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MALE COLLEGE PRESIDENTS WITH CHILDREN:
RECOLLECTIONS ON PERCEPTIONS OF WORK-LIFE BALANCE

by

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A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Doctor of Education
in the Higher Education & Policy Studies Program
in the College of Education and Human Performance
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Major Professor: Rosa Cintrón

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ABSTRACT

This qualitative research study explored the recollections of work-life balance and fatherhood through the reported experiences and reflections of select college presidents. The researcher used a basic narrative research practice which allowed individuals to share their experiences while shedding light on how the individuals see themselves. Six college presidents participated in one-on-one semi structured interviews.

The researcher incorporated Clark's Work-family border theory as the framework for this study, which recognized that a working individual largely functions in two separate domains: work and family. The presidents' experiences were examined within this construct and addressed the research question that guided the study: How do male college presidents balance their work and life domains?

This study represents a significant addition to the scholarly literature concerning work-life balance experienced by male college presidents as little scholarship exists in this area. The results led to recommendations and implications for college Boards of Trustees, professional development associations, spouses, and partners.

“I think I found my weakness, I think I found my strength. And all our love and hate,
they’re one in the same. Now how am I gon’ use it? Try not to abuse it”

-Oddisse, “Strength & Weakness”

To

Those

I owe much

Love to...my:

Godmother – Goddie

Uncles – Junior, Mando, Uval

Crew – Evo, Cigarz, and Octave

Extended family – Rueben and Danaé

Babies – Amara, Aden, Ari, Giselle, and Olivia

Family – Dad, Mom, Bones, Blossom, Gran Ma, Gis, and Tanya

Support –Emerson, Don, Maurice, Leonid, Monique, Sonia, and Brandie

Never forgotten:

Aunt Fina

Aunt Averil

Grand Ma

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I thank God for the unconditional love and guidance I have received all of my life. I was taught the concept of agape and ma'at early in life and I do my best to live by them. It is from there that I would like to thank (among others) the people who influenced me throughout my life. You all represent turning points.

My family: Mom and Dad, thank you for always believing in me and reminding me that I have unfulfilled potential that I must tap into. Dad thanks for reminding me to be happy and Mom thanks for reminding me to always be thoughtful of others. I pray that I am as kind and supportive to my children as you have always been to me. My grandmothers (Laura and Pearline) in the short time we spent together your wisdom, values, and insight have made the person I am today. Thank you. My uncles, sharing your life lessons; mistakes, successes, and regrets have helped to shape the decisions I make. Thank you for always treating me like a man and providing timely counsel. My sister Bones, I can write a book on our relationship. Our bond is strong. Oddisee said it best in his song "Be there":

"No need to worry cause the cloth we cut from is tough
y'all troopers in the moment of clutch; don't ever give up.

But when things get rough, just know I'm there

A liver, heart, or kidney know that you've got a spare

I hope to be a role model, a best friend, and brother

From the bottom of my heart, you know I love you.."

My sister Blossom for staying true (always keeping it real).

Uncle Ricky and Auntie Gloria neither time nor space can break family bond.

My friends: To the Baldwin crew The Anglins, The Hinds, The Mangums, The Smarts, The James, and The Browns if it were not for that little Village we call the Oaks where would we be? The Abrams brothers for a friendship that always picks up where it left off no matter how much time has passed. Auburn crew: Kendall and Wendell Mills, Percy Coard, Sean Taylor, Toussaint Kirk, Bedarius Bell, Tyrone Joyner, and David King for befriending a brother that year when he really needed it. Scott Maccione, Ryan Ferguson, and Jesse Jurado for making sure I never fell too far. Edgar Grant for making the connection. Georgia Kent and Kallie Reyes for your friendship (no judging) your turn! Yolanda Williams for the timely reminders.

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CHAPTER 1 THE PROBLEM AND ITS CLARIFYING COMPONENTS

Background

In 1930, John Maynard Keynes wrote on the possibilities of a three-hour workday or fifteen-hour workweek (Keynes, 1963). Eighty-four years later this prediction has not been realized. To the contrary, in 2013 Americans work an average of only four fewer hours per week than they did in 1950, or thirty-three hours per week (Weisenthal, 2013). Executives, however, work much longer hours than the average. In a 2009 *Forbes* article, Chief Executive Officers (CEOs) reported working between 50 and 100 hours per week (Linder, 2009). But what was not noted in this article speaks the loudest: issues of work-life balance and whether or not these CEOs had families.

College presidents are, in many ways, like CEOs and, in many cases, their compensation packages frequently reflect the complexity of their jobs. *The Chronicle of Higher Education* conducted a salary survey of 805 private (2011) and public (2013) presidents of US institutions of higher education and found that the annual compensation of presidents who responded included the following:

- Fifty one presidents made \$1 million or more,
- Two hundred and fourteen made \$500,000 or more,
- Two hundred and sixty seven made \$250,000 or more, and
- One hundred and eighteen made \$100,000 or more (Newman, 2014; Newman & O’Leary, 2013).

While these numbers seem alarming, consider that of the 498 highest paid CEOs in US, only 15 make less than \$1 million per year (DeCarlo, 2012). If salary is any indication the personal sacrifices made by CEO's appear to be compensated for, then it does not necessarily hold true for college presidents.

Statement of the Problem

In 2007, The American Council on Education (ACE) published a report titled "The American College President." This report provided census information on college and university presidents in the United States, including data related to presidents' age, tenure, and gender. In addition, this report compares data published in its 1987 report on college presidents with data from 2007 and offers the following insights:

- The average age of college presidents increased from 52 to 60,
- Presidential tenure increased from 6.3 years to 8.5 years in office,
- Forty percent of presidents were 61 years of age or older (which is up from 14% in 1986), and
- Sixty-six percent of incumbents serving in senior administrative positions that feed into the presidency were aged 51 or older with nearly 20 % of them aged 61 or older (American Council on Education, 2007).

In the US, workers at all levels feel pressures driven by globalization, advances in technology, and competition for jobs (Ahearn, 2012). As working hours steadily increase, families find it difficult to pursue activities outside of work that improve their quality of life; this conflict between the two spheres of work and family has significant implications for career

attainment and the nurturing of children. Notably, long hours have been shown to trigger stress-related illness and increase unhealthy behaviors such as poor diet, lack of exercise, smoking, alcohol abuse, irritability, and insomnia. Workplace stress also contributes to long-term absence, drug abuse, and mental illness (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008). Even though working long hours has a negative impact on their health, morale, productivity, and relationship with their families, managers still report feeling compelled to work long hours to succeed (Worrall & Cooper, 1999).

Gatrell and Cooper's (2008) use of the term "continual disembodiment link" implies the expectation that one (especially in managerial positions) is always connected to work even when he is not physically present. In today's technologically advanced world, including the near ubiquitous availability to Wi-Fi, this means one is constantly connected to the workplace via smart phones and mobile computers; even while driving there is no respite due to email and texting capabilities integrated into cars. As a result, flexibility today implies availability above and beyond the contracted 40-hour workweek (Worrall & Cooper, 1999).

Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) found that workers who are deeply involved in their careers place limits on family commitments. They also found the converse to be true: workers who are deeply involved with their families place limits on their careers. Limiting the investment of time in either sphere creates the likelihood of conflict between career and family domains since it takes considerable time and energy to be highly involved in either role. (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Thus, according to Friedman and Greenhaus (2000):

[Adults focused on career] are less psychologically involved in their families, are less likely to adjust their work schedules to accommodate family or personal needs, spend

fewer hours per week on household activities, and take less time off from work

following childbirth compared to people who are less engaged in their careers. (p. 39)

Despite this tension, the benefits of financial stability for families are clear: families in which one or both spouses have a successful career also enjoy higher social status and greater feelings of self-fulfillment (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Conversely, Worrall and Cooper (1999) report that in some cases individuals have opted to exchange high paying, high status jobs for lower paying jobs that allow them to balance work-life commitments and tend to their own health and well-being.

The increased demands placed on working professionals, although positioned as gender neutral, is largely interpreted as a woman's issue. From a career attainment perspective, the consequences of this tension between work and home obligations are different for men and women. For women, the impacts include limited career choices, lower opportunities for career advancement, and the need to choose between career and family. In their study of seven countries, Lewis, Gambles, & Rapoport (2007) note that the issues of work and family are more relevant to mothers than fathers. The feminization of the issue of work-life balance is no mystery: women on average spend more than three times the number of hours per week on childcare than men. The implication here is that women tend to sacrifice career advancement and higher wages in order to accommodate family needs. Men, conversely, must decide whether career or family comes first while increasing family engagement due to their wives' increased career demands (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Still, Gatrell (2007) found that men experienced frustration when conditions prevented them from cultivating relationships with their children and almost half of the men in this study

reported making compromises in order to be more present in their children's lives. In addition, men in this study reported a desire to be close to their children and a resistance to advancing their careers at the expense of their relationships with their children (Gatrell, 2007). However, men's efforts to downshift professionally in order to meet family responsibilities are often met with mockery and criticism (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008) and employers continue to expect to see fathers continue to work their traditionally long hours (Burnett, Gatrell, Cooper, & Sparrow, 2010). Interestingly, Burnett, Gatrell, Cooper, and Sparrow's (2010) article focused on fathers who work in senior level positions within their organizations, a group that the authors consider underrepresented by the current body of work-life research.

The role of women and men struggling with work-life balance issues while employed in professional and managerial roles who are raising young children can be confusing. Gatrell and Cooper (2008) note the term flexibility has two different meanings to women and men. For women, flexibility is the ability to alter work activities and hours to accommodate her role and activities as a mother at home. For men, flexibility means working atypical work hours for little or no extra pay. Thus for women the notion of flexibility equates to reducing her career status while for men it is associated with intensifying his workload (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008).

Purpose and Significance of the Study

In order to give children the care and attention they require, parents must be available when children need them. Availability means being physically present and psychologically focused, free from distractions or other work concerns. For example, this means being present to help with homework, ensuring that a child goes to school and receives medical care when

needed. Being in two mental places at one time, at home and at work, requires psychological juggling that can be perceived as a challenge to a child's sense of self and security (Freidman & Greenhaus, 2000). A parent is not focused on his child's needs "when [he is] so psychologically involved in work that [he] cannot attend well to the demands of being a parent" (Freidman & Greenhaus, 2000, p. 70). Children of career-focused parents experience more behavior problems than children of family focused parents. Even though career-focused parents enjoy higher incomes and are able to provide more tangible material benefits to their children, erosion of family time can have a negative impact on a child's psychological health (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

According to the United States Census Bureau (2013), approximately 65 million American parents have children under the age of 18. Approximately 45 million of these parents are married, with the spouse present in the home (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). Advances in technology, productivity, and cost control have led to greater consolidation and specialization of the American workforce, along with persistent downward wage pressure on US salaries (Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001). Developments in communications technology have also eroded the boundaries between work and life. Fredriksen-Goldsen and Scharlach (2001) explain:

As workers are linked from home to work by e-mails, cell phones, and beepers, there are more opportunities and fewer boundaries between work and family, with all of life's domains becoming permeable. Never before has the worker had such opportunities for flexibility and autonomy, nor been so easily accessible, with potential on-call access 24 hours a day. The increasing demands as well as the opportunities

resulting from the growing technological advances must be considered in the work-family equation. (p. 11)

This erosion of the traditional boundaries between work and home has made significant impacts on how parents raise their children (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008).

According to Eraranta and Moisander (2011), the ideal father occupies a central place in contemporary family culture:

The model image of a father is a man who takes responsibility for care work and spends quality time with his children, engaging in active interaction and being available to them on a daily basis. To be an involved father, a man has to engage in organizing the daily programs of his children, taking care of their clothes, meals, school trips and medical appointments, as well as staying at home when they are ill. (pp. 518 - 520)

In addition, Eraranta and Moisander (2011) found the following:

The main source of concern that the discourse of involved fathering brings up revolves around the question of 'work/life balance', i.e. how men and women can better reconcile the demands of their work and family lives. For men, working long hours, neglecting familial responsibilities and being 'weekend fathers' creates tensions in their domestic relationships. This places them at risk of divorce and losing an important part of their social networks, which puts their psychosocial survival in danger. It also prevents them from gaining personally valuable experiences as fathers through more involved engagement and closer relationships with their children. (p. 519)

Fathers who are distant, career-oriented breadwinners do not pursue a goal of forming a strong, close, and personally rewarding relationship with their children; these fathers focus on having

the financial security to adequately provide for their family. Such a heavy focus on one area (financial) neglects the importance of the ‘little’ things fathers can do to strengthen the bonds with their children.

College and university presidents are not immune from the pressures of work-life balance. Fisher and Koch (2004) released a study of 371 sitting presidents of American colleges that examined the following:

- Professional education and preparation,
- Demographic data,
- Previous positions held,
- Utilization of technology,
- Politics and religion,
- Family characteristics,
- Personal attitudes, and
- Leadership style.

Fisher and Koch’s (2004) study differs from the American Council on Education’s annual survey in that it focuses on presidential attitudes, values, and behavior. Relevant to my study are the data on family characteristics of the presidents that, despite its brief treatment, provides valuable insight into the presidents’ families. For example, the study reported the average number of children in a president’s household is 2.2 or 2.3 and the average age of the youngest child was 25 or 26 years. The study also noted that the average age of male presidents was 57.5 but revealed that, on average, presidents first held their office at 46.3 years of age (Fisher & Koch, 2004). This 11-year age gap is significant to this study because it indicates that the

presidents' children were eleven years younger (on average below 18 years of age) when their fathers initially became president.

That the children of new college presidents were school age at the time their fathers assumed their roles is significant: the children of these presidents were directly impacted by the demands of their fathers' new positions as college presidents. Dodds (1962) dedicates a page and a half to discussing the impact of the college presidency on the personal lives of a president's family. Of this page and a half only one sentence mentions his children. Dodds (1962) believes that the reaction of his family has a great deal to do with a college president's success. The challenges facing the family of a college president can be enormous: the family is now in the public eye and their activities may be mentioned in the local media as well as among different on campus groups. The president's family must be prepared to see him less since much of his time will be devoted to out of town trips, campus events, and entertaining college dignitaries (Dodds, 1962).

The purpose of this study was to explore the recollections of work-life balance and fatherhood through the reported experiences and reflections of select college presidents. This study represents a significant addition to the scholarly literature concerning work-life balance experienced by male college presidents, with children, as little scholarship exists in this area.

Theoretical Framework

Work-family border theory, as conceptualized by Clark (2000), explains that a working individual largely functions in two separate domains: work and family. These domains are both physically and psychologically separate arenas; interaction is dependent upon the strength

of the borders (or boundaries) between them. My research study will incorporate Clark's (2000) ideas of boundary crossing, the point at which an individual transition from one sphere to another.

Work/family border theory situates people as border-crossers who move between the two domains of work and family. The impacts of this vacillation between domains have generated two competing and contradictory theories: spillover theory and compensation theory. Spillover theory suggests that emotions and behaviors that occur in one domain carry over into the other domain; compensation theory suggests that an individual makes up for the satisfaction missing in one domain by working harder to make the other domain more satisfying (Stains, 1980). The preceding theories, then, can be summarized in the following manner: spillover theory proposes that an individual who has a bad day at work will have a bad night at home while compensation theory suggests that a person who is unhappy at home will look for happiness at work (note the inverse of each statement applies as well).

Clark (2000) asserts the association between work and family systems is not emotional, as previously suggested by spillover and compensation theory. For Clark, the commonality between spillover and compensation theories is merely that they both show that work and family domains impact one another. The weakness of spillover and compensation theory is they do not explain, predict, or solve the issue of balancing work and family domains. As a result, both theories presuppose individuals are reactive to their work and family domains as opposed to viewing individuals as active shapers of their environment. People have the ability to shape the domains of work and family, frame the borders between them, and define the relationship between the border-crosser and the work/family domains. Even though people

shape their environments, the environment also, in turn, shapes people. This very contradiction of regulating and being regulated by one's work and home environments makes work/family balance one of the most challenging concepts in the study of work and the study of families. Work/family border theory attempts to explain this complex interaction between border-crossers and their work and family lives, to predict when conflict will occur and provide a framework for attaining balance (Clark, 2000).

