prior to beginning the interview. The interviews were guided by the semi-structured protocol. The researcher took an interpretive constructionist approach to this research, using a responsive interviewing model as discussed in Rubin and Rubin (2005). This type of interview enabled the researcher to modify the topics and questions on the basis of the responses already obtained. The interviews were recorded on a digital recorder. Notes were taken by the researcher during and immediately following the interview. Interview tapes were transcribed by the researcher within one week of each interview. The researcher provided participants with a word-processed transcription of the interview and asked for any corrections. As noted earlier, Creswell (2007) calls this “member checking” and this added to the research validity.

Design and Analysis

The study employed mixed-methods. Phase I focused on the quantitative data derived from the survey. The quantitative data was analyzed and reported utilizing descriptive statistics including response frequencies, corresponding percentages, and measures of central tendency. Multiple regression was employed to analyze the conceptual models relative to the research questions posed. Multiple regression was used to establish that a set of explanatory variables (i.e., work-to-family enrichment and work-to-family conflict) may explain a proportion of variance in a response variable (life satisfaction, career commitment, and organizational commitment). The following assumptions of multiple regression were checked: linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variables, no measurement error in the independent variables, homoscedasticity of residuals, and that residuals were normally distributed (Whittaker, 2006).

The quantitative analysis consisted of a series of multiple regression analyses and a mixed models analysis. For Research Question 1: “What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” model selection was based on retaining variables with observed significance levels (p -values) of less .05. Residuals were assessed for homoscedasticity using residual plots. Normality was assessed using both Shapiro-Wilk test of Normality and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of Normality with the Lilliefors correction.

Research Question 2: “What is the impact of work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” was analyzed using multiple regression to build the model. Residuals were assessed for homoscedasticity and Normality as mentioned above, with the same considerations concerning the response variable.

Research Question 3: “Are there gender differences in these outcomes and/or relationships?” was analyzed by first selecting only female leaders. Then multiple regression was used to build the model. Residuals were assessed for homoscedasticity and Normality as mentioned above.

Research Question 4: “Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship?” was analyzed using multiple regression to build the model. Residuals were assessed for homoscedasticity and Normality as mentioned above, with the same considerations concerning the response variable.

The qualitative analysis was based on the narrative data transcribed from the interviews. The analysis of the qualitative data followed the General Inductive Approach described by Thomas (2006). The data was transcribed and read to develop categories using open coding. The data was re-read and categories were assigned to all data units. Categories were organized into key themes and subthemes. These key themes and linkages among them were reported and supported using appropriate quotations from the data. These themes and linkages were used to address the three research questions.

Methods Summary

This chapter addressed both the quantitative and qualitative methods utilized in this research study. The respondents and participants were described and the rationale for their selection was discussed. The procedures for data acquisition were presented. The methods for data collection and the analysis addressing the research questions were discussed, thereby tying the proposed analysis to the purpose of the study.

CHAPTER IV

Results

The purpose of this study was to broaden the work-family literature by simultaneously exploring the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. This study employed mixed methods, engaging both quantitative and qualitative inquiries. For the quantitative inquiry, multiple regression techniques were used for the statistical analyses and were performed using IBM SPSS version 21 (2012). The qualitative inquiry was used to further explore and explicate themes and trends revealed through the quantitative inquiry and analysis. Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007) argued that mixed methods not only corroborate research findings, but also deepen and enhance the understanding of the research questions.

There were four research questions:

1. What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders' levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?
2. What is the impact of work-family enrichment on higher education leaders' levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?
3. Are there gender difference in these outcomes and/or relationships?
4. Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship?

Survey Response Rate

In the quantitative portion of this study, 445 individuals met the criteria for inclusion as higher education leaders. For the purpose of this study, higher education leaders were defined as department chairs, heads, academic directors, assistant, associate, and university deans, assistant, associate vice presidents, and vice presidents, and further delimited to individuals working at six Carnegie Classified RU/H, Master's/L, and Bac/Diverse universities. These universities were Idaho State University (ISU), the University of Idaho (UI), Boise State University (BSU), the University of Wyoming (UW), Utah Valley University (UVU), and Dickinson State University (DSU).

Of the 445 leaders contacted, 442 received the survey via SurveyMonkey, which amounted to a 99.3% contact rate. Of the 442 that were contacted, 10 actively opted out at various levels. There were 182 out of 442 (41.1%) respondents who opened the survey and 179 (40.4%) began taking the survey. Eighteen respondents were eliminated because they did not complete the Work-Family Enrichment Scale. Out of those, 16 did not complete any of the other scales. Eleven of the 18 did not provide any demographic information, leaving 161 respondents. Of the 18 eliminated, four were female. Two additional respondents did not complete enough of the survey for their responses to be included, thus 159 potential respondents completed the survey with a few missing answers for a response rate of 36%.

Survey Respondent Demographics

Descriptive statistics on respondent personal and academic demographic variables are presented in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1

Frequencies and Percentages of Nominal Level Personal Demographic Variables

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Gender | | |
| Female | 56 | 35.2 |
| Male | 103 | 64.8 |
| Marital Status | | |
| Single/Never Married | 7 | 4.4 |
| Married/Domestic Partner | 142 | 89.9 |
| Widowed | 1 | .6 |
| Divorced | 8 | 5.1 |
| Respondent Lives With | | |
| Lives Alone | 10 | 6.3 |
| Spouse/Domestic Partner | 139 | 88.0 |
| Unmarried Partner | 0 | 0 |
| Biological Child | 76 | 48.1 |
| Adopted Child | 5 | 3.2 |
| Step Child | 5 | 3.2 |
| Foster Child | 0 | 0 |
| Grandchild | 0 | 0 |
| Parent | 1 | .6 |
| Parent-in-Law | 0 | 0 |
| Son or Daughter-in-Law | 2 | 1.3 |
| Sibling | 1 | .6 |
| Other Relative | 2 | 1.3 |
| Housemate | 1 | .6 |
| Other Non-Relative | 0 | 0 |
| Are you currently caring for or managing care for an aging and/or ill parent, spouse, or other relative? | | |
| Yes | 14 | 8.8 |
| No | 145 | 91.2 |

Table 2

Frequencies and Percentages of Academic Demographic Variables

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|-------------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Discipline | | |
| Agriculture | 9 | 5.7 |
| Fine Arts & Humanities | 29 | 18.4 |
| Biological Sciences | 4 | 2.5 |
| Business | 20 | 12.7 |
| Computer Science | 2 | 1.3 |
| Education | 34 | 21.5 |
| Engineering | 8 | 5.1 |
| Health Professions | 17 | 10.8 |
| Law | 4 | 2.5 |
| Physical Sciences | 9 | 5.7 |
| Social Sciences | 22 | 13.9 |
| Job Title | | |
| Department Chair/Head/Director | 86 | 55.1 |
| Assistant/Associate Dean | 27 | 17.3 |
| Dean | 16 | 10.3 |
| Assistant/Associate Vice President | 15 | 9.6 |
| Vice President | 12 | 7.7 |
| Rank | | |
| Assistant Professor | 5 | 3.2 |
| Associate Professor | 38 | 24.1 |
| Professor | 84 | 53.2 |
| Other | 4 | 2.5 |
| Do not Hold Academic Rank | 27 | 17.1 |
| Tenure Track | | |
| Tenured | 119 | 75.3 |
| Tenure Track, but not yet tenured | 6 | 3.8 |
| Not tenured and not on tenure track | 33 | 20.9 |

As displayed in Table 1, over half (64.8%) of the respondents were male and 35.2% were female. The respondents ranged in age from 34 to 75 years, with an average age of 52.84 and standard deviation of 7.6. The median age was 54 years. Almost 90% were married or in a domestic partnership, with 8% divorced, 4% single and never married, and less than 1% widowed. Slightly more than 6% of respondents indicated they lived alone, while 88% lived with a spouse or domestic partner. More than half of the respondents had a child living in the household (56.1%), which included biological children (48.1%), adopted children (3.2%) and stepchildren (3.2%). Just over one percent (1.3%) lived with a son or daughter-in-law or other relative. Less than one percent (.6%) of respondents lived with a parent, sibling, or housemate.

Table 2 presents the respondents' discipline, title, rank, and tenure status. Over half of the respondents (53.8%) came from the disciplines of education, fine arts & humanities, and the social sciences. Over half of the respondents (55.1%) were department chairs, heads, or academic directors. Three-quarters of the respondents were tenured (75.3%) and 53.2% were full professors; less than a quarter (24.1%) were associate professors. Nearly 21% of respondents were not tenured; nor were they on a tenure track.

Tables 3 and 4 present information on the hours worked per week by the higher education leaders and their spouses/partners.

Table 3

Frequencies and Percentages of Hours Worked Variables

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------|
| Hours Worked per Week | | |
| Less than 40 | 2 | 1.3 |
| 40-49 | 52 | 32.7 |
| 50-59 | 64 | 40.3 |
| 60-69 | 23 | 14.5 |
| Greater than 70 | 18 | 11.3 |

As displayed in Table 3, only 1.3% of respondents reported working less than 40 hours per week. Nearly one-third (32.7%) reported working 40-49 hours per week, while 66.1% reported working 50 or more hours per week.

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentages of Spouse Work Variables

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| What is your spouse's/partner's principal activity? | | |
| Employed | 89 | 62.2 |
| Self-employed | 15 | 10.5 |
| Not Employed/Seeking Employment | 1 | .7 |
| Not Employed/Not Seeking Employment | 20 | 14.0 |
| Retired | 15 | 10.5 |
| Student | 3 | 2.1 |
| How many hours per week does your spouse/partner work outside the home? | | |
| Part-time | 23 | 22.1 |
| 3/4 time | 10 | 9.6 |
| Full-time | 48 | 46.2 |
| Greater than 40 | 23 | 22.1 |

The majority of respondents reported having partners who were employed or self-employed (72.7%). Of those who indicated they had an employed partner, 68.3% reported their spouse working 40 or more hours per week, while just under a third of the respondents (27.3%) reported their spouse was not employed.

Table 5 presents findings relative to the prevalence and use of family support policies on the respondents' respective campuses.

Table 5

Frequencies and Percentages of Family Support Policies Variables

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| Does your institution have family support policies? | | |
| Yes | 89 | 56.3 |
| No | 15 | 9.5 |
| Not sure | 34 | 34.2 |
| If your institution has family support policies, have you used those policies? | | |
| Yes | 25 | 27.5 |
| No | 64 | 70.3 |
| N/A | 2 | 2.2 |
| If your institution does not have family support policies, would you have used them if they had been available? | | |
| Yes | 29 | 43.3 |
| No | 19 | 28.4 |
| N/A | 19 | 28.4 |

Over half of respondents (56.3%) reported their institution had family support policies available and 27.5% of these reported utilizing such policies. Over one-third of respondents (34.2%) were unsure whether or not their institution had family support

policies. However, 43.3% of respondents said they would have utilized such policies if they had been available or had known about them.

Table 6 presents information on the number of children born pre- and post-tenure for those respondents who were on the tenure track. Table 7 presents causes of stress for respondents over the past 12 months.

Table 6

Frequencies and Percentages of Children Born Pre- and Post-Tenure

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|-----------|------------|
| For respondents on a tenure-track appointment: | | |
| How many of your children were born before you attained tenure? | | |
| None | 29 | 23.2 |
| One | 23 | 18.4 |
| Two | 40 | 32.0 |
| Three | 19 | 15.2 |
| Four | 7 | 5.6 |
| Five | 5 | 4.0 |
| Six or more | 2 | 1.6 |
| How many of your children were born after you attained tenure? | | |
| None | 102 | 82.9 |
| One | 17 | 13.8 |
| Two | 4 | 3.3 |
| Three | 0 | 0 |
| Four | 0 | 0 |
| Five | 0 | 0 |
| Six or more | 0 | 0 |

Table 7

Frequencies and Percentages of Stress Variables

| Variable | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Which of the following has been a source of stress over the past 12 months? | | |
| Managing household responsibilities | | |
| Not at all | 26 | 16.5 |
| Somewhat | 56 | 35.4 |
| Moderate | 58 | 36.7 |
| Extensive | 18 | 11.4 |
| Childcare | | |
| Not at all | 80 | 62.0 |
| Somewhat | 20 | 15.5 |
| Moderate | 21 | 16.3 |
| Extensive | 8 | 6.2 |
| Care of someone who is ill, disabled, aging and/or in need of special services | | |
| Not at all | 83 | 60.1 |
| Somewhat | 24 | 17.4 |
| Moderate | 21 | 15.2 |
| Extensive | 10 | 7.2 |
| Your own health | | |
| Not at all | 63 | 40.1 |
| Somewhat | 52 | 33.1 |
| Moderate | 27 | 17.2 |
| Extensive | 15 | 9.6 |

As displayed in Table 6, of the respondents who indicated they had children, the majority (76.8%) reported their children were born before they attained tenure, and 82.9% reported that no children were born post-tenure. Table 7 illustrates that the biggest

source of stress noted by respondents came from managing household responsibilities. Household responsibilities were the cause of stress to varying degrees for 83.5% of respondents. Nearly 60% of the respondents felt stress due to their own personal health concerns. Nearly 40% indicated they experienced stress associated with caring for someone who was ill, disabled, aging and/or in need of special services. Finally, 38% said they felt stress from child care responsibilities.

Survey Respondent Demographics Disaggregated by Gender

In response to the purpose of study, descriptive statistics were generated for all of the variables disaggregated by gender. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for categorical and nominal level variables. Table 8 displays the frequencies and percentages for the personal demographic variables by gender.

Table 8

Frequencies and Percentages of Nominal Level Personal Demographic Variables by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|--|----------|----------|
| Marital Status | | |
| Married/Domestic Partner | 44 (80%) | 98 (95%) |
| Unmarried | 11 (20%) | 5 (5%) |
| Children under 18 Living in the Home | | |
| Yes | 8 (14%) | 6 (6%) |
| No | 48 (86%) | 97 (94%) |
| Are you currently caring for or managing care for an aging and/or ill parent, spouse, or other relative? | | |
| Yes | 8 (14%) | 6 (6%) |
| No | 48 (86%) | 97 (94%) |

As Table 8 displays, most of the male respondents (95%) were married compared to female respondents (80%). A Fisher's Exact test ($p = .004$) showed a statistically significant difference in the proportions of married men versus female respondents by gender, thus, the number of single women was proportionally higher than the number of single men.

Most of the respondents reported not having children under the age of 18 years living in the home with them. Only 8% of women and 6% of men reported having children under age 18 living at home. A Fisher's Exact test ($p = .216$) showed no statistically significant gender difference in this area.

Very few respondents reported they were responsible for the care of an aging or ill parent, spouse, or other relative. Of those who were caring for a family member, 14% were women, while 6% were men. A Fisher's Exact test ($p = .085$) showed no statistical gender difference in the proportion of women versus men who were responsible for the care of a family member.

Table 9 displays the frequencies and percentages for academic demographic variables by gender.

Table 9

Frequencies and Percentages of Academic Demographic Variables by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|-------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| Discipline | 2 (3.6%) | 7 (6.9%) |
| Agriculture | 9 (16.1%) | 20 (19.6%) |
| Fine Arts & Humanities | 2 (3.6%) | 2 (2.0%) |
| Biological Sciences | 5 (8.9%) | 15 (4.7%) |
| Business | 1 (1.8%) | 1 (1.0%) |
| Computer Science | 18 (32.1%) | 16 (15.7%) |
| Education | 2 (3.6%) | 6 (5.9%) |
| Engineering | 7 (12.5%) | 10 (9.8%) |
| Health Professions | 1 (1.8%) | 3 (2.9%) |
| Law | 0 (0%) | 9 (8.8%) |
| Physical Sciences | 9 (16.1%) | 13 (12.7%) |
| Social Sciences | | |
| Job Title | | |
| Department Chair/Head/Director | 28 (50.9%) | 58 (57.4%) |
| Assistant/Associate Dean | 10 (18.2%) | 17 (16.8%) |
| Dean | 7 (12.7%) | 9 (8.9%) |
| Assistant/Associate Vice President | 5 (9.1%) | 10 (9.9%) |
| Vice President | 5 (9.1%) | 7 (6.9%) |
| Rank | | |
| Assistant Professor | 2 (3.6%) | 3 (2.9%) |
| Associate Professor | 13 (23.6%) | 25 (24.3%) |
| Professor | 30 (54.5%) | 54 (52.4%) |
| Other | 3 (5.5%) | 1 (1.0%) |
| Do not Hold Academic Rank | 7 (12.7%) | 20 (19.4%) |
| Tenure Track | | |
| Tenured | 41 (73.2%) | 78 (76.5%) |
| Tenure Track, but not yet tenured | 2 (3.6%) | 4 (3.9%) |
| Not tenured and not on tenure track | 13 (23.2%) | 20 (19.6%) |

As displayed in Table 9, the largest group of female respondents were from the field of education (32.1%), whereas for men it was Arts & Humanities (19.6%). The next highest disciplines for women were Fine Arts & Humanities and the Social Sciences each representing 16.1% of female respondents. This was followed by Health Professions (12.5%) and Business (8.9%). The disciplines of Agriculture, Biological Sciences, and Engineering each represented 3.6% of female respondents. Women made up 1.8% of the respondents from the disciplines of computer science and law. There were no women who responded from the physical sciences, though 8.8% of male respondents were from the physical sciences. While the frequencies and corresponding percentages revealed differences between female and male respondents, a Chi-Square test showed that these discipline differences were not statistically significant ($p = .222$).

Department chairs, heads, and academic directors made up over half of the respondents amounting to 50.9% of women and 57.4% for men. Respondents who were deans amounted to 30.9% of female respondents versus 25.7% of males. Females who were vice presidents made up 18.2% of respondents, while males totaled 16.8%. A Chi-Square test ($p = .901$) showed no statistically significant difference by gender in job titles.

More than half of the respondents were at the academic rank of full professor amounting to 54.5% of female respondents and 52.4% of male respondents. This was followed by 23.6% of females and 24.3% of males reporting at the associate professor level. A Chi-Square test ($p = .422$) showed no statistically significant gender differences in academic rank by gender.

Almost two-thirds of the respondents were tenured, with 73.2% of women and 76.5% of men indicating they had attained tenure. Almost one-fourth (23.2%) of female

respondents and 19.6% of men reported not being on the tenure track and having never attained tenure. Very few respondents, 3.6% of women and 3.9% of men, were on the tenure track, but had not yet attained tenure. A Chi-Square test ($p = .866$) showed no gender differences between men and women having attained tenure at their institution.

Tables 10 and 11 display the frequencies and percentages of hours worked and spouse work variables by gender.

Table 10

Frequencies and Percentages of Hours Worked by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|-----------------------|------------|------------|
| Hours Worked per Week | | |
| Less than 40 | 0 | 2 (1.8%) |
| 40-49 | 19 (32.2%) | 34 (30.9%) |
| 50-59 | 25 (42.4%) | 45 (40.9%) |
| 60-69 | 10 (16.9%) | 15 (13.6%) |
| Greater than 70 | 5 (8.5%) | 14 (12.7%) |

A Mann-Whitney test ($p = .920$) showed no statistically significant gender differences in hours worked by gender.

Table 11

Frequencies and Percentages of Spouse Work Variables by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|---|------------|------------|
| What is your spouse's/partner's principal activity? | | |
| Employed | 31 (68.9%) | 58 (59.2%) |
| Self-employed | 5 (11.1%) | 10 (10.2%) |
| Not Employed/Seeking Employment | 1 (2.2%) | 0 (0.0%) |
| Not Employed/Not Seeking Employment | 2 (4.4%) | 18 (18.4%) |
| Retired | 5 (11.1%) | 10 (10.2%) |
| Student | 1 (2.2%) | 2 (2.0%) |

For those respondents who were married, most reported having a working spouse. Fully 80% of female respondents reported having a working spouse versus 69.4% of males. Males reported having a non-employed spouse at a much higher rate (18.4%) than females (6.6%). The numbers of spouses who were retired were similar for females (11.1%) and males (10.2%). The numbers of respondents whose spouses were students were similar for both females (2.2%) and males (2.0%). Despite these differences, a Fisher's Exact test ($p = .227$) showed no gender differences in the proportion of spouses employed versus not employed.

Table 12 displays the frequencies and percentages of family support policy variables by gender.

Table 12

Frequencies and Percentages of Family Support Policies Variables by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|---|------------|------------|
| Does your institution have family support policies? | | |
| Yes | 29 (51.8%) | 60 (58.5%) |
| No | 7 (12.5%) | 8 (7.8%) |
| Not sure | 20 (35.7%) | 34 (33.3%) |
| If your institution has family support policies, have you used those policies? | | |
| Yes | 8 (27.6%) | 17 (27.4%) |
| No | 20 (69.0%) | 44 (71.0%) |
| N/A | 1 (3.4%) | 1 (1.6%) |
| If your institution does not have family support policies, would you have used them if they had been available? | | |
| Yes | 12 (46.2%) | 17 (41.5%) |
| No | 6 (23.1%) | 13 (31.7%) |
| N/A | 8 (30.8%) | 11 (26.8%) |

There were 51.8% of female respondents and 58.8% of male respondents who reported their institution had family support policies. Of those, a similar percentage of female and male respondents (27.6% and 27.4% respectively) reported they had used such policies. There were 48.2% of female and 41.1% of male respondents who reported their institution did not have family support policies or they were unsure of the existence of such policies. Of those, 46.2% of women and 41.5% of men reported they would have used those policies if they had been available. Interestingly, 23.1% of female and 31.7% of male respondents reported they would not have utilized such policies if they had been available. Despite some variation in response percentages, the Chi-Square test ($p = .548$)

showed no statistically significant gender differences in the responses for family support policy variables.

Table 13 displays frequencies and percentages of children born pre-tenure by gender.

Table 13

Frequencies and Percentages of Children Born Pre-Tenure by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|--|------------|------------|
| For respondents on a tenure-track appointment: How many of your children were born before you attained tenure? | | |
| None | 18 (32.1) | 11 (13.4%) |
| One | 9 (16.1%) | 14 (17.1%) |
| Two | 11 (19.6%) | 29 (35.4%) |
| Three | 3 (5.4%) | 16 (19.5%) |
| Four | 1 (1.8%) | 6 (7.3%) |
| Five | 1 (1.8%) | 4 (4.9%) |
| Six or more | 0 (0.0%) | 2 (2.4%) |

A Mann-Whitney test demonstrated a significant difference in the number of children born pre-tenure between males and females ($p < .001$), with twice as many children born pre-tenure for male respondents versus female respondents. The mean number of children born pre-tenure for women was 1.1, while men averaged 2.2 children pre-tenure. Most of the respondents (82.9%) did not have any children post-tenure. For those who did, a Mann-Whitney test showed ($p = .954$) no statistically significant difference in the number of children born post-tenure by gender.

Table 14 displays the frequencies and percentages of stress variables by gender.

Table 14

Frequencies and Percentages of Stress Variables by Gender

| Variable | Females | Males |
|--|------------|------------|
| Which of the following has been a source of stress over the past 12 months? | | |
| Managing household responsibilities | | |
| Not at all | 6 (10.7%) | 20 (19.6%) |
| Somewhat | 22 (39.3%) | 34 (33.3%) |
| Moderate | 20 (35.7%) | 38 (37.3%) |
| Extensive | 8 (14.3%) | 10 (9.8%) |
| Childcare | | |
| Not at all | 25 (59.5%) | 55 (63.2%) |
| Somewhat | 6 (14.3%) | 14 (16.1%) |
| Moderate | 6 (10.7%) | 15 (17.2%) |
| Extensive | 5 (8.9%) | 3 (3.4%) |
| Care of someone who is ill, disabled, aging and/or in need of special services | | |
| Not at all | 24 (50.0%) | 59 (65.6%) |
| Somewhat | 10 (20.8%) | 14 (15.6%) |
| Moderate | 9 (18.8%) | 12 (13.3%) |
| Extensive | 5 (10.4%) | 5 (5.6%) |
| Your own health | | |
| Not at all | 21 (38.2%) | 42 (41.2%) |
| Somewhat | 19 (34.5%) | 33 (32.4%) |
| Moderate | 10 (18.2%) | 17 (16.7%) |
| Extensive | 5 (9.1%) | 10 (9.8%) |

Fully 75% of women and 70.6% of men reported feeling somewhat to moderately stressed from managing household responsibilities. Only 10.7% of women expressed no stress from managing household responsibilities, whereas 19.6% of men expressed this. A

Mann-Whitney test ($p = .330$) showed no statistically significant gender differences in responses to the household stress variable.

Nearly 60% of women and 63.2% of men reported feeling no stress from childcare responsibilities. Fully 25% of women and 33.3% of men reported feeling somewhat to moderate stress related to childcare responsibilities. Nearly 9% of women and 3.4% of men felt extensive stress from childcare responsibilities. A Mann-Whitney test ($p = .491$) showed no statistically significant gender differences in the childcare stress variable.

Fully 50% of women and 65.6% of men reported feeling no stress related to the care of someone who was ill, disabled, aging and/or in need of special services. Nearly 40% of women and almost 29% of men reported feeling somewhat to moderate stress related to the care of a family member. Female (10.4%) and male (5.6%) respondents reported feeling extensive stress from the care of a family member. A Mann-Whitney test ($p = .070$) showed no statistically significant gender differences in this variable.

Over half of the respondents felt some kind of stress related to their own health concerns. Over half of the female respondents, 52.7%, and nearly half, 49.1%, of male respondents expressed somewhat to moderate stress related to their health. The percentage of respondents who felt extensive stress related to their health was very similar between female and male respondents (9.1% and 9.8% respectively). Respondents who felt no stress related to their health amounted to 38.2% of women and 41.2% of men. A Mann-Whitney test ($p = .793$) showed no statistically significant gender differences in stress from health concerns.

Reliability Analysis of the Survey Instrument

Explanatory variables. The Likert-scale section of the quantitative survey was based upon previously developed and validated scales. The work-family enrichment Likert-scale was based on a multi-dimensional measure of work–family enrichment developed by Carlson et al. (2006). The eighteen-item scale consisted of nine items that measured the work-to-family direction (development, affect, and capital) and nine items that measured the family-to-work direction (development, affect, and efficiency). The measure was assessed on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha for the work-to-family scale was .94; the Cronbach’s alpha for the family-to-work scale was .93 (Carlson et al., 2006). A Cronbach’s alpha assesses inter-item reliability or consistency for a set of items. A higher coefficient alpha indicates a higher level of inter-item reliability (Santos, 1999).

The work-family conflict Likert-scale was based on a ten-item scale that consisted of five items measuring work-family conflict and five items measuring family-work conflict. The measure was assessed on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha was .88 for the five work-family conflict items; the Cronbach’s alpha was .86 for five family-work conflict items (Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Outcome variables. The organizational commitment Likert-scale was based on an eight-item scale developed by Allen and Meyer (1990) that measured affective organizational commitment. Affective organizational commitment refers to an individual’s “emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in, the

organization” (p. 1). The measure was assessed on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was 0.73.

The career commitment Likert-scale was based on a five-item scale measuring career commitment developed by Carless (2005). The measure was assessed on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha was .83.

The satisfaction with life Likert-scale was based on a five-item scale developed by Pavot and Diener (1993). The Satisfaction with Life Scale (SWLS) was developed to assess satisfaction with the respondent’s life as a whole. The measure was assessed on a seven-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). The Cronbach’s alpha for this scale was .87.

When the SWLS scale was typed into SurveyMonkey, the “strongly disagree” column was inadvertently left out. This resulted in a six-point Likert-scale, rather than a seven-point scale. That left “disagree” or “slightly disagree” as the possible answers if someone disagreed. Overall, the SWLS scale results were right-skewed, meaning that respondents tended to answer they “agreed” at some level with the statements. It is unlikely that this omission seriously altered the data, but should be mentioned.

Gender interaction variables. Eight additional variables were created to explore possible gender interactions with work-family development, work-family affect, work-family capital, family-work development, family-work affect, family-work capital, work-family conflict, and family-work conflict.

Research Question Analysis Based on Survey Data

Three separate multiple regression models were developed using organizational commitment as the response variable, then career commitment, and finally, satisfaction with life. The explanatory variables used in the three models were the 18 items from the work-family enrichment scale, the ten items from the work-conflict scale, and the eight gender interaction variables. Each model was developed to answer all four research questions simultaneously for each of the three response variables. The multiple regression, using a backwards selection procedure, resulted in significant models that predicted organizational commitment, career commitment, and satisfaction with life.

Research Question 1. As noted, in an effort to facilitate analysis, Research Question 1 was parsed into its three component parts. Research Question 1 asked: “What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” To facilitate analysis and clarity, the three component parts of Question 1 were considered as follows.

1-2.a What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment?

1-2.b What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of career commitment?

1-2.c What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of life satisfaction?

Research question 1-2.a. What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment?