Clark (2000) outlined several gaps in the extant theories pertaining to the work/life and work/family balance arena. These gaps include the lack of a comprehensive theory that explains why conflict and balance occur and encompasses human interaction and meaning creation for individuals, while also allowing for the complexities of work and home environments (Clark, 2000, p. 750). Clark goes on to argue that the existing theories (spillover and compensation) address emotional instead of other aspects such as the spatial, temporal, social, and behavioral connections between work and family. For Clark, a comprehensive theory of work/life domain crossing should be “descriptive of why conflict and balance occurs, predictive of situations and individual characteristics that may lead to conflict or balance, and provide a framework individuals and organizations can use to promote balance between work and family responsibilities” (p. 750). Work/family border theory fulfills these requirements. Work/family border theory involves two obvious spheres of influence: work and family (Figure 1), explaining that individuals constantly “cross the border” through managing and negotiating the work and home domains. Depending upon the individual, these borders may be easy or difficult to navigate, and the daily transitions between the work and family domains can be fluid, difficult, or next to impossible to traverse causing internal and external conflict.

Clark (2000) contends that people, as border-crossers in this construct, often tailor “their focus, their goals, and their interpersonal style to fit the unique demands of each” (p. 751) domain. Thus, “individuals can shape to some degree the nature of the work and home domains, and the borders and bridges between them, in order to create the desired balance” (Clark, 2000, p. 751).

The framework for work-family border theory is based on the following four concepts:

- Domains,
- Borders,
- Border-crossers, and
- Border-keepers.

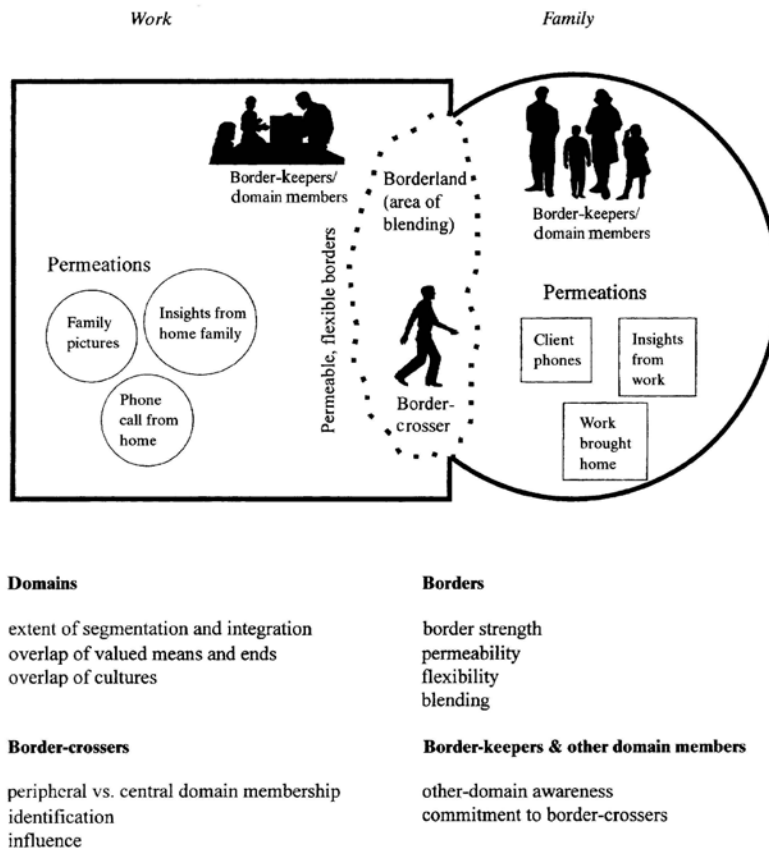


Figure 1 Work/family border theory: a pictorial representation and list of central concepts and their characteristics

Note. Adapted with permission (Appendix A) from “Work/Family Border Theory: A New Theory of Work/Family Balance” by S. Clark, 2007, *Human Relations*, 53(6), p. 754.

Figure 1. Work/Family Border Theory: A pictorial representation and list of central concepts and their characteristics.

The first concept – domains – is defined as “worlds that people have associated with different rules, thought patterns and behavior” (Clark, 2000, p. 753). The domains of work and home represent separate cultures, each with its own expectations that play a part in shaping the behavior of individuals. Although there are contrasts between these two cultures, individuals

may utilize integration and segmentation to manage the differences and achieve balance. Individuals who integrate work and family domains make no effort to separate the two spheres. Integration of these two environments implies that each influences the other due to lack of separation. Conversely, segmentation of work and family domains offers the individual an opportunity to separate the spheres of work and home. Individuals do this by wearing a professional mask, which hides the people they really are and what they might be going through in their private lives.

Borders, the second concept, are defined as “lands of demarcation between domains, defining the point at which domain-relevant behavior begins and ends” (Clark, 2000, p. 756). Place, time, and rules of comportment, what Clark (2000) refers to as physical, temporal, and psychological borders, determine the individual’s behavior in each domain. According to Clark, borders have the following four characteristics:

- Permeability,
- Flexibility,
- Blending, and
- Border strength.

Permeability refers to the degree to which elements from other domains may enter. Flexibility refers to the extent to which borders contract or expand. Blending occurs as a result of allowing permeable and flexible borders, which in turn, renders the idea of a domain irrelevant. Thus the amount or level of permeability, flexibility, and blending are used to determine border strength, which is typically described as strong (impermeable, inflexible, and do not allow blending) or weak (permeable, flexible, and allow blending) (Clark, 2000).

Border-crossers, the third concept, refer to individuals who make frequent transitions between the work and family domains. The level of participation in (the influence and identification individuals have in their domains and borders) determines the “ability to alter the domains to fit their needs” (Clark, 2000, p. 759). A border-crosser’s influence, which is derived from his ability to adopt the domain’s culture and values, empowers that individual to negotiate changes to both a domain and its borders. When the connection between a border-crosser’s identity is closely tied to domain values, border-crossers are not only motivated to manage borders and domains, but also to shape their domains “in a way that allows them to contribute and excel” (Clark, 2000, p. 761).

The last concept, border-keepers, refers to individuals other than the border-crosser who are influential in defining the domains and borders and “play an important role in the border-crossers’ ability to manage domains and borders” (Clark, 2000, p. 761). Examples of common border-keepers at work and home domains who have power and influence over border-crossers are supervisors and spouses. Clark (2000) explains:

Border-keepers such as supervisors and spouses have definitions of what constitutes ‘work’ and ‘family’ based on their own limited experience, and many carefully guard domains and the borders to such a degree that border-crossers do not have flexibility to deal with conflicting demands. However, frequent communication between border-keepers and –crossers can help both come to an understanding. (p. 762)

There are other domain members who have influence in defining the domain but exercise no power over the border-crosser; including family, friends, and co-workers. Work/family border theory (Clark, 2000) also includes three main themes about borders:

- Borders are permeable (demands and people may move between family and work and vice versa).
- Borders are flexible in that the border may expand or contract depending upon the circumstances, goals, and current demands and priorities.
- Borders are bendable or, as Clark explained, “the area around the presupposed border is no longer exclusive of one domain or the other, but blends both work and family, creating a borderland which cannot be exclusively called either domain” (p. 757).

Subsequently, in discussing directions for future research, Clark framed the concept as it will apply to my study, “work/family border theory is designed to focus on variables which have proven to be the most meaningful in creating understanding and change: interpersonal relationships and meaning creation, as well as structural factors like organizational policies about time and work” (p. 767).

Research Question

In order to explore the ways in which male college presidents recall their experiences about work-life balance and fatherhood, I posed the following research question:

How do male college presidents balance their work and life domains?

This research question was addressed by asking male college Presidents with children, semi-structured questions about their recollections of work-life balance (See Appendix B).

Position of the Researcher

Over the past 41 years, I have witnessed 12 wars, numerous international hostage crises, the threat of air strikes, and watched a Space Shuttle race toward the sky and then tragically fall. I have seen iconic American buildings crumble and turn to smoldering ash, igniting what appears to be a never-ending war between religion and political ideals. Children have gone from playing outside to fearing everything outside. While I fear for my children's future, I remain hopeful that I am doing my best to foster in them the value of discipline and consistency that are necessary for success. Doing my best also involves developing and reaching my own career goals while planning to help my children achieve their dreams which I hope includes a college education. The college presidency, to me, represents hope, vision, and service to a broad community of not just teachers and students but a community of all those who support learning and progress. As we will see in the literature review, the responsibilities of a college president are vast, but what of the president's responsibility to his children? As I reviewed the literature on this topic, motherhood and the college presidency dominated the literature while fatherhood and the college presidency yielded very limited results that show the limited attention this relationship has generated among scholars.

Growing up I recall my father waking up at 5:00 a.m. each weekday morning and leaving for work by 6:00 a.m. He returned from work each day at 6:30 p.m. and was usually in bed by 8:00 p.m. He had a side job (we called it his hustle) that took him away from home Saturday and Sunday, from 7:30 a.m. to 4:00 p.m. He did not make it to many after-school activities but made it a point to attend special events such as our school's winter and spring musicals as well as Easter and Christmas Sunday church service. I wanted things to be

different for my children. Like some of the men mentioned in the literature reviewed below, I wanted to be a different kind of father than the traditional father my dad was.

As I began researching college presidents, I realized that their schedules were not different from many upper-level executives in the American workforce, i.e., long working hours and extended overnight business trips. Then, I asked the question: How is it possible to be both a college president and a father? My upbringing left me highly committed to spending time with my children but my working hours and commute make it difficult. Would being a college president make being a father impossible? Would I have to rely on my wife and others to provide support to my children? These were the genesis for this research. There are several institutes that prepare individuals to become college presidents. Typically, the presidents' family/ children are not among the topics discussed. My hope is the information gathered for this study will be useful to fathers and would-be fathers who seek to become college presidents in terms of understanding the work-life challenges that lay ahead.

Organization of the Study

Chapter 1 provides pertinent background information that is necessary to understand the issues in this study, along with the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and the research question that will be explored.

Chapter 2 provides a more detailed review of the literature, including a background and overview of higher education and role of the American college president, work-life balance, fatherhood and masculinities, as well as the theoretical framework for the study.

Chapter 3 specifies the design of my study and includes an in-depth discussion of the methodology structure, methods used to gather data, the data collection plan, and data analysis procedures.

Chapter 4 I discuss how my study began to transition from a document to a narrative of how presidents balance their work and life domains.

Chapter 5 is an analysis of the interviews with six college presidents who participated in my study. In this section, I provide information on results from the study itself and their views on their role as father and president.

Chapter 6 I provide additional analysis of the results whereupon I uncovered themes and answered my research question.

Finally, Chapter 7 I provide conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

History

In this chapter, I provide a detailed review of the literature and scholarship from the disciplines of social science, business, and higher education policy. The literature examined in the chapter illustrates the dearth of information available on college presidents and their role as fathers. This review provides a framework for work-life balance that specifically targets college presidents by analyzing the work-life balance of fathers in similar career fields. I begin with a discussion of the university president's role, evolution of the college presidency, work-life and work-family balance, fatherhood, and conclude with fatherhood and family.

The University Presidency

History

The word president is an Old French word that is derived from the Latin word *praesidere* (Barnhart, 1988). According to the Perseus Digital Library at Tufts University, *prae* means before or in advance of while *sidere* means to settle, to set down, or to be a chief. Combined into one word, *praesidere* means (a) to guard, (b) to watch, (c) to protect, (d) to defend, (e) to act as head or chief, or (f) to preside over. According to Barnhart, the term president was first used in 1382 and signified a person who presides or serves as a chief officer. By 1448, the term president was used to denote the head of a college and in 1660 the term president signified the head of an academy or learned society (Barnhart, 1988). In terms of the modern college presidency, the office of the president traces its origin to the English

college rather than the English university. The English university was led by a chancellor who possessed limited power for a short term. Conversely, the English college head employed wide-ranging powers for an indefinite term (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008).

The position and title of the American college president debuted in the United States with the appointment of Henry Dunster at Harvard College in 1640 (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005). Following Dunster's election, the title of president continued at Harvard and became the standard designation for the chief executive of colleges and universities in the United States (Prator, 1963). In addition to president, several other titles for the chief executive positions were established in colleges during the colonial period; titles such as rector, provost, and chancellor also identified the chief executive at many colleges. The title of chancellor was later adopted by a number of private institutions and is used to identify a college or university's chief executive (Ferrari, 1970; Prator, 1963).¹ Although they vary across institutions and across time, these alternate titles still designate the duties of the incumbent with the authority of college presidents. Next, I will discuss the evolution of the role of the college presidency as academic institutions grew in size and complexity.

Early Role of the American President

Initially, college presidents were more concerned with teaching than with research; they also were involved in meting out student discipline and nurturing the moral development of

¹Today, the University of California uses "chancellor" for the executive heads of its campuses throughout the state, reserving the title of president for the head of the university as a whole. The opposite is true for State University of New York systems as well as the University of Texas system where the title of "chancellor" is used as the head of the university system as a whole and the title of president is used for the executive head of each campus (Prator, 1963).

their students (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005; Ferrari, 1970). Prator (1963) supports this characterization: “prior to the twentieth century, the president was at least as fully involved in development of a student’s character as he was in any other institutional goal” (p 8).

In summary, the essential qualifications of the early American college president included:

- Membership in the clergy,
- Possession of excellent oratorical and teaching skills,
- Demonstration of the ability to raise money, and
- Possession of the skills to oversee the administration of the college (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005; Ferrari, 1970; Shapiro, 1988).

The age of American college students in the seventeenth century was very close to the age of today’s high school students. In essence, this meant a college president was dealing with an adolescent population and a curriculum that more closely resembles that of contemporary secondary schools rather than college (Prator, 1963). While surprising, Shapiro (1988) reminds us that “by 1850, the average American college had an enrollment well under one hundred students, and scarcely 1% of White males aged 15 to 20 attended college. Moreover, the nation’s secondary school system had yet to be fully established” (p. 72). The imperative to develop students’ character was influenced not only by the fact that students were so young, but also by an educational philosophy distinctly different from that of today. This educational philosophy was informed by a belief that adolescent development required clear rules and swift punishment for breaking those rules. A student’s character, defined by high moral conduct and good manners, was formed through discipline (Brubacher & Rudy,

2008). The American college president, then, held dual roles: that of patriarch as well as chief executive (Prator, 1963).

In addition to the duties mentioned above, the college president also presided over commencements, ceremonial activities, and meetings. He arranged morning and evening prayers as well as Sunday worship, during which, in many cases, he was likely to lead the service himself. In addition, the college president was expected to visit and observe the classes of other instructors and, in some cases, he was required to conduct the faculty meetings (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008). Finally, the president was required to attend to the general superintendence and to promote the interests and reputation of the college. Often the president was highly regarded by the community for his public speaking skills, a circumstance, which Prator (1963) contends, “is not surprising in view of the fact that the early colleges were looked upon as an arm of the church” (p.7). Due to the size of the colonial institutions, there was an expectation for the president to not only oversee, but also be a direct participant in most phases of the college’s activities (Prator, 1963). In the contemporary world, a college president’s inability to be directly involved in campus activities is a result of the great growth of enrollments, expansion of curricula, and the growth of the academic enterprise (Duryea, 1991; Prator, 1963).

Growth and Expansion of Higher Education

According to Prator (1963), the number of presidents expanded from the period beginning with the Revolutionary War through the early nineteenth century. In 1780 there were nine colleges in the United States. By 1861, the year of the outbreak of the Civil War,

this number had expanded to a total of 182 colleges (Ferrari, 1970; Prator, 1963). As a result, new institutions were created with the added complexity of research and public service to the traditional teaching mission (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005). The climate of America including the promotion of nationalism and a more critical consideration of the value “gentlemen-scholars” would have in the creation of cities, forced reform to the traditional, classical college curriculum (Ferrari, 1970).

The federal government played a key role in the expansion of higher education in the United States. The Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890² led to the founding and development of coeducational institutions, professional and graduate programs, and research initiatives. Each of these developments was a result of the influences of the German university model on the American higher education system, leading to the establishment of Johns Hopkins University, the University of Chicago, and many other institutions across the nation (Ferrari, 1970). In addition to the establishment of new institutions of higher education, there were also changes to the academic disciplines within the academy. These changes were felt across the academy, expressing themselves in the following ways:

- A move in curriculum focus from religious to secular interests,
- A shift from a simple to a more complex form of academic organization,
- A change from a classical curriculum to a vocational-utilitarian curriculum,
- A shift from a philosophy of education for the few to education for the many,

² The Morrill Act of 1862, was passed by President Lincoln, provided every state with 30,000 acres of land which provided each state with a foundation for ensuring access to higher education to all, especially the “sons of farmers” (Loss, 2012). The Morrill Act of 1890 established Historically Black Colleges and Universities. Both acts altered the face of higher education in the United States.