Multiple regression, using a backwards selection procedure, resulted in a highly significant model in predicting organizational commitment ($F[2,152] = 29.47, p < .001$). The adjusted coefficient of multiple determination (R^2_{adjusted}) was .272, meaning that 27% of the variation in organizational commitment was explained by the model. Multicollinearity was assessed using Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF)—two SPSS generated collinearity diagnostic statistics. Because all of the VIF values were well below 3 and the tolerance statistics were well above 0.2, it was concluded there was no collinearity within the data (Field, 2009). The assumption of normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality. Visual evaluation of the histogram revealed negative skewness therefore indicating a violation of normality. However, Field (2009) says “significance tests of skew and kurtosis should not be used in large samples (because they are likely to be significant even when skew and kurtosis are not too different from normal)” (p. 139). However, with the violation of normality these results should be viewed as approximate, rather than exact. The parameter estimates for the coefficients along with their standardized regression coefficients, t values, and p -values are presented in Table 15.

Table 15

Regression Coefficients for Model with Organizational Commitment as the Response

Variable

| Variable | Coefficient | Beta | t | p-value |
|-------------------------|-------------|------|-------|---------|
| Intercept | 1.773 | | 7.11 | < .001 |
| Work-Family Development | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Affect | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Capital | | .391 | 4.854 | <.001 |
| Family-Work Development | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Affect | | .211 | 2.621 | .010 |
| Family-Work Capital | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Conflict | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Conflict | | | | NS |
| WF Development * Gender | | | | NS |
| WF Affect * Gender | | | | NS |
| WF Capital * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Development * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Affect * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Capital * Gender | | | | NS |

Note. Non-significant variables are indicated with NS.

The coefficients displayed in Table 15 illustrate that work-family capital and family-work affect explained 27% of the variation in organizational commitment. Work-family capital is defined as when “involvement in work promotes levels of psychosocial resources such as a sense of security, confidence, accomplishment, or self-fulfillment that helps the individual to be a better family member” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). An example of a question measuring work-family capital was “My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member” (p. 144). In essence, work-family capital suggests that a person’s work may give feelings of confidence, personal fulfillment, a sense of accomplishment, and a sense of success. Thus, these positive emotional responses translated into individuals feeling

they were better family members, and the model findings suggest this further strengthened organizational commitment.

Carlson et al. (2006) defined family-work affect as when “involvement in family results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better worker” (p. 140). An example of a family-work affect question on the survey was “My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker” (p. 145). For example, when an individual experiences positive affect from home, that enhances his or her performance or affect at work. These positive feelings from family and the impact they had at work further strengthened organizational commitment.

Research question 1-2.b. What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of career commitment?

Multiple regression, using a backwards selection procedure, resulted in a highly significant model in predicting career commitment ($F[10,140] = 13.51, p < .001$). The adjusted coefficient of multiple determination (R^2_{adjusted}) was .472, meaning that 47% of the variation in career commitment was explained by the model. As mentioned earlier, the VIF values were less than 2.7; therefore, there was no multicollinearity in the data set (Field, 2009). The assumption of normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality. Visual evaluation of the histogram revealed negative skewness therefore indicating a violation of normality; however, this was expected given the sample size (Field, 2009). However, with the violation of normality these results should be viewed as approximate, rather than exact. The parameter estimates for the coefficients along with their standardized regression coefficients, t values, and p -values are presented in Table 16.

Table 16

Regression Coefficients for Model with Career Commitment as the Response Variable

| Variable | Coefficient | Beta | t | p-value |
|-------------------------|-------------|-------|--------|---------|
| Intercept | 2.93 | | 7.91 | < .001 |
| Work-Family Development | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Affect | | .315 | 3.33 | < .001 |
| Work-Family Capital | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Development | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Affect | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Capital | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Conflict | | -.334 | -4.891 | NS |
| Family-Work Conflict | | | | NS |
| WF Development * Gender | | | | NS |
| WF Affect * Gender | | | | NS |
| WF Capital * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Development * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Affect * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Capital * Gender | | | | NS |

Note. Non-significant variables are indicated with NS.

The coefficients displayed in Table 16 illustrate that work-family affect and family-work conflict explained 47% of the variation in career commitment. As noted above, work-family affect is defined as when “involvement in work results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better family member” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). Work-family affect suggests that a person’s work may put him/her in a better mood. For example, a person in a positive mood when leaving work will typically respond more positively, patiently, and happily to his or her family members and that will ultimately enhance his or her affect and performance as a parent or spouse.

Work-family conflict is defined as a stressor in which work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Examples of survey questions that addressed work-family conflict were “The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities” and “Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities” (Netemeyer et al., 1996, p. 410.) It is important to note that these findings revealed that work-family conflict affected career commitment negatively, meaning as work-family conflict increased, career commitment decreased. By contrast, work-family affects impacted career commitment positively; meaning that as work-family affect increased, so did career commitment.

Research question 1-2.c. What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of life satisfaction?

Multiple regression, using a backwards selection procedure, resulted in a highly significant model in predicting life satisfaction ($F[2,154] = 42.15$ $p < .001$). The adjusted coefficient of multiple determination (R^2_{adjusted}) was .348, meaning that 35% of the variation in life satisfaction was explained by the model. Multicollinearity was assessed using Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). According to these test statistics, there was no collinearity in the data. The assumption of normality was assessed using the Shapiro-Wilk and Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normality. Visual evaluation of the histogram revealed negative skewness therefore indicating a violation of normality. Therefore, these results should be viewed as approximate, rather than exact. The parameter estimates for the coefficients along with their standardized regression coefficients, t values, and p -values are presented in Table 17.

Table 17

Regression Coefficients for Model with Life Satisfaction as the Response Variable

| Variable | Coefficient | Beta | t | p-value |
|-------------------------|-------------|------|-------|---------|
| Intercept | 1.693 | | 7.57 | < .001 |
| Work-Family Development | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Affect | | .413 | 6.048 | <.001 |
| Work-Family Capital | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Development | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Affect | | .325 | 4.759 | <.001 |
| Family-Work Capital | | | | NS |
| Work-Family Conflict | | | | NS |
| Family-Work Conflict | | | | NS |
| WF Development * Gender | | | | NS |
| WF Affect * Gender | | | | NS |
| WF Capital * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Development * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Affect * Gender | | | | NS |
| FW Capital * Gender | | | | NS |

Note. Non-significant variables are indicated with NS.

The coefficients displayed in Table 17 illustrate that work-family affect and family-work affect explain 35% of the variation in life satisfaction. As mentioned, work-family affect describes the positive moods and emotions that are generated from work and how those are carried over into the family life. An example of a survey question assessing work-family affect was “My involvement in my work helps me to maintain a positive attitude and this helps me be a better family member” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 144). Similarly, family-work affect explains how positive moods and emotions from family life are carried over into the work life. An example of a survey question measuring family-work affect was “My involvement in my family helps me to have a positive outlook and this helps me be a better worker” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 145). Therefore, these positive emotional responses translated into individuals feeling they were better

family members and professionals at work and the model findings suggest this further strengthened overall life satisfaction.

Research Question 3. Are there gender difference in these outcomes and/or relationships?

As noted above, the findings displayed in Tables 15, 16, and 17 indicated that there were no statistically significant gender interactions apparent in any of the three models. This means that, in this study, gender differences in how work-family enrichment and work-family conflict impacted leaders' career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction were not evident. However, because differences were noted relative to the demographics and descriptive findings reported in the first section of this chapter, gender differences were further explored using a *t*-test calculated for each of the work-family enrichment and work-family conflict variables. A Levene's Test showed no significant difference in variance between genders; and, while the models analyzed did not show gender differences, there was a statistically significant difference based on gender relative to the responses on the work-family development Likert questions.

Work-family development is reflected by intellectual and personal development. Carlson et al. (2006) defined this as when "involvement in work leads to the acquisition or refinement of skills, knowledge, behaviors, or ways of viewing things that help an individual be a better family member" (p. 140). An example of a work-family development question was the following: "My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member" (p. 144). Table 18 displays the Means and Standard Deviations for these Likert scale items by gender.

Table 18

Means and Standard Deviations for Likert Scales Items by Gender

| Variable | Mean | SD | t | df | p-value |
|------------------------------|-------|-----|-------|-----|---------|
| WF Development | | | 2.19 | 155 | <.005 |
| Female | 3.85 | .91 | | | |
| Male | 3.53 | .84 | | | |
| WF Affect | | | -.301 | 155 | NS |
| Female | 3.06 | | | | |
| Male | 3.12 | | | | |
| WF Capital | | | .402 | 156 | NS |
| Female | 3.83 | | | | |
| Male | 3.77 | | | | |
| FW Development | | | .232 | 154 | NS |
| Female | 3.68 | | | | |
| Male | 3.65 | | | | |
| FW Affect | | | .876 | 157 | NS |
| Female | 4.01 | | | | |
| Male | 3.88 | | | | |
| FW Capital | | | -.063 | 155 | NS |
| Female | 3.46 | | | | |
| Male | 3.47 | | | | |
| Work-Family Conflict | | | 1.86 | 155 | NS |
| Female | 18.27 | | | | |
| Male | 16.92 | | | | |
| Family-Work Conflict | | | -.977 | 151 | NS |
| Female | 11.35 | | | | |
| Male | 12.04 | | | | |
| Organizational Commitment | | | 1.02 | 152 | NS |
| Female | 3.65 | | | | |
| Male | 3.53 | | | | |
| Career Commitment | | | -.216 | 156 | NS |
| Female | 2.75 | | | | |
| Male | 2.78 | | | | |
| Satisfaction with Life Scale | | | -.425 | 155 | NS |
| Female | 26.67 | | | | |
| Male | 27.05 | | | | |

Table 18 shows that for women, the average response on the work-family development questions was 3.9, while for men it was 3.5. All of these variables were assessed on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A score of “3” indicated the respondent neither agreed nor disagreed with the statement. A score of “4” indicated the respondent agreed with the statement. This meant that the women’s average response score of 3.9 indicated they were closer to agreeing with the work-family development statements than were men. The men’s response of 3.5 meant that they were in between neutral and agreeing with the work-family development questions. Thus, while the difference between women and men was statistically significant, with women indicating stronger agreement with the notion that work-family development positively impacted their work potential, overall work-family development did not appear to be very important to either men or women in this study. This finding was validated in the multiple regression models, where work-family development was not a statistically significant predictor for career commitment, organizational commitment, or life satisfaction.

Research Question 4. Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship?

As noted above, Tables 15, 16, and 17 illustrated there were differences in the outcomes based on the direction of the relationship. Table 15 showed that work-family capital and family-work affect both impacted organizational commitment, with both having a positive effect on organizational commitment; as work-family capital and family-work affect increased, so did organizational commitment. As mentioned, work-family capital is defined as when “involvement in work promotes levels of psychosocial

resources such as a sense of security, confidence, accomplishment, or self-fulfillment that helps the individual to be a better family member” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). Family-work affect looked at mood and attitude gains, and is defined as when “involvement in family results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better worker” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). In summary, two constructs predicted organizational commitment. The first was work-family capital that resulted in feelings of confidence, accomplishment, and self-fulfillment. These feelings helped the individuals feel they were better family members. The second was family-work affect, where the findings indicated that respondents felt that family life improved their moods and attitudes and this helped them be better workers. The reverse direction (e.g., family-work capital and work-family affect) was not statistically significant.

Table 16 showed work-family affect and work-family conflict both had an impact on career commitment. Work-family affect had a positive effect on career commitment; as work-family affect increased, so did career commitment. Work-family affect was expressed through positive emotions like, a good mood, which then caused individuals to feel happy and cheerful, and improved their attitudes and outlooks. Based on these findings, respondents seemed to feel that these positive moods and feelings helped them to be better family members. Work-family conflict also impacted career commitment, but in a negative way. As work-family conflict increased, the level of career commitment decreased. Work-family conflict is a stressor in which work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Table 17 showed that affect in both directions had an impact on life satisfaction. Both work-family affect and family-work affect had a positive impact on life satisfaction.

As work-family affect and family-work affect increased, so did life satisfaction. In these instances the positive emotions and/or mood derived from work and similarly derived from family had a positive impact both directions.

Qualitative Inquiry

The qualitative data collected were in the form of interviews as recommended by Creswell (2007) for a phenomenological study. A nonprobability self-selected convenience sample (Creswell, 2007) was selected for the qualitative portion of this study. In Phase One, survey respondents were asked if they were willing to participate in follow-up interviews. There were 81 respondents who volunteered to participate in interviews. Email messages were sent to 19 individuals, selected to create representation across disciplines, gender, institution, and leadership levels. There were 12 individuals who agreed to be interviewed either in person, on the telephone, or via Skype. The interviews followed the technique of responsive interviewing as recommended by Rubin and Rubin (2005).

Audio recordings of each interview were transcribed by the researcher. Once transcription was complete, the researcher began the data analysis process using the General Inductive Approach (Thomas, 2006). Emerging themes were developed by reading the transcripts repeatedly and considering how the meanings fit into the developing themes. A table was created to focus on what was emerging and how the themes fit with each research question. The table consisted of participant's quotes, or textual units, which were coded into one or more themes. The textual units consisted of phrases and sentences that expressed a coherent idea. Interviewing was concluded at the point where no new themes emerged—data saturation, suggesting the major themes had

been identified (Thomas, 2006). Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, and Sorensen (2006) defined data saturation as “the point at which no new information is forthcoming from additional participants or settings” (p. 631). A total of 207 textual units were identified and coded.

Member checking was used to verify the accuracy of the interview transcripts. Member checking is a process where participants review their interview transcripts and are given the opportunity to correct errors or omissions (Ary, et al., 2006). Member checking is used to support the dependability and trustworthiness of the data (Thomas, 2006). The interview transcripts were sent to the participants to verify accuracy and the representation of their ideas. This process allowed participants to clarify or modify anything they had said in the interview process. Of the 12 participants, one had a minor spelling correction. Another found the age of a child had not been included in the transcript. No other changes to the transcripts were requested by the participants.

The participants represented a broad range of higher education leaders. Participant demographics are presented in Table 19. The information is presented as summaries of individual variables to protect the identities of the participants. Table 19 shows that the disciplines representing the most participants were Education and Fine Arts. The interview participants represented the top five disciplines of the survey respondents. Broad representation from the disciplines was sought; however, not all of those invited agreed to participate in the interviews. The interviewees had an equal number of women and men in each job category (e.g., department chair, assistant/associate dean, dean, assistant/associate vice president, and vice president). There was one female and one male interviewed in each category; there were two men and two women interviewed at the department chair/director level. All but one of the participants had a doctoral degree.

Two individuals were single. One person was single and had never married; the other was divorced. All interviewees had children, except for one. For the most part, the interviewee demographics mirrored the demographics of the survey respondents. This was true in the area of job title. However, 67% of the leaders interviewed represented job titles at or above the assistant/associate dean level. This could explain why the interviewees tended to be older and worked more hours than the survey respondents. Seven of the interviewees were on a tenure track and had attained tenure; the remaining five did not have tenure and had never been in a tenure track position.

Table 19

Frequencies for the Demographic Variables on the Interview Participants

| Variable | Frequency |
|---|-----------|
| Discipline | |
| Fine Arts & Humanities | 3 |
| Business | 2 |
| Education | 3 |
| Health Professions | 1 |
| Physical Sciences | 1 |
| Social Sciences | 2 |
| Job Title | |
| Department Chair or Academic Program Director | 4 |
| Associate Dean | 2 |
| Dean | 2 |
| Assistant/Associate Vice President | 2 |
| Vice President | 2 |
| Academic Rank | |
| Professor | 6 |
| Associate Professor | 1 |
| I do not hold academic rank | 5 |
| Tenure Status | |
| Not tenured and not on tenure track | 5 |
| Tenured | 7 |
| Highest Degree | |
| Doctoral Degree | 11 |
| Master's Degree | 1 |
| Number of Hours Worked per Week | |
| Less than 40 | 1 |
| 40-49 | 3 |
| 50-59 | 3 |
| 60-69 | 4 |
| 70 or more | 1 |
| Age Category | |
| 30-39 | 1 |
| 40-49 | 4 |
| 50-59 | 5 |
| 60-69 | 2 |

| | |
|----------------|----|
| Marital Status | |
| Yes | 10 |
| No | 2 |
| Child/Children | |
| Yes | 11 |
| No | 1 |

Five themes emerged from the raw text of the interviews. These were Geographical Choice, Family, Career Stage, Support, and Barriers. Textual units were coded as Geographical Choice when they referred to decisions about where to attend graduate school, where to look for a job, and where to accept a position. If the textual unit referred to the care of a family member or encouragement received from family, it was coded as Family. Career Stage was the code used when a person spoke of pre-tenure pressures and the skills learned later in their career that led to better work-family balance. When a textual unit indicated personal satisfaction or flexibility that made work-family balance easier, it was coded as Support. When a textual unit indicated demands from work, judgment and discouragement from others, and burdens from household responsibilities, it was coded as Barriers. A summary of the themes and their relationship to the research questions is displayed in Table 20.

Table 20

Examples of Raw Data Themes by Theme and Relationship to Research Question

| Themes | Work-Family Conflict | Family-Work Conflict | Work-Family Enrichment | Family-Work Enrichment | Gender |
|---------------------|---|--|---|---|---|
| Family | Balance with young children vs. older and career delays | Care for family member | Inter-connectedness between work/family | Emotional support from family; household help from family | Family not a priority for men; guilt |
| Geographical Choice | Career determined where family lived | Aging parents living away cause stress | Choosing institution for better work-family balance | | Dual career issues |
| Career Stage | The tenure process or not being tenure track | | Setting priorities, transparency | | Different career path for women |
| Support | | | Personal satisfaction; work flexibility | Home is a haven; relates better to others | Support for father involvement |
| Barriers | Long work hours 24/7 attention; judgment for taking vacation, busy-ness | | | | Women discouraged by others; second shift |

Research Question 1 “What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” As mentioned, five major themes emerged from the interview data: Family, Geographical Choice, Career Stage, Support, and Barriers. Specific to Research Question 1, four themes emerged. The theme for support did not emerge through the interview data for work-family conflict. A total of 74 textual units were coded for work-family conflict. Table 21 displays the emergent themes and the frequency of their occurrence across the 12 interviews. The relevant themes in terms of their relationship to work-family conflict are discussed in detail below.

Table 21

Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Impact of Work-Family Conflict on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction

| Theme | Interview | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Family | 6 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 1 | 0 |
| Geographical Choice | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 9 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Career Stage | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Support | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Barriers | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Family. Family was a major theme in this section, occurring 26 times in the coding. Ten participants referred to family when talking about work-family conflict. All ten participants referred to the heightened work-family conflict when their children were younger. One female department chair said, “I think it is amusing that you are using the word ‘balance,’ because there was no such thing” (when the children were young).

The work-family conflict was so great that three of the interviewees (2 men and 1 woman) mentioned their spouses had put their own careers on hold while the children were younger. One male dean said, “At the time when the kids grew up, to be in academia and to be under pressure to do scholarship, to bring in grants, to be able to publish takes a lot of time.”

Two of the nine female interviewees chose to cut back on their work after they had children. One of those worked part-time until her children were older. This female dean said:

And to me that has been a really important thing, because that is not something I would have wanted to have missed for anything and I really am appreciative that I could work part-time when my children were small. Because I feel like for me and for our family it made a big difference. So I am very grateful to (my institution) that I did have that opportunity.

The second respondent, a female department chair, stopped working entirely after she had her first two children who were 18 months apart. However, when her youngest child was a few months old she said she realized, “I’ve just seen so many women go through this. . . But I got to the point where I said, I need more in my life than being somebody’s wife and somebody’s mother. I needed that professional identity.”

Three of the nine interviewees came from a dual-career household where both partners worked full-time. All three talked about the difficulties of managing work and family while working full-time. One female department chair said:

But during all of those times when I was going to school at night and working full-time and raising a kid and all that stuff; I didn’t think about balance much. I

thought about survival. How am I going to get through this day? How am I going to get through this week? How am I going to do the homework due on Friday, you know? And sleep at the same time? It was just survival. There was no such thing as balance; again, it was like survival.

One female vice president had been the sole breadwinner while taking care of a disabled spouse who was unable to work. She also referred to this period in her life as “survival.” This person worked full-time while the children were little, but put her career on hold, too. She said:

When the kids were really little, there were some opportunities that I did not take advantage of, because I just couldn’t do one more thing. I felt like I have to be home in the evenings, I’ve got to be able to pick them up from daycare, I’ve got to make sure they get their homework done, because if I don’t, it’s not going to happen. There were opportunities that I turned down when they were little . . .

While work family conflict was heightened when children were young, 7 of the 10 interviewees talked about how much easier it became when the children were older. In many ways this reduced work-family conflict increased the interviewees’ life satisfaction, as well as that of their spouse. As mentioned, three of the interviewees had spouses who stopped working while their children were young. All three of those spouses have since returned to work. One male dean said:

And so, with regards to the kids growing up, my wife, she is a librarian and so she was able to and elected at the time to be a stay-at-home mum for a number of years and she is now very happy to be practicing again.

Two of the female interviewees who put their careers on hold expressed an increased life satisfaction with their ability to comfortably take on more work responsibilities and enter into higher education leadership. One female vice president said, “I feel like I’m 52 years old. I feel like the next 10-15 years really are going to be great years and I’m really happy with how it all turned out.” The second respondent, a female dean, expressed similar sentiments noting:

I feel like it’s a chance to start something new especially with the administrative duties. I almost feel like I have more energy, because I am shifting into something new that I haven’t been doing for a quarter of a century even though I’ve been here 26 years. I’m doing something new and so to me it feels kind of like, not starting over necessarily, but branching out into something new and I feel like I get energy from that.

Career Stage. The second most prevalent theme to emerge in terms of work-family conflict was labeled career stage. Ten of the 12 interviewees referred to career stage when addressing work-family conflict. Career stage was the code used when a person spoke of graduate school pressures, pre-tenure pressures, and the pressures from being non-tenure track. In addition, it was used when interviewees talked about how work-family conflict was lessened once tenure was attained.

Four of the ten interviewees talked about how much more work-family conflict existed in their lives before they attained tenure. One male dean said:

Yeah, there is tremendous pressure, I think, especially for a young faculty member before they get tenure, to know, are you doing enough? Well, enough is only enough when I think it’s enough and maybe that’s not what somebody else

thinks. It's very definitely stressful. I think it's more stressful for assistant professors than any other level, because of that.

Another male department chair agreed that attaining tenure made it easier to balance work and family by saying, "One really important thing is that I got tenure. That provides a certain amount of security. That was pretty important."

Another respondent was neither tenured, nor in a tenure track position. He talked about how this created a great deal of work-family conflict, because there was no job security. He said:

You know what's interesting? How much more we would tip in favor of family if there was more perceived job security, right? So, one of the reasons that we, my colleague and I, commit . . . is because our students deserve it. The other reason is that we're on annual contracts and we feel like if we don't deliver a home run every year that we might be vulnerable and so we deliver a home run year after year and that can impact our family-life choice, work-family choice. That may be we'd be better off with the 50 or 55-hour work week than 60 to 65 to 70 hour work week that we typically put in during the academic year. And maybe we would choose that differently if we were more secure in our positions.

Seven of the ten participants talked about the stresses of graduate school. Six of the seven were working and had children when they were encouraged to pursue their doctoral degrees. One female department chair said, "With the master's degree in hand I went looking for a job and they said, 'Well, this is nice, but we really want a PhD.'"

Five of the ten participants said that managing graduate school with work and family was a very stressful period in their lives. A female vice president said:

The year when I wrote my dissertation . . . was a moment where we all sat down together and I said, “Okay, folks, here’s what’s going to happen, I’m going to collect my data and then I am going to sit down at this table and I am going to write for six straight months. And you need to understand that we’re embarking on that.” So, I’ve had to make deals with my family and those deals have come to an end.

Geographical Choice. Seven of the twelve interviewees said their careers determined where they would live. For one of the male interviewees this meant moving to have an academic job and that created stress for the family. He said:

Moving was not easy for the family. My wife took it in stride, because she’s lived in all four corners of the country. It wasn’t hard for me; I’ve been in 48 states in my travels. But the kids had known nothing but living in (our home state), so that was certainly a point of stress, but I took the job that was available to me and I’m glad I did, because it’s certainly fast-tracked everything I’ve done since then. And they’ve adjusted.

One female dean said she ended up at her current institution because her husband attained his doctorate before she did and landed the first job. She struggled to find a comparable academic position, because there were no openings in her field. She said:

If you look across the university there are a number of couples that are in the same department that they met each other in graduate school and then were lucky enough to get jobs at the same university which can be really hard to do.

A female department chair was working in Chicago when she married her husband who had a job in the western region of the U.S. Following their marriage, she had a baby and began flying back and forth between the two cities every weekend. She said:

Academic positions just don't grow on trees . . . so I flew back and forth and I was really blessed that the job I had paid enough where I could break even. Flying back and forth every week; Delta loved me! I had so many frequent flyer miles, you couldn't believe it. So I did that basically for five years. In the middle of those five years I did have (my youngest son). So, for (his) first two years of life he would come back with me for a two-week stint. We would fly back on Monday morning and we'd stay through a weekend and then fly back the next Friday and then the next two weeks he (her son) would be in Nevada.

Barriers. Four of the interviewees talked about specific barriers that made work-family conflict more difficult for them. Three interviewees discussed how the nature of academia and higher education leadership requires long work hours and what they called “24/7” attention. One female vice president working in student affairs said:

With how things have changed in higher education and with my portfolio it is 24/7. I have students who live, travel, work, go to school, live on campus, so there is no point and time when things end. We are in the 24/7 business. We are responding to crisis, we're dealing with suicidal ideation, we're dealing with alcohol overdoses.

With the stress of long work hours, two deans, one male and one female, felt judgment from their colleagues for taking vacations. One male dean felt there is a cultural expectation that one be at work and not be away from that work for very long. Another

felt judgment from peers for taking vacations. This female dean said peers in higher education leadership will often say, “Oh, it must be nice to have your job where you have time to get away like that.”

Related to this, two interviewees felt there is a culture that rewards individuals for being busy. One male dean said:

People in the U.S. are busy all the time; it’s a busyness thing, rather than a productivity thing necessarily. People have to be seen and have to tell people that they’re busy, busy, busy, for some reason, because they think it elevates their stature in the eyes of others or whatever. I’m always busy. I don’t have time to do this, because I’m so busy.

Research Question 2 “What is the impact of work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” Four of the major themes emerged from the interview data specific to this research question: Family, Geographical Choice, Career Stage, and Support. The Barriers theme did not emerge in the interview data for work-family enrichment. A total of 58 textual units were coded for work-family enrichment. Table 22 displays these themes and the frequency of their occurrence across the 12 interviews. The five relevant terms of their relationship to work-family enrichment are discussed in detail below.

Table 22

Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Impact of Work-Family

Enrichment on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction

| Theme | Interview | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Family | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 1 | 0 |
| Geographical Choice | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Career Stage | 2 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Support | 5 | 3 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 8 | 3 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| Barriers | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Family. Family was another theme that emerged when interviewees talked about work-family enhancement. Five of the interviewees talked about how their family life was enhanced through the interconnectedness they had between their work and family. When talking about her work and family life, one female department chair said, “I feel like I go on and on, but it’s so intertwined (family and work life). They are so integrated.” One female vice president said:

I just kind of built my family life around my work life, which is easy to do, because in student affairs, there’s so many things happening. You could do something every single night if you wanted to. I don’t want to do that, but I do want to make sure that I’m supporting the departments, so we would just build our activities around my work. I just did them together. My kids grew up here on this campus (Laughter). After an activity, we’d go to my office and work on homework together. So many activities, my children were a part of it. I don’t know how I can even say to separate them, because it was just all together.

A male vice president echoed similar sentiments when he said:

I can bring my kids here and we do a lot of evening things. I'm involved in recruiting and we do a lot of evening events and so on. I kind of took on the attitude that as much as I can, I'm going to raise my kids here, I'm going to let them see what higher education is like and I think it's helped them kind of build a love for education, so that's enhanced things as well.

A male department chair said, "My daughter needed a mentor for her senior thesis at the high school, one of my colleagues here stepped up to be that mentor and worked with her and helped her, so that was definitely a benefit."

Geographical Choice. Two interviewees mentioned they chose to work at an institution that allowed them to have better work-family balance. One female department chair said:

I guess I chose the kind of places to work where I could have a successful family work-family balance. I mean, I didn't go to research schools. I didn't go to schools where family wasn't valued; where I wasn't allowed to have a life. And that's probably why I'm in my 21st year of doing this. And I don't think I've ever been miserable.

A male department chair said:

Frankly, and fortunately, (my university), in my field anyway, is not a superstar. It's not leading anything so there's not as much pressure. Now if I were at Harvard or Yale there would be more pressure. I can get away with less (here) because no one expects me to publish (the way they would at a top tier university).

Career Stage. Career Stage was the second most often discussed theme that emerged. Career Stage was used to identify themes that were mentioned by interviewees when they talked about how their work-family balance had improved as they had advanced in their careers. Interviewees talked about how they had learned how to be transparent at work and at home and to set priorities.

Five of the interviewees talked about how they had become better at setting priorities as they had become more experienced professionals and that enhanced their family life. One male dean said:

(It's) very important to budget your time, first and foremost, you must budget time for things that are important to you, otherwise the time can just get consumed with trivial things and not so trivial things, but things that are not so important. And so prioritizing and budgeting of time, even more than money, I think is a critical factor for anybody in a leadership position or even just a faculty member.

One male department head said:

I found that, and I have often told this to younger professors who are just starting out, you know, I could prepare for a lecture for 6 hours or I could prepare for one hour and my students aren't going to know the difference in most cases, so it's not worth doing those extra 5 hours worth of work. And I have been doing this for more than a decade now, so when you first start out you aren't as confident in the classroom, but I decided my students weren't worth it, my research wasn't that important. . . I mean I find it interesting and I enjoy it and I've published plenty of pages, but its not going to change the world or cure cancer or anything like that. I

find much greater happiness and satisfaction spending time with my wife and our kids and recreating, jogging, listening to music, that's just way more important in the grand scheme of things than getting that article in two months earlier or writing an extra paragraph of comments on student papers when they aren't likely to read them anyway.

One female dean said:

And I would say the one thing I've changed drastically in the eight years of the deanship; the first three years of this work, I gave up a lot, a lot of my personal time. You have to really commit a lot of time those first three years, so I was willing to do that. But when I look back at some of that, it was ridiculous some of the things I was doing. I have to be responsible to manage all elements of my work-family and my personal life. And not feel guilty about it, but make decisions that are both in the well-being of my happiness and my health.

The interviewees who talked about prioritizing their time, gave specific strategies they had learned to employ that helped them attain balance between their work and family lives. One male dean said:

Unlike most other people, I make it very clear to my colleagues that I will respond to email while I'm at home or over weekends, just because I check email all the time, but I won't entertain any telephone calls and I won't talk about work during those times on the telephone. And everyone knows that. They'll try to call me, I just don't answer my telephone, I just don't do that. I don't even carry my telephone. People go like, "Are you crazy? Don't you carry your cell phone?" Yes, I do, during the week, but not on weekends. I'll call other people, but not

about work. I think if you're clear in your communication about your boundaries with regard to that people might be surprised, but they ultimately respect that. At least I've experienced that they respect that. Responding to emails, depending on which way you look at it, I've been very bad or good. I would respond to email at any time. I always check email. To me it's less intrusive than a call, because you have the opportunity to respond at a time when it's convenient.

A female vice president said she not only prioritizes her work, but she is also very transparent with everyone in her life about her responsibilities. She said:

I think that transparency and honesty with folks who are in my life and who I want to keep in my life, partner, children, whoever it is, colleagues, friends, understand that I don't vent it. I tell them straight up this is what I have set in front of me and then I will do the same thing at work. Like, listen folks, I'm going off the grid tonight so if you need anything, here's who's on call. Because, otherwise, I could spend 24/7 working.

Support. Support was a major theme in this section, occurring 34 times. Interviewees attributed personal satisfaction received from their work as the most significant aspect that enhanced their family life. Personal satisfaction was mentioned a total of 17 times by interviewees. Six interviewees talked specifically about how their work was intellectually challenging and connected them with interesting people. Interviewees felt this in turn helped them to be more interesting individuals on a personal level and they carried that into their family lives.

One male department chair said:

I think that my work-family is interesting and intellectually challenging and that keeps me engaged as a human being and as a thinker. And I think if I were not engaged, I would probably be a miserable person and that would bleed over into my family life.

Another male department chair said:

I have been able to connect with dignitaries and noted folks from all over the world as part of my work, who I've been able to introduce my children to over the years and they've been able to meet former heads of state and Nobel Peace Prize winners and know what's possible, by not just that level of person, but by every day folks who've done amazing things, who've been over to our house.

A male dean said:

I always have something interesting to talk about. Always. My job is so interesting. My colleagues, the students, the environment at a university is interesting. We're very privileged. We live in a bubble, but it's a bubble that I don't want to exit from, because I've had experience in other realms of the society at large and I wouldn't want to have jobs where I would not be intellectually stimulated all the time. And that is what I bring to my private life is that every day there is something new, challenging, controversial, that I can talk about and have a debate and have a discussion and that is the best thing ever. Having a job like this, at a university, in an environment where you're constantly challenged and stimulated. I wouldn't have it any other way.

One female department chair talked about the confidence she acquired from her work through positive affirmations received from students and colleagues. She said:

I'm very confident. I think that's one of the things I get from work. . . And not all people need affirmation, but I need affirmation. I need someone to tell me that I'm doing a great job and that I matter. So it works out well for me, because I have constantly, student notes, just little recognitions along the way that say yes you matter, we're glad you're here, you're doing a great job. So I'm much happier. It definitely helps me be happier in my home life.

Another female department chair said she had an intrinsic desire to be successful and if she had been unable to follow her dreams, it would have negatively affected her personal and family life. She said:

If I had been prevented from following my dream, I would have been a horribly miserable person and it would have affected everyone around me. You know, because I would have been a fuss-budget and that's putting it nicely. (Laughter) I would have been very very unhappy. Basically, it was, I had to do it, not to be miserable.

Four interviewees talked specifically about the personal satisfaction they received from working with students. One female department chair said, "I love my students. They feed me, they energize me, and I just really welcome that in my life." This department chair had been discouraged earlier in her life from entering the field of business. She talked about the personal satisfaction she receives from encouraging students, particularly women, into being successful in the field. She said:

I think what I value about this work is that its meaningful work. I am so blessed to have entered into students' lives. Where as a role model and a mentor, just my

experience, and the fact that I am where I am evidently speaks volumes to people. Especially to young women to say, you too can do this.

One male dean reported that he had chosen to teach a class despite its heavy workload because he enjoyed the challenging of helping the students succeed. He said:

I've intentionally chosen a class to teach that's more work-intensive than some of the other ones, just because I feel it's a crucial course for the majors at Sophomore level (and it) is typically a make or break class, and I want to be the one to help get them through that subject material. I feel like I'm pretty good at that.

A female department chair said, "And after a while I discovered that helping students was my favorite part of the job."

The flexibility afforded in an academic environment was the next most important support that interviewees felt enhanced their family life. Flexibility in academic life was mentioned a total of 14 times. One male department chair said:

It's hard to imagine a more flexible job. In a given week, I only have to be in a given place a few hours and the rest of the time, I can manage the way I want. So that's wonderfully flexible and I love that about it and it is probably the prime reason I haven't looked for another type of work.

Another male department chair said:

Well, I think one of the things I think I'm fortunate with, I don't have a good work-family balance, except in the sense that I can take work home with me. And I can stop work for a couple of hours in the evening to make sure I am engaged with my children and my wife and then later in the evening go back to work at

home and so I guess being on a campus like this, I recognize how many people can't do that. When their work exceeds the traditional working day, they're in a lab or they're in some other setting where they can't be at home and take some time to engage and then start their work again. So, I don't know, I'm almost grateful for my situation even if it takes many more hours to finish work than it ought to, that I can do a lot of that at home.

A male dean admitted that his administrative duties and teaching kept him very busy throughout the academic year. Two deans, one male and one female, both lamented about how busy the spring semester was for administrators. One male dean said he looks forward to summer so that he can work on his scholarly activities, which he really enjoys. He said:

I always know there's a time coming, kind of like Leonard Bernstein. Leonard Bernstein was a great conductor and he said he would schedule composing times. He would say, okay for these six weeks, I'm not taking any gigs, I'm just going to write and he was very successful and that's about how you have to do it in a position like this.

A female vice president commented that not all higher education administrators enjoy such flexibility. She said:

Well, if you're on the academic side, if you're a faculty member, I think it is easier, because you have a lot more autonomy to set your schedule, set your classes. I mean to really kind of set when you can be home and you have a lot more flexibility. But, if you're on the administration side you don't have that

flexibility. But, that's where my talents are so, you know, you just have to go where your talents are and I feel like my talents are in administration.

Research Question 3 “Are there gender differences in these outcomes and/or relationships” All five of the major themes emerged from the interview data specific to this research question: Family, Geographical Choice, Career Stage, Support, and Barriers. A total of 47 textual unites were coded for gender differences. Table 23 displays these themes and the frequency of their occurrence across the 12 interviews. The five relevant themes and their relationship to gender differences are discussed in detail below.

Table 23

Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Impact of Gender Differences on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction

| Theme | Interview | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Family | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 |
| Geographical Choice | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Career Stage | 2 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Support | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| Barriers | 1 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 2 |

Family. Seven of the twelve interviewees mentioned gender differences as they related to family. Five of those individuals felt that women had more pressures and a heavier burden as it related to family responsibilities. One female department chair said, “The burden of the housework and the childrearing generally falls to the female.”

A male department chair said:

I suspect that the issues are huge for women and I don't have the faintest idea how huge they are because I'm a man. I think fundamentally the academic

expectations that the profession puts on men and women are the same, but the expectation for maintaining positive family relationships is significantly higher on women than men. And I think the common thing is women work two full-time jobs and men don't. I don't think men have the same expectations to maintain the home life that women do.

One male associate dean said:

Well, before there's kids in the family I don't think there's any differences, but very definitely children play a major role in that. And I've seen it as a department chair, with many new moms who say, "Oh, it's not going to make any difference in my life," but it does. It absolutely will. And it's so important for those young children for mom to be there in those young years, especially those first few years. I always try to be accommodating, our dean does, too, you know we try to help out where we can to help those young moms, but there's no doubt that they have a much greater stressful situation than men do and I don't know that there's any good solution to that. We want women to have careers, we want women to be on the same footing as men, there's no question about it and when you look around, you know, our leadership, we've got a woman as the dean and we've got several women chairs and we've got many women in leadership roles and they have a right to be there certainly. But it does cause problems when they have children, there's no question about it.

A female vice president said:

I do think there are gender differences. I think women have a heavier burden, so they're going to have to make their choices. I think they have to make more choices. Maybe it's not more choices; maybe it's just different choices.

Three women and one man mentioned feelings of guilt. The man's guilt stemmed from his feelings that his family responsibilities put pressure on his colleagues. He said:

I did work in the private sector for a number of years and you almost felt guilt any time you were taking time off, cause I was part of a sales team so you felt like you were always placing that much more of a burden on your teammates.

The women's guilt stemmed from not being present with their children and family. One female vice president said:

If anything, what I get from my partner is "you know you do that to yourself, you know even when you were writing your dissertation you were always present. You were at every soccer game, every practice, every this, every dinner." And then I would say, "Yeah, I was physically present." And he said, "Well, you're a good actor because we couldn't tell." So I think if anything in my personal world, I don't think that's changing. I think the thing that's changing is that I'm reducing my level of guilt, but he's by no means increasing his. He has no issues heading out for a weekend, going out on a ski thing and he comes home the same as when he leaves. It does not permeate his world.

By contrast, a male dean argued that men are better able to detach. He said:

Men can detach more easily, and I'm using me as an example, right? That, okay, I have a crisis at work, the kids are home, and I really need to be home, but let me stay an hour later and get the crisis taken care of.

A female department chair had similar sentiments when she said:

I think family in general is not the priority for most men. I think it's because they're the primary breadwinner in most instances. I think it's their way to escape issues at home—oh, I've got to go to work or I've got to focus on work or whatever.

Geographical Choice. Geographical Choice was coded when interviewees talked about how gender impacted dual career issues that revolved around where the couple lived. Four respondents talked about the challenges of finding jobs in a dual career household. A female department chair talked about the challenges of finding a job for both of the individuals in the marriage. She said, “So, before I went on a campus visit, I did, or we did, research on whether or not there would be a job for my husband.” At one point, she did end up resigning from one of her positions when her children were younger. She said, “The whole dual career thing gets complicated when you're trying to do dual assignments. And so it just seemed like I should resign.”

A female dean said she ended up at her university because her husband obtained a job there. She said, “That's how I ended up here, that's why I bring it up. He finished before I did, got a job here and when I finished they didn't have any jobs in the (same) department.”

A male department chair attributed his divorce, in part, to the challenges dual-career couples can face in attempting to land academic jobs in the same city or location. He said:

I think that also helped cause our divorce. My ex-wife never found a full-time academic job. I finished before her, she trailed, she did some adjunct teaching

here for the piddly money they give and I looked for other jobs hoping to leverage a position for her or if I got a job offer elsewhere that she could get a spousal accommodation, but it never worked out. And she still doesn't have an academic position. She has a job at the university and I think she is reasonably happy with it, but it took many years to find satisfying work for her and that stressed her out tremendously.

Career Stage. Three of the interviewees mentioned they had taken a “different career path” than is normal. All three of these were women. One female dean had worked part-time and then had the opportunity to work full-time and obtain tenure. She said, “So then when I became full-time in 2008, I could be tenure track and the year after that they allowed me to go up for tenure. So it's kind of a different path than most people take.”

Two of the interviewees who mentioned they had taken a “different path” specifically mentioned they had never intended to become higher education leaders. One female department chair said, “So you can see, I didn't have a plan . . .” One female dean said:

I feel like I didn't really plan any of this. In many ways, it just sort of happened.

And I know some people have 5-year plans and 10-year plans and I never did any of that it just kind of turned out that way, but it turned out well.

A female vice president said, “Okay, I never started out as having that (higher education leadership) as a goal.”

Support. The theme support was mentioned by eight interviewees and in all cases it referred to the cultural and societal support that allows men to be more involved in family

life. All but two of the interviewees felt that things were changing and men were becoming more involved in family life.

One male department chair said he felt that men today are encouraged more than men from his father's generation. He said:

I know my father talks about wanting to do things, all the way from birth, where he was told by professionals that he should not do. He should not attend a birth, he shouldn't be in birthing classes, he shouldn't because it would impact my mom's role as a mother, so he was, by society, actively discouraged from doing things that I'm certainly encouraged to do.

One male department chair explained that his younger sister was born when he and his brother were in their teen years. He explained that having a sibling so much younger than he caused him to think more about being a parent than he might have ordinarily done. He said, "Yeah, so I don't know if my female colleagues approach it much differently than I approach it, but I definitely think we approach it differently than most men, yes." This interviewee explained further that his father's peer group had wanted to be involved with the children, but not in the same ways that he and his peer group are involved at home. He said:

So I think there was, at least from the peer group, there was always this perception that the father's being engaged was important. That said, they weren't doing things like the dishes or vacuuming or anything like that or the stinkier parts of child care when kids were young, that was not the male thing, whereas, my peer group and I are certainly engaged in all of that.

Some of the interviewees admitted that their relationship within their family had not been as equitable as it could have been, but they believe that trend may be changing with younger generations. One female dean said:

You know, it may be different for younger people too, because my husband and I are actually getting closer to retirement. But I would guess that couples who are in their 30s and even 40s would probably have less of a gender division of labor than people who are our ages, because that's what we grew up with and things do change kind of slowly over time.

A male dean expressed similar sentiments by saying:

I think it's changing. I hope that it's changing the right way. I hope that women are not changing to become more like men. I hope it's the other way around, that men are becoming more relationally savvy. I hope it's changing that way and quite frankly, I think that's the truth. I think that's what I'm seeing. Because, I can tell you that my son-in-law is much more engaged; their generation is much more engaged with the family and with raising kids and with engagement and we have to have family time than my generation. It was generational as well. And I am so impressed with that, so I think it's changing the right way.

This same male dean explained why he and his peers may not have been as involved with family as the current generation. He said:

In my generation, men had, well, responsible men, took up the responsibility of being the major breadwinner and that responsibility was interpreted by some, including myself, as the young professional as such an important thing. That you cannot let your focus off of that, because if you do, you're going to fail your

family, because you can't provide for them. So, that became the important issue that you are absolutely focused on success at work, because in your mind that translates into looking after your family. And it becomes a surrogate, if you will, would be probably be the best word to describe it, for engagement with your family. And that was a trap that many of my peers stepped into. Not that they were bad people, on the contrary, they actually wanted to take care of the family, but in doing so, they were so intently focused on their job that they let everything go in their personal lives and it just fell apart. And that's not good. Hopefully, that will change.

Barriers. Barriers felt by women was a prominent theme that emerged in discussions about gender issues. The biggest barrier women felt was in the area of household responsibilities or "the second shift." Women were also discouraged from pursuing careers in certain fields and questioned about their leadership abilities. Five of the women talked about the gender differences with household responsibilities. One female department chair said:

Well, I always found cooking and housework to be short work for me. I can zip through that stuff in no time. And I don't know why I can, but I can. I never asked for help with cooking and housework. Sometimes, my husband volunteered, especially with cleaning up after meals. And the reason I didn't ask for help was because I didn't feel like I needed it. It was zip, zip, zip, and he mowed the lawn and he took care of the cars and I was very happy to let him do that part, because I didn't want to do that part.

One female dean said:

It (household responsibilities) did fall to me to do that and that's okay because I enjoyed it, but definitely there are gender differences and still a lot of the shopping, cooking, and cleaning, although my kids help with it, it still falls to me, even though both of us are working and I don't mean to sound like I'm complaining because there are other things that he takes care of. But kind of those traditional things are under my purview.

One female vice president's husband was disabled while she was raising her children, so everything related to the family and household was her responsibility. She said, "So, I took the kids to day care. I did do all of the housework and everything did fall on me, it was a rough, rough, time. When the kids were little it was really hard."

While women felt the challenges of household responsibilities, one male vice president expressed feelings of remorse, because his wife handled so much because he was working full-time and finishing his doctoral degree. He said:

It's something that I'm very aware of. My educational background is in social and behavioral science and I'm very familiar with the second shift and familiar with the extremely overwhelming amount of time women put into, women that work full time, that they put into raising families and so on. It is something that my wife and I discuss quite a bit and as I was going through my undergrad and before we had children, I vowed that we weren't going to have a family where she carried the majority of the load and for awhile we both worked in the same town and I think at that point, things were pretty well balanced, but again, we only had one child. But then I got another job that was an hour away and then I started a PhD program and so for the time that I've been in school, she, my wife clearly does the

majority of the work. I usually don't come home until after they're having dinner and so if I am around, if I am home, I'm able to get off for whatever reason, then I try to take on as much of the domestic duties as I can. But, I would say, overall, she does a lot more of it than I do.

The second most commonly expressed barrier mentioned by women was facing discouraging comments about pursuing certain academic careers and their leadership abilities once they were promoted. One female department chair said:

So I'll go back to high school in 1973 and I'm a senior and I was valedictorian of my class—straight As—4.0 average and my high school counselor, Mr. Brunswick, he said, “You can be anything you want to be. You can be a teacher, you can be a nurse, you can be a secretary. And I said that I had taken French my senior year. A woman moved there and started offering French my senior year and so I loved it and she was social studies, also. So, I said, “I think I want to be, um, I'm really interested in French. And he goes, “Well, you could be an international secretary!”

Fortunately, after she had attained her bachelor's degree in French, she went to visit her uncle, who encouraged her to be more than an international secretary. She said:

I went to visit my uncle who was in Germany and worked for the Department of Defense School System overseeing business curriculum in high schools there. And he said, “Why are you getting a master's in French?” He said, “Have you ever thought about business?” And that sort of sparked my thinking about that, what was a master's in French going to do me, really? And I hadn't even thought about being a college professor, but I thought, well, I'll just get the master's out of

the way and I'd need it for teaching. So, I came back that fall semester and I took my French classes and talked to the College of Business and they recruited me into the MBA program and I started in the MBA that spring.

One female dean said she was questioned about her leadership abilities when they were considering her for the interim dean position. She said:

When they asked me to serve as the interim dean, the provost at that time, he said to me, "Well, do you think you have the ability to be the leader?" And I said, "Of course, I have that ability." He said, "Well, some are questioning whether or not you have leadership skills." So I said, "Well, you'll just have to test it out then, won't you, to find out? Otherwise, if you have someone else in mind, then go with it, you know, do whatever you need to do. Of course, I can serve as the dean of that college."

One female vice president talked about how she arrived at her position by saying:

Ten years ago I applied for the Vice President position and I did not get it. They brought in a man that had no student services experience, he had always been in development, and when he came in, he really didn't understand student services. He really had had no experience at all. So, I kind of became his right hand person, because I had had the experience. So for 10 years I was kind of his right hand person and when he got a job as a president in New York, the President just asked me to take the position. So, that's how I got here.

Research Question 4 “Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship.

Family-to-Work Conflict. There were subtle differences based upon the direction of the relationship in terms of the themes that emerged. Work-family conflict had significantly more themes that emerged than did family-work conflict. There were only two themes that emerged for family-work conflict and those were Family and Geographical Choice. The need to care for an ill or disabled family member caused stress both at home and at work. Three interviewees talked about how family members requiring care caused them to make adjustments to their careers. In terms of Geographical Choice, family members needing care, especially parents who lived a great distance away, created stress for three interviewees.

Table 24

Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Family-Work Conflict on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction

| Theme | Interview | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Family | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| Geographical Choice | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Career Stage | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Support | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Barriers | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Two interviewees said that the care of family members caused family-work conflict. One male vice president shared that he was working 60 hours per week at his job while enrolled in a PhD program that required traveling on the weekends. During this

time, his spouse began thinking about quitting her job to stay home with their three small children. However, one of his children was diagnosed with Type I Diabetes and he said:

Once the diabetic supply bills started rolling in we realized that we needed that dual insurance coverage and so that's kept us both working and it's been a huge benefit financially for us for sure, but it's also made it pretty tough to be able to keep up with everything.

A female vice president said, "I was the sole breadwinner. My husband would try and get jobs, but he was mentally ill and he just couldn't hold, he couldn't keep jobs." This created a great deal of stress for her at home, where she was responsible for all of the household duties and childcare. It also created stress at work where she could not always take on as much at work, because of the demands at home.

Three interviewees experienced stress because of their parent's failing health. A male department chair said that his father's health determined where he was willing to take an academic position. He said:

A little over ten years ago, my dad had a little bit of a heart problem and at the time, I was still looking for a tenure track position at a four-year institution and I sort of said, I'm not going to go further than a one-day drive and that's how I ended up in Idaho. Although, since that time, his health has improved and I have applied and interviewed for jobs much greater than a one-day drive away.

A male dean and female dean both felt family conflict related to their aging parents who they cannot live close to, because of their university careers.

The male dean said:

I feel like we're pretty much isolated and it presents problems, because my mom now has severe dementia and I'd love to be close by to help take care and even just see her once in a while. It's just not possible. That's one of the sacrifices we had to make to be in a college position.

The female dean said:

My mom lives in another state and I talk to her 3-4 times a week and I'm helping her problem solve things. She was at one point caring for my grandfather and I was helping her figure those things out. Now her husband, who's 88, is having issues and I'm helping her problem solve those things. I'm always trying to figure out my vacation times to get there to see my family.

Family-Work Enrichment. The impact of Work-Family Enrichment on career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction was addressed in Research Question 2. Work-Family Enrichment generated 58 textual units while Family-Work Enrichment generated 19 textual units. There were only two themes that emerged from Family-Work Enrichment and those were Family and Support. While this was a minor section in terms of textual units as compared to others, every interviewee had something to say about Family-Work Enrichment.

Table 25

Frequency of Occurrence for each of the Major Themes for Family-Work Enrichment on Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction

| Theme | Interview | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------------------|-----------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|----|----|----|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 |
| Family | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Geographical Choice | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Career Stage | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Support | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Barriers | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Family. Six interviewees talked about ways in which their family enhanced their work life. Textual units were coded Family when interviewees spoke of ways in which their family members provided them with emotional support or help with household responsibilities. Two female department chairs attributed their success to their husband's support. One female department chair said:

My husband was willing, I should say, most of the time very willing, to play a big role as a father during that time and he did, again, most of the time, supported me in my going to school efforts, because he knew it was important to me. And that was important that he helped, otherwise it would have been impossible.

Another female department chair said:

I was successful in getting my PhD because of the family support and my husband. . . I said, you know what, I think I am not meant to do this. I think I should just get an MBA kind of job and my husband said, "Nope, you're doing this, you can do it!" If it hadn't been for him, I wouldn't be where I am. And he just made me feel like I could do it.

A male department chair said his family was what kept him centered and balanced. He said:

I feel that my family life is strong and happy and helps keep me centered in what's important in my life and the world, which allows me to go to work with a more positive attitude than I would otherwise. And I think that's the most important thing for me is that my family life puts into perspective that my job just isn't that important. And it helps me not to take too seriously things like office politics or concerns about scholarship and student performance. I think that as a faculty member you can get caught up in that and lose sight of the fact that that's really not that important.

A male dean said:

I think sometimes people think it's easier to be a two-career family if you don't have any kids, but I wouldn't trade having my children for anything and it's definitely worth making the sacrifices that it takes to have family life in order to do it. And I know too many people, and you know, and I see it even within our own walls of the academy here, that too many people here who make that decision to just stay a couple and not have any children by choice and I don't know if they regret it or not, but I'll look at them and think, there's got to be something missing in their lives by not having that fulfillment.

Support. Two of the interviewees said their family makes them better professionals. One male dean, who is in the music discipline said:

(My family) makes me a better person; a contented person so I can focus on this job. I don't know that it actually helps my work life other than just giving me a life basis for my experiences that I pour into my music then.

A female department chair said her family experiences allow her to better relate to her students. She said:

Because I am a woman and there aren't that many women in the College of Business and because I let students know that I am here for them in any capacity in which I can help them, I actually have found that I am able to have awesome conversations with young women in particular who are struggling with trying to balance family and school and are questioning the value of being in school.

Should I be in school or should I be at home? My experience in my personal life I can then draw upon as a professional at work to say, "Get that degree, you may be married the rest of your life, but you never know when your husband is going to keel over and you're going to have to be the breadwinner; so you do this for your children and for your family, for your security."

Two deans, one male and one female, specifically said their "home is a haven" for them. The female dean said, "My home, oh my home is this place that's just such a calming place; I feel so happy and content when I'm in my home. It's such a retreat mode compared to obviously work."

A male dean said:

Pretty much by providing a haven, if you will. I always wanted to get back home to tap on that interaction, to tell them (family) new stuff, and you know what happened today, and it was so cool and I was at the nuclear science department

and you know what they had there? They had this massive laser and woo, and they absolutely loved that. It really helped me to relax, as well, because I could actually talk about it in a different environment than I could talk about it at the job place and so it made that contrast and the contrast of the two actually helped me cope.

Summary of Results

Three separate multiple regression models were developed to determine how work-family conflict and family-work enrichment affected organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction. The multiple regression models used organizational commitment as the response variable, then career commitment, and finally, satisfaction with life. The explanatory variables used in the three models were the 18 items from the family-work enrichment scale, the ten items from the work-family conflict scale and the eight gender interaction variables. The three multiple regression models, using a backwards selection procedure, showed that organizational commitment is influenced by work-family capital and family-work affect. Career commitment is influenced by work-family affect and work-family conflict. Life satisfaction is influenced by work-family affect and family-work affect.

As mentioned, the multiple regression models showed that organizational commitment was influenced by work-family capital and family-work affect. In essence, work-family capital suggests that a person's work may give feelings of confidence, personal fulfillment, a sense of accomplishment, and a sense of success. Family-work affect is where an individual experiences positive affect from the home that enhances his or her performance at work. Thus, these positive emotional responses translated into

individuals feeling that they were better family members, and the model findings suggest this further strengthened organizational commitment.

The multiple regression models showed that work-family affect and work-family conflict influenced career commitment. Work-family affect suggests that a person's work may put him/her in a better mood. For example, a person in a positive mood when leaving work will typically respond more positively, patiently, and happily to his or her family members and that will then ultimately enhance his or her affect and performance as a parent or spouse. Family-work conflict also influenced career commitment. Work-family conflict is defined as a stressor in which work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996). It is important to note that these findings revealed that work-family conflict affected career commitment negatively, meaning that as work-family conflict increased, career commitment decreased. By contrast, work-family affect impacted career commitment positively, meaning that as work-family affect increased, so did career commitment.

The multiple regression models showed that work-family affect and family-work affect most influenced life satisfaction. As mentioned, work-family affect describes the positive moods and emotions that are generated from work and how those are carried over into family life. For example, a person leaving work in a positive mood will typically arrive home with that positive mood causing him or her to respond patiently and happily to his or her family members and that will then ultimately enhance his or her affect and performance as a parent or spouse. Similarly, family-work affect explains how positive moods and emotions from family life are carried over into the work-family. Family-work affect is where an individual experiences positive affect from the home that

enhances his or her performance at work. Therefore, these positive emotional responses translated into individuals feeling they were better family members and professionals at work and the model findings suggest this further strengthened overall life satisfaction.