- An expansion of vision from simple literary societies to more diverse extracurricular activities (Ferrari, 1970).

This growth led to a great deal of changes.

Changes in the Role of the College Presidency

As the focus of higher education shifted, so the position of the presidency also shifted. Citing Rudolph, Ferrari (1970) states that the breadth of professions from which college presidents were chosen widened after the Civil War. As I stated earlier, this change was primarily a result of a shift in US colleges' academic focus from a classical and religious curriculum to a more secular, practical. Thus, the imperative that a clergymen lead institutions of higher education came to an end. According to Ferrari (1970):

Larger enrollments, standardization of practices, diversification of functions, and the effects of the theory of evolution and the elective system again altered the course of higher education. Along with these changes, the colleges and universities required a new kind of executive officer; one who understood the new methods of financing and the importance of new areas of administration. (p. 11)

In the 1900s, there was increased emphasis on establishing foundations that sought the backing of alumni and benefactors to increase financial support for the institution. In turn, many benefactors found their way onto college boards of trustees, bringing their skills and knowledge with them; board members from the business community advocated the use of models and techniques that worked so well for them in their roles as business leaders. Ultimately, however, the adoption of business models and techniques often alienated

professional faculty who expected a certain level of autonomy in teaching as well as job security (Ferrari, 1970; Metzger, 1965). New management concepts, instituted by Frederick Taylor and adopted by other institutions of higher education, led to a redefinition of the presidency in what Cowley (1980) identified as four broad areas of responsibilities: (a) superintendence, (b) facilitation, (c) development, and (d) leadership in policy making.

Superintendence.

The college president's task of superintendence is far more difficult and complex in comparison to his peers outside of education. There are two features of higher education that make this task distinct: (a) education itself defies measurement and (b) faculty who traditionally operate with little regulation (Cowley, 1980). College presidents must rely on negotiation and persuasion instead of commands if they are to perform their job effectively. This style of management is vastly different from the corporate world. As the role of presidency continued to evolve, a college president was increasingly called upon to mediate between various groups, including students, faculty, administrators, and the public, each of whom justifiably competed for dominance and influence. As a result, the president became responsible for meeting the needs and objectives of faculty, students, and the external stakeholders of education and scholarship (Ferrari, 1970; Shapiro, 1988).

Facilitation and Development.

Facilitation, the second area of responsibility, entails dealing with the daily operations of the college and, if they are fortunate, presidents will have the appropriate personnel available to handle these routines. The third broad area of presidential responsibility is

development. The developmental function includes more than just raising funds, it is utilizing his vantage point of the institution as a whole as well as his knowledge of social and educational trends to develop the institution as a whole (Cowley, 1980).

Leadership in Policymaking.

Leadership in policymaking, the final broad area of responsibility discussed by Cowley (1980), entails the right of the president to lead legislative bodies within the university in the proposal of policies designed to move the institution forward. An example of this policy might be the establishment of a new school, college, or program to meet the workforce and service needs of the community the college or university serves.

In addition to the broad range of responsibilities previously cited, the president is also charged with representing and promoting external interests to the university community as well as university interests to the board (Shapiro, 1998). It is necessary, according to Shapiro (1988) “for the American university president to champion the interests and aspirations of the academic community to the broader society and to play a role in ensuring that the academic community is in touch with society’s interests and needs” (p. 67). Likewise, the president is expected to promote the institution’s character, direction, values, and goals to both internal and external constituencies while resolving any conflicting demands (Shapiro, 1988). The president must ensure governing boards view the education and research programs of the university and the internal intellectual culture necessary to support these activities (Shapiro, 1998). Lastly, the president is also tasked with providing the appropriate leadership to ensure that both supporters and members of the academic community continue to understand and

value the social product of the university as well as stay committed to the conditions necessary to ensure its existence (Shapiro, 1988).

Compared to the nineteenth-century American college or university, contemporary higher education increased in size, scope and responsibility. Examples of these increases were found in the development and expansion of the following new curriculum and programs: engineering, science, social science, and the humanities; greater commitment to graduate programs; organizing faculty and curriculum into colleges or schools; and a new focus on critical thinking (Shapiro, 1988). Thus, over the past 100 years, the governance of American colleges and universities has evolved from a trustees-plus-president based authority to a more shared governance structure that includes faculty, government (federal and state), and students (Shapiro, 1988).

A second distinction between the past and the contemporary college president is the time spent teaching and interacting with undergraduate students (Shapiro, 1988). Presidents were responsible for weekly and sometimes daily religious services, including the delivery of a sermon (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008; Prator, 1963; Shapiro, 1988). Contemporary presidents do not have the same level of daily interaction or responsibility to students. As such, the president is distant from the student. A third distinction between the past and the contemporary college president is the manner in which the business of the college was managed and administered. In the past, daily communication was carried out by letter and much of the college's business, including purchasing classroom supplies and furniture, was carried out directly by the president. The president had a direct role in hiring of individual faculty members, including direct receipt of applications, conducting interviews, and selecting or rejecting potential

candidates. Finally, the president was also responsible for making curricula decisions (Shapiro, 1988). The contemporary president's role in the operational tasks of the university has been minimized since administrative units or departments such as Purchasing, Human Resources and Academic Affairs now handle much of the above responsibilities.

The responsibilities of the president and constituencies that the college or university must now deal with also has changed considerably. An example of this change is the relationship with the federal and state government as well as his interactions with both external and internal constituencies. Presidents must remain abreast of alumni concerns as well as developments in Washington or a state capital that impact his institution. This has made it necessary to communicate with legislators and lobbyists in order to ensure the needs of the institution are heard. Thus he must stay informed of issues from public policy to student discipline, and from faculty appointments to curriculum reform, in order to secure the broadest acceptance of the institution's needs. Lastly, the president must be involved in a broad spectrum of decisions that include decisions on parking garages, patent and licensing policies, healthcare and pension plans for employees, childcare facilities, and many other legitimate university concerns that impact faculty, staff and students (Shapiro, 1988). A perfect summary of the president's modern role might be written thus: "the president is commonly identified as the chief executive and administrative officer of the board as well as the chief academic officer of the faculty, and they delegate to the president all powers necessary to perform these functions" (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005, p. 342).

Structure and Governance of Higher Education in America

In the American colonies, during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, college educated males, who were also wealthy, were in short supply (Duryea, 1991). Educated men without means, as a group, could not maintain themselves as an independent guild of scholars in the same manner that the Europeans did in the Old World (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008). As a result, the control of colleges was given to boards of laymen who were chosen from occupations outside the professoriate. The composition of clergyman on these lay boards of control in early American colleges emerged as a result of sponsorship by religious denominations (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008; Fisher & Koch, 1996; Prator, 1963).

In the latter part of the 19th century, American university leaders transformed higher education by combining business-driven models of organization and leadership with the European university models. More specifically, new American institutions were created by superimposing business management practices, the English undergraduate college structure, over the German model of graduate education. This was exemplified by the founding of Johns Hopkins University in 1876 (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008; Ferrari, 1970; Prator, 1963). Although the German graduate education model was characterized by a weak university head, the importation of this model did not weaken the authority of the American college president. It is for this reason that there was virtually no distinction between the role and authority of college and university presidents in America (Prator, 1963). Whereas the role of the president was not a carryover from Europe, the lay boards of control, which were adopted from previous European systems, remained the same.

While working largely outside of the college, board members relied on the president to assume executive responsibilities since he resided on campus and remained personally in touch with the institution's daily activities (Brubacher & Rudy, 2008; Prator, 1963). As a result, the board's authority was anchored to the president's office. This delegation of authority meant that the power, influence, and capacity for more effective leadership were significantly greater for the American college president in comparison to his European counterparts (Shapiro, 1998; Prator, 1963). This difference in power derived from "historical traditions and institutional arrangements that invest the American university presidency with considerably greater authority over both the allocation of resources and the making of senior appointments" (Shapiro, 1998, p. 66) which, in turn, afforded the American college president a greater opportunity to shape the vision and mission of the institution.

As in Europe, US colleges were not originally created to be a part of government but, like government, were established to serve a public good. The authority, then, to manage the affairs of higher education in America was delegated to a nonacademic governing body composed of private citizens. This created a unique relationship between higher education and government in the US; the distinction between the two entities lies in the fact that although colleges receive public funds, the activities of higher education are separate from, but accountable to, government (Duryea, 2000).

Yale College has the distinction of being the first American institution to establish a lay board whose members were given "final control of the affairs of the institution" (Duryea, 1991, p. 5). As public colleges began to be established in the 19th century, the practice of delegating power to boards continued. In addition, the types of activities the boards oversaw became

more diverse and defined; boards now had the authority to enter into contracts, oversee finances, and control personnel matters relating to the faculty, staff, and students (Duryea, 1991).

Boards of trustees were increasingly composed of businessmen who embraced the developing concepts of scientific management developed by Frederick Taylor in 1912.

Taylor's scientific view of management included the following:

The management of initiative and incentive, in which those on the management's side deliberately give a very large incentive to their workmen, and in return the workmen respond by working to the very best of their ability at all times in the interest of their employers. (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005, p. 30)

Viewing the college as comparable to business firms, board members considered faculty as employees hired to do as they were told and presidents appointed to increase enrollment, grow capital, and enhance the reputation of the institution, while also controlling costs (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005).

The American college presidency, which first emerged as the top college leadership position in 1640, has undergone a series of changes in the past 376 years, as have academic institutions generally, especially since the Civil War. While many of the qualifications of the role have remained consistent over time (e.g., the abilities to raise money and oversee the administrative functions), other qualifications have changed dramatically (e.g., no longer needs to be a member of the clergy or act as *in loco parentis*). Nonetheless, the role of college president has grown more complex as presidents must stay abreast of Federal and State legislation, act as a mediator between internal and external stakeholders, promote the interests

of the university, and remain constantly up to date on ‘business of the institution’ which are now operating under large budgets. Presidential compensation seems to reflect the complexity of the position.

Complexity and Challenges of the Role of the Presidency Today

Today’s college presidency is a complex role in which the incumbent is expected to serve multiple roles simultaneously (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005). Faced with pressure to raise large sums of money, do more with less during a time of dwindling state resources, and deal with increased competition from for-profit institutions, today’s higher education president must serve as juggler-in-chief (Martin & Samels, 2004). The president fulfills multiple, and sometimes conflicting roles, including:

- Leading administrator of large complex bureaucracies,
- Foremost leader of a professional and academic community,
- Symbolic elder in a campus culture of shared values and symbols, and
- Public official accountable to a public board who is also responsive to the demands of state and federal governmental agencies (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005).

The job of the president is more difficult and time consuming today than ever before.

The multiple, sometimes competing, responsibilities of the college presidency, along with the pressures imposed from those within and outside of the institution, make finding a person capable of accepting and fulfilling this position exceedingly difficult (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005).

Within their institutions, college presidents report that they spend their time planning, budgeting, making personnel decisions, addressing academic issues, and dealing with students. Outside, they find themselves raising funds, building and managing board relations, working with community groups, representing the institution to external constituents, and meeting with policymakers. Presidential tasks can be seen as comprising of the following: (a) administrator, (b) politician, and (c) entrepreneur (Cole, 2009). An administrator carries out the policies of trustees, supervises subordinates, allocates resources, establishes systems of accountability, and performs functions similar to those found in other complex organizations. The politician is responsive to the needs of various constituencies whose support is critical to the maintenance of his or her position. Lastly, the entrepreneur is expected to develop and exploit markets that offer necessary resources for the institution to operate and grow. “The pace, intensity, and comprehensiveness of the presidency are in many ways comparable to those of managers and executives in other settings. But there is a fundamental difference” (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005, p. 344). In a business context, the president or CEO is solely accountable to the board of directors. In higher education, the president functions between two layers of organizational operations, the trustees and the faculty, and is accountable to both.

On a college campus the exercise of authority in governance is not solely an administrative prerogative but rather a shared responsibility and joint effort that properly involves all important campus constituencies, with particular emphasis given to the participation of the faculty. (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005, p. 344)

Institutions Grow in Size and Complexity

Universities have become large organizations with a substantial division of labor and responsibilities. The sheer number of people who work at them has increased at such a rate that organizing the efforts of all of these groups to fulfill the missions of the university has become an enormous enterprise (Cole, 2009). Many of the large research universities are among the top employers in their communities, and their business has a profound economic impact on these communities. Along with physical growth has come growth in the types of revenues universities receive from various sources, a rising endowment, and increased fundraising activities (Cole, 2009). University investment portfolios have become more diverse and managing these portfolios has become more complex. Campuses have grown in size and in the number of buildings and other facilities, including classroom labs, athletic centers and fields, dorms, student services offices, health centers, parking facilities, and so on, all of which are essential to maintaining quality (Cole, 2009).

Many universities have become quite technical and far removed from the main interests of the typical faculty member, scholars, scientists, and students to pay them much mind (Cole, 2009). Few people inside the universities today have a comprehensive idea of how they actually run. They want things to run smoothly, and they don't hesitate to let leaders know when they are not, they have only a limited idea about how the business operates. In fact, research universities have become big and highly complex organizations, even though they are still based on a set of values that separate them from profit-making corporations (Cole, 2009).

Limitations on the College Presidency

Forces within the academy, specifically the influence of faculty and alumni, limit the autonomy of the presidency. In addition to those limitations, Birnbaum and Eckel (2005) identify and explain how outside forces, in particular federal and state government oversight, exert influence over educational matters that were previously internal institutional prerogatives. “The loss of effective presidential authority, related internally to changes in organizational complexity and patterns of influence and externally to increased environmental constraints, helped to transform the role from a difficult job to an impossible one” (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005, p. 342). Adding to the complexity of the college presidency is the lack of a clear definition of the presidency and a description of performance expectations of its incumbents. Finally, in terms of job security, there is none; typically, presidents serve “at the pleasure” of a lay board of trustees as opposed to having a stated term in office (Birnbaum & Eckel, 2005).

Demographics of College Presidents and Succession Challenges

The American Council on Education and the College (ACE) and University Professional Association for Human Resources (CUPA-HR) released a study that compared American college presidencies over a twenty-year period (King & Gomez, 2008). In this study, ACE and CUPA-HR asked more than 4,300 institutions to complete their survey. Eight hundred fifty-two institutions responded with information on 9,700 individuals in senior level positions. The response rate varied by Carnegie institution with 48 percent of respondents being from doctoral degree granting institutions, 34 percent from master’s degree institutions,

28 percent from baccalaureate degree granting institutions, and 14 percent from Associate degree granting institutions (King & Gomez, 2008).

A summary of King and Gomez's (2008) includes the following findings:

- Presidents age 50 or below represented 41.6 percent of American college presidents in 1986 but only 8.1 percent in 2006 (representing an 81% decrease),
- Presidents in the age range of 51-60 represented 44.4 % in 1986 and 42.6 % in 2006 (representing a 4% increase), and
- Presidents age 61 or older represented 13.9 % of college presidents in 1986 but this number rose to 49.3% in 2006 (representing a 254% increase)
- In 2006, the average age of a college president was 60 years and almost half of the presidents were within retirement range (King & Gomez, 2008).

This data, according to King and Gomez (2008), reinforces the finding “that higher education is likely to experience a major change in presidential leadership during the next decade due to retirements” (p. iii). I believe it is likely this change will come in the form of younger presidents with school-age children.

Survey data from ACE and CUPA-HR also reported on the age of incumbents in senior level positions that traditionally lead to the presidency. The age groups represented in this study are below 50, 51-60, and 61 and above. The senior level positions covered in the study are Chiefs of staff, Executive vice presidents, Chief Academic Officers, Central senior academic affairs officers (e.g., associate provost, dean of graduate studies), Deans of academic colleges, Senior administrative officers (e.g., chief financial officer, chief human resources officer, general counsel), Senior external affairs officers (e.g., chief development officer, chief

government relations officer), Chief student affairs or enrollment management officers and Chief diversity officers (King & Gomez, 2008). According to the study, senior administrators surveyed were on average seven years younger than presidents. In addition, only 19 percent of senior administrators were 61 years or older while 49 percent of college presidents surveyed were age 61 or older (this represented the largest group). However, 47 percent (the largest group) of senior administrators were age 51 to 60, compared with 43 percent of presidents in this age range. While 34 percent of senior administrators were age 50 or younger, compared to 8 percent of presidents in this age range (King & Gomez, 2008). Approximately 44 percent of the incumbents in senior administrative positions with titles such as senior external affairs officers, chief student affairs and enrollment management officers, and chief diversity officers were age 50 or younger. The oldest leaders were in the executive vice president and chief academic officer positions. Twenty-nine percent of chief academic officers were aged 61 or older, suggesting that a significant segment of CAOs may opt to retire or return to a faculty position rather than seek a presidency (King & Gomez, 2008). This supports my position that we may see a trend towards demographics consistent with 1986 when presidents were younger.