The qualitative results provided depth and breadth of understanding by both supporting and enhancing the quantitative models. The multiple regression models showed that overall, work-family capital, work-family affect, family-work affect, and work-family conflict were the most significant areas of importance to the survey respondents. The interviewees referred to all of these components, as well. For example, work-family capital, or the ways in which a person's work gives feelings of personal satisfaction was the most significant aspect that influenced an interviewee's family life. Similarly, work-family affect, or the ways in which the interviewee's moods were enhanced at work also emerged in the interviews.

Family-work affect also emerged in the qualitative data. Interviewees spoke of how they could not wait to get home to share their day with their families. Other interviewees talked about how their family kept them centered and grounded, allowing them to be better leaders.

Work-family conflict emerged in the qualitative data, also. Interviewees spoke of the challenges experienced during the tenure process and the long hours expected of leaders in higher education. One area that emerged in the qualitative data that did not appear in the quantitative data was how the care of young children created excessive stress on the careers of leaders. Oftentimes, the needs of young children caused leaders or their spouses to cut back on their work or to quit for a time altogether.

The multiple regression models showed there were no statistically significant gender interactions apparent in any of the three models. However, this was not supported in the qualitative research. Gender differences emerged as a major theme in the qualitative data with every interviewee reflecting on gender differences. The themes relating to gender that emerged were dual career issues, women discouraged by others, the second shift, different career paths for men and women, and societal support for the father's involvement in family.

CHAPTER V

Discussion/Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to broaden the work-family literature by simultaneously exploring the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders. For the purpose of this study higher education leaders were delimited to those working at Idaho State University (ISU), the University of Idaho (UI), the University of Wyoming (UW), Boise State University (BSU), Dickinson State University (DSU), and Utah Valley University (UVU) and employed at the department chair level or above.

This study employed mixed methods engaging quantitative inquiry during the first phase of research and qualitative inquiry for the second phase. The first phase or quantitative portion utilized a survey focused on how work-family conflict and work-family enrichment affected higher education leaders' career commitment, organizational commitment, and satisfaction with life. The qualitative second phase was used to further explore and explicate themes and trends revealed through the quantitative inquiry and analysis.

This chapter presents an analysis of the findings described in Chapter IV relative to the purpose and significance of this study and to the literature review presented in Chapter II. The contents and order of this chapter will include a discussion of the survey response rate, respondent demographics, and descriptive statistics, study findings, and a

discussion of results from each research question. The chapter will conclude with a summary and recommendations for further study.

Understanding and Describing the Respondents

Survey Response Rate

The overall survey response rate was 36% with 159 higher education leaders participating in the survey. Of the 159 respondents, 86 (55%) were at the level of department chair, head, or academic director. Of the 73 remaining respondents, 43 (28%) were deans and 27 (17%) were vice presidents. The survey was opened and emailed to potential respondents one week prior to Thanksgiving Day. A second reminder was emailed to respondents who had not completed the survey on December 12, 2013. The survey response rate probably could have been higher if it had been conducted at the beginning of an academic semester.

Convenience sampling was the method used for the survey sample. Convenience sampling consists of the researcher identifying a sample that “suits the purposes of the study and that is convenient” (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003, p. 175). In this case, the sample was convenient because the universities were in close geographic proximity to the researcher. According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003), an adequate sample size for convenience sampling survey research is 100 participants. At 159 respondents, this study exceeded that recommendation.

According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003), inferential statistics can be used with convenience samples. However, a convenience sample must not be confused with a random sample drawn from a defined population. A random sample will be generalizable to a wider population than a convenience sample. Therefore, it is important to point out

that this sample is only generalizable to the leaders and universities where this convenience sample was drawn. It cannot necessarily be generalized to the wider population as a whole.

Survey Respondent Demographics

The data for this study came from a survey sent to higher education leaders at ISU, UI, UW, BSU, DSU, and UVU. ISU, UI, and UW are Carnegie Classified Research High Universities (RU/H). BSU is classified as Master's Colleges and Universities Larger Programs (Master's/L). DSU and UVU are Carnegie Classified as Baccalaureate Colleges—Diverse Fields (Bac/Diverse).

BSU, ISU, and UI are the three public state universities located in Idaho, a state in the northwestern part of the United States (State of Idaho website). BSU is located in Southwestern Idaho in the capital city of Boise. Boise is the largest city in the state with a population of 212,303 (U. S. Census Bureau website). In fall 2013, BSU had a student enrollment of 22,344 (National Center for Educational Statistics website). ISU is located in Southeastern Idaho in the city of Pocatello, which has a population of 54,777 (U.S. Census Bureau website). In fall 2013, ISU had a student enrollment of 13,852 (NCES website). UI is located in Moscow in the northwestern part of the state; it is the land grant institution of Idaho. Moscow has a population of 24,499 (U. S. Census Bureau website). In fall 2013, UI had a student enrollment of 12,420 (NCES website).

UW is the only state university located in the State of Wyoming. UW is located in Laramie, which is the third largest city in the State of Wyoming with a population of 31,681 (U.S. Census Bureau Website). The University of Wyoming is the state land grant institution and has a student enrollment of 12,903 (NCES website).

UVU is one of the newest universities in Utah, moving from a state college to a university in 2008 (State of Utah website). An open-enrollment university, it is also one of the largest state universities in Utah, with a fall 2013 student population of 31,562 (NCES website). UVU is located in central Utah in the city of Orem. With a population of 88,000, Orem is the fifth-largest city in Utah (U.S. Census Bureau website).

DSU is a four-year public institution located in Dickinson in western North Dakota. The 2013 fall semester enrollment was 1,837 (NCES website). The U.S. Census Bureau reported the population of Dickinson was 19,697 in 2013 (U.S. Census Bureau website). However, according to a report released by the U.S. Census Bureau in March 2014, the increase in North Dakota oil-related employment has helped Dickinson to become the second fastest growing micropolitan area in the United States. A micropolitan statistical area is defined by the U.S. Census Bureau as an urban cluster with a population of between 10,000 and 49,999 people (U.S. Census Bureau website).

The schools were chosen not only because of their geographic convenience, but also they were deliberately selected to represent a range of Carnegie Classified institutions to include research high universities, a university with increasing graduate programs, and institutions focusing on undergraduate education. This was done with the intention of diversifying the leaders sampled, thereby extending the potential application and relevance of the study findings.

As previously mentioned, 159 higher education leaders participated in the survey. Of the 159 respondents, 86 (55%) were at the level of department chair, head, or academic director, 43 (28%) were deans, and 27 (17%) were vice presidents. Over 75% (119) of respondents were tenured, while nearly 20% did not hold academic rank. Less

than 4% (6) were on the tenure track, but not yet tenured. It is not surprising that the majority of respondents were tenured faculty members. According to Astin and Astin (2000), there are typically two ways in which leaders emerge in higher education. First, higher education leaders are most often made up of faculty who rise to the leadership level by gaining professional status and recognition through their faculty career, often via their academic scholarship. In this survey sample that amounted to nearly 80% of the respondents. This was assumed because 75% of the respondents had attained tenure status and 4% were still working towards attaining tenure. However, leaders without a faculty background sometimes emerge in non-academic leadership positions, such as student affairs, fiscal affairs, development, and administrative services. In this survey sample it is assumed that number amounted to 20% of the leaders surveyed since they were not tenured and had never been on the tenure track. The interviews confirmed these assumptions.

The following represents the respondents' disciplines: Education 21%, Fine Arts & Humanities 18.4%, Social Sciences 13.9%, Business 12.7, Health Professions 10.8%, Physical Sciences & Agriculture were both 5.7%, Engineering 5.1%, Biological Sciences 2.5%, and Computer Science 1.3%. The respondents' disciplines did not correspond with the most recent Survey of Earned Doctorates Report published by the National Science Foundation (2014). In 2012, nearly one-quarter of doctorates were earned in the life sciences (24%), with physical sciences coming in second at 18%, followed closely by engineering (17%), social sciences (16%), and then the humanities (11%). Education had the fewest number of doctorates at (9%) and the remaining 6% was categorized as "other." It was interesting that the disciplines represented by the survey respondents

were nearly the opposite from the most recent data released by the Survey of Earned Doctorates.

On the other hand, the respondents' disciplines were similar to that of College Presidents (American Council on Education, 2006). The ACE found that nearly 44% of college presidents came from the field of education, followed by the social sciences (13.8%), humanities/fine arts (13.7%), physical science and engineering (5.1%), business (4.9%), and biological sciences (2.5%). The academic disciplines that produce college presidents much more closely resemble those of the survey respondents. This suggests that leaders may be drawn into certain disciplines for a variety of reasons.

Nearly 65% of the respondents were male and 35.2% were female. This was somewhat similar to national averages. According to the National Center for Education Statistics, 59% of higher education leaders are male, whereas 41% are female (2012). The respondents ranged in age from 34 to 75 years of age, with an average age of 53. The median age was 54. This was similar to national statistics for faculty members where the average age of full-time professors is 49.6 and 54 for tenured professors (Masterson, 2010). The age demographic seems to reinforce the career path noted above in terms of survey respondents rising through the faculty ranks into leadership positions.

Nearly 90% of respondents were married or in a domestic partnership, with 8% divorced, 4% single and never married, and less than 1% widowed. The number of respondents who were married or in a domestic partnership was higher than the national average for individuals with doctoral degrees. According to the Census Bureau in 2012, 78.6% of men with doctoral degrees were married, whereas 63.8% of women with doctoral degrees were married. Nearly 55% of respondents lived with a biological,

adopted, or step-child. The number of married respondents with children living in the household was higher than the national average. According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2013), married couples with children made up 49% of households in 2012. The fact that the respondents were more likely to be married or in a domestic partnership than the national average is supported in the literature. According to Greenwood, Guner, Kocharkov, and Santos (2012), marriage rates have declined since the 1960s, but the drop has been highest among the non-college educated population. Additionally, divorce has increased during this time, but more so for non-college educated individuals. Further, the marriage rates for college-educated women has increased during this time (Isen and Stevenson, 2010). “College educated women marry later, have fewer children, are less likely to view marriage as ‘financial security,’ are happier in their marriages and with their family life, and are not only the least likely to divorce, but have had the biggest decrease in divorce since the 1970s compared to women without a college degree” (Isen and Stevenson, 2010, p. 3). Additionally, people with similar educational attainment levels are more likely to marry. This phenomenon creates a “unified model of marriage, divorce, educational attainment and married female labor-force participation” (Greenwood et al., 2012, p. 2).

Nearly one-third of respondents reported working 40-49 hours per week, while over 40% reported working 50-59 hours per week and nearly 26% reported working 60 or more hours per week. Only 1.3% of respondents reported working less than 40 hours per week. This supports the research of Williams and Boushey (2010), who found that Americans work more hours on average than people in other industrialized countries, including Japan.

There do not appear to be good data on the number of hours higher education administrators work per week. According to the *U.S. News and World Report's* University Directory, only 35% of higher education administrators self-report working more than 40 hours per week. These data were significantly lower than what the respondents self-reported in this study. It was also lower than the hours per week that faculty report working. Data on faculty show the proportion of faculty members who say they work more than 55 hours per week grew from 13% in 1972, to 44% in 2003, with no differences reported between men and women (AAUP, 1994; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006).

Nearly 74% of respondents had a working spouse and 68% of those worked 40 or more hours per week. This was consistent with current trends where dual-earner couples now make up the typical American family (Boushey & O'Leary, 2009; Drago, 2007). Of those respondents who reported a working spouse, 46% worked full-time, while 22% worked more than 40 hours per week. Mishel et al. (2009) found that the typical American middle-class family worked 11 more hours per week in 2006 than in 1979. This study appears to support those findings and illustrates that the higher education leaders in this study appeared to be similar to the typical American middle-class family in this regard.

Over half of respondents (56.3%) reported their institution had family support policies available and of those nearly 28% reported utilizing such policies. Over one third of respondents (34.2%) were unsure whether or not their institution had family support policies. However, 43.3% of those respondents said they would have utilized such policies if they had been available or had known about them. It could be that the majority

of respondents did not utilize family friendly policies, because they did not encompass their needs.

It could be that leaders in academia have been reluctant to utilize family friendly policies such as paid leave, stopping the tenure clock, and modifying schedules because they fear a career penalty (Gerten, 2011; Raabe, 1997). Parents worry that utilizing family-friendly policies will cause them to be viewed as less serious about their careers (Gerten, 2011; Kjeldal, Rindfleish, & Sheridan, 2005). In terms of this study, the qualitative research would suggest that the men in this study did not utilize family friendly policies. None of them spoke of utilizing such policies. For the women, the qualitative research suggested that women cut back on work hours, work responsibilities, and in some cases, quit working altogether for a time. None of the women expressed concerns about utilizing resources to help them when their children were younger. In fact, a few women talked about how they were just trying “to survive” when their children were younger.

Respondents reported the greatest source of stress came from managing household responsibilities. Household responsibilities were the cause of stress to varying degrees for 83.5% of respondents. This makes sense, given the high number of dual career couples represented in the responses. Nearly 60% of respondents felt stress due to their own personal health concerns. This could be due to the age of respondents. The average age of respondents was 53, while the median age was 54. The overall age range was 34 to 75 years of age. Given that respondents tended to be more mature and advanced in their careers, it may not be surprising they were beginning to feel health-related stresses. Ebner, Freund, and Baltes (2006) found that as individuals age, they

become more concerned about maintaining their health and trying to avoid age-related losses.

Fully 40% of respondents experienced stress associated with caring for someone ill, disabled, aging, and/or in need of special services. Only 38% of respondents felt stress from child care responsibilities. This is probably due to the respondents' ages. With a median age of 54, most respondents had older children who were probably more self-sufficient if they were still living in the home. In fact, several of the interviewees made reference to the fact that their children, while still living in the home, were older and self-sufficient. However, a few of the interviewees had younger children and for those who did, they spoke of the stresses of raising younger children who were more dependent on parental care. This would explain why childcare stresses were not great, but were present among the respondents.

In summary, the survey respondents were similar to the typical American population in that they tended to work long hours and come from dual career households. It is believed that the long hours worked by both the leaders and their spouses contributed to their perceived stress from household responsibilities.

The survey respondents were different from the general American population in a number of ways. The respondents were highly educated and typically had doctoral degrees. The respondents had higher rates of family and relationship stability. The respondents were typically either married or in a committed partnership and more likely to have children living with them than the general population. This is attributed to the higher rates of marriage and relationship stability that contributed to the families remaining intact and not separated due to divorce or dissolution of relationships.

The survey respondents were advanced in their careers and tended to be more mature in age. This meant that overall, stress from childcare was minimal, but stress from caring for someone who was ill, disabled, aging, and/or in need of special services was a stressor. The interviewees indicated this was sometimes due to caring for a spouse or child, but was most often due to the necessary care of an aging parent. In addition, respondents expressed concerns and stress related to their own health.

Survey Respondent Demographics Disaggregated by Gender

All of the demographic data were examined to determine if there were statistically significant differences based upon gender. There were two areas where this was the case. Most of the male respondents (95%) were married compared to female respondents (80%). As noted in Chapter IV a Fisher's Exact test ($p = .004$) showed a statistically significant difference in the proportions of married male versus married female respondents by gender, thus, the number of single women was proportionally higher than the number of single men. This research supports that of Mason and Goulden (2004), who found that among faculty who attain tenure, women were twice as likely as their male counterparts to be single 12 years after attaining their doctorates. Additionally, women academics are more likely than their male colleagues to remain single and childless overall (Armenti, 2004).

The second area where there were gender differences was in the number of children born pre-tenure versus post-tenure. A Mann-Whitney test demonstrated a significant difference in the number of children born pre-tenure between males and females ($p < .001$), with twice as many children born pre-tenure for male respondents than female respondents. The mean number of children born pre-tenure for women was 1.1,

while men averaged 2.2 children pre-tenure. Armenti (2004) found that women in academia tailor “their childbirth decisions to the schedule of the profession” (p. 228). In other words, many women in higher education choose to have their children post-tenure so they are not viewed as having a greater commitment to their children over their careers. Additionally, both male and female interviewees confirmed that once tenure was attained, many career pressures were relieved and it seemed easier to have a family at that time. Interviewees felt this was especially true for women who encountered more work-family conflict than men once they had children. This will be explored in more depth when gender issues are discussed.

These research findings on gender were not consistent with the findings of Schenewark and Dixon (2012), who explored the simultaneous effects of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment theory on career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction with college coaches. This research was the closest comparison to higher education that could be found. Schenewark and Dixon’s research showed no significant gender differences between men and women in their levels of work-family conflict, family-work conflict, work-family enrichment, and family-work enrichment. While there were not a number of gender differences in this study, one cannot ignore the statistical significance of marital status and children born pre-tenure for women.

Interviewees confirmed that the most stressful times in their lives were before they attained tenure and when they had young children. Trying to attain tenure *and* having young children exacerbated the stress. As mentioned, both men and women

interviewed believed the stresses were greater for women once they had children.

Therefore, having children post-tenure was a way to reduce pre-tenure stress for women.

Research Question Analysis Based on Survey Data

Findings and results from the research questions that guided this study were presented in Chapter IV. A discussion of these findings relative to the purpose and significance of this study and the literature review is presented below. In each case, the research question is restated followed by a discussion of the study findings.

Three separate multiple regression models were developed using organizational commitment as the response variable, then career commitment, and finally, satisfaction with life. The explanatory variables used in the three models were the 18 items from the work-family enrichment scale, the ten items from the work-conflict scale, and the eight gender interaction variables. Each model was developed to answer all four research questions simultaneously for each of the three response variables. The multiple regression, using a backwards selection procedure, resulted in significant models that predicted organizational commitment, career commitment, and satisfaction with life.

Research Questions 1 and 2

As noted, in an effort to facilitate analysis, Research Questions 1 and 2 were parsed into its three component parts. Research Question 1 asked: “What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” Research Question 2 asked: “What is the impact of work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?” To facilitate analysis and clarity the three component parts of Questions 1 and 2 were considered as follows.

1.a What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders' levels of organizational commitment?

The results of the multiple regression, using a backwards selection, produced a statistically significant model in predicting organizational commitment. The model showed that work-family capital and family-work affect explained 27% of the variation in organizational commitment. Work-family capital suggests that a person's work may give feelings of confidence, personal fulfillment, a sense of accomplishment, and a sense of success. Thus, these positive emotional responses translated into individuals feeling they were better family members, and the model findings suggest this further strengthened organizational commitment. Similarly, family-work affect is defined as "involvement in family results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual be a better worker" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). For example, when an individual experiences positive emotional affects from home, those emotions may in turn enhance his or her work performance. These positive feelings from family and the impact they had at work further strengthened organizational commitment.

This study supported the findings of previous research that showed a relationship between work-family enrichment and organizational commitment (Aryee et al., 2005; Wayne, Randel, & Stevens, 2006). More specifically, Carlson et al. (2006) found that "work-family capital and family-work affect had the strongest relationship with the global measure of psychological wellbeing" (p. 158). These are exactly the two strongest predictors for organizational commitment in this research model.

Work-family conflict has been suggested by prior research to contribute to turnover intentions (Dixon & Bruening, 2005; Greenhaus et al., 2006). High turnover has

been linked to lower commitment levels (Raedeke, Warren, & Granzyk, 2002). Casper et al. (2002) found there was no connection between work-family conflict and organizational commitment. This study supported the findings of Casper et al., as there was no evidence of a relationship between work-family conflict and organizational commitment.

Similarly, Carlson et al. (2009) found there was not a significant relationship between work-family conflict, turnover intentions, and career commitment. Instead they found that work-family balance contributed to affective outcomes such as organizational commitment and satisfaction.

In summary, this research found that work-family conflict was not a predictor in higher education leaders' organizational commitment. Instead, work-family enrichment had an impact on leaders' organizational commitment. Specifically, these higher education leaders found their work instilled confidence, increased self-esteem, provided a sense of security, and helped them feel a sense of accomplishment and personal fulfillment. These higher education leaders believed that the feelings elicited from their work helped them be better family members, and all of this contributed to greater career commitment.

In addition, the higher education leaders in this study believed that their family put them in a good mood, caused them to feel happy and cheerful, and helped them maintain a positive attitude and outlook and they felt this helped them be a better employee. The more positive emotions a higher education leader felt, the more committed that individual felt to the organization.

1.b What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders' levels of career commitment?

The results of the multiple regression, using a backwards selection, produced a statistically significant model in predicting career commitment. The model showed that work-family affect and work-family conflict explained 47% of the variation in career commitment. Work-family affect is defined by Carlson et al. (2006) as when “involvement in work results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better family member” (p. 140). Work-family affect suggests that a person’s work may put him/her in a better mood. For example, a person in a positive mood when leaving work will typically respond more positively, patiently, and happily to his or her family members and that will ultimately enhance his or her affect and performance as a parent or spouse.

Schenewark and Dixon (2012) found work-family enrichment was not significant in predicting career commitment. However, they did find work-family conflict to be a significant predictor of career commitment. There is consistent evidence that increased work-family conflict is associated with poor organizational outcomes and decreased job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Frone et al., 1997; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Mesmer-Magnus & Viswesvaran, 2005). Similarly, Kossek and Ozeki (1998) showed a consistent negative relationship between work-family conflict and job satisfaction.

As mentioned, work-family conflict is defined as a stressor in which work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996). Furthermore, literature suggests when work interferes with family, the conflict crosses domains so that the conflict causes a decrease in family satisfaction. This

spillover into the family domain then causes family-work conflict and thus negatively affects job satisfaction and career commitment. This decreased satisfaction and commitment causes struggles to “meet the demands from one domain because of interference from the other domain” (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000, p. 1034).

It is important to note that these findings revealed that work-family conflict affected career commitment negatively, meaning that as work-family conflict increased, career commitment decreased. By contrast, work-family affect impacted career commitment positively, meaning that as work-family affect increased, so did career commitment.

In summary, work-family conflict was a predictor in higher education leaders' career commitment. However, work-family enrichment also played a role in leaders' career commitment. Specifically, higher education leaders found their work put them in a good mood, made them feel happy, cheerful, and helped them be more positive. Higher education leaders believed that these feelings elicited from their work helped them be better family members and all of this contributed to greater career commitment.

1.c What is the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment on higher education leaders' levels of life satisfaction?

The results of the multiple regression, using a backwards selection, produced a statistically significant model in predicting life satisfaction. The model showed that work-family affect and family-work affect explained 35% of the variation in life satisfaction. Work-family affect describes the positive moods and emotions that are generated from work and how those are carried over into the family life. An example of a survey question assessing work-family affect was “My involvement in my work makes me feel

happy and this helps me be a better family member” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 144).

Similarly, family-work affect explains how positive moods and emotions from family life are carried over into the work life. An example of a survey question measuring family-work affect was “My involvement with my family helps me to maintain a positive attitude and this helps me be a better worker” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 145). Therefore, these positive emotional responses translated into individuals feeling they were better family members and professionals at work and the model findings suggest this further strengthened overall life satisfaction.

This study supported prior research which demonstrated that work-family conflict did not detract from life satisfaction (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998). Instead, it appears from these findings, that work-family enrichment had more impact on the positive outcomes for family and life satisfaction (van Steenbergen et al., 2007). Schenewark and Dixon’s (2012) research on college coaches found that overall the participants reported their life satisfaction was higher than the midpoint on the Likert scale. This suggested that college coaches felt they had higher than average feelings of life satisfaction. Schenewark and Dixon’s research also demonstrated that both work-family enrichment and work-family conflict were significant in predicting life satisfaction. While work-family conflict was statistically significant in their study, work-family enrichment contributed more to life satisfaction. Their results were consistent with this research, which showed work-family enrichment had more impact on life satisfaction than work-family conflict. Specifically, both work and family caused the higher education leaders to feel happy, cheerful and in a good mood. Additionally, both work and family helped them maintain a positive attitude and outlook on life. These positive

feelings generated from work and family increased the leaders' perceived life satisfaction.

Research Questions 1 and 2 Summary

The two views of the relationship between work and family domains—conflict and enrichment—are not necessarily incompatible (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Rothbard, 2001). Both conflict and enrichment may actually be relatively independent, co-occurring processes whereby commitments in one domain create conflict and enrichment simultaneously (Frone, 2003; Grzywacz & Marks, 2000). Although researchers have begun to assess conflict and enrichment in work-family interactions, there is little understanding of how the two processes combine to determine outcomes (Graves et al., 2007). The findings derived from this study help to answer that question.

Overall, higher education leaders reported higher levels of enrichment than conflict. Similarly, Schenewark and Dixon (2012) found that college coaches experienced a high level of work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment. Coaches believed their family life improved their work role; similarly, they felt their work roles improved their family lives. This is consistent with Sieber (1974), who argued that individuals who have multiple roles may compensate for failure in one role by relying on the gratification of another role. This was also true when exploring the demographic trends from the survey data, which showed that the leaders in this study worked long hours and tended to have spouses who worked long hours, too. This led to increased work-family conflict, particularly as it related to stress stemming from household responsibilities. Additional work-family conflict was expressed when stressors related to the care of family members, including both aging parents and children. Finally, respondents expressed feeling stress

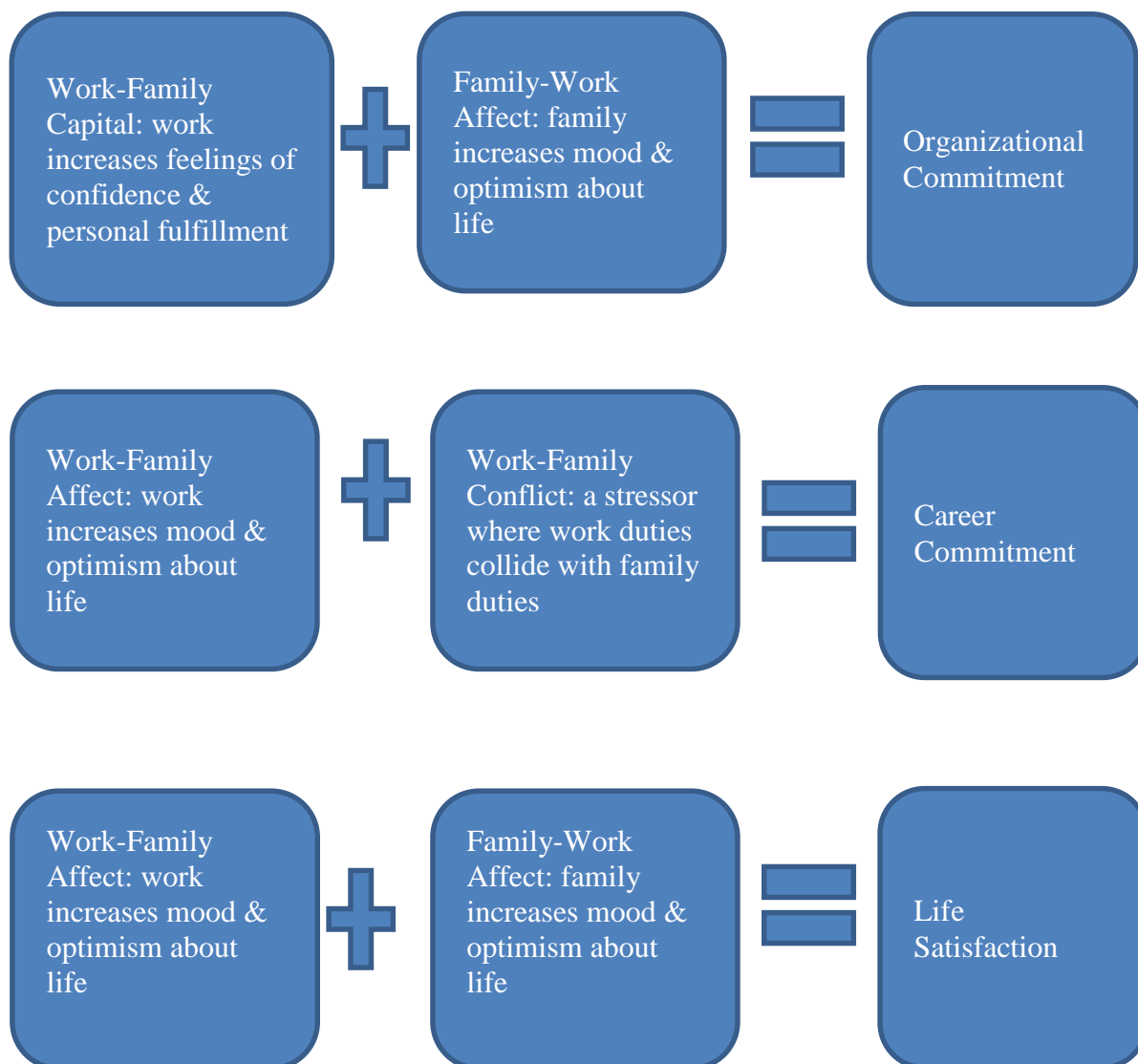
over their own health concerns. However, as Sieber (1974) pointed out, these conflicts were largely compensated for by the greater importance leaders gave to work-family and family-work enrichment.