Although vital to successful transition from one college president to another, succession planning has not been practiced in higher education (Stripling, 2011). Since university faculty and students are usually accustomed to providing input in the selection of their leaders, presidents-in-waiting may be viewed with suspicion and even resented. Traditionally, at elite research institutions, presidents are chosen from the rank of individuals who hold a provost position at a more prestigious institution or are sitting presidents with a proven track record (Stripling, 2011). However, findings from the ACE and CUPA- HR revealed that one-third of

chief academic officers did not want to become presidents (King and Gomez, 2008; Stripling, 2011). This further asserts my contention that we may see younger presidents in the years to come. Among the reasons chief academic affairs officers cited for not pursuing the presidency were lack of enthusiasm about the job of a modern college president and concern about the lifestyle of someone in such a high-profile position. This concern about the life or lifestyle of the presidency leads me to a brief discussion of institutional expectations.

Greedy Institutions

Coser (1974) coined the term “greedy institutions” to refer to organizations that place high demands on employees. Greedy institutions “seek exclusive and undivided loyalty, and they attempt to reduce the claims of competing roles and status positions on those they wish to encompass within their boundaries” (p. 4). The term greedy institution may also be used to describe the characteristics of many of society’s institutions such as the church, the armed forces, and the family (Burchielli, Bartram, & Thanacoody, 2008; Coser, 1974). Coser (1974) notes that certain institutions make “total claims on their members time” and “seek exclusive and undivided loyalty” (p. 4). While Coser did not mention academic institutions, the demands placed on a college president’s time and focus may be seen as greedy due to the lack of desire on the part of Chief Academic Officers to pursue promotion to that position. Even institutions that allow significant autonomy in the ways in which roles are performed may be greedy in the amount of time required for successful role performance (Wright et al. 2004).

Given the broad and complex role and responsibilities of the college president, we now have an understanding of the challenges that come with this position. The demographics of the

presidency show that the population is aging and succession planning has become a major concern with retirements of almost half of those serving as presidents looming. The lack of interest from those who would succeed the president due to concerns about the nature of expectation by an institutional structure of greediness is alarming. The potential for younger males with children under 18 who may advance to the position of college president leads me to the discussion of difficulty of balancing work and life.

Overview of Work-Life Balance

In this section, I provide a brief overview of work-life balance. The scholarly literature makes a distinction between work-life and work-family balance. Although I provide a definition of each, I acknowledge that the concepts are not distinct from one another. As I have noted above, the role of the contemporary college president is complex and makes the prospect of moving into such a position quite daunting for potential candidates at various levels of the administrative promotional ladder. I have found the literature on how male college presidents interact with their families to be severely lacking. As such, I reviewed the current literature on work-life balance of managers and executives as these professionals face many of the same challenges as college presidents. Most of the current literature focuses on females but some studies on males are highlighted. This review of the literature will help me to identify gaps in the literature on males and male college presidents while also providing a framework for the interview protocol.

Work-Life Balance Defined

According to the United States Census Bureau (2013), there are approximately 65 million American parents with children under the age of 18. Approximately 45 million of those families are married with the spouse present (U.S. Census Bureau, 2013). Increases in globalization, technological advances, productivity, and cost control have led to greater consolidation and specialization of the American workforce (Fredriksen-Goldsen & Scharlach, 2001). As stated earlier, advances in technology have also eroded the boundaries between work and life. Fredriksen-Goldsen and Scharlach (2001) explain:

As workers are linked from home to work by e-mails, cell phones, and beepers, there are more opportunities and fewer boundaries between work and family, with all of life's domains becoming permeable. Never before has the worker had so many options for flexibility and autonomy or been so easily accessible, with potential on-call availability 24 hours a day. The increasing demands, as well as the opportunities, resulting from the growing technological advances must be considered in the work-family equation. (p. 11)

As working hours steadily increase, dual-earner families are finding it difficult to pursue activities independent of work that improve their quality of life (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). This interference between time spent at work and time spent at home presents a conflict between the two spheres and has serious implications on career attainment and the nurturing of children (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Work-life balance is a topic that has permeated the lives of individuals and families to the point that is now a topic in popular media and culture. Internet searches yield results on the

topic in both the academic and popular realms. Jeff Davidson, who has written about and presented on work-life balance, suggests that there are six components of work-life balance including:

- Self-management (defined as the realization of one's self care, including sleep, exercise, and nutrition),
- Time management (defined as making optimal use of available resources and time to accomplish any daily tasks and challenges),
- Stress management (defined as the ability to work oneself out of pressure filled situations),
- Change management (defined as the acknowledgment that change is constant and one has to adapt to new methods while re-adapting old methods to new situations to ensure success),
- Technology management (defined as using technology as a resource rather than being a slave to it), and
- Leisure management (defined as understanding the importance of rest and relaxation) (Davidson, 2013).

Several robust definitions of work life balance appear in the literature (Greenhaus & Buetell, 1985; Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003; Voydanoff, 2005), each of which proposes that there is an interrelation between the work and life domains and thus imbalance occurs when the domains are in conflict with one another. Work-family balance is generally thought to promote well-being. Balanced individuals experience low levels of stress when enacting roles, presumably because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them. A

balanced involvement in work and family roles may also reduce chronic work–family conflict (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Greenhaus and Buetell (1985) define work-family conflict as “a form of interrole conflict in which pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). Accompanying this definition are three forms of work-family conflict:

- Time-based conflict (time spent on roles in one domain is time lost on activities in the other domain),
- Strain-based conflict (demands associated with one domain makes it difficult to comply with the demands of the other domain), and
- Behavior-based conflict (behavior in a role in one domain may be incompatible with the expectations of behavior in the other domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Greenhaus et al. (2003) define work–family balance as “the extent to which an individual is equally engaged in -and equally satisfied with- his or her work role and family role” (p. 513). They offer three measurable components of work–family balance:

- Time balance (an equal amount of time is devoted to work and family roles),
- Involvement balance (an equal level of psychological involvement in work and family roles), and
- Satisfaction balance (equal level of satisfaction with work and family roles)

(Greenhaus et al., 2003).

An individual who gives substantially more precedence to one role than the other is relatively imbalanced, even if the distribution of commitment to family and work is highly consistent with what the individual wants or values (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Voydanoff (2005) also studies work-life balance but situates it on a fit-conflict continuum; work-family fit is a form of inter-role congruence in which family resources are adequate to meet the demands of the work role and work resources are sufficient to satisfy family demands. Work-family conflict, on the other hand, is a “form of inter-role conflict in which the demands of work and family roles are incompatible in some respect so that the participation in one role is more difficult because of participation in the other role” (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 827). In order to participate in either role, individuals must rely on boundary spanning resources and demands in either domain. “Boundary-spanning resources increase work-family fit and balance through interrelated processes that enhance workers’ perceived control over managing the work-family boundary and legitimize the use of work-family policies” (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 830). Support policies can be used to increase the fit between the two domains by reducing his obligations in one domain in order to enhance his performance in the other domain (Voydanoff, 2005).

Boundary-spanning demands involve the trade-offs one encounters when transitioning between the work and home domain (Voydanoff 2005). The trade-offs generally range from segmentation to integration. At the segmentation end, work and family domains are separate, boundaries are impermeable, and there is little role blurring (Voydanoff, 2005). The time spent commuting to work, for example, increases the physical and psychological distance between the workplace and the home. At the integration end of the range, work and family activities intersect, boundaries are permeable, and role blurring is high (Voydanoff, 2005). For example, while working at home decreases the psychological distance between domains, interruptions limit the capacity of the employee to manage the boundary between work and home.

The Nature of Work Today.

Work-life balance, in this study, focuses on the right balance between home and work. Lewis, Gambles, and Rapoport (2007) investigated the nature of work-life balance and found that the all-encompassing nature of contemporary work clearly impacts this balance for white-collar workers and affluent professionals. According to these authors, this imbalance in the experience of work and life outside of work, although positioned as gender neutral, is largely interpreted as a woman's issue (Lewis, et al., 2007) in the seven countries identified in their study (India, Japan, South Africa, the US, the Netherlands, Norway, and the United Kingdom). Lewis et al. (2007) concluded that the issues of work and family are more relevant to mothers than fathers as issues of work-life balance are largely issues of household responsibilities that are still largely considered the woman's domain. Therefore, the discourse of work-life balance tends to devolve into the following two issues:

- Women's need for flexibility in terms of work responsibilities and scheduling; and
- Men's need to work outside the home, thus supporting and perpetuating his breadwinner status.

According to Pocock (2005), work-life balance pressures impact employees who want a personal life and whose partners are less excited about their jobs than they are. These employees often have children as well as aging parents, and their partners expect a measure of fairness and domestic effort in the home, especially when they have their own jobs. Workers who are satisfied with their work-life balance are likely to be happier social citizens, parents, caregivers, and more productive workers (Pocock, 2005). They may work longer and more productively over their lives, making a greater public contribution, and their health, along with

the health of their dependents and partners, may be better, thus reducing public health expenditure and generally increasing social well being. On the other hand, poor work–life balance may result in negative physical and mental health effects, poorer outcomes for dependents and other household members, a lesser work contribution, and a diminution of social citizenship and community participation (Pocock, 2005).

Work-life balance is not only an issue in the United States; it has also impacted families in other developed countries around the world. For example, managers in the United Kingdom (UK) have the longest working hours in Europe due to organizational downsizing and delayering, both of which have increased workload on those who remain employed in the organization (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). As a result of their increased workload, some individuals have opted to exchange high paying, high status jobs for lower paying jobs that allow them to balance work-life commitments and tend to their own health and well-being (Worrall & Cooper, 1999). In their study of management culture in the UK, Worrall and Cooper (1999) found that 78% of managers worked more than 40 hours per week while senior managers worked even longer hours than middle managers. The result is managers believe managing the balance between work and home is problematic for themselves and others yet they do not see a realistic alternative, despite the impact such long work hours have on their health, morale, productivity, and relationships with their families. Interestingly, Worrall and Cooper made no distinction between genders in their study and thus perceived the issue of work-life balance to be gender neutral.

In an effort to explore statistical support for the increase in work pressure during late twentieth-century Great Britain, Green (2001) found the average hours worked leveled off at

the start of the 1980s, following a long historic fall, but have not increased since. However, the distribution of hours has increased, and working hours have been concentrated into fewer households (Green, 2001). Although the average hours of work have decreased, work effort has been intensified since 1981. Intensification was greatest in manufacturing during the 1980s and in the public sector during the 1990s. Green (2001) states increased pressure for hard work came from colleagues and it appears the time periods between 1986 and 1992 and again between 1992 and 1997.

Blurring the Lines Between Work and Home.

Another reason for stress in the modern workplace: the traditional bright lines between work and home, established during the Industrial Revolution, have eroded almost beyond recognition. Clark (2000) refers to this lack of separation between domains as integration, further clarifying that if the borders between domains are permeable, flexible, and blended, then they are weak. One of the reasons for the current environment of weak borders is what Gatrell and Cooper (2008) term “continual disembodiment link” which implies the expectation that one (especially in a managerial position) is always connected to work even when not physically present.

In today’s technologically advanced world, with the broad availability of Wi-Fi, this means one is constantly connected to the workplace via smart phones, mobile computers, and even in car-enabled email and texting functions. As a result, flexibility in the workplace today implies availability above and beyond the physical contracted workspace and a 40-hour workweek. This constant availability may also be viewed as greedy since an employee never actually leaves the workplace. As we see here, home and work compete with one another and

challenges the individual's loyalty. This is especially true for the college president who remains "at work" even when he is home with his family or enjoying social time with friends (Penny-Jenkins, Repetti, & Crouter, 2000).

The challenges facing working mothers and fathers, often defined as work-life balance issues, are similar but not exactly the same; one major area of difference includes availability of flexible work schedules as well as differences in society's perceptions of those who work flexible schedules to accommodate family responsibilities. Gatrell and Cooper (2008) note even the term "flexibility" has different meanings to women versus men. For women, flexibility is the ability to alter work activities and hours to accommodate roles and activities associated with being mother at home. For men, flexibility means working atypical work hours for little or no extra pay. Thus, for women, the notion of flexibility equates to reducing her career status while for men it is associated with intensifying his workload (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008). Not surprisingly, work intensification has a negative impact on families and individuals.

One study by Probert, Ewer, and Whiting (2000) illustrates the work-life issues in two workforces in Australia in the teaching and finance areas. Three kinds of problems emerged for employees within these sectors:

- Flexible coverage was provided but use of this provision was still inconsistent.
- Flexible coverage was perceived as an entitlement, resulting in a stigma becoming attached to this option by managers and unhelpful co-workers.
- Flexible working provisions did not prove sustainable in balancing work and family needs.

Work restructuring and increased workloads exacerbates each of these problems (Probert, Ewer, & Whiting, 2000).

For teachers in this study, changes in the nature and quality of work they are required to do have tipped the work-life balance scale towards work (Probert et al., 2000). These increases arise from greater requirements for reporting and accountability, changes in curriculum, and demands for behavior management. These challenges are difficult to manage due to lack of resources. Contrary to their reality, 56% of men indicated reduced workloads were more important in achieving a better balance between work and family (Probert, et al., 2000).

For parents working in managerial and professional positions, working long hours has a negative impact on relationships with partners and children. In addition, long working hours have been shown to trigger stress-related illness and stress-inducing unhealthy behaviors such as a poor diet, lack of exercise, smoking, alcohol abuse, irritability, and insomnia. Workplace stress also contributes to long-term absence, drug abuse, and mental illness (Gatrell & Cooper, 2008). Seeking greater balance between work and home, professionals working at the upper levels of organizations have no better luck in achieving this balance. In the finance sector, the increasingly competitive environment creates an expectation that one will work long hours from managers who are constrained by heavy business pressures (Probert, et al., 2000). Management is seen as being unsupportive of family and life-family working provisions. The notion of normal working hours has deteriorated as employees work more hours but do not get compensated for the extra work.

Burnett et al. (2010) conducted a study on the work-life condition of fathers who work in senior levels within their organizations as they transition from traditional economic

providers who go out to work to fathers who seek a more flexible approach to working in order to achieve balance at home. These two dynamics are at odds with one another but highlight the conventional desire of the employer to see fathers continue to work their traditionally long hours as opposed to investing more time in their children during their formative years (Burnett et al., 2010). The authors note that men in these roles are underrepresented in the current body of work-life research (Burnett et al., 2010).

Frustration with the obstacles that prevent working fathers from spending time with their children is a common theme in the scholarly literature related to contemporary fatherhood. Gatrell (2007) found that men sought to develop meaningful relationships with their children from an early age but many of these men reported feeling frustrated when conditions prevented them from cultivating this relationship; almost half of the men in this study reported making compromises in order to be more influential in their child's lives (Gatrell, 2007). These actions show willingness on the father's part to take on a role that has traditionally been reserved for mothers. Men reported a desire to be close to their children and an unwillingness to advance their career at the expense of their relationship with their children. These findings show men are more concerned with caring for children and are willing to sacrifice their breadwinning status in order to have the flexibility that will allow them to share the responsibility of child rearing (Gatrell, 2007).

Beyond the traditional expectations of men as breadwinners, one reason a parent may prefer work, as Shellenbarger (1996) posits, is work may simply be more rewarding for some people than family life. In an interview, sociologist Arlie Hochschild stated that people receive companionship and support from co-workers, which along with the obvious financial rewards

of working can be far more appealing than family life which, given rising divorce rates and complicated family structures, requires hard emotional work. In a cultural shift, she says, "work has become a form of home and home has become a form of work" (Shellenbarger, 1996).

Policies that Support Work-Life Balance.

Burnett et al. (2010) studied the impact of work-life balance policies on the work and family practices of professional, "white-collar", dual-earner heterosexual couples with dependent children who are attempting to manage work-life balance within intact adult relationships. The authors sought to explore the extent to which work-life balance policies better enabled working parents to manage their commitments to work and home domains (specifically employers and children). In addition, they investigated the degree to which the responses to work-life balance policies were gendered.

Burnett et al. (2010) found that work-life balance policies have not led to well-balanced, or gender-neutral, work and family practices for two reasons:

- Work-life balance policies are gendered, failing to acknowledge social change around the father's parental role; and
- Work-life balance policies focus mainly on the issues of paid work and childcare, failing to acknowledge domestic labor, the main burden of which continues to be carried by mothers.

Thus, deeply ingrained social assumptions about the gendered division of labor within heterosexual couples limit the impact of work-life balance policies on work-family practices (Burnett et al., 2010).

While gender-neutral work-life balance policies may be ideal in theory, in practice, they fail to acknowledge that childcare is often gender specific and mothers most frequently take responsibility for it (Burnett et al., 2010). Thus many “gender-neutral” work-life balance policies fail to acknowledge the extent to which domestic housework is also gendered and resides within the realm of mothers (Burnett et al., 2010). In addition, the idea of a gender-neutral policy fails to acknowledge that flexible working opportunities are typically accessed only by women and are therefore irrelevant for men. So, while the intent of work-life balance policies has been to enable dual-earner parents to manage their commitments to employers and children, they have not resulted in a generation of well-balanced families, but rather a climate in which ad hoc flexible working practices are employed where available and more often than not by the mother for the purpose of maintaining the family and even the father’s career (Burnett et al., 2010).

Positive and Negative Balance.

Each component of work–family balance can represent positive balance or negative balance depending on whether the levels of time, involvement, or satisfaction are equally high or equally low (Greenhaus et al., 2003). An individual who gives substantially more precedence to one role than the other is relatively imbalanced even if the distribution of commitment to family and work is highly consistent with what the individual wants or values (Greenhaus et al., 2003). Work–family balance is generally thought to promote wellbeing.

Balanced individuals experience low levels of stress when enacting roles, presumably because they are participating in role activities that are salient to them. A balanced involvement in work and family roles may also reduce chronic work–family conflict (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

The preceding beneficial effects of balance are based on the assumption of positive balance. Several hypotheses were tested which sought to gauge the impact of the interaction of the three components, time, involvement, or satisfaction, on the quality of life. Greenhaus et al. (2003) suggested that an equally high investment of time and involvement in work and family would reduce work–family conflict and stress thereby enhancing an individual’s quality of life. Greenhaus et al. (2003) believe that positive balance has a more substantial positive impact on quality of life than negative balance. When individuals invest substantial time or involvement in their combined roles, there is more time or involvement to distribute between work and family. In this situation, imbalance can reflect sizeable differences between work time and family time or between work involvement and family involvement, and therefore produce extensive work–family conflict and stress that detracts from quality of life. However, the authors expected little or no benefit of balance when individuals invest limited time or involvement in their combined roles (Greenhaus et al., 2003). In this situation, because there is so little time or involvement to distribute, imbalance reflects small differences between work time and family time or between work involvement and family involvement, and arouses little or no work–family conflict and stress that detracts from the quality of one’s life (Greenhaus et al., 2003).

Greenhaus et al. (2003) surveyed one thousand Certified Public Accountants. Thirty-five percent, or 353, of the respondents were married or in a long-term relationship with at

least one child. This sample of respondents consisted of 232 men and 121 women whose average age was 35 years. The authors found that for individuals who invest little of their time or involvement in their combined work and family roles, or derive little satisfaction from their combined work and family roles, work-family balance is unrelated to quality of life (Greenhaus et al. 2003). They also found that individuals who invested substantially more time and involvement in family than work, experienced the least work-to-family conflict. This study confirmed the negative effect of work imbalance on quality of life and demonstrated that the deleterious effect is due to heightened levels of work-to-family stress (Greenhaus et al. 2003). Finally the authors found that family role was deficient because it did not include time spent with spouse and partner. Greenhaus et al. (2003) suggested that future studies should include other factors such as home chores, childcare responsibilities, time spent with spouse/partner, time spent with other family members, leisure activities, self-development, and community membership. I have included these recommendations in my interview protocol.

Kossek, Noe, & DeMarr (1999) surmise that employees need to make decisions on how to balance their roles in the work and family domains in an effort to support productivity in each realm. They provide a framework for understanding individual, family, and organizational influences on employee strategies to manage the demands of work and family roles and how these choices affect individual outcomes. They argue there are two main decision-making components to work-family role management: boundary management and embracement of multiple roles. The focus of Kossek, et al. (1999) was on the blending of the elder and childcare roles with the work role. Since a majority of employees will juggle these roles at some point during their careers, two suggestions with regards to the direction for future

research are pertinent to this study. First, Kossek, et al. (1999), suggest research is needed on how employees modify strategies for role synthesis over their careers, lifespan, organizational affiliation, nature and level of dependent caregiving demands, and family structure. A fundamental problem facing growing numbers of individuals is how to develop appropriate strategies to maintain a positive work identity, given their growing work and non-work demands. Second, Kossek et al. (1999) ask how people effectively cope with creating and maintaining the public persona they need in order to be effective at work and still uphold their family goals and values.

Flexibility.

Boundary-spanning resources address how work and family resources connect with one another in terms of border flexibility (Voydanoff, 2005). “Boundary-spanning resources increase work-family fit and balance through interrelated processes that enhance workers’ perceived control over managing the work-family boundary and legitimize the use of work-family policies.” (Voydanoff, 2005, p. 830) Examples of this are policies that enhance the flexibility of the temporal boundary that exists between work and family. Such policies assist with the coordination of work and family activities and responsibilities. Thus, according to Voydanoff (2005), boundary-spanning resources include a range of work-family policies and organizational and family support of work and family life that increase the fit between the two domains. Boundary-spanning resources within the family domain such as family-based work support encompasses dependent care and household work provided by spouses and other family members. This support enhances role performance of the border crosser across domains by reducing family work while the employee maintains a comparable level of participation in

work duties. Traditionally speaking, family-based support occurs when one spouse serves as the “breadwinner” while the other spouse limits work participation to engage more considerably in family activities. According to Voydanoff (2005), this support permits families to combine work and family life and assists family members by supporting their decisions and efforts in the home and work domains.

According to Voydanoff (2005), boundary-spanning demands involve trade-offs one encounters when crossing from the home domain to the work domain. The trade-offs generally range from segmentation to integration. At the segmentation end, work and family domains are separate, boundaries are impermeable, and there is little role blurring. Time spent commuting to work or traveling for work related activities increases the physical and psychological distance between the workplace and the home. This distance increases the division between work and family roles, thus increasing the difficulty one has transitioning between the work and home domains. Domain transitions, on the other hand, may also provide the necessary time to decompress from work or family related activities before entering the other domain (Voydanoff, 2005). At the integration end of the range, work and family activities intersect, boundaries are permeable, and role blurring is high (Voydanoff, 2005). Working at home and performing family activities at work may ease transitions across domains. On the other hand, working from home increases the opportunities for interruptions and distractions creating an inefficient work environment. In this instance, transitions between work and family domains that are highly integrated limit the capacity of the employee to manage the boundary between each domain.

Sources of Conflict.

Greenhaus and Buetell (1985) define work-family conflict as “a form of interrole conflict in which pressures from work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect” (p. 77). Investigated in this article were the three forms of work-family conflict: time-based conflict or the fact that time spent on roles in one domain is time lost on activities in the other domain; strain-based conflict or that the pressure created by the role of one domain makes it difficult to comply with the demands of the other domain; and behavior-based conflict or the principle that how one behaves in a role in one domain may be incompatible with the expectations of behavior in the other domain (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

Greenhaus and Beutell (1985) examine sources of conflict between the work role and the family role. They surmise that the sources of conflict between the work and family domains do not infer that the work domain and family domain cannot be mutually supportive. Nevertheless, the authors offer that the opportunities for interference between these domains needs to be examined and understood more thoroughly (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Moreover, despite the blurring of work and family activities in some situations, work and family roles still have distinct norms and requirements that may be incompatible with one another.

Family Role Commitment.

In a sample of 346 managers (233 men, 113 women), Graves, Ohlott, and Ruderman (2007), in a quantitative study, tested the impact family role commitment (i.e., marital role commitment, parental role commitment) had on life satisfaction, career satisfaction, and performance through family-to-work interference and enhancement. Graves et al. (2007)

examined the effects of commitment to family roles on managers' work-related attitudes and performance. In terms of family roles, 315 (91%) of these respondents were married or involved in a committed relationship. Sixty-four percent of participants had at least one child at home. The participants ranged in age from 28 to 69 years, with an average age of 42 years. They were well educated with 48% having received a graduate degree. Participants came from 314 different organizations throughout the United States, with no more than three participants from a single organization. They represented various levels of management, such as middle management (29.5%), upper middle management (44.4%), and executive (26.2%). On average, participants had 10.8 years of experience in their organizations and 4.3 years of experience in their jobs. Their average salary was \$123,346.

Graves et al. (2007) expected family role commitment to reduce the favorability of outcomes by increasing interference. To the contrary, they found that neither marital nor parental role commitment was associated with increased interference (Graves, Ohlott, & Ruderman, 2007). Graves et al. (2007) expected family role commitment to improve outcomes by increasing enhancement. As expected, marital role commitment was associated with increased enhancement, which, in turn, seemed to reduce strain and strengthen outcomes (Graves et al., 2007). Parental role commitment was also associated with increased enhancement. However, parental role commitment had direct positive effects on outcomes that were more substantial than its indirect effects through enhancement (Graves et al., 2007). Overall, marital and parental role commitment had more benefits than costs.

There was no evidence that family role commitment led to negative outcomes by increasing family-to-work interference (Graves et al., 2007). Neither marital nor parental role

commitment was associated with increased interference. The findings provide some support for the idea that family role commitment has positive effects on outcomes through family-to-work enhancement (Graves et al., 2007). Interference and enhancement seemed to lead to increases and decreases in strain, respectively. The effects of interference and enhancement on psychological strain appeared to have serious consequences for managers' attitudes and performance; strain had negative effects on all outcomes for the full sample and for married participants and on life and career satisfaction for parents. Findings also suggest that family role commitment affects outcomes directly and has direct effects on life satisfaction (Graves et al., 2007). In addition, parental role commitment had direct positive effects on parents' career satisfaction and performance suggesting that family role commitment would be beneficial at work (Graves et al., 2007). There was no evidence of the negative effects of family role commitment on outcomes through interference but there was some support for the idea that family role commitment increases enhancement and subsequently reduces psychological strain as well as improves outcomes (Graves et al., 2007).

Ashforth, Kreiner, and Fugate (2000) examined the psychological movement between roles or what they have termed role transitions. Role transitions are boundary-crossing activities characterized by disengagement from one role in order to engage with another. Boundaries "refer to the physical, temporal, emotional, and/or relational limits that define entities as separate from one another" (Ashforth, Kreiner, & Fugate, 2000, p. 474). Two types of role transition have been noted: micro transitions and macro transitions. Micro transitions are defined as recurring transitions between rolls. These types of transitions include a daily

commute to and from work while macro transitions are characterized as permanent transitions as a promotion (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Ashforth et al. (2000) identify three major domains of everyday role transitions. These transitions include:

- Work- home transition which is characterized by commuting,
- Work-work transitions which entail assuming different roles throughout the workday, and
- Work “third place” transitions which are the transitions between work and other social domains.

Ashforth et al. (2000) suggest boundary creation and maintenance complicate the act of boundary crossing. Each boundary, in this case the work, home, and “other place,” constitutes its own separate set of norms that requires an individual to adapt to each. Crossing from one to another can be complicated. Given that boundaries are also created around roles, role boundaries determine the limit and scope of each role. The permeability (pliability of spatial and temporal boundaries) and flexibility (the degree to which spatial and temporal boundaries are pliable) of role boundaries affect the micro role transitions. Flexible boundaries allow individuals to make role transitions when necessary, while permeable boundaries may cause confusion about which role is most important (Ashforth et al., 2000).

Drew and Murtagh (2005) sampled 266 managers (half male and half female) in an effort to seek information on demographic characteristics, career progression, and their experiences with and attitude toward work-life balance. Of the 162 managers who responded, a secondary analysis was conducted on 62 senior managers. The authors found that senior

managers believed that their flexible working arrangements and unpaid leave could adversely affect their promotional prospects (Drew & Murtagh, 2005). Most males surveyed believed that the job of a senior manager could not be done effectively on a part-time basis. Male managers felt that commuting to work, a heavy workload, and pressure to work longer hours without compensation caused work/life balance issues. In addition, they viewed technology as accentuating “presenteeism” by ensuring that managers were virtually on call when they were away from work during non-working hours. Finally, senior managers believed:

The organization’s culture requires personal visibility and that leaving early (regardless of the reason) would be seriously frowned upon. This is reinforced by the prevailing view that the only means of demonstrating management commitment is by working longer hours. (Drew & Murtagh, 2005, p. 273)

Schneer and Reitman (2002) suggest that one reason for the managers’ perception above is the familial model for a successful managerial career path is based on the 1950s concept that saw the father as the breadwinner while the mother stayed at home to raise the children. This model however, is a rarity today since two times the number women with children ages 6-17 are in the workforce compared to the 1950’s (Schneer & Reitman, 2002). The authors contend that the 1950s model has not been updated to keep pace with the changes in the family over the past five decades (Schneer & Reitman, 2002). Several family structures were identified in their study (Scheer & Reitman, 2002) but the following two family structures were the focus: married couples with children but with a single income and married couples with dual incomes who have children. Each of these structures are looked at differently by organizations and supervisors charged with promoting employees. Schneer and Reitman

(2002) observed that the family structure of individuals married with children and with a single income household assumes that the income-earning male is stable, reliable, and has the ability to acquire the skills necessary to be successful. The non-working spouse (in this case the wife) provides a stable family environment, which allows the husband to concentrate on his career and role as breadwinner. In contrast, there is an assumption that those married with children who have a dual income family structure deal with great deal of demands on each person's time that can, in turn, limit the investment and training necessary for career advancement. Thus, those in the married with children single income family structure have greater resources for positive job performance compared to those in the married with children dual income family structure who have less support since both spouses are concentrating on their respective careers (Schneer & Reitman, 2002).

Scheer and Reitman (2002) studied family structure and career success of men and women using four measures of career success that include income, salary progression, managerial level, and career satisfaction. They used two data sets. The first dataset was collected over a thirteen-year period (1987, 1993, and 2000) and consisted of longitudinal information of groups of MBA alumni who graduated between 1975 and 1980 (Schneer & Reitman, 2002). The second data set was from an MBA cohort surveyed fifteen years after graduation. Schneer and Reitman (2002) found that even though the number of managers who were married with children in the single income family structure comprised seventeen percent of the respondents (over 2,900 alumni responded to the survey), this family structure was the most rewarded. Men in this structure earned more than men and women in the married with children with a dual income family structure making the traditional 1950

family structure ideal. Schneer and Reitman (2002) noted male “managers may be wary of availing themselves of the new family friendly programs (i.e. parental leaves) as they perceive that such choices will actually limit their career progression” (p. 36). The most surprising finding associated with these results was in regard to the income bonus earned by men in the traditional married with children single earner family structure. Although in this area these men never achieved the same earning potential as men who were married with children in a dual earning family structure, men in the traditional family achieved greater career success on all four measures used in this study.

In a study that focused on the relationship of marital status, spouse’s career status, and gender, Landau and Arthur (1992) collected data from over 1,500 respondents in a multinational fortune 500 company. In accordance with social expectations, the Landau and Arthur (1992) theorized society expects married men to work and support their families but expects married women to take work less seriously. As breadwinners, men have a legitimate need to earn money, which the authors use to explain why married men earn more than single men and men who are married in dual earner families. Landau and Arthur (1992) explain that men who are married with children in a single earner family structure are allocated more money because they have a need for greater income than men in different family structures. Divorced men seemed to be the exception since they earned as much as men whose spouses did not work. The results of the study indicate “organizational practices tend to detect and invest in human capital of married men more than women or single men” (Landau & Arthur, 1992, p. 678).

Recent research suggests the breadwinner model is outdated, as it ignores the changes in family structures, increased numbers of dual-earner couples and single parents, the growing number of women in the workforce, blurring of gender roles, shifts in employee values, increased family involvement on the part of men, and heightened employer concern for employees' quality of life (Eby, Casper, Lockwood, Bordeaux, & Brinley, 2005).