While work-family conflict was a predictor for career commitment, work-family enrichment was important in determining higher education leaders' career commitment, organizational commitment, and overall life satisfaction. The fact that the leaders in this study felt their families made them feel happy, cheerful, and positive was not surprising when looking more deeply at the lives of the respondents. As noted, the respondent demographics suggest the leaders in this study had successful partnerships and stable families. Similarly, the leaders were highly educated and expressed in the interviews how much they enjoyed their work. The leaders reported their work made them happy, cheerful, instilled confidence and self-esteem, and provided them with a sense of accomplishment, personal satisfaction, and a sense of security. The positives gained from work and family outweighed the inevitable conflicts that arose from work.

It was interesting that similar enrichment domains appeared in more than one model. Work-family affect predicted both career commitment and life satisfaction. Family-work affect predicted organizational commitment and life satisfaction. Work-family capital predicted organizational commitment. All of these are in the enrichment domain. Work-family conflict only predicted career commitment; it did not appear to have statistical significance in any other area. This demonstrates that despite the prior research focus on work-family conflict, at least in this study, it did not appear to have much influence on career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction.

Instead, it is work-family enrichment that has the greatest impact. A visual model summarizing the research findings is displayed in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Results from Multiple Regression Models Showing Predictors for Organizational Commitment, Career Commitment, and Life Satisfaction



Research Question 3 Are there gender difference in these outcomes and/or relationships?

As discussed in Chapter IV, the findings displayed in Tables 15, 16, and 17 indicated there were no statistically significant gender interactions apparent in any of the three models. This means that, in this study, gender differences in terms of how work-family enrichment and work-family conflict impacted leaders' career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction were not evident. However, because differences were noted relative to the demographics and descriptive findings reported in the first section of this chapter, gender differences were further explored using a *t*-test calculated for each of the work-family enrichment and work-family conflict variables. A Levene's Test showed no significant difference in variance between genders; and, while the models analyzed did not show gender differences, there was a statistically significant difference based on gender relative to the responses on the work-family development Likert questions.

Work-family development is reflected by intellectual and personal development. Carlson et al. (2006) defined this as when "involvement in work leads to the acquisition or refinement of skills, knowledge, behaviors, or ways of viewing things that help an individual be a better family member" (p. 140). An example of a work-family development question was the following: "My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member" (p. 144). For women, the average response on the work-family development questions was 3.9, while for men it was 3.5. All of these variables were assessed on a five-point scale (ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). A score of "3" indicated the respondent neither agreed

nor disagreed with the statement. A score of “4” indicated the respondent agreed with the statement. This meant that the women’s average response score of 3.9 indicated they were closer to agreeing with the work-family development statements than were men. The men’s response of 3.5 meant that they were in between neutral and agreeing with the work-family development questions. Thus, while the difference between women and men was statistically significant, with women indicating stronger agreement with the notion that work-family development positively impacted their work potential, overall work-family development did not appear to be very important to either men or women in this quantitative study. This finding was validated in the multiple regression models where work-family development was not a statistically significant predictor for career commitment, organizational commitment, or life satisfaction.

Interestingly, work-family development was mentioned in the interviews by a female vice president who was very concerned about social justice issues. She talked about how her work helped her understand different viewpoints and how that made her a better family member. She further explained that she took those ideas home and shared them with her children.

Schenewark and Dixon (2012) did not find any gender differences in the overall level of conflict or enrichment experienced by college coaches. This is supported by literature that showed work-family interactions impact both men and women (Hill et al., 2003; Hill et al., 2005; Pleck, 1993). Schenewark and Dixon (2012) suggested gender differences be explored further and specifically mentioned that qualitative research might uncover information not discovered in quantitative inquiry.

Research Question 3 Summary

In terms of the quantitative inquiry, there was only one statistically significant gender difference. This was in the answers to the Likert scale questions related to work-family development. For women, the average response on the work-family development questions was 3.9, while for men it was 3.5. This meant that the women's average response score of 3.9 indicated they were closer to agreeing with the work-family development statements than were men. The men's response of 3.5 meant that they were in between neutral and agreeing with the work-family development questions. Thus, women respondents were more likely than men to believe their work helped them expand their knowledge and understand different viewpoints, helped them develop skills, behaviors and abilities, and all of these things, from their perspective, made them better family members.

Research Question 4 Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship?

As discussed in Chapter IV, Tables 15, 16, and 17 illustrated there were differences in the outcomes based on the direction of the relationship. Table 15 showed that both work-family capital and family-work affect impacted organizational commitment, with both having a positive effect on organizational commitment; as work-family capital and family-work affect increased, so did organizational commitment. As mentioned, work-family capital is defined as when "involvement in work promotes levels of psychosocial resources such as a sense of security, confidence, accomplishment, or self-fulfillment that helps the individual to be a better family member" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 140). Family-work affect examined at mood and attitude gains, and is defined as

when “involvement in family results in a positive emotional state or attitude which helps the individual to be a better worker” (Carlson et al., p. 140). In summary, two constructs predicted organizational commitment. The first was work-family capital, which resulted in feelings of confidence, accomplishment and self-fulfillment. These feelings helped the individuals feel they were better family members. The second was family-work affect, where the findings indicated that respondents felt that family life improved their moods and attitudes and this helped them be better workers. The reverse direction (e.g., family-work capital and work-family affect) was not statistically significant.

Table 16 showed work-family affect and work-family conflict both had an impact on career commitment. Work-family affect had a positive effect on career commitment; as work-family affect increased, so did career commitment. Work-family affect is expressed through positive emotions, like a good mood, which then caused individuals to feel happy and cheerful, and improved their attitudes and outlooks. Based on these findings, respondents seemed to feel that these positive moods and feelings helped them to be better family members.

Work-family conflict also impacted career commitment, but in a negative way. As work-family conflict increased, the level of career commitment decreased. Work-family conflict is a stressor in which work responsibilities collide with family duties (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985; Netemeyer et al., 1996).

Table 17 showed that affect in both directions had an impact on life satisfaction. Both work-family affect and family-work affect had a positive impact on life satisfaction. As work-family affect and family-work affect increased, so did life satisfaction. In these

instances the positive emotions and/or mood derived from work and similarly derived from family had a positive impact in both directions.

This study supported the findings of Schenewark and Dixon (2012) who found that there were significant differences between work-family conflict and family-work conflict among college coaches. Their research demonstrated that coaches perceived more problems from work conflicting with family, than family conflicting with their work. This was true among higher education leaders, as well.

However, Schenewark and Dixon (2012), reported higher levels of family-work enrichment than work-family enrichment suggesting the respondents' family life helped them in their work role. The quantitative research on higher education leaders did not find the same results. Family-work affect predicted organizational commitment and life satisfaction. However, work-family enrichment was just as important overall, with work-family affect predicting career commitment and life satisfaction. Work-family capital also predicted organizational commitment.

Research Question 4 Summary

Overall, the family role did not conflict as much with the leaders' work role compared to the work role conflicting with the family role. However, if one's work interferes with family, this may cause family obligations to go unfulfilled (Carlson & Kacmar, 2000). According to Carlson and Kacmar, when family obligations go unfulfilled this can cause spillover into the work domain, thereby causing family to interfere with work. This means that sometimes it is difficult to discern the difference between work-family conflict and family-work conflict.

It could be presumed that this spillover effect could also impact work-family and family-work enrichment. Positive moods from work could spill over into positive moods at home and vice versa, making it difficult to discern what is causing the affect; is the root cause work-family affect or family-work affect?

In this study, the quantitative research suggested that work-family enrichment, or the positive side of work and family, was more significant in predicting career commitment, organizational commitment, and overall life satisfaction than work-family conflict. Among the leaders in this study, work-family conflict was not as important, except in predicting career commitment. The qualitative data that follow, helped explicate these findings and the impact work-family enrichment and conflict had on higher education leaders' lives.

Qualitative Inquiry

The qualitative data collected were in the form of interviews as recommended by Creswell (2007) for a phenomenological study. A nonprobability self-selected convenience sample (Creswell, 2007) was selected for the qualitative portion of this study. There were 12 individuals who agreed to be interviewed either in person, on the telephone, or via Skype. The participants represented a broad range of higher education leaders. Participant demographics were presented in Table 19. The information is presented as summaries of individual variables to protect the identities of the participants. The interview participants represented the top five disciplines of the survey respondents. Broad representation from the disciplines was sought; however, not all of those invited agreed to participate in the interviews. The interviewees had an equal number of women and men in each job category (e.g., department chair, assistant/associate dean, dean,

assistant/associate vice president, and vice president). There were one female and one male interviewed in each category; there were two men and two women interviewed at the department chair/director level. All but one of the participants had a doctoral degree. Two individuals were single. One person was single and had never married; the other was divorced. All but one of the interviewees had children. For the most part, the interviewee demographics mirrored the demographics of the survey respondents. This was true in the area of job title. However, 67% of the leaders interviewed represented job titles at or above the assistant/associate dean level. Seven of the interviewees were on a tenure track and had attained tenure; the remaining five did not have tenure and had never been in a tenure track position.

Five themes emerged from the raw text of the interviews. These were Geographical Choice, Family, Career Stage, Support, and Barriers. These themes were consistent with findings in the literature as discussed below. Each of these five themes will be discussed below relative to the qualitative research questions.

Research Question 1 “What is the impact of work-family conflict on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?”

Four themes emerged specific to Research Question 1. The theme for support did not emerge through the interview data for work-family conflict.

Family. Family was a major theme in this section. Ten participants referred to family when talking about work-family conflict. All ten participants referred to the heightened work-family conflict when their children were younger. The work-family conflict was so great that three of the interviewees (2 men and 1 woman) mentioned their

spouses had put their own careers on hold while the children were younger. One male dean said, “At the time when the kids grew up, to be in academia and to be under pressure to do scholarship, to bring in grants, to be able to publish takes a lot of time.”

This was consistent with Williams (2000), who argued that the concept of the “ideal worker” describes one who works full-time and overtime, with no time off to give birth or raise children. When work is structured in this way, caregivers find it difficult to perform as “ideal workers” (Williams, 2000). Hochschild (2003) argued that the university is still designed for the brisk-stepping men and their homes for stay-at-home wives. Given that several spouses put their careers on hold, these findings demonstrate that the ideal worker construct remains common in higher education today.

Two of the nine female interviewees chose to cut back on their work after they had children. One of those worked part-time until her children were older. The second respondent, a female department chair, stopped working entirely after she had her first two children who were 18 months apart. However, when her youngest child was a few months old she said she realized, “I’ve just seen so many women go through this. . . But I got to the point where I said, I need more in my life than being somebody’s wife and somebody’s mother. I needed that professional identity.”

This was consistent with both the literature and the quantitative research findings. First, the sentiments expressed by the female department chair were consistent with work-family capital theory, which suggests that work helps individuals feel personally fulfilled. Second, the literature showed that women tend to drop in and out of the workforce during their childbearing years to accommodate family needs (Madsen, 2012). Mason et al. (2009) found that many women left tenure-track positions after they had

children. In addition, Armenti (2004) found the inability to balance academic and family responsibilities was a critical factor in influencing women's departure from academia. The quantitative findings showed that as work-family conflict increased, career commitment decreased. Therefore, it was not surprising that as family stress increased with the birth of children, women felt less committed to their careers and dropped out of the workforce.

Three of the nine interviewees came from a dual-career household where both partners worked full-time. All three talked about the difficulties of managing work and family while working full-time, particularly when children were young. One female department chair said:

But during all of those times when I was going to school at night and working full-time and raising a kid and all that stuff; I didn't think about balance much. I thought about survival. How am I going to get through this day? How am I going to get through this week? How am I going to do the homework due on Friday, you know? And sleep at the same time? It was just survival. There was no such thing as balance; again, it was like survival.

This was consistent with research that documents higher levels of work family conflict among female academics (Finkel & Olswang, 1996; Santos & Cabral-Cardoso, 2008; Varner, 2000; Williams, 2000). Conflict theorists have argued that a person has finite resources in time and energy. The multiple roles a person occupies all compete for these limited resources, placing the roles in conflict and competition with each other (Adams et al., 1996; Kopelman, Greenhaus, & Connolly, 1983; Murphy & Zagorski, 2006). Work-family conflict is a "form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures

from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985, p. 77). The current work-family literature emphasizes the conflict between multiple roles that workers and parents assume (Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). The literature and quantitative research suggested that all of this conflict would minimize the department chair’s commitment to her career, yet one department chair felt compelled to work full-time and continue her education. When asked why she did this, she said, “I had this huge deep deep desire to do it. And if I had been prevented from following my dream, I would have been a horribly miserable person and it would have affected everyone around me.” This showed that in this case, work-family enrichment outweighed work-family conflict in terms of this department chair’s commitment to her career. As mentioned earlier, this supported Sieber’s (1974) theory that individuals who have multiple roles may compensate for failure in one role by relying on the gratification of another role.

While work-family conflict was heightened when children were young, seven of the 10 interviewees talked about how much easier it became when the children were older. In many ways this reduction in work-family conflict increased the interviewees’ life satisfaction, as well as that of their spouse. As mentioned, three of the interviewees had spouses who stopped working while their children were young. All three of those spouses have since returned to work. Two of the female interviewees who put their careers on hold expressed an increased life satisfaction with their ability to comfortably take on more work responsibilities and enter into higher education leadership. One female vice president said, “I feel like I’m 52 years old. I feel like the next 10-15 years really are going to be great years and I’m really happy with how it all turned out.”

The fact that work-family conflict diminishes when children are older or grown is supported by the literature. Carlson et al. (2006) argued that the importance of work and family roles may fluctuate over time, thus increasing or decreasing work-family conflict. Similarly, it may also increase or decrease enrichment. Lobel and St. Clair (1992) found that individuals invest more time and emotion in roles that are highly salient. For example, parents with young children who require a great deal of care will invest more time and emotion during that stage in a child's development. As children become more independent, the emotional time spent may not decrease, however, an older child will be more independent and not typically require the same amount of time and attention.

The qualitative findings suggested that work-family conflict increased when children were younger. This often resulted in one partner, most often the female, reducing her work hours or putting her career on hold for a time. However, in some instances, both spouses pushed through this stressful life phase and continued to work full-time. In these cases, it appears that work-family enrichment may have compensated for the heightened work-family conflict. It is encouraging that the findings in this study seemed to support the notion that once children were older, work-family conflict was reduced.

Career Stage. The second most prevalent theme to emerge in terms of work-family conflict was labeled career stage. Ten of the 12 interviewees referred to career stage when addressing work-family conflict. Career stage was the code used when a person spoke of pre-tenure pressures and the pressures from being non-tenure track. In addition, it was used when interviewees talked about how work-family conflict was lessened once tenure was attained.

Four of the ten interviewees talked about how much more work-family conflict existed in their lives before they attained tenure. One male dean said:

Yeah, there is tremendous pressure, I think, especially for a young faculty member before they get tenure, to know, are you doing enough? Well, enough is only enough when I think it's enough and maybe that's not what somebody else thinks. It's very definitely stressful. I think it's more stressful for assistant professors than any other level, because of that.

This idea is supported in the literature because higher education is under tremendous pressure from external stakeholders, particularly federal and state governments (i.e., legislators, governors, etc.) and other constituent groups to increase faculty accountability and productivity (Alexander, 2000; Bok, 2004; Burke, 2005). This has placed increasing demands on faculty work (Burke, 2005; Gappa et al., 2007). Academics are expected to teach, conduct research, and provide service and administrative functions within their institutions and professional organizations (Blackburn & Lawrence, 1995; Boyer, 1990; Gappa et al., 2007; Jacobs & Winslow, 2004; Schuster & Finkelstein, 2006). According to Ferren and Stanton (2004) "Faculty increasingly express concern about quality of work life and growing demands on their time" (p. 221). The culture of tenure creates an environment of competition that rewards dedication to the position—the professorship—above all else in life (Drago 2007; Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2012).

Another respondent was neither tenured, nor in a tenure track position. He talked about how this created a great deal of work-family conflict, because there was no job security. He said:

You know what's interesting? How much more we would tip in favor of family if there was more perceived job security, right? So, one of the reasons that we, my colleague and I, commit . . . is because our students deserve it. The other reason is that we're on annual contracts and we feel like if we don't deliver a home run every year that we might be vulnerable and so we deliver a home run year after year and that can impact our family-life choice, work-family choice. That maybe we'd be better off with the 50 or 55 hour work week than 60 to 65 to 70 hour work week that we typically put in during the academic year. And maybe we would choose that differently if we were more secure in our positions.

Again, this department chair lamented the long hours he works, but noted that he stayed in the position despite perceptions that job security was not inherent. One reason for this may be that, as has become increasingly clear from these findings, at least for these leaders, work-family enrichment outweighed work-family conflict. This department chair admitted that some of his extra hours were self-imposed and that his work provided him with a great deal of personal fulfillment.

Geographical Choice. Seven of the 12 interviewees said their careers determined where they would live. Both one female dean and one female department chair said they ended up at her current institution because they followed their husbands. One female department chair said, "Academic positions just don't grow on trees." This is consistent with the literature that suggests many women follow their spouse's career moves instead of their own, and this has the potential to place their career at a disadvantage (Madsen, 2012). Pixley (2008) studied dual-income couples and career prioritizing decisions. She found that the biggest predictor in the overall career prioritizing behaviors were

determined early in the relationship. If the husband obtained a professional position first, the wife would generally follow and that set the career prioritizing foundation. In terms of disadvantages faced by the trailing spouse, Pixley found the biggest disadvantage women faced was in potential loss of salary because the couple placed priority on the husband's career. Husbands in her study had higher salaries, but women had moderate salaries, rather than low earnings. This suggests that the overall disadvantage may not be as great as one might think. Additionally, as long as the couple remains married, the wife benefits from the husband's higher salary so it could be viewed as a win-win situation.

As presented, the quantitative findings showed that family-work affect was a predictor of life satisfaction. The women in this study often followed their spouses in terms of geographic location. Interestingly, the qualitative findings revealed that women did not express deep regrets about the decision to follow a spouse. In fact, all of the women were able to find meaningful work, which provided them with personal satisfaction. In the end, the women also attained significant leadership positions and expressed a high level of life satisfaction.

Barriers. Four of the interviewees talked about specific barriers that made work-family conflict more difficult for them. Three interviewees discussed how the nature of academia and higher education leadership requires long work hours and what they called "24/7" attention. One female vice president working in student affairs said:

With how things have changed in higher education and with my portfolio it is 24/7. I have students who live, travel, work, go to school, live on campus, so there is no point and time when things end. We are in the 24/7 business. We are

responding to crisis, we're dealing with suicidal ideation, we're dealing with alcohol overdoses.

The expectation that higher education leaders are “on” 24/7 results in tension and conflict and that may produce psychological distress, and decreased job satisfaction (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). By contrast, individuals with lower levels of work-family conflict are found to report greater employee commitment and job satisfaction (Allen et al., 2000; Kossek & Ozeki, 1998; Tiedje et al., 1990). Thus, from a conflict perspective, the best outcome is to reduce work-family conflict (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Marks, 1977; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012).

The study findings supported the idea that reducing work-family conflict increased a person's career commitment. However, the findings also suggested that the personal fulfillment leaders get from their work outweighs the stress from work-family conflict. This implied that these leaders found ways to reduce work-family conflict, and, as long as they were feeling personally fulfilled and happy with their work, they remained committed to their careers and organizations and were satisfied with their lives.

Qualitative Findings – Research Question 1 Summary

Work-family conflict emerged in both the quantitative and qualitative data. Interviewees spoke of the challenges experienced during the tenure process and the long hours expected of leaders in higher education. One area that emerged in the qualitative data that did not appear in the quantitative data was how the care of young children created excessive stress on the careers of leaders. Oftentimes, the needs of young children caused leaders or their spouses to cut back on their work or to quit for a time altogether.

Literature suggests it is best to reduce work-family conflict (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Marks, 1977; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). However, actually reducing work-family conflict is not as easy as it might appear. This is especially true at certain times in one's life. Reducing work-family conflict when children are younger may require a partner to reduce his/her work or quit entirely. This may not be a viable solution. Therefore, if leaders feel personally fulfilled and happy with their work, they will be committed to their careers and organizations and be more satisfied with their lives.

Research Question 2 “What is the impact of work-family enrichment on higher education leaders’ levels of organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction?”

Four of the major themes emerged from the interview data specific to this research question: Family, Geographical Choice, Career Stage, and Support. The Barriers theme did not emerge in the interview data for work-family enrichment. The five relevant terms of their relationship to work-family enrichment are discussed in detail below.

Family. Family was another theme that emerged when interviewees talked about work-family enrichment. Five of the interviewees talked about how their family life was enhanced through the interconnectedness they had between their work and family. When talking about her work and family life, one female department chair said, “I feel like I go on and on, but it’s so intertwined (family and work life). They are so integrated.”

A male vice president echoed similar sentiments when he said:

I can bring my kids here and we do a lot of evening things. I’m involved in recruiting and we do a lot of evening events and so on. I kind of took on the

attitude that as much as I can, I'm going to raise my kids here, I'm going to let them see what higher education is like and I think it's helped them kind of build a love for education, so that's enhanced things as well.

Aryee et al. (2005) found integrating work and family roles was an essential component for achieving work-family balance. This was especially true in reducing work-family or family-work conflict. "Role involvement will therefore motivate individuals to acquire the necessary resources, such as skills and support, that will enhance not only work role performance but also family role performance" (p. 135). The supportive work environment that allows for the integration of work and family roles will enhance flexibility, reduce conflict, and potentially increase enrichment in both directions (Greenhaus & Parasuraman, 1999).

Additionally, integration makes transitions between work and family easier (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005). The importance of work-family integration was supported in the interviews. Several leaders expressed how intertwined their work and family lives were. They were committed to their work, but they wanted to have time with their families, particularly their children. This led them to take work home so they could be near their children while working in the evenings and on weekends. Similarly, they took their children to work anytime it was possible. This was especially true when leaders worked in the evenings and weekends and needed to attend university functions and events.

Geographical Choice. Two interviewees mentioned they chose to work at an institution that allowed them to have better work-family balance. One female department chair said:

I guess I chose the kind of places to work where I could have a successful family work-family balance. I mean, I didn't go to research schools. I didn't go to schools where family wasn't valued; where I wasn't allowed to have a life. And that's probably why I'm in my 21st year of doing this. And I don't think I've ever been miserable.

A male department chair said:

Frankly, and fortunately, (my university), in my field anyway, is not a superstar. It's not leading anything so there's not as much pressure. Now if I were at Harvard or Yale there would be more pressure. I can get away with less (here) because no one expects me to publish (the way they would at a top tier university).

This idea that one can choose to work at an institution where work-family balance is attainable is supported in the literature. Wolf-Wendel, Ward, and Twombly (2007) found that faculty members may seek out institutions for employment that will allow them the greatest work-family flexibility if this is indeed important. This especially true for women, but also applies to men as well.

This supports the quantitative findings, which showed that family-work affect increased organizational commitment. Since leaders in this study found family-work affect to be a determining factor in their organizational commitment levels and their life satisfaction, it was not surprising that they chose institutions where their family lives could be integrated more easily with their work lives.

Career Stage. Career Stage was the second most often discussed theme that emerged. Career Stage was used to identify themes that were mentioned by interviewees

when they talked about how their work-family balance had improved as they had advanced in their careers. Interviewees shared they had learned to be transparent at work and at home and to set priorities.

Five of the interviewees discussed how they had become better at setting priorities as they had become more experienced professionals and that enhanced their family life.

One female dean said:

And I would say the one thing I've changed drastically in the eight years of the deanship; the first three years of this work, I gave up a lot, a lot of my personal time. You have to really commit a lot of time those first three years, so I was willing to do that. But when I look back at some of that, it was ridiculous some of the things I was doing. I have to be responsible to manage all elements of my work-family and my personal life. And not feel guilty about it, but make decisions that are both in the well-being of my happiness and my health.

After three years in the deanship, this dean learned how to set priorities and boundaries to create separation between work and her personal life to achieve and maintain work-family balance. Scholars call these strategies "boundary theory" (Kreiner, Hollensbe, & Sheep, 2009). Boundary theory "provides a theoretical framework for understanding how people manage multiple roles by focusing on the boundary between their work and non-work roles" (Rothbard, Phillips, & Dumas, 2005, p. 243). Boundary theory argues that it is important that we remain aware of the stressors that influence our work and family roles so that when we balance one role against another, our overall well-being can remain intact (Frone, 2003).

The interviewees who discussed prioritizing their time gave specific strategies they had learned to employ that helped them attain balance between their work and family lives. One male dean said:

Unlike most other people, I make it very clear to my colleagues that I will respond to email while I'm at home or over weekends, just because I check email all the time, but I won't entertain any telephone calls and I won't talk about work during those times on the telephone. I always check email. To me it's less intrusive than a call, because you have the opportunity to respond at a time when it's convenient.

Nippert-Eng (1996) calls these strategies *boundary work*, and define it as “the process through which we organize potentially realm-specific matters, people, objects and aspects of self into ‘home’ and ‘work,’ maintaining these conceptualizations as needed/desired” (p. 186). These strategies are also known as *segmentation*, which can make the transition between roles difficult, because it requires a separation between tasks and attention. This concept assumes that one cannot focus on work while focusing on family or vice versa (Desrochers & Sargent, 2004). However, this research does not support that argument. Some higher education leaders in this study demonstrated that they had learned segmentation skills over the course of their careers through repeated boundary work. Simultaneously, they reported that, because family and work were both so important, they did everything they could to integrate their work and family lives.

Support. Support was a major theme in this section, occurring 34 times. Interviewees attributed personal satisfaction received from their work as the most significant aspect that enhanced their family life. Personal satisfaction was mentioned a

total of 17 times by interviewees. Six interviewees talked specifically about how their work was intellectually challenging and connected them with interesting people.

Interviewees felt this in turn helped them to be more interesting individuals on a personal level and they carried that into their family lives.

One male department chair said:

I think that my work-family is interesting and intellectually challenging and that keeps me engaged as a human being and as a thinker. And I think if I were not engaged, I would probably be a miserable person and that would bleed over into my family life.

This was very interesting, because essentially the personal satisfaction and fulfillment these leaders were experiencing is defined in work-family enrichment theory as *work-family capital*. As was mentioned in the quantitative study, work-family capital was one of the predictors for organizational commitment. The fact that it appears again in the qualitative findings further validates and verifies the findings in the earlier research.

A male dean said:

I always have something interesting to talk about. And that is what I bring to my private life is that every day there is something new, challenging, controversial, that I can talk about and have a debate and have a discussion and that is the best thing ever. Having a job like this, at a university, in an environment where you're constantly challenged and stimulated. I wouldn't have it any other way.

This is another example of the work-family capital construct. Specifically, one of the questions on the work-family enrichment theory scale was "My involvement in my

work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member.”

This further supports the research in the quantitative portion of this study.

Finally, one female department chair talked about the confidence she acquired from her work through positive affirmations received from students and colleagues. She said:

I'm very confident. I think that's one of the things I get from work. . . I'm doing a great job and that I matter. So it works out well for me, because I have constantly, student notes, just little recognitions along the way that say yes you matter, we're glad you're here, you're doing a great job. So I'm much happier. It definitely helps me be happier in my home life.

Again, these sentiments echo the work-family capital construct. This was similar to the question incorporated into the work-family enrichment survey question “My involvement in my work instills confidence in me and this helps me be a better family member.” All of the supports mentioned in this section tied back to the quantitative research by supporting and replicating the importance of work-family capital.

The flexibility afforded in an academic environment was the next most important support that interviewees felt enhanced their family life. Flexibility in academic life was mentioned a total of 14 times. One male department chair said:

Well, I think one of the things I think I'm fortunate with, I don't have a good work life balance, except in the sense that I can take work home with me. And I can stop work for a couple of hours in the evening to make sure I am engaged with my children and my wife and then later in the evening go back to work at home and so I guess being on a campus like this, I recognize how many people can't do that. When their work exceeds the traditional working day, they're in a

lab or they're in some other setting where they can't be at home and take some time to engage and then start their work again. So, I don't know, I'm almost grateful for my situation even if it takes many more hours to finish work than it ought to, that I can do a lot of that at home.

These findings supported that of Gappa et al. (2007), who argued for the importance of work flexibility in the higher education setting. Gappa et al. argued that workplace flexibility provides an avenue for faculty members (and even higher education leaders) to operate as if they were ideal workers. The findings from this study showed that most higher education leaders had working spouses or partners who were working professionals, which means they did not have someone who managed their homes on a full-time basis. Men as well as women needed workplace flexibility to meet their personal and professional responsibilities. Workplace flexibility allowed the leaders to integrate their work and family lives. This was important, because all of the higher education leaders needed to work long hours. However, this was not necessarily a problem, because as the interviewees stated in the section above, their work provided them with a great deal of personal satisfaction and fulfillment. The findings also demonstrated that family was just as important in terms of providing personal fulfillment and increasing life satisfaction. The integration of work and family, while not always easy, seemed to allow the leaders the opportunity to have the best of both worlds.