From a career attainment perspective, experiences are different for men and women. The effects on women are limited career choices, lower opportunities for career advancement in their chosen field, and the need to choose between career and family (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Men are faced with deciding whether career or family values are more important while embracing family roles that require greater engagement due to their wife's increasing career commitments (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) found that dual-earner families who are deeply involved in their careers place limits on family commitments. They also found the converse to be true: people deeply involved with their families place limits on career (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). These limits in either domain plus time constraints create the likelihood of conflict between career and family domains since it takes considerable time and energy to be highly involved in either role and the demands of career or family pull in different directions (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Thus, according to Friedman and Greenhaus (2000):

[Dual-earner families focused on career] are less psychologically involved in their families, are less likely to adjust their work schedules to accommodate family or personal needs, spend fewer hours per week on household activities, and take less time

off from work following childbirth compared to people who are less engaged in their careers. (p. 39)

For dual-income families, having a successful career also means increased disposable income and a nice lifestyle, higher social status, and greater feelings of self-fulfillment (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

From the traditional standpoint, dual earners who focus on their families are couples who marry or are in long-term relationships, devote a significant amount of time to home and family, and adjust their schedules to accommodate family needs (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). The decision to spend more time on recreational, spiritual, community, and family activities often means making sacrifices in economic status and career advancement (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Even in dual-earners who focus on family, Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) found that women on average spend more than three times the number of hours per week on childcare activities than men. The implication here is women tend to have decreased earning potential and sacrifice career advancement to accommodate family needs (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Work-Life Balance of Executives

In 1995, Delbecq and Frielander conducted a study to summarize the coping behavior pattern common among a sample of 16 CEOs (14 men and 12 women) age 42-48 of small technology firms (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). All respondents were married to spouses who were college educated and had 2 to 3 children ranging in age from late teens to college

age. The key research question addressed was how as a CEO do you maintain your energy, emotional stability, and family life.

Participants in this study describe a typical workweek for executives a 60+ hours. They wake and leave the home before other members of the household and arrive to work before most of their colleagues arrive. During this time they take advantage of the early hours in the office to organize their day and prep for key meetings. Lunch is usually a working lunch and most of the day is spent trying to interactively solve problems. The day usually ends two to three hours after everyone has left for the day (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995).

The respondents identified seven coping strategies for enduring these kinds of rigors of the occupation. The first strategy is to not take work home. The executives made it a point to be home during the weekends to be with their family regardless of their travel schedule (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). The second strategy is to acknowledge that the nature of the job does not allow CEO's to equal share in domestic duties. Early childhood parenting is the focus of the spouse (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). CEO's noted that during teenage years both parents needed to be involved to focus on teen problems and needs (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). CEO's became more available to their children during the high school years. Since all spouses were college educated, most were professionals with their own careers (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). They were able to balance work and family obligations by working professional roles that allowed them a certain level of flexibility over their work hours. The third strategy is to incorporate precise communication with spouses to avoid misunderstanding (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). The fourth strategy is to take time out to focus on the relationship and each other's mutual needs. Spouses are often a sounding board

where fears, doubts, and concerns are shared (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). The fifth strategy is to pay attention to exercise and nutrition. CEO's view exercise as an important way of controlling stress (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). Physical fitness was seen as a way of handling the rigors of the role. The sixth strategy, is to base vacation on the completion of critical tasks and rejuvenation of personal energy. This way rest and relaxation is alternated between intense task commitments (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). The seventh and final strategy is to view work as an enactment of one's personal vision and mission (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995). The expectation is life is imperfect and the road to achieving one's personal mission is difficult. Even though there are setbacks, drama, and loss of optimism, difficulties are not personalized; and above it all lay the belief that any leadership term is temporary (Delbecq & Friedlander, 1995).

Fatherhood and Fathering

There are expectations for behavior in many of the roles one plays in life. These expectations are determined by our roles at work, home, and in our social lives. In this section, I will look at those qualities traditionally associated with men and how it impacts the roles they play at work and home. The literature on the college presidency is limited in the area of fatherhood and fathering. This section discusses themes identified in the literature of fatherhood and fathering that appear to be universal to all fathers.

Fatherhood

White (1994) analyzed men's definitions of fatherhood in relation to masculinity, defining masculinity "as those aspects of men's behaviors which fluctuate over time and differentiate with men" (p. 120). In this study, White (1994) interviewed 11 fathers (seven white collar, four managerial positions, and one unemployed) whose ages ranged from 31 to 48. Four men were divorced, seven were married and, of that seven, three men had wives in the workplace. White (1994) found that fathers spent little time with their children even though they claimed otherwise. For these men, time spent with their children meant being in the same room with their children while they watched television, playing with children, and in some cases making meals, preparing them for bed, and assisting with homework (White, 1994). For the most part, children had to fit into their father's routine in order to be accommodated. As a father, I have also found this to be true. Prior to exploring the research on fatherhood, much of my time was spent playing with my children or having movie night with my children but I was not actively engaged the other important areas of their lives.

Fathering has attracted significant attention from media and social scientists (White, 1994). As women enter the workforce in increasing numbers traditional notions of gendered responsibilities in the home have placed greater pressure on men to contribute to the household. Economic recession and high divorce rates have also significantly changed the role of men as fathers. Men's participation in the home and their role in childcare has become a high profile social issue (White, 1994). Despite the increased attention, fathers, involvement remains minimal, that is, men's contribution to childcare is restricted to playing time with children.

Rewards and Regrets of Fatherhood

Men identified the rewards of fatherhood in terms of being loved and having a sense of purpose (White, 1994). They considered their role of fathering in the traditional sense of providing for the family, being a disciplinarian, remaining available when needed, and teaching their children to be productive members of society. Their absence from the home during work means men cannot fulfill their role as disciplinarian thus their role is now that of Mr. Nice Guy in contrast to their wives who have now assumed the main role of disciplinarian.

Not being close to their fathers left the men in the study to rely on emotional support from their mothers (White, 1994). Thus men sought to “recapture what was missed out on in their childhood through their relationships with their own children” (White, 1994, p. 126). White (1994) however, identified a paradox: men attempted to compensate for the deficiencies they faced when growing up by raising their children the same way they were raised. This especially resonates with me as I attempt to recapture with my children what I missed out on with my father due to his work schedule.

Men in their study tended to describe feelings of regret for time missed with their wife and children. Wall and Arnold (2007) noted fathers made no mention of what a child might be missing due to the father’s absence. Missing from the dialog is to what extent children need the father and whether wives need more from their husbands (Wall & Arnold, 2007). A father’s time with children is discussed within the context of his role as breadwinner and as such, time with children is secondary to his employment responsibilities (Wall & Arnold, 2007). When fathers do spend time with their children, their activities are described within the

traditional masculine aspect that is playing with children and coaching teams (Wall & Arnold, 2007).

Fathers in their study define a good father as one who represents material security and physical security rather than a breadwinner. Consequently, the fathers in this study have prestigious jobs with high incomes, which is indicative of high level of importance.

The division of parental responsibilities is vastly different today than they were in previous generations (Brandth & Kvande, 1998). Fathers then were distant and prioritized paid work over spending time with children. Furthermore, fathers in previous generations served as negative role models their sons had no desire to emulate. However, it would be misleading to believe the previous generation of fathers did not influence the current generation of fathers (Brandth & Kvande, 1998). Thus the most important aspects of fatherhood were identified as having close contact with their children and providing good care, two traits traditionally associated with femininity. In addition to describing non-traditional traits of fatherhood, men in this study were also appeared devoted to sharing parental work (Brandth & Kvande, 1998).

Brandth and Kvande (1998) discovered that the male way of providing care was based on friendship meaning side-by-side activities or being together and doing something together. Example of such activities are playing sports, going for walks or fishing. Brandth and Kvande (1998) also note changes in the environment of child rearing. Children today are much more dependent on their parents to take them to organized activities and play indoors instead of outdoors since local neighborhoods are no longer viewed as safe.

Fathering

From an emotional standpoint, men in the study felt mothers were too close to and worried too much about children and believed this type of rearing would inhibit their children's ability to exercise independence (Brandth & Kvande, 1998). Viewing the mothers' role as overinvolved, may be the reason why fathers in this study perceived they did enough and that their paid work outside of the home was not an impediment (Brandth & Kvande, 1998). Additionally, fathers claimed they were able to set clear boundaries, while mothers were more empathetic (Brandth & Kvande, 1998). Mothers agree with the notion that they are over involved, but believe it is necessary because fathers are not sufficiently involved in the lives of their children (Brandth & Kvande, 1998).

Men's housework duties are characterized by them doing no more than usual presumably due to characterization of housework as feminine work (Brandth & Kvande, 1998). As mentioned in White (1994), by becoming parents men gained social status thus staying home with children did not endanger their masculinity and men enjoy the admiration of the colleagues and friends (Brandth & Kvande, 1998).

Types of Fathering.

Cooper (2000) interviewed 20 men and sought to draw connections among gender, work, and family and how men articulate their roles in the work place and at home. All men in the study were White (except for one Mexican-American), all had college degrees, nine of whom had advanced degrees, with annual incomes from \$60,000 to \$150,000. Seven men had spouses who worked full-time, four worked part-time, three were students, and six were stay-at-home mothers. Interviewees in this study spent less time with their kids and doing

housework than their spouses. Most expressed interest in being more active fathers and conveyed negative feelings for the fathering they received. As in Brandthe and Kvande's (1998) study, the men were conscience of the fathering they received and expressed concerns about repeating it (Cooper, 2000). Seven of the men in Cooper's study discussed attempting to meet all family and work obligations. These men, which Cooper (2000) considered Superdads, invested heavily in home and work activities without sacrificing either. Superdads had a more egalitarian view of housework and tended to involve themselves in all areas as needed before being asked and without resentment. From an emotional standpoint, Superdads were heavily engaged in the emotional, spiritual, and physical aspects of childcare. Traditional fathers tended to divide household responsibilities along traditional gendered lines. They tended to be emotionally disconnected and talk about caring for their family was secondary to income and paid work (Cooper, 2000). Since fathers felt their jobs were finished when they left work, traditional fathers often overlooked housework and expected that wives do to their share and complete it.

Wall and Arnold (2007) examined the degree to which the new father or the traditional father is evident in a yearlong (fifty-four article) Canadian newspaper devoted to family issues aimed at a readership of over 1.3 million people with above average education and income. There has been a notable shift in fatherhood from limited involvement to higher expectations for involvement and care. Wall and Arnold (2007) use the term new fathers to describe men who are more nurturing, have closer emotional relationships with their children, and share caregiving and housework with mothers. Cooper (2000) referred to these men as Superdads.

Even though men are spending more time with their children today than they did thirty years ago, men still only spend a fraction of the time that mothers do (Wall and Arnold, 2007). Prior to the 1980's popular culture and media portrayed fathers as distant breadwinners, who were unemotionally involved with their children and spent little time with them. Since 1980, popular culture and media have portrayed fathers as the new father. This is not to say that the new concept father has been well received. Often times the portrayal of fathers in the media is less than flattering. Fathers engaged in parental roles on television and movies are viewed as less competent and are non-existent in commercials dealing with house care (Wall & Arnold, 2007). It is no surprise then, that fathers receive less attention than mothers in this series. Activities generally associated with caregiving, including cooking and tending to children, are all portrayed by mothers whereas fathers are always depicted playing with children (Wall & Arnold, 2007).

Holter (2007) presents research on the declining capital associated with the male breadwinner ideal but indicates difficulties with males transitioning to a more egalitarian model. Between 1980 and 2000, in most European countries and the U.S., there has been an increase in men's share in men's share of housework (Holter, 2007).

There is some indication that working in order to support the family and grow professionally determines the type of father a man will be. In their qualitative study, Emslie and Hunt (2009) compared the experiences of work-life balance among working-class and middle-class middle-aged men and women (between fifty and fifty-two years old) from Scotland in order to explore gendered differences or similarities. Findings are typical of much of what has been discussed thus far. Men had been the main breadwinners and as such their

work outside of the home dominated their lives. Men expressed that working long hours, weekends, and time away from home were problematic to their family lives (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). The work was important to both groups of men, the middle-class citing the need to establish themselves in their careers and the working class men citing the need to work additional hours to bring enough money into the household (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). In both cases men reported spending less time with children due to work. Men also reported conflict with wives who expected them to fulfill their roles as fathers instead of placing so much emphasis on being a breadwinner (Emslie & Hunt, 2009). When the men in this study emphasized work they were more likely to accept assignments that conflicted with their family and social lives (Emslie & Hunt 2009).

The level of commitment men must have to work and fatherhood also determines the type of father they will be. Halrynjo (2009) interviewed 102 men ages twenty-one to sixty-four with various levels of education (high school to master's degree) from different organizations in Europe. Half of the men worked in technical and financial organizations while the other half worked in social or health related organizations. Halrynjo (2009) found that men in the technical and financial areas were more likely to be in a leading position, had the highest weekly working hours (usually 46-75 hours per week), had good career opportunities, and spent less time with children and doing household related work. These men reported feeling appreciated for their professionalism, commitment, and abilities and were satisfied with their incomes and living conditions but were minimally involved in household duties and childrearing (Halrynjo, 2009). As a result some men reported their wives were not

happy with their commitment to work (Halrynjo, 2009). This perspective is representative of what Halrynjo (2009) considers the career position.

Opposite the career position is the care position. This represents men who work considerably fewer hours than men in the career position. They reported being satisfied with their work and family responsibilities but concerned about their career opportunities and job security (Halrynjo, 2009).

The care and career men both worked full-time but at the same time were considerably engaged in household work and childcare (Halrynjo, 2009). The traits of these men were similar to the Superdad Cooper (2000) described. These men were at the highest risk for burnout in either the home or work domains (Halrynjo, 2009).

Tracy and Rivera (2010) interviewed thirteen male executives in executive level positions in a variety of industries including law, education, construction, and entertainment who were married and had children. These executives were in charge of hiring, firing and promoting employees. Interviewees ranged in age from thirty to forty-nine were White (10), Latino (2), and African-American (1). Seven had wives who stayed home and did not work for pay. Tracy and Rivera (2010) sought to analyze the way respondents talked about family, employment, household work, and childcare. Although respondents espoused gender equity, they did not practice partnerships of equity and participated in more traditional masculine roles of fatherhood (Tracy and Rivera, 2010). When participants were asked about work-life policies, they responded with their personal preference and perspective instead of the more egalitarian perspective they “preached” (Tracy & Rivera 2010). More telling was that participants did not approve of their own wives working and held negative viewpoints of work-

life policy as a whole (Tracy & Rivera, 2010). Even though their attitudes towards work-life seemed progressive, interviewees viewed women's work as optional. They believed that when a family had children, women were better off staying home stating it was inappropriate for her to work (Tracy & Rivera, 2010). Respondents offered flexibility for what they viewed as routine or planned childcare activities, but believed taking time off due to a sudden illness represented a lack of planning on the parent's part (Tracy & Rivera, 2010).

Friedman and Greenhaus (2000), found behavior problems to be more prevalent when the father's psychological involvement in work was greater than his availability to his children. The authors argue "parental abdication by men has been the root cause of many of the ills of society and unequal sharing of childcare by men and women has been identified as a hindrance to work-life balance for women" (Eraranta & Moisander, 2011, p. 510). As a result, men have had to rethink fatherhood and their role in childcare responsibilities. This brings us to a dilemma for men who are, on one hand, expected to spend more time with children and shoulder some of the homecare responsibilities, while on the other hand, are also expected to show commitment to his organization by being available and showing a willingness to work longer hours. Thus, in the traditional sense, the male breadwinner model which emphasizes that a good father should be able to provide for his family's financial needs is used to justify not only the sacrifices fathers make in family life, but is also to explain the level of commitment fathers have as dedicated managers in their workplace. The field of psychology has provided norms and standards as well as rationality and facts for parenting and child development. According to Eraranta and Moisander (2011), the psychological discourse on

parenting has been widely disseminated through social and healthcare workers, family therapists, counselors, parents, popular literature and mass media.

Eraranta and Moisander (2011) discuss male fathering in two different perspectives, manly fathering and involved fathering. From a traditional perspective, a manly father is viewed as the moral authority and master of the household, who imposes discipline in a responsible manner. The mother is responsible for nurturing while the father is concerned with the higher needs of the child which consist of developing emotional independence from the mother, teaching socially acceptable behavior, and modeling male behavior consistent with heterosexual male identity (Eraranta & Moisander, 2011). In this sense manly fathering is not actively involved and the role is symbolic. Involved fathering, views the father as a man who takes responsibility for spending quality time with his children at home through engaged active interaction and being available to them on a daily basis. Being an involved father means sharing the responsibilities of the daily lives of his children such as taking care of their clothes and meals, attending school events and medical appointments, as well as being home when they are ill (Eraranta & Moisander, 2011). Involved fathering brings forth the question of how parents can better resolve the demands of their work and family lives (Eraranta & Moisander, 2011). Manly fathering, i.e. working long hours, ignoring familial responsibilities, and being available only on weekends creates tensions which place couples at risk of divorce and of losing an important part of their social networks. It also inhibits them from gaining experiences as fathers through more involvement and closer relationships with their children. For women, the question of work-life balance reflects how the nurturing responsibilities affect their chances of building a successful career.