Research Question 2 Summary

The qualitative results provided depth and breadth of understanding by both supporting and enhancing the quantitative models. The multiple regression models showed that overall, work-family capital, work-family affect, family-work affect, and

work-family conflict were the most significant areas of importance to the survey respondents. The interviewees referred to all of these components, as well. For example, work-family capital, or the ways in which a person's work gives feelings of personal satisfaction was the most significant aspect that influenced interviewee's family life. Similarly, work-family affect, or the ways in which the interviewee's moods were enhanced at work also emerged in the interviews.

Family-work affect also emerged in the qualitative data. Interviewees spoke of how they could not wait to get home to share their day with their families. Other interviewees discussed how their family kept them centered and grounded allowing them to be better leaders.

According to Carlson and Kacmar (2006), "life satisfaction is broader than the other forms of satisfaction and spans both domains" (p. 1034). Therefore, when one is satisfied in a domain there is an overall additive effect on life satisfaction. This may be why work-family enrichment was a greater predictor, not only in life satisfaction, but in the areas of career and organizational commitment, as well.

This research supported the arguments of enrichment theorists who maintain that resources are not necessarily finite and that the multiple roles a person occupies can serve to enhance and enrich each other, resulting in positive outcomes (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). There is evidence that having multiple roles, such as those of parent and employee, produces positive outcomes, such as higher self-esteem, confidence, and greater marriage and job satisfaction (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006). This research supported previous literature that argued there are numerous positive effects of combining work and family roles (Barnett, 1998; Barnett & Gareis, 2006;

Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Frone, 2003; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). These findings were consistent with Ruderman et al. (2002), who found that high-level managerial women occupying multiple roles had higher levels of life satisfaction, higher multitasking skills, and higher self-esteem and self-acceptance.

Work-family enrichment is further enhanced by the choices individuals make. The leaders in this study made choices to work at institutions where work-family balance was valued. Leaders chose to utilize boundary theory to minimize work-family conflict and increase work-family enrichment. Boundary theory establishes *segmentation*, which makes clear distinctions between work and family roles in an effort to achieve work-family balance. In addition, work-family integration was utilized to have flexibility and allow transitioning between work and family roles.

Research Question 3 “Are there gender differences in these outcomes and/or relationships”

As mentioned earlier, in their research with college coaches, Schenewark and Dixon (2012) did not find gender differences in the overall levels of conflict or enrichment. Schenewark and Dixon suggested that these questions regarding gender be studied further, particularly in qualitative research. This study has done just that and the results uncovered gender differences that were not revealed in the previous quantitative research.

All five of the major themes emerged from the interview data specific to this research question: Family, Geographical Choice, Career Stage, Support, and Barriers. Table 23 displayed these themes and the frequency of their occurrence across the 12

interviews. The five relevant themes and their relationship to gender differences are discussed in detail below.

Family. Seven of the 12 interviewees mentioned gender differences as they related to family. Five of those individuals felt that women had more pressures and a heavier burden as it related to family responsibilities. One female department chair said, “The burden of the housework and the childrearing generally falls to the female.”

A male department chair said:

I suspect that the issues are huge for women and I don’t have the faintest idea how huge they are because I’m a man. I think fundamentally the academic expectations that the profession puts on men and women are the same, but the expectation for maintaining positive family relationships is significantly higher on women than men. And I think the common thing is women work two full-time jobs and men don’t. I don’t think men have the same expectations to maintain the home life that women do.

The idea that women often have more responsibilities than men is supported in the literature. Bruening and Dixon (2008) found working mothers typically experience higher rates of role conflict as they juggle time and socio-cultural expectations while fulfilling both the roles of worker and mother. This may be why much of the work-family research has focused primarily on mothers (Hill et al., 2003; Hill et al., 2005; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). This was supported in the interviews with nearly all of the interviewees agreeing that women took on more of the household responsibilities and the stereotypical female roles. The female vice president whose husband stayed home with the children when they were young was not like the men who had spouses who took

care of the children. In the case of the men who worked full-time and had a stay-at-home spouse, their partner alleviated much of the household concerns for them. In the case of the female vice president, while she was not as responsible for the childcare, she was still concerned with attending the children's soccer games and school events. When she was not able to be there, she expressed feeling very guilty. She said that now that her partner had gone back to work, he in no way had the same level of guilt when he missed their children's activities. She said that she realized this guilt was self-induced, but she was probably also trying to live up to her own, as well as socio-cultural expectations.

One male dean felt the playing field was level for both men and women in academia until children were born. He said:

Well, before there's kids in the family I don't think there's any differences, but very definitely children play a major role in that. And I've seen it as a department chair, with many new moms who say, "Oh, it's not going to make any difference in my life," but it does. It absolutely will. And it's so important for those young children for mom to be there in those young years, especially those first few years. I always try to be accommodating, our dean does, too, you know we try to help out where we can to help those young moms, but there's no doubt that they have a much greater stressful situation than men do and I don't know that there's any good solution to that. We want women to have careers, we want women to be on the same footing as men, there's no question about it and when you look around, you know, our leadership, we've got a woman as the dean and we've got several women chairs and we've got many women in leadership roles and they

have right to be there, certainly. But it does cause problems when they have children, there's no question about it.

The fact that women may face more work-family conflict than men once they have children is supported in the literature. According to Mason et al. (2013), women faculty who have children often face negative consequences in their early academic careers. There are a number of biases that create work-family conflict for women in academia (Armenti, 2004; Probert, 2005). This is particularly true for tenure-track positions wherein there is an overlap in the tenure period and women's childbearing years (Moen & Sweet, 2004). Further, as women advance through the faculty ranks, women continue to pay a price in terms of lower rates of family formation and fertility, and higher rates of family dissolution. Alternatively, having children for men in academia has been found to have positive or neutral affects (Mason et al., 2013). The current research showed that work-family conflict increased when children were younger and this caused a number of partners (mostly women) to take time off work to care for small children to alleviate some of that conflict. However, once the children were older, the work-family conflict decreased, and all of those spouses were able to return to work. Three women and one man mentioned feelings of guilt. The man's guilt stemmed from his feelings that his family responsibilities put pressure on his colleagues. He said:

I did work in the private sector for a number of years and you almost felt guilt any time you were taking time off, 'cause I was part of a sales team so you felt like you were always placing that much more of a burden on your teammates.

The fact that this leader felt guilt by leaving his teammates when he needed to be with his family is supported in the literature, which has shown work-family interactions impact men, as well as women (Hill, 2003; Hill et al., 2005; Pleck, 1993).

While the male leader expressed guilt when he left responsibilities to his colleagues, the women's guilt stemmed from not being present with their children and family. One female vice president said:

If anything, what I get from my partner is "you know you do that to yourself, you know even when you were writing your dissertation you were always present. You were at every soccer game, every practice, every this, every dinner." And then I would say, "Yeah, I was physically present." And he said, "Well, you're a good actor because we couldn't tell." So I think if anything in my personal world, I don't think that's changing. I think the thing that's changing is that I'm reducing my level of guilt, but he's by no means increasing his. He has no issues heading out for a weekend, going out on a ski thing and he comes home the same as when he leaves. It does not permeate his world.

The idea that women tend to experience more guilt than men is supported by Terrell and Gifford (2005), who argued that higher education female leaders have expressed a sense of guilt over the time spent away from their children. The fact that the male leader felt guilty leaving his colleagues to be with family, while the female leader felt guilty because she was not with her family is supported by literature, too. Levine and Pittinsky (1997) found evidence to suggest that fathers' and mothers' experiences from work-family interactions may be different from one another.

The qualitative findings supported the idea that the women leaders felt a greater need to be with their children than did the men. The women who took time off to care for their young children indicated having no regrets for doing so. Similarly, the men who had partners who took time off seemingly felt no guilt that they were not there to raise their children. Several suggested that this was necessary to meet the expectations of the academic culture. Some of the younger male interviewees did feel responsible for the second shift and the care of the children, suggesting the socio-cultural expectations may be slowly changing.

Support. The theme support was mentioned by eight interviewees and in all cases it referred to the cultural and societal support that allowed men to be more involved in family life. All but two of the interviewees felt that things were changing and men were becoming more involved in family life.

One male department chair said he felt that men today are encouraged more than men from his father's generation. He said:

I know my father talks about wanting to do things, all the way from birth, where he was told by professionals that he should not do. He should not attend a birth, he shouldn't be in birthing classes, he shouldn't because it would impact my mom's role as a mother, so he was, by society actively discouraged from doing things that I'm certainly encouraged to do.

This interviewee explained further that his father's peer group had wanted to be involved with the children, but not in the same ways that he and his peer group are involved at home. He said:

So I think there was, at least from the peer group, there was always this perception that the father's being engaged was important. That said, they weren't doing things like the dishes or vacuuming or anything like that or the stinkier parts of child care when kids were young, that was not the male thing, whereas, my peer group and I are certainly engaged in all of that.

There is great value in men's increasing roles in family life, because men, as well as women, seem to benefit from occupying multiple roles. Crosby (1991) found multiple roles increased psychological resources by offering diverse opportunities for gratification and validation of life. Barnett et al. (1992) showed that men's psychological well-being benefitted equally from their roles as worker, spouse, and father, with fewer reported physiological symptoms of distress. Men can benefit from creating satisfying relationships with their children (Barnett & Marshall, 1993; Farrell & Rosenberg, 1981; Kalmijn, 1999; Lein et al., 1974). For fathers, multiple roles can significantly impact their perceptions about job and career commitment and life satisfaction (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Barnett, Marshall, & Singer, 1992; Hill et al., 2003; Veroff et al., 1981). The quantitative findings supported the literature, because work-family enrichment and family-work enrichment were equally important to both men and women.

The majority of the men interviewed in the Reddick et al. (2012) study cited "their preferences for parenting differently than their own fathers, who seemed to have a more 'work comes first' mentality" (p. 10). However, Reddick et al. found that male tenure-track assistant professors "felt pervasive conflict and strain" (p. 5) from work-family conflict.

This research supports that of Reddick et al. by confirming that men in academia are involved differently in their families than their fathers once were. One male dean explained why he and his peers may not have been as involved with family in the past as is the current generation. He said:

In my generation, men had, well, responsible men, took up the responsibility of being the major breadwinner and that responsibility was interpreted by some, including myself as the young professional as such an important thing. That you cannot let your focus off of that, because if you do, you're going to fail your family, because you can't provide for them. So, that became the important issue that you are absolutely focused on success at work, because in your mind that translates into looking after your family. And it becomes a surrogate, if you will, would be probably be the best word to describe it, for engagement with your family. And that was a trap that many of my peers stepped into. Not that they were bad people, on the contrary, they actually wanted to take care of the family, but in doing so, they were so intently focused on their job that they let everything go in their personal lives and it just fell apart. And that's not good. Hopefully, that will change.

Carlson and Kacmar (2000) explored life role values and how those values impacted work-family conflict. In their study, they defined life role values as those which an "individual believes to be important to, central to, or a priority in his or her life" (p. 1034). Whitbourne (1996) found that individuals will set priorities in their lives based upon the roles with which they identify and the values they hold. This research is grounded in social identity theory, in which individuals identify with various groups

(Carlson & Kacmar, 2000; Leary, Wheeler, & Jenkins, 1986). These qualitative findings supported social identity theory. The older male deans expressed, at one time in our society's history, men were expected to provide for their families and not to decrease the focus off of that value. This caused them to place the focus on providing for their families. Now, the qualitative data pointed to changing societal expectations, where men were experiencing greater levels of work-family conflict and even guilt. The younger male leaders expressed guilt, especially when they recognized their wives were taking on more of the second shift than they were.

Barriers. Barriers felt by women was a prominent theme that emerged in discussions about gender issues. The biggest barrier women felt was in the area of household responsibilities or "the second shift." Women were also discouraged from pursuing careers in certain fields and questioned about their leadership abilities. Five of the women talked about the gender differences with household responsibilities.

One female dean said:

It (household responsibilities) did fall to me to do that and that's okay because I enjoyed it, but definitely there are gender differences and still a lot of the shopping, cooking, and cleaning, although my kids help with it, it still falls to me, even though both of us are working and I don't mean to sound like I'm complaining because there are other things that he takes care of. But kind of those traditional things are under my purview.

This sentiment regarding gender differences with regard to household responsibilities was consistent with the findings of Emslie and Hunt (2009), who interviewed men and women in mid-life (ages 50-52). Their research found that across

the life course, women are seen as being responsible for maintaining the home front. This is not only true when children are young, but also continues to hold true once the children are older and even grown.

While women felt the challenges of household responsibilities, one male vice president expressed feelings of remorse, because his wife handled so much because he was working full-time and finishing his doctoral degree. He said:

It's something that I'm very aware of. My educational background is in social and behavioral science and I'm very familiar with the second shift and familiar with the extremely overwhelming amount of time women put into, women that work full time, that they put into raising families and so on. It is something that my wife and I discuss quite a bit and as I was going through my undergrad and before we had children, I vowed that we weren't going to have a family where she carried the majority of the load and for a while we both worked in the same town and I think at that point, things were pretty well balanced, but again, we only had one child. But then I got another job that was an hour away and then I started a PhD program and so for the time that I've been in school, she, my wife clearly does the majority of the work. I usually don't come home until after they're having dinner and so if I am around, if I am home, I'm able to get off for whatever reason, then I try to take on as much of the domestic duties as I can. But, I would say, overall, she does a lot more of it than I do.

These sentiments were supported in the literature. While Reddick et al. (2012) focused on men's experiences, the respondents unanimously shared the belief that while they faced work-family conflict, their female peers were at a greater disadvantage. Men

in the Reddick et al. (2012) study argued that women “are still perceived as the primary caregiver” (p. 6). One respondent said, “I think it’s probably part of the reason why our department, and probably many other departments, were dominated by males . . . the system is not terribly friendly to women” (p. 6).

The qualitative data supported this perspective. As previously mentioned, one male dean felt the academic playing field was level until children were born. Most of the women agreed they performed more of the household duties and assumed more of the childcare responsibilities. This certainly increased the work-family conflict for women, particularly during the life phase when they had young children in the home. The quantitative findings suggested that work-family conflict decreased career commitment. As such, this may be why more women than men chose to take time off from their career during this period in their lives.

The second most commonly expressed barrier mentioned by women was facing discouraging comments about pursuing certain academic careers and their leadership abilities once they were promoted. One female dean said she was questioned about her leadership abilities when they were considering her for the interim dean position. She said:

When they asked me to serve as the interim dean, the provost at that time, he said to me, “Well, do you think you have the ability to be the leader?” And I said, “Of course, I have that ability.” He said, “Well, some are questioning whether or not you have leadership skills.” So I said, “Well, you’ll just have to test it out then, won’t you, to find out? Otherwise, if you have someone else in mind, then go with

it, you know, do whatever you need to do. Of course, I can serve as the dean of that college.”

Research by Eagly (2007) found this situation to be relatively common in contemporary American society. While women are often heralded as having excellent leadership skills, there is also evidence that women come in second to men in attaining leadership positions. Eagly summarized that correlational and experimental studies of gender bias show the female disadvantage is concentrated in male-dominated roles. This would be applicable to leadership roles, as well.

Eagly’s research was further replicated in this study by a female vice president who shared her story about how she arrived at her vice presidential position:

Ten years ago I applied for the Vice President position and I did not get it. They brought in a man that had no student services experience, he had always been in development, and when he came in, he really didn’t understand student services. He really had had no experience at all. So, I kind of became his right hand person, because I had had the experience. So for 10 years I was kind of his right hand person and when he got a job as a president in New York, the President just asked me to take the position. So, that’s how I got here.

The quantitative portion of this study did not reveal issues of gender discrimination facing women as they attempted to rise into leadership positions, but there were no specific questions related to this. The fact that women persevered in their leadership roles did not emerge through the quantitative findings that showed women’s professional work and organizational commitment were very important to them. In contrast, the qualitative findings allowed for a deeper, more personalized understanding

of gender discrimination and how the women overcame these and persevered through these difficulties. Often the strength to persevere came from the support they received from their family, as well as the personal satisfaction, confidence, and self-esteem they received from their work. The women could have given up when they faced barriers, but instead they pushed on and sometimes waited for ten years until the next leadership opportunity arose. But when the opportunity arose, the women were ready and able to forge ahead, making the most of it, and creating success, both personally and professionally.

Geographical Choice. Geographical choice was coded when interviewees discussed how gender impacted dual career issues that revolved around where the couple lived. Four respondents talked about the challenges of finding jobs in a dual career household. A female department chair talked about the challenges of finding a job for both of the individuals in the marriage. She said, “So, before I went on a campus visit, I did, or we did, research on whether or not there would be a job for my husband.”

While the majority of research on spousal career prioritization has focused on conflicts between partners (Robert & Bukodi, 2002), there can also be positive crossover, as in this case, where both partners share work related resources (Barnett & Rivers, 1996). Pixley (2008) found when partners took turns moving for one another’s careers or in this case, where partners looked at opportunities equally, the wife’s salary tended to be higher than women who followed their husband’s career choices. This is not surprising. Additionally, men’s salaries were not much lower when they took turns in prioritizing careers. Overall, this career prioritizing strategy is best in terms of financial gains for the family.

A female dean said she ended up at her university because her husband obtained a job there. She said, “That’s how I ended up here, that’s why I bring it up. He finished before I did, got a job here and when I finished they didn’t have any jobs in the (same) department.” Pixley (2008) argued that when career prioritization is established early in a couple’s life, it typically holds true for the future. In other words, once the husband’s career takes priority, it typically stays that way. In this case, the dean did find work, although not in an area as lucrative as her husband’s. Eventually, she took time off and worked part-time while her children were younger, which she does not regret. Once her children were older, she began working full-time and eventually moved into higher education leadership. Today, she is very satisfied with her current career and overall life situation.

The literature and these findings suggest that since both men and women found personal satisfaction in their work it would benefit them to choose a geographic location that is conducive to both careers. That may be easier said than done. The reality is that as several of the interviewees pointed out, academic jobs are competitive and couples do not always have a great deal of choice in where they live. What these findings showed is that the partner who was the follower generally ended up doing just fine. The female leaders in this study who followed their partners were just as accomplished as their male counterparts and, based on these data, were just as satisfied with their lives.

Career Stage. Three of the interviewees mentioned they had taken a “different career path” than is normal. All three of these were women. One female dean had worked part-time and then had the opportunity to work full-time and obtain tenure. She said, “So

then when I became full-time in 2008, I could be tenure track and the year after that they allowed me to go up for tenure. So it's kind of a different path than most people take."

Two of the interviewees who mentioned they had taken a "different path" specifically mentioned they had never intended to become higher education leaders. One female department chair said, "So you can see, I didn't have a plan . . ." One female dean said:

I feel like I didn't really plan any of this. In many ways, it just sort of happened.

And I know some people have 5-year plans and 10-year plans and I never did any of that it just kind of turned out that way, but it turned out well.

The fact that three out of six women mentioned a "different career path" is supported by the literature. Bornstein (2007) argued that careers of women faculty are often hindered by family pressures making it difficult to stay on a direct career path toward presidential and other leadership positions. Thus, women in higher education who have children often obtain leadership positions that follow an informal versus formal career path. According to Madsen (2012), women administrators in higher education who are single often follow career paths that are considered traditional and similar to their male colleagues. However, for women with children, "researchers have found that most of these women had informal, emerging and nontraditional career paths" (p. 60). Madsen explains that many of these women did not aspire to leadership positions through a portion of their career. In spite of this, all of the women "worked hard, performed to the best of their abilities, and responded to encouragement from others" (p. 60).

In terms of the female interviewees, three women who had children had a nontraditional career path. Three of the women followed more traditional career paths.

One of the women had a husband who had put his career on hold when the children were younger. One of the women was divorced, but had been married while raising her only child. The third woman was single, never married, and had no children.

The qualitative findings supported the literature of Bornstein (2007) and Madsen (2012) that found women with children often have a non-traditional career path. The interviewees shared stories about how the demands of caring for young children intensified work-family conflict. The quantitative findings found that work-family conflict negatively influenced career commitment, so it is not surprising that several of the women dropped out or cut back on work during the time they had young children. However, because work-family enrichment far outweighs work-family conflict in terms of career commitment, the women (and one man) eventually returned to work. The quantitative research showed their return to work was because the enrichment from their work was so important to their overall life satisfaction.

Research Question 3 Summary

The multiple regression models showed there were no statistically significant gender interactions apparent in any of the three models. However, this was not supported in the qualitative data. Gender differences emerged as a major theme in these data with every interviewee reflecting on gender differences. The major themes were in the areas of family, barriers, geographical choice, and career stage. In terms of family barriers, both men and women agreed that women are expected to take on more household responsibilities and child care than men. The expectations are especially great following the birth of children and while children are younger. This translates into guilt for both men and women; however, interviewees believed women tended to experience more guilt

when they were away from their children and family than did men. The interviewees said their work-family conflict and feelings of guilt were intensified when the children were younger. This conflict negatively influenced the leaders' career commitment while their children were younger, especially for the women, leading them to cut back or take time off from their work. Both men and women agreed that there is more support and greater expectations for men to be more involved in family life than in past generations. The younger male leaders interviewed suggested they felt more compelled to be involved in with their families than previous generations. This also led to more guilt and work-family conflict.

Most, if not all of the gender barriers were experienced by women. As mentioned previously, women have added expectations to handle more of the second shift than do men. Men also agreed that women have it harder, not just in terms of household and childcare expectations, but also in their professional lives. Several women shared stories of the lack of support they received when they moved into higher education leadership positions. This lack of support was experienced by one woman when she was passed over by a less qualified man and another woman was questioned about whether or not she had the skills to be a higher education leader.

Many women shared stories about how they stumbled into their leadership positions. Many did not have higher education leadership as a goal in their life. Instead, they worked hard and found their way into leadership through a non-traditional path. In most cases, this came about because they took time out of their careers to care for children and gradually took on more work responsibilities as their children grew older.

Geographical choice was another barrier many women experienced. While some women chose where to live by placing equal weight on both partner's careers, others followed their husband's careers. For these women, they made their lives work where they landed and ended up finding success and attaining leadership roles.

Research Question 4 “Are there differences in these outcomes based on the direction (work-to-family, family-to-work) of the relationship.

Family-to-Work Conflict. There were subtle differences based upon the direction of the relationship in terms of the themes that emerged. Work-family conflict had significantly more themes that emerged than did family-work conflict. There were only two themes that emerged for family-work conflict and those were Family and Geographical Choice. The need to care for an ill or disabled family member caused stress both at home and at work. Three interviewees discussed how family members requiring care caused them to make adjustments to their career. In terms of Geographical Choice, family members needing care, especially parents who lived a great distance away, created stress for three interviewees. Two interviewees said that the care of family members caused family-work conflict.

One male vice president shared that he was working 60 hours per week at his job while enrolled in a PhD program that required traveling on the weekends. During this time, his spouse began thinking about quitting her job to stay home with their three small children. However, one of his children was diagnosed with Type I Diabetes and he said:

...once the diabetic supply bills started rolling in we realized that we needed that dual insurance coverage and so that's kept us both working and it's been a huge

benefit financially for us for sure, but it's also made it pretty tough to be able to keep up with everything.

The stress associated with caring for ill or disabled children is supported in the literature and is clearly associated with family-work conflict (Lewis, Kagan, & Heaton, 2000; Stevens, Minnotte, Mannon, & Kiger, 2007). Witt and Carlson (2006) found that family-work conflict affected job performance with the added stress at home spilling over into the work domain. These findings support the literature and suggest that work-family conflict intensifies when children are younger. As the children get older, they become more self-sufficient and require less care. However, in terms of caring for an ill or disabled child, the pressure remains regardless of their age. The fact that the mother of the diabetic son wanted to quit her job was not surprising, because the work-family conflict diminished her career commitment. However, financial obligations required her to work, and for the couple to find ways to manage their work-family conflict, or to at least survive.

Three interviewees experienced stress because of their parent's failing health. A male dean and female dean both felt family conflict related to their aging parents who they cannot live close to, because of their university careers.

A male dean said:

I feel like we're pretty much isolated and it presents problems, because my mom now has severe dementia and I'd love to be close by to help take care and even just see her once in a while. It's just not possible. That's one of the sacrifices we had to make to be in a college position.

This is an area where further research is needed; however, Pavalko and Artis (1997) found that care for a disabled spouse or ill parent sometimes caused individuals to quit working prematurely to help take care of an ailing family member. In many cases, the person leaving work to care for the family member was a woman and this had a long-term impact on her financial security.

While leaders expressed work-family conflict stemming from aging parents, none of them suggested they would have to quit their jobs to care for that parent. In both cases, the parents were ill and living in states far away. This implies that the interviewees did not find work-family conflict as severe as having a small child or ill family member in the home needing care. It did, however, create stress. In this case, the work-family enrichment or the benefits received from work outweighed the family stress and the interviewees were still committed to their careers and not considering taking time off to care for aging parents.

Family-Work Enrichment. The impact of Work-Family Enrichment on career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction was addressed in Research Question 2. Work-Family Enrichment generated 58 textual units while Family-Work Enrichment generated 19 textual units. There were only two themes that emerged from Family-Work Enrichment and those were Family and Support. While this was a minor section in terms of textual units as compared to others, every interviewee had something to say about how his/her family enriched his/her work life by providing various types of support.

Family. Six interviewees expressed ways in which their family enhanced their work life. Two female department chairs attributed their success to their husband's support. One female department chair said:

My husband was willing, I should say, most of the time very willing, to play a big role as a father during that time and he did, again, most of the time, supported me in my going to school efforts, because he knew it was important to me. And that was important that he helped, otherwise it would have been impossible.

Another female department chair said:

I was successful in getting my PhD because of the family support and my husband. . . I said, you know what, I think I am not meant to do this. I think I should just get an MBA kind of job and my husband said, "Nope, you're doing this, you can do it!" If it hadn't been for him, I wouldn't be where I am. And he just made me feel like I could do it.

The importance of family support, especially spousal support that provided specific and practical supports, is documented in the literature. These supports included partners who invested in child care and household responsibilities, as well as emotional support for educational endeavors, career moves, and interest in the partner's work (Becker & Moen, 1999; Thorstad, Anderson, Hall, Willingham, & Caruthers, 2006; van Daalen, Willemsen, & Sanders, 2006).

Cheung and Halpern (2010) found that women leaders relied heavily on supportive spouses, extended family, and even hired help. Many of the married women in Cheung and Halpern's study described their husbands "as their biggest fans, cheerleaders, coaches, and mentors" (p. 187). This research supported Cheung and Halpern's research

on the importance of partners and spousal support in the success of higher education leaders.

Similarly, male leaders expressed the importance of a supportive family. One male department chair said his family was what kept him centered and balanced. He said:

I feel that my family life is strong and happy and helps keep me centered in what's important in my life and the world which allows me to go to work with a more positive attitude than I would otherwise. And I think that's the most important thing for me is that my family life puts into perspective that my job just isn't that important. And it helps me not to take too seriously things like office politics or concerns about scholarship and student performance. I think that as a faculty member you can get caught up in that and lose sight of the fact that that's really not that important.

This sentiment further supported the quantitative study and the importance of family-work enrichment. This particular argument that the leader's family kept him centered on what was important in life is almost a direct quote from the family-work enrichment questions. One question read: "My involvement in my family helps me concentrate on the important things and this helps me be a better worker" Another question was: "My family helps me to have a positive outlook and this helps me be a better worker" (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 145).

The idea that a supportive spouse is integral in the success of dual career couples managing work-family conflict is supported in the literature. Grzywacz and Carlson (2007) suggested that work-family balance is achieved through the process of negotiating unpaid work and family responsibilities with one's partner. This is important, because

balance can still be achieved despite the presence of work-family conflict. Furthermore, there is no expectation of performance so one does not need to be a “superstar” in either or both the work or family domains. How each partner in the family navigates this negotiation process will be important in determining whether there are gender differences in the roles and/or expectations between partners. This negotiation in how couple’s balance their work with family responsibilities could be very important in the area of career commitment. If couples are unable to negotiate all of their responsibilities, it makes sense that work-family conflict may increase for one or both partners. These study findings suggest that increased work-family conflict led to reduced career commitment that often caused one person to put less emphasis on her/his career.

Support. Two of the interviewees said their family made them better professionals. One male dean, who is in the music discipline said:

(My family) makes me a better person; a contented person so I can focus on this job. I don’t know that it actually helps my work-family other than just giving me a life basis for my experiences that I pour into my music then.