Manly fathering perpetuates the notion of the male as breadwinner. Furthermore, involved fathering does not readily match the conceptions of what a good and committed employee is and how he is supposed to organize his life. It is therefore understandable that breadwinning continues to be an important element of the cultural identity of the father. Involved fathering views male parenting in terms of activities that have traditionally been understood as the role of the female. It highlights the psychological relationship between father and child that is brought into being through activities of care and nurturance (Eraranta & Moisander, 2011).

Changing Role of Fathering.

The focus of McLaughlin and Muldoon's (2014) study was how fathers experienced their roles as well as the expectations and factors that promoted or hindered their involvement at home. The authors suggest that the tension between work and family roles may be attributed to the idea that traditional notions of the roles of fathers are not congruent with the expectations of employers. In addition, the roles fathers are expected to play at home have changed. McLaughlin and Muldoon (2004) state "the cultural representations of the new father or 'new man' that may influence contemporary parents are the long-standing and traditional representations of masculinity and fatherhood" (p. 441).

The Evolving Role of Father.

In the McLaughlin and Muldoon (2014) study, fifteen fathers ages 23-60, from various economic backgrounds were interviewed. The participants viewed good fathering in the traditional sense where the father is a good provider and disciplinarian who teaches his

children right from wrong (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2004). Some fathers indicated being emotionally involved was desirable, but saw this type of involvement as time limited and optional (McLaughlin & Muldoon, 2004). Fathers who were committed to equal parenting, or the notion of the new father, cited issues with work-life balance due to competing demands between home and work (McLuaghlin & Muldoon, 2004). Another issue discovered with assuming the non-traditional role of fatherhood was the notion that greater involvement in the home reduced their perceived masculinity (McLuaghlin & Muldoon, 2004). Even though these men enjoyed becoming more involved in the caring for their children, they noted the perception of them in their social circles and work changed. The fathers reported they were viewed as more responsible (McLuaghlin & Muldoon, 2004). Thus, they were relied on to work longer hours, which negatively impacted their relationship with children.

Fathers today are expected to foster the emotional development of their children by devoting more of their daily time and resources to the activities they are engaged in. Duckworth and Buzzanell (2009) sought to understand how fathers construct work and family balance as well as how workingmen envision their roles as fathers. In a study using a semi-structured interview protocol, eighteen men from different socio economic backgrounds who had children living with them were identified. Work-family balance was conceived to be a conscious effort to prioritize non-work activities around the accomplishment of job responsibilities. Being at home involved time management and decision making to ensure that everything would get done (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). The authors used two themes to discuss their results. In the first theme, organizing family around work, fathers considered work as central to their role as men and viewed balancing family as a “multifaceted negotiation

process assisted by their meaning of work” (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2008, p. 563). Central to this theme is the notion that fathers are providers first and foremost and family men second. Men in this study sought to incorporate family responsibilities as much as was appropriate given the demanding work schedules. Interestingly, fathers in this study expanded the notion of work and family balance to include other aspects of life such as volunteer work and religious activities (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009).

Under the second theme, revising fatherhood ideologies, men described fatherhood as a role involving problem solving among various responsibilities. In this theme, the authors found fathers who had the flexibility to put families first were able to do so because they earned higher paying occupations (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). In this regard, fathers reported spending more time engaged in activities with their children and had no problems rescheduling work related activities to accommodate the children’s schedule (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). These fathers experienced less work-family conflict. Fathers who reported work-family conflict found it difficult to satisfy their work and family commitments, thus they struggled to put family first (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). Many of the fathers coped by choosing jobs that were more family friendly, relocating or changing jobs to reduce daily their commute, and negotiated household tasks with their wives in order to spend more time on activities such as dinner, homework, games and putting their children to bed (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). In addition, fathers who experienced more work-family conflict due to the nature of their employment made more personal sacrifices to be more engaged with their children (Duckworth & Buzzanell, 2009). These sacrifices included no longer being involved

in recreational activities such as exercising or playing sports as well as limiting social activities such as spending time with friends, going out with partners, and watching sporting events.

The Family

Children

In order to give children the care and attention they require, parents must be available when children need them. Freidman and Greenhaus (2000) explain that availability means being physically present for, and psychologically focused on, their children, free from distractions or other work concerns. This means being present to help with homework and ensuring that a child goes to school and receives medical care when needed. Being in two mental places at one time, the home role and work role, requires psychological juggling that can be perceived as a challenge to a child's presence or sense of security (Freidman & Greenhaus, 2000). It may be apparent that a parent is not focused on their child's needs "when they are so psychologically involved in work that they cannot attend well to the demands of being a parent" (Freidman & Greenhaus, 2000, p. 70). This lack of focus may be perceived by the child as a challenge to their presence and in turn translates into negative consequences for their sense of security and self-esteem (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). In addition, Friedman and Greenhaus (2000) found that children of career-focused parents experience more behavior problems than children of family focused parents. Even though career-focused parents earn a higher income and are able to provide more tangible benefits, when career concerns interfere

with the time parents reserve for their children, there is a negative impact on their psychological health and behavior (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Spousal Support

There are three benefits to spousal support: stress prevention, increased wellbeing, and acting as a buffer (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Stress prevention refers to the support from partners that decreases pressure from time or emotional demands dual-earners face in their work and family lives (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Curiously, partner support reduces work-family conflict when it is personal support as opposed to career support (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). The rationale for this is career support entails dealing with work related issues that may be narrow in scope while personal support entails dealing with family issues that are more emotional (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Increased wellbeing refers to the mutual support experienced by dual earner partners that increase family and personal satisfaction promote healthier children, and encourage career success (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Love, respect, and concern are the elements of personal support and produce positive feelings between partners (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). This support, in turn, helps partners to develop the self-esteem and the confidence to seek new challenges and achieve the greater personal satisfaction that follows increased personal growth and development (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). In addition to enhancing personal satisfaction, personal support from partners also positively affects the well-being of children (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000). Children have fewer health and behavioral problems and parents feel more satisfied and personally fulfilled, all of which contribute to greater

attunement to children who are well adjusted (Friedman & Greehaus, 2000). Career satisfaction is measured in terms of income and level in the organization and personal satisfaction (Friedman & Greehaus, 2000). Partners who receive support (personal and career) are more satisfied with their careers (Friedman & Greehaus, 2000). This support contributes to the likelihood that partners have the confidence to pursue extensive networking and development assignments (Friedman & Greehaus, 2000).

Oden (2007) defines spousework as responsibilities that the spouses of college presidents perform. According to Oden (2007), these tasks can be voluntary or involuntary. Voluntary tasks may include activities such as planning events at the official residence, running the president's personal errands and acting as a confidante, or a source of new ideas. Involuntary tasks include being seen as an ambassador for the institution the partner leads (Oden, 2007).

In the past, spouses were women who sacrificed their personal careers for the benefit of their spouse (Oden, 2007). Personal career choices will always encroach on spousework which conflicts with the culture of expectation. However, the expectations and attitudes of board members and other stakeholders are based on experiences with spouses of previous presidents. Some spouses still feel compelled to take on unwanted tasks such as managing the household, entertaining, or running personal errands (Oden, 2007). Spouses deal with unwanted expectations in a variety of ways. They may take new jobs or throw themselves more completely into their own careers or they may decide to live separately (Oden, 2007). Spouses may also decide to not be actively involved in their partners' careers because of a lack of privacy and feelings of isolation Oden (2007). While some institutions have begun to hire staff

to assist with managing the residence and the entertaining, others are still expecting spouses to shoulder the burden (Oden, 2007).

Heikkinen (2014) asked male managers to make meaning of the roles their female spouses played in their careers. Heikkinen (2014) analyzed the narratives of twenty-nine male managers from Finland with extensive work experience. All of the men had at least one spouse during their careers and all of them were fathers. All of the men who took part were living in heterosexual family relationships, were White and middle or upper-middle class. Their educational background varied from secondary level to postgraduate degrees.

Heikkinen (2014) identified several types of spouses that include supporting, balance-seeking, and care-providing. These types describe the various roles that men constructed to make meaning of the role the female partner during their careers. Heikkinen (2014) defines a supporting spouse as a wife who encourages and supports her husband in his career. The wife is described as providing mental support, as being an important discussion partner, and encouraging his managerial work and his acceptance of new career opportunities (Heikkinen 2014). This type of support included acceptance and understanding of the long working hours and the commitment to the organization. The relationship between the couples was represented as open, and wives were highly valued (Heikkinen, 2014).

According to Heikkinen (2014), the balance-seeking spouse's role is defined as a wife who considers the opportunities and risks related to her husband's career from the wider perspective of family life. Respondents explained that their wives evaluated their husband's career aspirations, chances, and career mobility (international assignments and relocation to other cities) from the perspective of the family and her own work aspirations (Heikkinen,

2014). The male manager states that he has to think of life as a whole in order to integrate his career and family life and avoid career choices considered harmful for the family. In this type, both spouses are depicted as making conscious choices and compromises for the sake of the family (Heikkinen, 2014). Interviewees reported turning down career opportunities because of their family or their partner's work situation. Even though this decision was usually negative for their career aspirations, it was viewed as rewarding from the larger life perspective (Heikkinen, 2014). Male managers also reported adjusting work-related organizational events to accommodate family life. Thus, the male manager's involvement in childcare can also be seen as egalitarian, since he seeks to provide opportunities for his wife to be active in working life (Heikkinen, 2014).

Heikkinen (2014) defines the care-providing spouse as one who provides primary care for the family and children which allows the male manager to pursue his career with very little concern for domestic responsibilities. The manager role is that of traditional breadwinner and the wife's career is seen as secondary or optional (Heikkinen, 2014). This study provides evidence that traditional gender roles still prevail in the Finnish socio-cultural context, as the supporting and care-providing spouses illustrate. In practice, it seems that the traditional gender roles still direct male managers to the primary role of breadwinner.

According to Cha (2010), men's overwork systematically disadvantages their spouses career advancement since they are less likely to work long hours due to the expectation that they must take on primary responsibility for household labor with minimal spousal support. Cha (2010) examines the effect of spousal overwork and demonstrates how efforts to resolve resulting work-family conflict can produce disadvantageous outcomes towards women. Cha

(2010) investigated whether or not spousal overwork, in dual earner families, contributes to the likelihood of one spouse quitting his/her job.

The three areas examined were spousal overwork and employment, the effects of spousal overwork for professional and managerial workers, and the effect of spousal overwork for workers with children. Using the Survey of Income and Program Participants (SIPP) (part of a longitudinal study collected by U.S. Census Bureau 1995-2000), Cha (2010) sample 23,593 respondents (8,484 professional workers/ 17,648 non-professional workers).

According to Cha (2010), overwork is identified as an established norm in a workplace that penalizes workers who are less likely to overwork and rewards those who work long hours.

The expectation that women will perform a larger share of housework and primary childcare responsibility inhibits their ability to work longer hours but allows husbands to absorb more work hours and more opportunities (Cha, 2010). Even though men endorse an egalitarian ideology and give ideological support for their spouse's demanding careers, they do not substantially contribute to housework and childcare in a manner that would support their wives' career demands (Cha, 2010). Men often use their professional work status as a rationale for their lower contributions to childcare or other housework (Cha, 2010).

According to Lewis, Gambles, and Rapoport (2007), the all-encompassing nature of contemporary work seems to impact white collar and affluent professionals in today's workplace. Work-life balance in this discourse focuses on the right balance between home and work. The authors argue, however, that this discourse, although positioned as gender neutral, is largely interpreted as a woman's issue. In the seven countries studied, the authors

summarize that issues of work and family are more relevant to mothers than fathers (Lewis et al., 2007).

Re-conceptualizing the Framework

Clark (2000) conceptualized her framework as shown in Figure 1. The representation of work-family border theory shows the work and family domains and the border crosser's relationship with each domain. Notable in her conceptualization are the key participants border keepers and domain members. In addition, the borderland or area the border crosser transitions through and permeations (items or interactions from home that appear at work and vice versa) are displayed. Clark's (2000) theory was published in the Human Relations journal and her conceptualization of her theory specifically applies to the corporate world. More specific to higher education and the purposes of this study, I conceptualize Clark's (2000) theory in the following way (Figure 2).

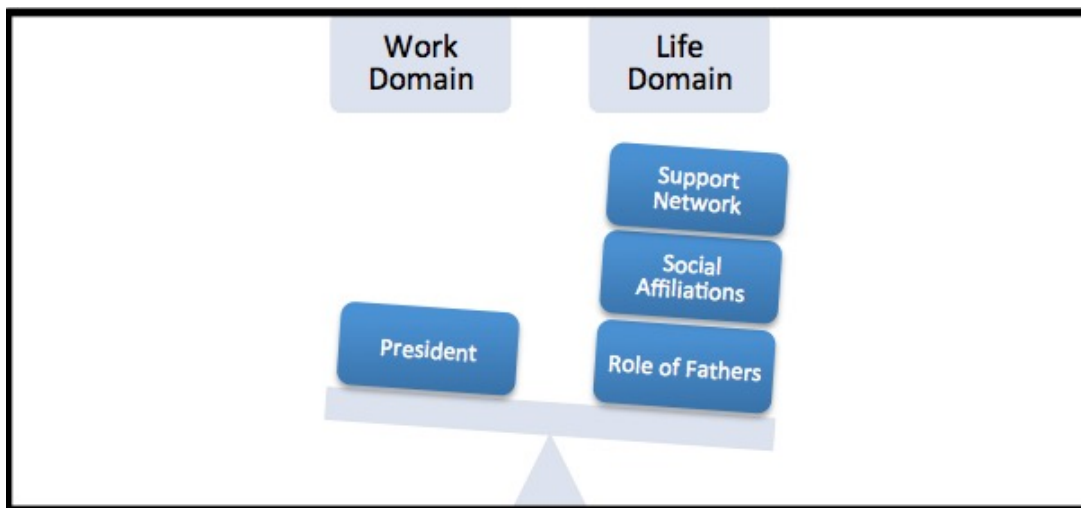


Figure 2. Work-Life Domain of College Presidents

The research question for this study identified the components that appear in Figure 2. The work and life domains are the two realms in which the individual functions. Under the work domain the role of the president is identified. The life domain shows the individual's role as a father, his social affiliations, as well as his support network. The scale represents the effort to balance the domains. This study will be based on my conceptualization of Clark's (2000) Work-Family Border Theory as it pertains to presidents in higher education.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Introduction

As noted in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study is to explore the past recollections of work-life balance and fatherhood through the reported experiences and reflections of selected male college presidents. Very little scholarship exists concerning work-life balance of male college presidents and their role as fathers; what scholarship does exist focuses on female college presidents and the work-life challenges they face. I designed this study to empower male college presidents, who are also fathers, to make meaning of their experiences while immersed in their very demanding role as president. In this chapter, I discuss the appropriateness of the selected qualitative research design, the interview protocol, and plan for data collection and data analysis. Finally, the originality score of the manuscript is included at the end of this chapter.

Research Design and Rationale

The goal of this research is to understand the past recollections of work-life balance and fatherhood through the reported experiences and reflections of selected college presidents. Since these variables – experiences and reflections – cannot be measured, I selected a qualitative research approach using a case-study methodology. Qualitative researchers often use multiple participants since individuals have different understandings and interpretations of their own experiences. By comparing and contrasting these perspectives, the researcher can identify similarities and differences between the experiences of the participants (Polkinghorne,

2005). In addition, Polkinghorne (2005) observes that multiple participants allow for the triangulation of the collected experiences that allows the researcher to move beyond a single view of the experience. Polkinghorne notes that “the use of multiple participants serves to deepen the understanding of the investigated experience; it is not for the purpose of making claims about the distribution of the experience in a population” (p. 140). This multiplicity of viewpoints that participants bring to the study is a method that Creswell (2013) has embraced, using words as data to describe their experience. Creswell suggests conducting qualitative research when there is need to explore a group or population in a deeper and more personal manner than quantitative studies can provide. There are several different kinds of qualitative methods that can be employed:

- Narrative research;
- Phenomenology;
- Grounded theory;
- Ethnography; and,
- Case study.