This quote further explicates the importance of family-work affect that predicted organizational commitment and life satisfaction. The fact that this leader felt that he is more contented and that makes his ability to focus on his work is an example of the importance of family-work affect which says that family “helps me feel good and this helps me be a better worker” (Carlson et al., 2006, p. 145)

Two deans, one male and one female, specifically said their “home is a haven” for them. The female dean said, “My home, oh my home is this place that’s just such a

calming place; I feel so happy and content when I'm in my home. It's such a retreat mode compared to obviously work."

A male dean said:

Pretty much by providing a haven, if you will. I always wanted to get back home to tap on that interaction, to tell them (family) new stuff, and you know what happened today, and it was so cool and I was at the nuclear science department and you know what they had there? They had this massive laser and woo, and they absolutely loved that. It really helped me to relax, as well, because I could actually talk about it in a different environment than I could talk about it at the job place and so it made that contrast and the contrast of the two actually helped me cope.

Hochschild (2003) found in her research that there are increasing similarities in the ways in which men and women regard their home lives. She suggested that in the past, the home was viewed as a haven to which male workers could escape from the unpleasant world of work to relax and feel appreciated. This research suggests that men *and* women viewed their homes and families as places where they can relax and feel good, and that their work and family provided them with so much satisfaction in their lives. This further supported the importance of family-work enrichment and more specifically the importance of family-work affect where family, and in this case home, causes feelings of happiness and contentment.

Research Question 4 Summary

Family-work conflict was a minor theme compared to work-family conflict. Family created work conflict when a family member needed extra care and this placed stress on

job performance. In one case, the family member needing extra care was a child, but in most other cases it was an elderly parent. In the case of the young child, the qualitative data suggested that the care for this child increased work-family conflict and did indeed negatively affect career commitment for the mother.

Family-work enrichment was another minor theme compared to work-family enrichment. The most significant area of enrichment was that of spousal support in the areas of household help, child care, and emotional support. Another significant area of enrichment was family-work affect where involvement and relationships with family made leaders better at their work. This was significant, because the importance of family-work affect replicated the findings in the quantitative portion of this study. Because of the importance of family, home was viewed by some higher education leaders as their personal haven.

Summary Conclusions

This study contributes to the work-family literature in that it is one of the first empirical studies to simultaneously explore work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders by employing both quantitative and qualitative inquiry. Because work-family conflict and enrichment are not opposite each other, individuals may experience both conflict and enrichment at the same time. This study showed that higher education leaders can and do experience both work-family conflict and enrichment simultaneously. Likewise, the study confirmed that work-family conflict and work-family enrichment are bidirectional (Careless et al., 2005; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006) in that the work role impacts the family role, just as family impacts the role at work.

Prior research on work and family life emphasized the time constraints and conflicting responsibilities between work and family. The workload required for higher education leaders results in tension and conflict and that may produce psychological distress and decreased job satisfaction (Barnett & Gareis, 2006; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). The quantitative findings suggested that work-family conflict negatively affects career commitment. This was further supported by the qualitative interview data. From a conflict perspective, the best outcome is to reduce work-family conflict (Barnett & Hyde, 2001; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006; Marks, 1977; Schenewark & Dixon, 2012). However, actually reducing work-family conflict is not as easy as it might appear. This is especially true at certain times in one's life. Reducing work-family conflict when children are younger may require a partner to reduce their work or quit entirely. This may not be a viable solution. However, this study shows that prior research underestimated the positive outcomes resulting from work-family enrichment. In fact, the findings derived from this study indicate that work-family enrichment contributes more to perceived organizational commitment, career commitment, and life satisfaction than work-family conflict detracts from it.

This study demonstrated that work-family enrichment was more significant in predicting career commitment, organizational commitment, and life satisfaction among higher education leaders. Further, these findings supported the idea that the advantages of pursuing multiple roles outweighs the disadvantages (Barnett & Hyde, 2008; Greenhaus & Powell, 2006). This study supported previous findings that conflict and enrichment are conceptually and empirically distinct and are not opposites on a spectrum (Carlson et al., 2005).

Recommendations and Implications for Action

Helping workers balance their work and family lives is viewed as a business and social imperative (Carlson, Grzywacz, & Zivnuska, 2009). Halpern (2005), in a presidential address to the American Psychological Association, suggested that difficulty combining work and family is the major challenge for the current generation of workers. Halpern argued that without social and employer policies to help workers balance work and family, our ability as a nation to maintain a strong social fabric is questionable.

Why should colleges and universities ensure they provide an environment conducive to work-family balance? Ulrich (1998) argued that intellectual capital is a firm's only appreciable asset. Most other assets (building, plant, equipment, machinery, and so on) begin to depreciate the day they are acquired. "Intellectual capital must grow if a firm is to prosper" (p. 15). The essential work of an institution of higher education is "teaching, research, creative endeavors, community involvement, professional service, and academic decision-making" (Gappa et al., 2007, p. 4).

These study findings suggest that reducing work-family conflict increases leaders' career commitment. And, perhaps more important, that work-family enrichment positively influences organizational commitment. If institutions want to retain quality employees and leaders, they must find ways to support work-family enrichment. The interviewees revealed some ways that can be done. Specifically, they noted the ability to have flexibility and work-family integration, which reduced their work-family conflict and increased their work-family enrichment, thereby increasing their career commitment, organizational commitment, and overall life satisfaction.

This study provides practical insights into ways to improve higher education policies and leaders' overall work and life quality. There is an increasing recognition by colleges

and universities that being “family friendly” is beneficial to the institutional mission, success, and productivity. Still, institutions of higher education could do more to be supportive and to make their climates more hospitable, accepting, and facilitative of the success of all their faculty members, staff, and leaders (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2012).

This research suggests the importance of reducing work-family conflict and increasing work-family enrichment opportunities. There is a need for workplace cultures where employees have the flexibility and autonomy to fulfill their commitment to both work and family. This can be done through what Graves et al. (2009) refer to as “work-family integration programs” (p. 54), which includes flexible work arrangements, dependent care assistance (both child care and elder care), family leave (without penalties), and reasonable work hours that are flexible and reflect an awareness of family responsibilities.

Finally, support for work-family balance from superiors and senior executives cannot be overstated. In addition to retaining potential leaders, Quinn, Yen, Riskin, & Lange (2007) recommended leadership development workshops for department chairs to educate them on ways to create a department culture where flexibility and variable workloads are viable. These ideas have been supported in the literature (Boyer, 1990). This research demonstrates that higher education leaders at all levels should be made aware of the importance of work-family enrichment theory and how it impacts workers’ organizational and career commitment. Ultimately, university leaders must think carefully about the policies and procedures that are adopted and how such policies influence the personal and family lives of those within the higher education community. As leaders, we must demonstrate that we care about the whole person and this will go far

in promoting dialogues and understanding how to minimize work-family conflict and promote work-family enrichment.

Areas of Further Inquiry

Graves et al. (2007) speculated that higher paid professionals, such as higher education leaders, might have the financial resources to hire help for childcare and household tasks. Blair-Loy (2001) found that younger professionals may be more willing to hire outside help than more mature professionals. While professional women may have the resources to hire outside help, it does not mean that reliable and stable help is always available. Interestingly, this topic did not emerge in this study. No one mentioned utilizing hired help to alleviate pressures of household responsibilities. This is interesting, and deserves further exploration.

Other groups deserving further study are in the area of social and economic class, where working class families are surveyed and interviewed about work-family conflict and work-family enrichment. This study focused on educated, upper class, higher education leaders whom some might classify as privileged. It would be interesting to see if these research findings hold true among other social and economic groups of people, as well as different racial or ethnic groups.

This research showed that there were times in higher education leaders' lives when work-family conflict was very intense. There were other times when the work-family enrichment was greater. Further research should explore work-family conflict and enrichment from a life course perspective. This research would examine how work-family conflict and enrichment changes during different phases in one's life. Examples of

life phases of particular interest would be when one begins a family, has young children, or has to care for elderly parents or an ill partner.

This research briefly examined the utilization of family-friendly policies at universities. Many respondents were unaware of the existence of such policies or did not utilize them. Perna (2001) found that maternity leave was one of the most utilized family friendly policies. However, she found that other family-friendly policies that were particularly useful were lacking or not part of the benefit package. It would be interesting to explore the different family-friendly policies that currently exist to see if those policies are useful and/or utilized.

Ecklund and Lincoln (2011) explored women in the sciences and found that women reported having fewer children than they wanted due to their scientific careers. In addition, they attributed the lack of family-friendliness as a reason why many female scientists are abandoning their goals to have a research position in academia. This study suggests that further research could parse out the differences in work-family enrichment and conflict by gender and academic discipline.

Finally, there are several areas where further research could be explored within academia and higher education leadership. The following variables could be considered in further research: the size of the leader's unit, the leader's discipline, intentional leaders vs. accidental leaders, the leader's compensation level, the institutional type (Carnegie classification), the institutional sector (religious vs. sectarian and private vs. public), and the geographic location of the institution,

In closing, one higher education leader expressed the importance of understanding work-family balance in the culture of higher education by saying:

I think this work-family balance thing, as I've advanced in my career, and as I've met with others who are kind of at the level that I'm at, I think that's one of the biggest things that all of us face is being able to balance all of those different areas of our lives and in your research, if you're able to find the answer, then I would gladly look for what you find, because I think it's an ongoing challenge.

REFERENCES

- Adams, G. A., King, L. A., & King, D. W. (1996). Relationships of job and family involvement, family social support, and work-family conflict with job and life satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 81*, 411-420.
- Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990). Affective commitment scale. *Journal of Occupational Psychology, 63*, 1-18.
- Allen, T. D., Herst, D. E. L., Bruck, C. S., & Sutton, M. (2000). Consequences associated with work-to-family conflict: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*, 278-308.
- Alexander, F. K. (2000). The changing face of accountability: Monitoring and assessing institutional performance in higher education. *The Journal of Higher Education, 71*(4), 411-431.
- American Association of University Professors. (2001). *Statement of principles on family responsibilities and academic work*. Retrieved from <http://www.aaup.org/report/statement-principles-family-responsibilities-and-academic-work>
- American Council on Education (ACE). 2006. Field of study for highest degree earned: A profile of college presidents. *The Chronicle of Higher Education 2007-8 Almanac, 54*(1), 27.

- Amey, M. J., & Twombly, S. B. (1992). Re-visioning leadership in community Colleges. *The Review of Higher Education*, 15(2), 125-150.
- Anderson, K. (1981). *Wartime Women*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Press.
- Applebaum, E. (Ed.). (2000). *Balancing acts: Easing the burdens and improving the options for working families*. Washington, DC: Economic Policy Institute.
- Armenti, C. (2004). May babies and post-tenure babies: Maternal decisions of women professors. *The Review of Higher Education*, 27(2), 211-231.
- Ary, D., Jacobs, L. C., & Sorenson, C. (2010). *Introduction to research in education* (8th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Aryee, S., Srinivas, E. S., & Tan, H. H. (2005). Rhythms of life: Antecedents and outcomes of work-family balance in employed parents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90, 132-146.
- Astin, A. W., & Astin, H. S. (2000). *Leadership Reconsidered: Engaging Higher Education in Social Change*. Battle Creek, MI: Kellogg Foundation.
- Astin, H. S., & Leland, C. (1991). *Women of influence, women of vision: A cross-generational study of leaders and social change*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Aviolo, B. J. (1994). The alliance of total quality and the full range of leadership. In B. M. Bass & B. J. Aviolo (Eds.), *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership* (pp. 121-145). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Barling, J., & Sorensen, D. (1997). Work and family: In search of a relevant research agenda. In C. L. Cooper & S. E. Jackson (Eds.), *Creating tomorrow's organizations* (pp. 157-169). New York: Wiley.

- Barnett, R. C. (1998). Toward a review and reconceptualization of the work/family literature. *Genetic, Social and General Psychology Monographs*, 124(2), 125-182.
- Barnett, R. C. (1999). A new work-family model for the twenty-first century. *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 562, 143-158.
- Barnett, R. C., & Baruch, G. K. (1985). Women's involvement in multiple roles and psychological distress. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49(1), 135-145.
- Barnett, R. C., & Gareis, K. C. (2006). Role theory perspectives on work and family. In M. Pitt-Catsoupes, E. E. Kossek and S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multi-disciplinary perspectives and approaches* (pp. 209-221). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Barnett, R. C., & Hyde, J. S. (2001). Women, men, work, and family: An expansionist theory. *American Psychologist*, 56(10), 781-796.
- Barnett, R. C., & Marshall, N. L. (1993). Men, family-role quality, job role-quality, and physical health. *Health Psychology*, 12(1), 48-55.
- Barnett, R. C., Marshall, N. L., & Pleck, J. H. (1992). Men's multiple roles and their relationship to men's psychological distress. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 54, 358-367.
- Barnett, R. C., Marshall, N. L., & Singer, J. D. (1992). Job experiences over time, multiple roles, and women's mental health: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62(4), 634.
- Barnett, R. C., & Rivers, C. (1996). *She works/he works: How two-income families are happier, healthier, and better-off*. New York: HarperCollins.

- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Baxandall, R., & Gordon, L. (1995). *America's working women: A documentary history 1600 to the present*. New York, NY: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.
- Becker, P. E., & Moen, P. (1999). Scaling back: Dual-earner couples' work-family strategies. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 995-1007.
- Beeny, C., Guthrie, V. L., Rhodes, G. S., & Terrell, P. S. (2005). Personal and professional balance among senior student affairs officers: Gender differences in approaches and expectations. *College Student Affairs Journal*, (24)2, 137-151.
- Bennis, W. (1984). Transformative power and leadership. In T. J. Sergiovanni & J. E. Corbally (Eds.), *Leadership and organizational culture* (pp. 64-71). Chicago, IL: University of Illinois Press.
- Bensimon, E. M., Neumann, A. & Birnbaum, R. (1989). *Making Sense of Administrative Leadership: The "L" Word in Higher Education*. ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Reports, Washington, DC: The George Washington University.
- Bianchi, S. M., Robinson, J. P., & Milkie, M.A. (2006). *Changing rhythms of American family life*. New York: Russell Sage Foundation.
- Blackburn, R. T., & Lawrence, J. H. (1995). *Faculty at work: Motivation, expectation, satisfaction*. Baltimore, MD: Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Blair-Loy, M. (2001). Cultural constructions of family schemas: The case of women finance executives. *Gender & Society*, 15(5), 687-709.
- Bok, D. (2004). *Universities in the marketplace: The commercialization of higher education*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

- Bolman, L. G., & Deal, T. E. (1991). *Reframing organizations: Artistry, choice and Leadership (4th Ed.)*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bond, J. T., Thompson, C. A., Galinsky, E., & Prottas, D. (2002). Highlights of the national study of the changing workforce. New York, NY: Families and Work Institute.
- Bornstein, R. (2007, Spring). Why women make good college presidents. *Presidency*, 10(2), 20-23.
- Boushey, H., & O'Leary, A. (2009). *The Shriver report: A woman's nation changes everything*. Washington, DC: Center for American Progress.
- Boyer, E. (1990). *Scholarship reconsidered: Priorities of the professoriate*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Bruening, J. E., & Dixon, M. A. (2008). Situating work–family negotiations within a life course perspective: Insights on the gendered experiences of NCAA Division I head coaching mothers. *Sex Roles*, 58(1-2), 10-23.
- Burke, J. C., & Associates. (2005). *Achieving accountability in higher education: Balancing public, academic, and market demands*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Burns, J. M. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Byron, K. (2005). A meta-analytic review of work-family interference and its antecedents. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 169–198.

- Caldwell-Colbert, A. T., & Albino, J. E. N. (2007). Women as academic leaders: Living the experiences from two perspectives. In J. L. Chin, B. Lott, J. K. Rice, & J. Sanchez-Hucles (Eds.), *Women and Leadership: Transforming visions and diverse voices* (pp. 69-87), Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Carless, S. A. (2005). The influence of fit perceptions, equal opportunity policies, and social support network on pre-entry police officer career commitment and intentions to remain. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, 33, 341-352.
- Carlson, D. (1999). Personality and role variables as predictors of three forms of work-family conflict. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 55, 236-253.
- Carlson, D. S., Grzywacz, J. G., & Zivnuska, S. (2009). Is work-family balance more than conflict and enrichment? *Human Relations*, 62(10), 1459-1486.
- Carlson, D. S., & Kacmar, K. M. (2000). Work-family conflict in the organization: Do life role values make a difference? *Journal of Management*, 26(5), 1031-1054.
- Carlson, D. S., Kacmar, K. M., Wayne, J. H., & Grzywacz, J. G. (2006). Measuring the positive side of the work-family interface: Development and validation of a work-family enrichment scale. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 68(1), 131-164.
- Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching. 2013. *Classification Description*. Retrieved from <http://classifications.carnegiefoundation.org/descriptions/basic.php>
- Cheung, F. M., & Halpern, D. F. (2010). Women at the top: Powerful leaders define success as work + family in a culture of gender. *American Psychologist*, 65(3), 182-193.

- Chin, J. L. (2007). Overview: Women and leadership: Transforming visions and diverse voices. In J. L. Chin, B. Lott, J. K. Rice, & J. Sanchez-Hucles (Eds.), *Women and Leadership: Transforming visions and diverse voices* (pp. 1-17), Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Chliwniak, L. (1997). *Higher education leadership: Analyzing the gender gap*, ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report 25 (4). Washington, DC: The George Washington University, Graduate School of Education and Human Development.
- Clark, S. C. (2001). Work cultures and work/family balance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58, 348-365.
- Collins, G. (2009). *When everything changed: The amazing journey of American women from 1960 to the present*. New York, NY: Little, Brown and Company.
- Cook, B. J. (2012). The American college president study: Key findings and takeaways. *Presidency, Spring Supplement*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches*. (2nd Ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crosby, F. J. (1991). *Juggling: The unexpected advantages of balancing career and home for women and their families*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Crosby, F. J., & Jasker, K. L. (1993). Women and men at home and at work: Realities and illusions. In S. Oskamp & M. Costanzo (Eds.), *Gender issues in contemporary society* (pp. 143-171). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crowley, J. N. (1994). *No equal in the world: An interpretation of the academic presidency*. Reno, NV: University of Nevada Press.

- Desrochers, S., & Sargent, L. D. (2004). Boundary/Border Theory and Work-Family Integration1. *Organization Management Journal*, 1(1), 40-48.
- Diener, E. D., Emmons, R. A., Larsen, R. J., & Griffin, S. (1985). The satisfaction with life scale. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 49(1), 71-75.
- Dillman, D. (2007). *Mail and internet surveys (2nd Ed.)*. New York: Wiley.
- Dixon, M. A., & Bruening, J. E. (2007). Work-family conflict in coaching I: A top-down perspective. *Journal of Sport Management*, 21(3), 377.
- Drago, R. W. (2007). *Striking a balance: Work, family, life*. Boston, MA: Dollars & Sense.
- Duxbury, L., Heslop, L., & Marshall, J. (1993). *Results from faculty questionnaire on work and family roles*. Ottawa: Carleton University.
- Dye, J. L. (2005) *Current Population Survey*. Retrieved from U.S. Census Bureau website: <http://www.census.gov/prod/2005pubs/p20-555.pdf>
- Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31(1), 1-12.
- Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). Women and the labyrinth of leadership. *Harvard Business Review*, 85(9), 62.
- Ebner, N. C., Freund, A. M., & Baltes, P. B. (2006). Developmental changes in personal goal orientation from young to late adulthood: from striving for gains to maintenance and prevention of losses. *Psychology and Aging*, 21(4), 664.
- Eby, L. T., Casper, W. J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C., & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature (1980–2002). *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66(1), 124-197.

- Ecklund, E. H., & Lincoln, A. E. (2011). Scientists want more children. *PloS one*, 6(8), e22590.
- Edwards, J. R., & Rothbard, N. P. (2000). Mechanisms linking work and family: Clarifying the relationship between work and family constructs. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1), 178-199.
- Emslie, C., & Hunt, K. (2009). “Live to Work” or “Work to Live?” A qualitative study of gender and work–life balance among men and women in mid-life. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 16(1), 151-172.
- Farrell, M. P., & Rosenberg, S. D. (1981). *Men at midlife*. Dover, MA: Auburn.
- Ferren, A. S., & Stanton, W. W. (2004). *Leadership through collaboration: The role of the chief academic officer*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Finkel, S. K., & Olswang, S. G. (1996). Child rearing as a career impediment to women assistant professors. *The Review of Higher Education*, 19(2), 123-139.
- Ford, M. T., Heinen, B. A., & Langkamer, K. L. (2007). Work and family satisfaction and conflict: A meta-analysis of cross-domain relations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 57-80.
- Fraenkel, J. R., & Wallen, N. E. (2008). *Introduction to qualitative research: How to design and evaluate research in education*, (7th Ed.), Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill International Edition.
- Friedan, B. (1963). *The Feminine Mystique*. New York, NY: Norton.

- Frone, M. R. (2003). Work–family balance. In J. C. Quick & L. E. Tetrick (Eds.), *Handbook of occupational health psychology* (pp. 13-162). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Frone, M. R., Russell, M., & Cooper, M. L. (1997). Relation of work–family conflict to health outcomes: A four-year longitudinal study of employed parents. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70(4), 325-335.
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003). *Educational research: An introduction*. Boston, MA: Allyn-Bacon.
- Gappa, J. M., & Austin, A. E. (2010). Rethinking academic traditions for twenty-first-century faculty. *AAUP Journal of Academic Freedom*, 1, 1-20.
- Gappa, J. M., Austin, A. E., & Trice, A. G. (2007). *Rethinking faculty work: Higher education's strategic imperative*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gerten, A. M. (2011). Moving beyond family-friendly policies for faculty mothers. *Affilia*, 26(1), 47-58.
- Gillis, S., & Hollows, J. (Eds.). (2009). *Feminism, domesticity and popular culture*. New York, NY: Taylor & Francis.
- Glazer, J. S. (1997). Affirmative action and the status of women in the academy. In C. Marshall (Ed.), *Feminist critical policy analysis: A perspective from postsecondary education* (pp. 60–73). London: Falmer Press.
- Goode, W. J. (1960). A theory of role strain. *American Sociological Review*, 25, 483-496.
- Gornick, J. C., & Meyers, M. (2005). *Families that work: Policies for reconciling parenthood and employment*. New York, NY: Russell Sage Foundation.

- Graves, L. M., Ohlott, P. J., & Ruderman, M. N. (2007). Commitment to family roles: Effects on managers' attitudes and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1), 44.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76-88.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Parasuraman, S. (1999). *Handbook of gender and work*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Greenhaus, J. H., & Powell, G. N. (2006). When work and family are allies: A theory of work-family enrichment. *Academy of Management Review*, 31, 72-92.
- Greenwood, J., Guner, N., Kocharkov, G., & Santos, C. (2012). *Technology and the changing family: A unified model of marriage, divorce, educational attainment and married female labor-force participation* (No. w17735). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Bass, B. L. (2003). Work, family, and mental health: Testing different models of work-family fit. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 65, 248-262.
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Butler, A. B. (2005). The impact of job characteristics on work-family facilitation: Testing a theory and distinguishing a construct. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10, 97-109.
- Grzywacz, J. G., & Carlson, D. S. (2007). Conceptualizing work-family balance: Implications for practice and research. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 9, 455-471.

- Grzywacz, J. G., & Marks, N. F. (2000). Reconceptualizing the work-family interface: An ecological perspective on the correlates of positive and negative spillover between work and family. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 5*, 111-126.
- Guido-DiBrito, F., Noteboom, P. A., Nathan, L., & Fenty, J. (1996). Traditional and New Paradigm Leadership: The Gender Link. *Initiatives, 58*(1), 27-38.
- Haas, B. K. (1999). A multidisciplinary concept analysis of quality of life. *Western Journal of Nursing Research, 21*(6), 728-742.
- Halpern, D. F. (2005). Psychology at the intersection of work and family: Recommendations for employers, working families, and policymakers. *American Psychologist, 60*, 397-409.
- Harrow, A. (1993). Power and politics: The leadership challenge in P. T. Mitchell (Ed.), *Cracking the wall: Women in higher education administration*. Washington, DC: College and University Personnel Association.
- Harter, C. C. (1993). Women, leadership, and the academy: Anecdotes and observations, in P. T. Mitchell (Ed.), *Cracking the wall: Women in higher education administration*. Washington, DC: College and University Personnel Association.
- Heidler, D. S., & Heidler, J. T. (Eds.). (2007). *Daily lives of civilians in wartime early America: From the colonial era to the Civil War*. Westport, CT: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Heim, P., & Golant, S. K. (1992). *Hardball for women: Winning at the game of business*. Los Angeles, CA: Lowell House.

- Hewlett, S. A. (2002). Executive women and the myth of having it all. *Harvard Business Review*, (80), 66–73.
- Higgins, C., Duxbury, L., & Lee, C. (1994). Impact of life-cycle stage and gender on the ability to balance work and family responsibilities, *Family Relations*, 43, 144-150.
- Hill, E. J., Hawkins, A. J., Martinson, V., & Ferris, M. (2003). Studying “working fathers”: Comparing fathers’ and mothers’ work-family conflict, fit, and adaptive strategies in a global high-tech company. *Fathering: A Journal of Theory, Research and Practice about Men as Fathers* 1(3), 239-261.
- Hill, E. J., Hawkins, A. J., Martinson, V., & Ferris, M. (2005). Work-family facilitation and conflict, working fathers and mothers, work-family stressors and support. *Journal of Family Issues*, 26(6), 793-819.
- Hochschild, A. R. (2003). *The Second Shift*. New York: Penguin Books.
- Hoffert, S. D. (2003). *A history of gender in America: Essays, documents, and articles*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Isen, A., & Stevenson, B. (2010). *Women's education and family behavior: Trends in marriage, divorce and fertility* (No. w15725). National Bureau of Economic Research.
- Jacobs, J. A., & Gerson, K. (1998). Who are the overworked Americans? *Review of Social Economy*, 56, 442–449.
- Jacobs, J. A., & Winslow, S. E. (2004). “Overworked faculty: Job stresses and family demands.” *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 596(1) 104-129.

- Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2), 112-133.
- Kalmijn, M. (1999). Father involvement in childrearing and the perceived stability of marriage. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 61, 409-421.
- Kessler-Harris, A. (2003). *Out to work: A history of wage-earning women in the United States*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Kessler-Harris, A., & Sacks, K. B. (1987). The demise of domesticity in America. In L. Benería & C. R. Stimpson (Eds.), *Women, households, and the economy*. (pp. 65-84). New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Kezar, A. J., Carducci, R., Contreras-McGavin, M. (2011). *Rethinking the "L" word in higher education: The revolution of research on leadership: ASHE Higher Education Report*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- King, J., & Gomez, G. (2007). *The American college president: 2007 Edition*. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.
- Kirmeyer, S. E., & Hamilton, B. E. (2011). *Childbearing differences among three generations of U.S. women*. NCHS data brief, no 68. Hyattsville, MD: National Center for Health Statistics.
- Kjeldal, S., Rindfleish, J., & Sheridan, A. (2005). Deal-making and rule-breaking: Behind the façade of equity in academia. *Gender and Education*, 17, 431-447.
- Kleinberg, S. J. (1999). *Women in the United States: 1830-1945*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Kofodimos, J. (1993). *Balancing act: How managers can integrate successful careers and fulfilling personal lives*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

- Kopelman, R. E., Greenhaus, J. H., & Connolly, T. F. (1983). A model of work, family, and interrole conflict: A construct validation study. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 32, 198-215.
- Kossek, E. E., & Ozeki, C. (1998). Work-family interference, policies, and the job-life satisfaction relationship: A review and directions for organizational behavior-human resources research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83, 139-149.
- Kreiner, G. E., Hollensbe, E. C., & Sheep, M. L. (2009). Balancing borders and bridges: Negotiating the work-home interface via boundary work tactics. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(4), 704-730.
- Kuk, L. (1994). New approaches to management. In J. Fried (Ed.), *Different voices: Gender and perspectives in student affairs administration*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Student Personnel Administration.
- Lambert, S. J. (1990). Processes linking work and family: A critical review and research agenda. *Human Relations*, 43, 239-257.
- Lavender, C. (1999). The Cult of Domesticity and True Womanhood. *Women in New York City, 1890-1940*. Retrieved from <http://www.library.csi.cuny.edu/dept/history/lavender/386/truewoman.html>
- Leary, M. R., Wheeler, D. S., & Jenkins, T. B. (1986). Aspects of identity and behavioral preference: Studies of occupational and recreational choice. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 11-18.
- Lein, L., Durham, M., Pratt, M., Schudson, M., Thomas, R., & Weiss, H. (1974). *Final report: Work and family life*. Cambridge, MA: Center for the Study of Public Policy.

- Levine, J. A., & Pittinsky, T. L. (1997). *Working fathers: New strategies for balancing work and family*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Lewis, S., Kagan, C., & Heaton, P. (2000). Dual-earner parents with disabled children family patterns for working and caring. *Journal of Family Issues*, 21(8), 1031-1060.
- Lobel, S. A., & Clair, L. S. (1992). Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(5), 1057-1069.
- Madsen, S. R. (2012). Women and leadership in higher education learning and advancement in leadership programs. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 14(1), 3-10.
- Marks, S. R. (1977). Multiple roles and role strain: Some notes on human energy, time, and commitment. *American Sociological Review*, 42, 921-936.
- Mason, M. (2010). Sample size and saturation in PhD studies using qualitative interviews. *Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 11(3). Retrieved from <http://nbnresolving.de/urn:nbn:de:0114-fqs100387>
- Mason, M. A., & Goulden, M. (2004, November–December). Do babies matter (Part II)?: Closing the baby gap. *Academe*, 90(6), 11 –15. Retrieved from <http://ucfamilyedge.berkeley.edu/babies%20matterII.pdf>.
- Mason, M. A., Goulden, M., & Frasch, K. (2009). Why graduate students reject the fast track. *Academe*, 95(1), 11-16.
- Mason, M. A., Wolfinger, N., & Goulden, M. (2013). *Do babies matter? Gender and family in the ivory tower*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.

- McNall, L. A., Nicklin, J. M., & Masuda, A. D. (2010). A meta-analytic review of the consequences associated with work-family enrichment. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(3), 381-396. doi :10.1007/s10869-009-9141-1
- Mesmer-Magnus, J. R., & Viswesvaran, C. (2005). "Convergence between measures of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict: A meta-analytic examination. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 67, 215-232.
- Michael, R. T. (1988). Why did the US divorce rate double within a decade? *Research in Population Economics*, 6, 367-399.
- Mishel, L., Bernstein, J., & Shierholz, H. (2009). *The State of working America 2008-2009*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Moen, P. (Ed.). 2003. *It's about time: Couples and careers*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.
- Moen, P., & Sweet, S. (2004). From "work-family" to "flexible careers:" A life course reframing. *Community, Work & Family*, 7(2), 209-226.
- Morse, J. M. (1994). Designing funded qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd Ed.) (pp. 220-235). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Murphy, S. E., & Zagorski, D. A. (2006). Enhancing work-family and work-family interaction: The role of management. In D. F. Halpern & S. E. Murphy (Eds.), *From work-family balance to work family interaction*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- National Center for Education Statistics (NCES). (2012). *Digest of Education Statistics*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/globallocator/>

National Science Foundation Website (2014). Retrieved from

<http://www.nsf.gov/statistics/srvydoctorates/#tabs-2>

Netemeyer, R. G., Boles, J. S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). "Development and validation of work-family conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 400-410.

Neufeldt, V. (Ed.). (1994). *Webster's New World Dictionary* (3rd college edition).
Cleveland, OH: Simon & Schuster, Inc.

Nidiffer, J. (2001). New leadership for a new century: Women's contribution to leadership in higher education. In J. Nidiffer & C. T. Bashaw (Eds.), *Women administrators in higher education: Historical and contemporary perspectives*. Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Nippert-Eng, C. (1996). Home and work. *Chicago: The University of Chicago Press*

Northouse, P. G. (2012). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Oxford Dictionaries Online. 2012. University of Oxford: Oxford

University Press. Retrieved from <http://oxforddictionaries.com/>

Parasuraman, S., & Greenhaus, J. H. (2002). Toward reducing some critical gaps in work-family research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 12, 299-312.

Pavalko, E. K., & Artis, J. E. (1997). Women's caregiving and paid work: Causal relationships in late midlife. *The Journals of Gerontology Series B: Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences*, 52(4), S170-S179.

Pavot, W., & Diener, E. (1993). Review of the satisfaction with life scale. *Psychological Assessment*, 5(2), 164.

- Perna, L. W. (2001). The relationship between family responsibilities and employment status among college and university faculty. *Journal of Higher Education*, 72, 584-611.
- Peterson, M. W., & Spencer, M. G. (1991). "Understanding organizational culture and climate," in W. G. Tierney (Ed.), *Assessing academic climates and cultures*, New Directions for Institutional Research, no. 68. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Pixley, J. E. (2008). Life course patterns of career-prioritizing decisions and occupational attainment in dual-earner couples. *Work and Occupations*, 35(2), 127-163.
- Pleck, J. H. (1993). Are family-supportive employer policies relevant to men? In J. C. Hood (Ed.), *Men, work, and family* (pp. 217-237). Newberry Park, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Probert, B. (2005). "I just couldn't fit it in": Gender and unequal outcomes in academic careers. *Gender, Work & Organization*, 12(1), 50-72.
- Quinn, K., Yen, J. W., Riskin, E. A., & Lange, S. E. (2007). Leadership workshops for department chairs enabling family-friendly cultural change. *Change*, 39(4), 43-47.
- Raabe, P. H. (1997). Work-family polocies for faculty: How "career- and-family-friendly" is academe? In M. A. Ferber & J. W. Loeb (Eds.), *Academic couples: Problems and promises* (pp. 208-225). Urbana: University of Illinois Press.
- Raedeke, T. D., Warren, A. H., & Granzyk, T. L. (2002). Coaching commitment and turnover: A comparison of current and former coaches. *Research Quarterly for Exercise and Sport*, 73(1), 73-86.
- Reddick, R. J., Rochlen, A. B., Grasso, J. R., Reilly, E. D., & Spikes, D. D. (2012). Academic fathers pursuing tenure: A qualitative study of work-family conflict,

- coping strategies, and departmental culture. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 13(1), 1-15.
- Repetti, R. L. (1987). Linkages between work and family roles. In S. Oskamp (Ed.), *Applied social psychology annual: Vol. 7. Family processes and problems* (pp. 98-127). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Robert, P., & Bukodi, E. (2002). Dual career pathways: The occupational attainment of married couples in Hungary. *European Sociological Review*, 18(2), 217-232.
- Rothbard, N. P. (2001). Enriching or depleting? The dynamics of engagement in work and family roles. *Administrative Sciences Quarterly*, 46, 655-684.
- Rothbard, N. P., Phillips, K. W., & Dumas, T. L. (2005). Managing multiple roles: Work-family policies and individuals' desires for segmentation. *Organization Science*, 16(3), 243-258.
- Rubin, H. J., & Rubin, I. S. (2005). *Qualitative interviewing: The art of hearing data*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Ruderman, M. N., Ohlott, P. J., Panzer, S., & King, S. N. (2002). Benefits of multiple roles for managerial women. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45, 369-386.
- Rudolph, F. (1962). *The American college and university: A history*. New York, NY: A. Knopf.
- Santos, G. G., & Cabral-Cardoso, C. (2008). Work-family culture in academia: A gendered view of work-family conflict and coping strategies. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 23(6), 442-457.
- Santos, J. R. A. (1999). Cronbach's alpha: A tool for assessing the reliability of scales. *Journal of Extension*, 37(2), 1-5.

- Sargent, A. G., & Stupak, R. J. (1989). Managing in the '90s: The androgynous manager. *Training and Development Journal*, 43(12), 29-35.
- Schenewark, J. D., & Dixon, M. A. (2012). A dual model of work-family conflict and enrichment in collegiate coaches. *Journal of Issues in Intercollegiate Athletics*, 5, 15-39.
- Schuster, J. H., & Finkelstein, M. J. (2006). *The American faculty: The restructuring of academic work and careers*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Shavlik, D., & Touchton, J. (1984). Toward a new era of leadership: The national identification program. *New Directions for Higher Education*, 1984(45), 47-58.
- Shin, D. C., & Johnson, D. M. (1978). Avowed happiness as an overall assessment of the quality of life. *Social Indicators Research*, 5(1-4), 475-492.
- Sieber, S. D. (1974). Toward a theory of role accumulation. *American Sociological Review*, 39, 367-578.
- Simons, R. (1992). Parental role strains, salience of parental identity and gender differences in psychological distress. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 33, 25-35.
- Society for Human Resource Management. (2003, December). HR professionals see more employees struggle with eldercare. Retrieved from <http://www.businessknowhow.com/manage/eldercare.htm>
- State of Idaho Website. (2014). Retrieved from <http://www.idaho.gov/>.
- State of Utah Website. (2014). Retrieved from <http://www.utah.com/colleges/uvsc.htm>.

- Stevens, D. P., Minnotte, K. L., Mannon, S. E., & Kiger, G. (2007). Examining the “neglected side of the work-family interface” antecedents of positive and negative family-to-work spillover. *Journal of Family Issues*, 28(2), 242-262.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. New York: Free Press.
- Taylor, R. L. (2000). “Diversity within African American families.” In D. H. Demo, K. R. Allen, M. A. & Fine, (Eds.), *Handbook of family diversity*. (pp. 232-251). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Terrell, P. S., & Gifford, D. (2005). Vice presidents, wives, and moms: Reflections and lessons learned. *College Student Affairs Journal*, 24(2), 189-194.
- Thelin, J. R. (2004). *A History of American Higher Education (2nd Ed.)*. Baltimore, MD: The Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Thoits, P. A. (1992). Identity structures psychological well-being: Gender and marital status comparisons. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, 55(3), 236-256.
- Thomas, D. R. (2006). A general inductive approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 27(2), 237-246.
- Thompson, C. A., Beauvais, L. L., & Allen, T. D. (2006). Work and family from an industrial/organizational psychology perspective. In M. Pitt-Catsouphes, E. E. Kossek & S. Sweet (Eds.), *The work and family handbook: Multidisciplinary perspectives and approaches* (pp. 283-307). Nahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Thorstad, R. R., Anderson, T. L., & Hall, M. E. L., Willingham, M., & Carruthers, L. (2006). Breaking the mold: A qualitative exploration of mothers in Christian academia and their experiences of spousal support. *Journal of Family Issues*, 27(2), 229-251.
- Tichy, N., & Devanna, M. A. (1986). *The transformational leader*. New York, NY: Wiley & Sons.
- Tiedje, L. B., Wortman, C. B., Downey, G., Emmons, C., Biernat, M., & Lang, E. (1990). Women with multiple roles: Role-compatibility, perceptions, satisfaction, and mental health. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, 52, 63-72.
- Ulrich, D. (1998). Intellectual Capital = Competence x Commitment. *Sloan Management Review*, 39(2), 15-26.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2010). State & county quickfacts. Retrieved from <http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/00000.html>
- U.S. Bureau of the Census. (1975). *Historical statistics of the United States: Colonial times to 1970*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Offices.
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2013a). *Employment characteristics of families summary*. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/news.release/famee.nr0.htm>
- U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. (2013b). *Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey*. Retrieved from <http://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat03.htm>
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2013c). *Profile American Facts for Features: Mother's Day: May 12, 2013*. Retrieved from: http://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/facts_for_features_special_editions/cb13-ff11.html

- U.S. Census Bureau. (2010). *Profile American Facts for Features: Father's Day centennial: June 20, 2010*. Retrieved from:
http://www.census.gov/newsroom/releases/archives/facts_for_features_special_editions/cb10-ff11.html
- U.S. Department of Education. (2013). *The Condition of Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office. Retrieved from
http://nces.ed.gov/programs/coe/indicator_chb.asp
- U.S. Department of Education. (1995). *The Condition of Education*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. News and World Report University Directory. (2014). Retrieved from
<http://www.usnewsuniversitydirectory.com/>
- Valcour, M. (2007). Work-based resources as moderators of the relationship between hours and satisfaction with work-family balance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 6, 1512-1523.
- Valian, V. (1999). *Why so slow: The advancement of women*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.
- van Daalen, G., Willemsen, T. M., & Sanders, K. (2006). Reducing work-family conflict through different sources of social support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(3), 462-476.
- van Steenbergen, E. F., Ellemers, N., & Mooijaart, A. (2007). How work and family can facilitate each other: Distinct types of work-family facilitation and outcomes for women and men. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 12, 279-300.

- Varner, A. (2000). *The consequences and costs of delaying attempted childbirth for women faculty*. University Park, PA: Department of Labor Studies and Industrial Relations, Penn State University.
- Veroff, J., Douvan, E., & Kulka, R. A. (1981). *The inner American: A self-portrait from 1957 to 1976*. New York: Basic Books.
- Veysey, L. R. (1965). *The emergence of the American university*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Voydanoff, P. (2005). Toward a conceptualization of perceived work-family fit and balance: A demands and resources approach. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 67, 822-836.
- Ward, K., & Wolf-Wendel, L. (2012). *Academic motherhood: How faculty manage work and family*. New Brunswick, NJ: Rutgers University Press.
- Wayne, J. H., Randel, A. E., & Stevens, J. (2006). The role of identity and work-family support in work-family enrichment and its work-related consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 69(3), 445-461.
- Weedon, C. (1987). *Feminist practice and post-structuralist theory*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Wethington, E., & Kessler, R. C. (1989). Employment, parental responsibility, and psychological distress: A longitudinal study of married women. *Journal of Family Issues*, 10(4), 527-546.
- Whitbourne, S. K. (1996). *Psychosocial perspectives: Handbook of emotion, adult development, and aging*. Massachusetts: Academic Press.
- Whittaker, T. (2006, Fall). *Assumptions in OLS multiple regression*. EDP 382K: University of Texas at Austin.

- Wilcox, J. R., & Ebbs, S. B. (1992). *The leadership compass: Values and ethics in higher education*, ASHE-ERIC Higher Education Report No. 1. Washington, DC: ASHE.
- Williams, J. (2000). *Unbending gender: Why family and work conflict and what to do about it*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Williams, J. C., & Boushey, H. (2010). *The three faces of work-family conflict: The poor, the professionals, and the missing middle*. Available at SSRN: <http://ssrn.com/abstract=2126314> or <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2126314>
- Witt, L. A., & Carlson, D. S. (2006). The work-family interface and job performance: Moderating effects of conscientiousness and perceived organizational support. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 11(4), 343.
- Wolf-Wendel, L., Ward, K., & Twombly, S. B. (2007). Faculty life at community colleges: The perspective of women with children. *Community College Review*, 34(4), 255-281.
- World Health Organization. 2013. *Gender, women and health*. Retrieved from <http://www.who.int/gender/whatisgender/en/>

APPENDIX A**STUDY ON WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND WORK-FAMILY
ENRICHMENT AMONG HIGHER EDUCATION LEADERS**

APPENDIX A

STUDY ON WORK-FAMILY CONFLICT AND WORK-FAMILY ENRICHMENT AMONG HIGHER EDUCATION LEADERS

The purpose of this study is to broaden the work-family literature by simultaneously exploring the impact of work-family conflict and work-family enrichment among higher education leaders.

This study has been approved by the Idaho State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) and should take less than 15 minutes to complete. Your responses will be confidential and your personal and organizational identity will remain anonymous. Your answers will be reported only as summaries in which no individual or institutional response can be identified. Of course your participation in this study is voluntary, implies informed consent, and there is no penalty for not participating. If you have any questions about the survey or the study, please contact me at slacamy@isu.edu.

Thank you.

Amy Slack, Doctoral Candidate
Graduate Department of Educational Leadership and Instructional Design
College of Education
Idaho State University

I agree to participate in this study:

Yes _____

No _____

Demographic Query

For each of the following questions fill in the blanks or check the appropriate space. These questions deal with different aspects of yourself, your job, and your living situation which may be related to your experience with balancing your work and family life.

1. What year were you born? _____

2. What is your gender? _____male _____female _____ transgendered

3. What is your marital status?

_____ Single, never married

_____ Married or domestic partnership

_____ Widowed

_____ Divorced

_____ Separated

4. Who lives in your household with you? (A drop down menu will allow respondents to choose the number of individuals in each category except for spouse.)

☐ I live alone

☐ Parent-in-law

☐ Spouse

☐ Biological son or daughter

☐ Unmarried partner

☐ Adopted son or daughter

☐ Stepson or stepdaughter

☐ Foster Child

☐ Son-in-law or daughter-in-law

☐ Father or mother

☐ Grandchild

☐ Brother or sister

☐ Other relative

☐ Other non-relative

☐ Housemate or roommate

5. Please list the **number** of children living with you in each of the following age categories:

_____N/A _____0 to 2 _____3 to 5 _____6 to 11 _____12 to 16 _____17-18 _____over 18

6. Are you currently caring for or managing care for an aging and/or ill parent, spouse, or other relative?

☐ Yes

☐ No

7. In what discipline did you earn your highest degree? _____

8. What year was your highest degree received? _____
9. What year did you begin working at **this** university? _____
10. What is your current job title? _____
11. If you hold academic rank at your current institution, please indicate that rank here.
- ☐ Assistant Professor
 - ☐ Associate Professor
 - ☐ Professor
 - ☐ Other
 - ☐ I do not hold academic rank
12. What is your tenure status?
- ☐ Tenured, or have been awarded tenure during your career (skip to question 13)
 - ☐ Tenure track, but not yet tenured (survey will go to question 13, but skip question 14)
 - ☐ Not on tenure track and have **never** been awarded tenure during my career (skip to question 15)
13. How many of your children were born before you attained tenure?
- ☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 or more
14. How many of your children were born after you attained tenure?
- ☐ 0 ☐ 1 ☐ 2 ☐ 3 ☐ 4 ☐ 5 ☐ 6 or more
15. What are the average hours you work per week?
- ☐ Less than 40 hours a week
 - ☐ 40-49 hours
 - ☐ 50-59
 - ☐ 60-69
 - ☐ 70 hours or more

16. What is your spouse's/partner's principal activity?

- ☐ Employed
- ☐ Self-employed
- ☐ Not employed and actively seeking employment (Skip to question 19)
- ☐ Not employed and not seeking employment (Skip to question 19)
- ☐ Retired (Skip to question 19)
- ☐ Student
- ☐ Other (Skip to question 19) (Include box to explain)
- ☐ N/A no current spouse or partner

17. How many hours per week does your spouse/partner work outside the home?

- ☐ Part-time
- ☐ 3/4 time
- ☐ Full-time
- ☐ Greater than 40 hours per week

18. Does your spouse/partner work away from home at a different location for a significant amount of time (e.g. days, weeks, or months away from home)

- ☐ Yes
- ☐ No

19. Does your university have family-friendly support policies?

- ☐ Yes (skip to question 20) ☐ No (skip to question 21) ☐ Not sure

20. Have you utilized your university's family-friendly support policies or resources?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ N/A

21. Would you have utilized family-friendly resources if they had been available?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No ☐ N/A

22. Please indicate the extent to which each of the following aspects of your life has been a source of stress for you over the past twelve months.

1 = Not at all

2 = Somewhat

3 = Moderate

4 = Extensive

5 = Not applicable

| | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| Managing household responsibilities | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Childcare | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Care of someone who is ill, disabled, aging and/or in need of special services | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |
| Your own health | ① | ② | ③ | ④ | ⑤ |

Work-Family Enrichment Scale

(Carlson, D.S., Kacmar, K.M., Wayne J.H., & Grzywacz, J.G., 2006)

Please indicate your level of agreement with the entire statements below using the five point scale provided. Please note that in order for you to strongly agree (4 or 5) with an item you must agree with the *full* statement. Take for example the first statement:

My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member.

To strongly agree, you would need to agree that (1) your work involvement helps you to understand different viewpoints **AND** (2) that these different viewpoints transfer to home making you a better family member.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = agree

5 = strongly agree

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1) My involvement in my work helps me to understand different viewpoints and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 2) My involvement in my work helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 3) My involvement in my work helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 4) My involvement in my work puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 5) My involvement in my work makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 6) My involvement in my work makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 7) My involvement in my work helps me feel personally fulfilled and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 8) My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of accomplishment and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 9) My involvement in my work provides me with a sense of success and this helps me be a better family member. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 10) My involvement in my family helps me to gain knowledge and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 11) My involvement in my family helps me acquire skills and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 12) My involvement in my family helps me expand my knowledge of new things and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 13) My involvement in my family puts me in a good mood and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 14) My involvement in my family makes me feel happy and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 15) My involvement in my family makes me cheerful and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 16) My involvement in my family requires me to avoid wasting time at work and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 17) My involvement in my family encourages me to use my work time in a focused manner and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 18) My involvement in my family causes me to be more focused at work and this helps me be a better worker. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |

Work-Family Conflict
(Netemeyer, Boles, & McCurrian, 1996)

The following ten items pertain to your perceived level of work-family conflict. Please indicate your level of agreement with the following statements according to the five point scale below.

- 1 = strongly disagree
 2 = disagree
 3 = neither agree nor disagree
 4 = agree
 5 = strongly agree

| | |
|---|-----------|
| 1) The demands of my work interfere with my home and family. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 2) The amount of time my job takes up makes it difficult to fulfill family responsibilities. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 3) Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands my job puts on me. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 4) My job produces strain that makes it difficult to fulfill family duties. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 5) Due to work-related duties, I have to make changes to my plans for family activities. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 6) The demands of my family or spouse/partner interfere with work-related activities. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 7) I have to put off doing things at work because of demands on my time at home | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 8) Things I want to do at home do not get done because of the demands of my family or spouse/partner. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 9) My home life interferes with my responsibilities at work such as getting to work on time, accomplishing daily tasks, and working overtime. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 10) Family-related strain interferes with my ability to perform job-related duties. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |

Organizational Commitment
(Allen & Meyer, 1990)

Below are eight statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the five point scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each item.

- 1 = strongly disagree
 2 = disagree
 3 = neither agree nor disagree
 4 = agree
 5 = strongly agree

| | |
|--|-----------|
| 1) I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 2) I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 3) I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 4) I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 5) I do not feel like part of the family at my organization. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 6) I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 7) This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 8) I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |

Career Commitment
(Carless, 2005)

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the five point scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each item.

- 1 = strongly disagree
2 = disagree
3 = neither agree nor disagree
4 = agree
5 = strongly agree

| | |
|---|-------------------|
| 1) The costs associated with the work of a university leader sometimes seem too great. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 2) Given the problems I may encounter as a university leader, I wonder if I will get enough out of it. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 3) Given the problems I may encounter as a university leader, I wonder if the family and/or relationship difficulties will be worth it. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 4) If I had all the money I needed without working, I would probably still work as a university leader. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |
| 5) I will work as a university leader for the remainder of my life. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ |

Satisfaction With Life Scale
(Pavot & Diener, 1993)

Below are five statements with which you may agree or disagree. Using the seven point scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each item.

- 1 = strongly disagree
 2 = disagree
 3 = slightly disagree
 4 = neither agree nor disagree
 5 = slightly agree
 6 = agree
 7 = strongly agree

| | |
|---|---------------|
| 1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ |
| 2. The conditions of my life are excellent. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ |
| 3. I am satisfied with my life. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ |
| 4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ |
| 5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing. | ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ ⑦ |

If you are willing to share additional information about your work-family balance perceptions and experiences, and are willing to participate in an interview, please provide your contact information below. Everything will be kept in the strictest of confidence. No one other than the researcher will know your name or where you work.

Name:

Address:

Phone Number:

E-mail:

Preferred method of follow-up contact:

_____ Letter sent via mail

_____ E-mail Message

Preference:

_____ I would prefer a telephone interview.

_____ I would prefer a Skype interview

_____ For ISU respondents—I would prefer to meet in person.

Thank you for your participation in this research project.

APPENDIX B

Draft Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

APPENDIX B

Draft Semi-Structured Interview Protocol

1. Can you tell me a little about your educational and career history?
 - a. How did you get to where you are today in your career?
2. Can you tell me a little about your family life?
3. How do you define work/life balance?
 - a. How do you feel about your work/life balance?
 - b. How do you balance it?
4. In what ways does your work life enhance your family life?
5. In what ways does your family life enhance your work life?
6. Is there anything else you would like to add?

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Letter

APPENDIX C

Informed Consent Letter

Dear Participant,

You are being asked to participate in a study on work-family balance among university leaders. This research study is being conducted by Amy Slack, doctoral student, Campus Stop 8059, (208) 530-1036, from the Graduate Department of Educational Leadership and Instructional Design at Idaho State University. The results of this study will be used as part of her dissertation. You have been asked to participate in this research because you are a university leader. This study involves interviews with twelve participants. Your participation in this research project is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything you do not understand, before deciding whether or not to participate.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to develop a deeper understanding of work-family balance as it relates to (a) work-family conflict, and (b) work-family enrichment.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would ask you to participate in a single one-on-one interview in your office or a location you find comfortable and convenient. The researcher will ask you six questions. Other questions may arise during the discussion. The interview will be digitally recorded and will take approximately 30 minutes. After the researcher transcribes the interview you will be asked to read over the transcript for accuracy. If at any time you wish to discontinue the interview you may do so.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

The researcher does not anticipate any risks or discomforts to you. It is possible that you will be uncomfortable with the questions or answers during the interview. If this occurs you may end the interview. If you find it inconvenient to participate you may choose to not participate. The research procedures may involve risks that are currently unforeseeable.

4. ANTICIPATED BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS

You should not expect to benefit directly from participation in this research. You have the right to refuse participation in this research study.

5. ANTICIPATED BENEFITS TO SOCIETY

The results of this research may result in policies that benefit future higher education leaders.

6. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

The participants will not be paid or offered other benefits for their participation.

7. PRIVACY AND CONFIDENTIALITY

The only people who will know that you are a research subject is the researcher. No information about you, or provided by you during the research, will be disclosed to others without your written permission, except (a) if necessary to protect our rights or welfare (for example, if you are injured), or (b) if required by law. The digital recordings will be stored on the researcher's computer protected by a password. The transcripts will be stored in a file cabinet in the researcher's office. The researcher's office will be locked when she is not present. When the results of the research are published or discussed in conferences, no information will be included that would reveal your identity. The audio recordings and transcripts will be destroyed after publication or presentation of any articles or papers resulting from this research. This should occur within 3 years of the data collection.

The researcher will not use the interview recordings or transcripts for any purpose other than writing her dissertation and articles or papers related to the dissertation. If, for any reason, the researcher desires to use the recordings or transcripts again, she will not do so without your express written consent.

8. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation in this research is VOLUNTARY. If you choose not to participate, that will not affect your relationship with Idaho State University, or your right to receive services at Idaho State University to which you are otherwise entitled. If you decide to participate, you are free to withdraw your consent and discontinue participation at any time without prejudice to your future at Idaho State University.

9. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

In the event of a research related injury or if you experience an adverse reaction, please immediately contact one of the investigators listed below. If you have any questions about the research, please feel free to contact Amy Slack at slacamy@isu.edu or (208) 530-1036.

10. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have any questions regarding your rights as a research subject, you may contact the Human Subjects Committee office at 282-2179 or by writing to the Human Subjects Committee at Idaho State University, Mail Stop 8130, Pocatello, ID 83209.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

I have read (or someone has read to me) the information provided above. I have been given an opportunity to ask questions, and all of my questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I have been given a copy of the informed consent form.

BY SIGNING THIS FORM, I WILLINGLY AGREE TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH IT DESCRIBES.

Participant Signature

Date

APPENDIX D

List of Discipline Codes

APPENDIX D

List of Discipline Codes

1. Agriculture

- Agricultural & Extension Education
- Agriculture—Vocational Education
- Animal Science
- Forest Biology
- Landscape Architecture
- Plant Sciences
- Range Science
- Soil Science
- Veterinary Medicine

2. Fine Arts & Humanities

- American Studies
- Asian Studies
- Communication
- English
- Folklore and American Studies
- History
- Humanities
- Journalism
- Music
- Philosophy
- Romance Languages & Literatures
- Slavic
- Spanish
- Theatre

3. Biological Sciences

- Biochemistry
- Bioinformatics
- Botany
- Genetics
- Microbiology & Immunology
- Zoology & Physiology

4. Business

- Accounting
- Business Administration
- Business
- Business Management
- Finance
- Management
- Management Information Systems
- Organizational Behavior

5. Computer Science

- Computer Science

6. Education

- Business Education
- Education Administration
- Education
- Educational Foundations
- Education Leadership
- Educational Psychology
- Exercise Physiology
- Health Education
- Health Education & Promotion
- Higher Ed Administration/Leadership
- Instructional Leadership
- Kinesiology
- Mathematics Education
- Physical Education
- Special Education

7. Engineering

- Engineering
- Electrical Engineering
- Engineering Management
- Environmental Engineering
- Materials Science & Engineering
- Mechanical Engineering

8. Health Professions

- Audiology
- Health
- Occupational Therapy
- Pathology
- Pharmacy
- Physical Therapy
- Public Health
- Medicine
- Speech Language Pathology
- Speech Pathology

9. Law

- Law
- WTO Trade Law

10. Physical Sciences

- Chemistry
- Geology
- Mathematics
- Physics
- Statistics
- Statistics & Quantitative Methods

11. Social Sciences

- Clinical Psychology
- Criminal Justice
- Economics
- Geography
- Linguistic Anthropology
- Political Science
- Psychology
- Public Administration
- Social Ecology
- Social Work
- Sociology