Each qualitative research method has its own defining features (Creswell, 2013). For example, Creswell notes that narrative researchers collect stories, phenomenological studies may focus on a single concept or idea, a grounded theory focuses on process, while a case study research focuses on real-life cases that are ongoing. My study is a basic narrative research practice focusing on the “lived and told stories of individuals” (Creswell, 2013, p. 70). The defining feature of this approach is storytelling that allows individuals to share their experiences, shedding light on how the individuals see themselves. In addition, data collected

through interviews, the primary form of data collection in this study, observation, and other qualitative approaches may also be used to tell the individual's story (Creswell, 2013).

Research Question

In order to explore the ways in which male college presidents recall their experiences about work-life balance and fatherhood, I pose the following research question:

How do male college presidents balance their work and life domains?

Participants

Polkinghorne (2005) stresses that qualitative research seeks to enrich the understanding of an experience and, as such, participant selection should be purposeful.

The selection should not be random or left to chance. The concern is not how much data were gathered or from how many sources but whether the data that were collected are sufficiently rich to bring refinement and clarity to understanding an experience.

(Polkinghorne, 2005, p. 140)

I will utilize my networking contacts in the college and university systems to identify potential participants who meet my specific selection criteria. My interview criteria included the following: males currently serving as college or university presidents with children under 18 years of age. Through biographical research and connecting with my network of contacts, I have found nine presidents who met my criteria. I contacted all nine presidents and six of them agreed to participate in my study. The minimum sample size for a qualitative dissertation is six participants (Creswell, 2013). The study excluded male college presidents who had adult

children during their tenure and female college presidents. The reason and purpose for selecting these participants is they may provide important insight that should contribute to the scholarship on work-life balance as well as the scholarship on fatherhood. This study will also add to another dimension of the literature on college presidents that is the college president as a father. Finally, I recognized that college presidents, with or without children at home, experience many demands on their time and that participation in this study will add one more demand to an already tight schedule.

Participation in a qualitative study requires those selected to give considerable time. It is sometimes difficult for researchers to find suitable participants. Thus, gathering participants involves not only choosing those who fit a selection strategy but also finding people who are willing to be interviewed. (Polkinghorne, 2005, p. 141)

Data Collection

In this study, I collected data through participant interviews. Once identified as meeting all the criteria for inclusion in this study, participants will be asked to meet with me for a face-to-face interview that asks several open-ended, semi-structured questions regarding their experience as presidents, their role as a father, and how they may have use their social support to balance these two roles. In addition, I explored how their social affiliations (life domain) help them achieve work-life balance. I planned to ask in two parts. Part I would consist of demographic questions as well as questions that inform me, the researcher, about the president's life and current family make-up. Part II would consist of questions that address each president's work-life balance, support network, and social life. Initially, I proposed

interviewing the presidents once, but I inquired about their future availability for a follow-up interview should the need arise. The presidents were not compensated for their participation in my research study. The interviews were recorded and verbatim transcripts were made available to only me, the researcher, and my advisor.

Interview

Interviews were conducted with college presidents who currently have, or had, children 18 years of age or younger while they serve as president. I interviewed each of the presidents at their on-campus office which was free of disruptions. Each interview was recorded and transcribed. Prior to scheduling the interview, I proposed to send each president a link to a Qualtrics survey that would ask questions from Part I of the interview protocol which would have provided me with demographic information, including:

- First and last name,
- College or university he currently serves,
- Email,
- Phone number, and
- Ages of the children at home or were living at home during his tenure as president.

Prior to interviews I searched for biographical information on all of the presidents who fit my research interest. I was able to eliminate all questions from Part I of the research protocol after discovering all of the information in news media, president's webpage on their college website, their curriculum vitae which was also located on their college website, and the governor's webpage in their home state. Part II of the interview protocol was conducted at each

president's campus office and lasted between forty-five minutes to an hour and a half, based on the flow of the conversation, and was later transcribed. The transcriptions were reviewed for key words, in order to identify any emerging trends, or similarities between the different president's interviews.

Interview Protocol

According to Creswell (2013), the interview protocol should be guided by the research question and phrased in a manner that is easily comprehensible while allowing the participant to open up and expand on the questions asked. In my study, data was collected using a semi-structured interview protocol (Appendix B) as the instrument. Each participant will be asked a series of questions relevant to the research question. These questions allowed the presidents to reflect upon their experiences and explain their perceptions and feelings about their roles as a father, their life domains, as well as their support network. The relationship between the research question, theoretical framework, and interview questions are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Relationship between Research Question, Theoretical Framework, and Interview Question

Research Question	Theoretical Framework	Interview Questions
How do male college presidents balance their work and life domains?	Work-Family Border Theory	10,11,12,14,21
	Work-Life Domain of College Presidents	1,9-14,16
	Reconceptualization (Role of Fathers) (Role of President) (Support Network) (Social Affiliations)	Part I, Part II 2-8,15,17-21

Procedures for Analysis

My approach to analyzing my collected data will be informed by the seminal work of Creswell (2007; 2013). Data analysis in qualitative research, according to Creswell (2013), involves preparing and organizing all of the data collected. In this study, data analysis consists of transcribing interviews, reducing data into themes, and, lastly, interpreting the data. My data analysis proceeded in the following manner:

1. Contextualized stories. My analysis situated stories within the presidents’ personal experiences about their jobs, families, and support systems.
2. Restorying. Once I contextualized the presidents’ recollection of their fatherhood, I proceeded to retell their stories by presenting the key elements, themes or plot. Setting and context are key in shaping the experiences of presidents’ as fathers. I also paid special attention to possible narratives involving epiphanies.
3. Epiphanies. According to Creswell (2007), epiphanies are turning points where, or at which point, the plot of “fatherhood” might take a significant change in direction.

Validating and Reliability in Contextualization, Restorying, and Epiphanies

Based on Creswell's (2013) validation strategies, I will provide authenticity and credibility to my analysis by following these steps:

- Prolonged Engagement and Persistent Observation. This step includes building trust with participants, learning the culture, and making decisions about what is salient to the study.
- Triangulation. I will make use of multiple sources to provide supporting evidence.
- External audits or Debriefing. An external consultant will examine both the research process and outcome to ensure accuracy.
- Bias Clarification. Clarification of my own biases that may have shaped the interpretation and approach to the study.
- Member Checking. I will ask participants to examine the data, analyses, interpretations, and conclusions for accuracy.

Authorization to Conduct Study and Protection of Human Participants

Before beginning data collection, I submitted my study to UCF's Institutional Review Board (IRB) and received approval for conducting research on human subjects (Appendix C). The request for IRB approval included descriptions of identification of risk, methodology, participant information, setting of the study, and potential risks with steps to minimize risk. Potential risks include physical discomfort or fatigue during the interview, emotional discomfort, and loss of confidentiality. This protection would include all research participants.

All presidents were asked to review an informed consent form after having the study briefly explained, including the purpose of the study, the interview procedure, potential risks, and the emphasis on confidentiality. I explained to each president that pseudonyms will be created on their behalf and that no recording or data transcription would ever be labeled with an actual participant's name. Each of the presidents were given the pseudonyms of the first six Presidents of the United States. Thus the first president I interviewed was given the name George Washington, the second John Adams, the third Thomas Jefferson, the fourth James Madison, the fifth James Monroe, and the sixth John Quincy Adams. The methodology of the pseudonyms was I provided these names in the order of the college presidents I interviewed. All efforts were made to protect the confidentiality of presidents' name and all information shared with the researcher. Ample time was given to the presidents to read and review the informed consent form and all questions were answered. In the case of possible emotional discomfort, all presidents were advised of counseling offices for assistance. A copy of the consent form was given to each participant.

Informed consent is a core requirement in qualitative studies. Informed consent includes the title, purpose, and explanation of the research and procedures, and allows the participant to ask questions and to stop participating in the study at any time without consequence. Protecting confidentiality and privacy is paramount. No information that would anyone to identify the presidents was included and all names used in the final report were pseudonyms. Once the recordings are transcribed, they were deleted from the recorder.

Originality Score

This dissertation was submitted to Ithenticate by my chair and the results were discussed with all committee members during the final defense on June 20, 2016.

CHAPTER 4

GIVING LIFE TO AN “INTERESTING LINE OF INQUIRY”

Introduction

The previous chapter described the methodology used in this dissertation, including research design and rationale, description of the participants, data collection method/ analysis, and the link between the research question and theoretical framework. In this chapter, I discuss how my study transitioned from a document to a narrative of how presidents balance their work and life domains.

Two of the things I struggled with as I began this phase of my study were whether or not I had enough questions and what each president would think of my line of inquiry. I did not want my study to be perceived as a waste of time or lacking in seriousness. I initially planned on asking each president 64 questions. After some discussions after my defense, it was just not realistic, given the time constraint allotted for each interview. I narrowed my interview protocol to 21 questions and hoped I would gather enough information to answer my research question. I experienced a sense of validation as I concluded the interview with the first president when he remarked “Interesting line of inquiry” (George Washington, line 599). Those remarks out of the gate, with the most experienced of the six presidents I planned to interview, gave me a sense of confidence moving forward.

Making the Connection

In accordance with the Research Protocol (Appendix B), prior to beginning each interview I introduced myself to the presidents, provided an introduction to the study,

explained the interview proceedings, read the confidentiality statement and, again, asked if each president was willing to proceed. All presidents agreed to proceed without reservation.

As stated earlier, I designed this study to explore how male college presidents, also fathers, balanced issues of work and life. Thus the genesis of my data collection was identifying a suitable number of presidents with varying experiences to proceed with my study. Qualitative research studies often use multiple participants to capture the different understandings and interpretations of each individual's own experiences. By comparing and contrasting these perspectives, I was able to identify similarities and differences in the experiences of the participants (Polkinghorne, 2005). According to Connelly and Clandinin (2011), "When both researchers and practitioners tell stories of the research relationship, they have the possibility of being stories of empowerment" (p. 4). I started my data collection by conducting biographical research and connecting with my network of contacts to find college presidents who would fit my study. Using this method, I initially found six college presidents with children under 18 years of age. Through snowball sampling, a technique I employed to ask presidents to assist with the identification of potential participants, I found an additional three presidents for a total of nine presidents who fit my study. All nine presidents were contacted, and six agreed to participate. This number satisfied Polkinghorne's observation that multiple participants allow for the triangulation of the collected experiences while serving ". . . to deepen the understanding of the investigated experience. . . ." (p. 140).

As I described in my IRB submission form, through biographical research and connecting with my network of contacts, six college presidents with children under 18 years of age participated in my study. My plan was to contact each president via telephone to introduce

myself, provide a brief overview of my study, and secure an interview date. John Adams provided me with the contact information of all of the presidents in the state and more importantly their assistants' information. John Adams' assistant advised me to contact the assistants for each president because they were the "gate-keepers" of the presidents' schedules, and it was likely nothing would happen unless I contacted them first. This advice proved invaluable. I called each president's assistant to explain who I was, the research I was conducting, and ask if I could make a telephone appointment to speak with each president about participating in my research study. This was not easy, as I had to call many of the assistants several times to set up the initial telephone discussion. I finally found that it was easier to promise the initial conversation would take only five minutes of the president's time. This worked for all but George Washington whose assistant immediately scheduled the appointment, stating that the president would be happy to sit for an interview. After a phone call with each of the remaining four presidents, all agreed to participate in the interview and asked me to work with their assistants to schedule a time to meet. The HRP 508 Explanation of Research form was emailed to presidents and their assistants once the interview schedules were made. I did not email the interview protocol to the presidents, as I preferred that they did not have an opportunity to prepare answers to the questions I planned to ask.

In an effort to minimize my travel in this phase, I scheduled interviews with presidents located in one part of the region first. Presidents 1 and 2 were located within 50 miles of one another. I was familiar with the reputation of George Washington and knew John Adams personally. I did not know Thomas Jefferson who was located in the furthest part of the region. I initially planned to drive to interview Thomas Jefferson but friends explained that the

drive was long, and I opted to fly. I made the drive to meet with Presidents 4, 5, and 6, each unknown to me and all located within 100 miles of one another. This was a weeklong trip I made during Labor Day week. I had never been to this area and was very excited to go. I made a few friends there and managed to find a very nice cigar lounge a good friend of mine recommended. My time in the lounge gave me an opportunity to network with people who gave me a history of the area and some background on each of the presidents. I appreciated the dialogue because I was getting to know each president from the community's perspective.

For Part I of my analysis, I reviewed the interviews per respondent. This afforded me the opportunity to analyze the presidents' answers per question and gain insight into who these men were. The transcripts were shared with each president who participated in this study and met with their approval. The names of each president's wife and children mentioned in this study were omitted and initially pseudonyms created at the time of our meeting met with each president's approval.

Prior to interviews I searched for biographical information on all of the presidents who fit my research interest. I was able to eliminate all questions from Part I of the research protocol after discovering all of the information in news media, presidents' webpages on their college website, their curriculum vitae which were also located on their college website, and the governor's webpage in their home state. Understanding how busy the presidents were, I was happy to eliminate Part I of the research protocol. This gave me an opportunity to dedicate more time to Part II of the protocol. Respect for each president's time was my utmost concern going in. I anticipated that each interview would last between 45 minutes and an hour. In two cases, we completed at 45 minutes, but two interviews flowed for an hour and a half.

Each president stated they appreciated the opportunity to reflect on aspects of their lives that they had forgotten about.

The defining feature utilizing the narrative inquiry approach is storytelling which allows individuals to share their experiences while shedding light on how the individuals see themselves. Using Creswell's (2013) collection techniques, I gathered data not only through interviews. I also made observations of the president in their interview environment (their office in all cases) while making note of my experiences leading up to our sessions to hear the presidents' stories. Leading up to each interview, I also employed active listening, a method discussed by Connelly and Clandinin (1990) who stated,

In narrative inquiry, it is important that the researcher listen first to the practitioner's story, and that it is the practitioner who first tells his or her story. This does not mean that the researcher is silenced in the process of narrative inquiry. It does mean that the practitioner, who has long been silenced in the research relationship, is given the time and space to tell her or his story so that it too gains the authority and validity that the research story has long had. (p. 4)

My goal was to capture where the presidents were through the stories told based on my line of inquiry. Connelly and Clandinin (1990) described this as complex process in which the two "narratives of participant and researcher become, in part, a shared narrative construction and reconstruction through the inquiry" (p. 5).

Each interview was digitally recorded and transcribed verbatim. Initially, I was told the process would take two weeks, but I did not receive the finished product until two months later. I re-read each transcript several times and, at the same time, listened to each interview for

accuracy. Next I listened to and read each interview and wrote notes while considering information from my literature review, theoretical framework, and how to conceptualize the framework in terms of the discoveries I was making about each president's experience. With all of this information, I did not want to lose sight of how the presidents made meaning of balancing their work and life roles.

CHAPTER 5

I HOPE YOU DIDN'T GET ALL DRESSED UP FOR ME!

Introduction

This chapter will provide information on results from the study itself, through analysis based on interviews with six college presidents and their views on their individual roles as father and president. Although these men were of similar demographic backgrounds, their responses varied.

I treated my meeting with each president as if I was interviewing for a job. I wanted to make the best impression possible and hoped that they found the questions I asked thought provoking and helpful to others they mentor who aspired to becoming presidents. For each interview I dressed in a gray suit, white or blue shirt, brown belt, and brown shoes. My suits were lint-free, my tie had a double Windsor Knot, (took 15 minutes to tie each time), my pants had a permanent crease, and my shoes were freshly polished. I looked and felt good as I entered each of the president's office; so good, in fact, that several people complimented me and asked who I was. When Thomas Jefferson greeted me at his office he said "I hope you didn't get all dressed up for me!". I answered "Yes I did!" We both laughed. My dad always taught me to be sharp and actually helped me pick out what I would wear to each interview. My father was a tailor who took over his father's business in Jamaica after he passed. My dad was only 15 years old when he started but had apprenticed five years prior to that. He passed on to me the importance of making a first impression with suits made of good material with the correct fit. It was with this in mind that I proceeded to silently make my impression on these presidents.

Part I: Getting to Know You

I reviewed interview transcripts for each participant. This process afforded me the opportunity to analyze the presidents' answers per question and gain insight into who the presidents were, allowing me to focus on each of the presidents as individuals. All of the men who participated in the study were presidents of institutions that ranged in size and Carnegie classifications. Four of the six presidents were over 50 years of age, and two were over 60 years old. Three of the six presidents had five to 10 years of experience, and two had between zero and five years of experience. One president in the group had been a president for over 25 years. All presidents were married and had children 18 years of age or younger during their tenure. All presidents had a minimum of 40 days of combined leave as part of their compensation package. Table 2 summarizes the demographics for these presidents.

Table 2

Summary of Participant Demographic Data

Pseudonym	Carnegie Classification	Institutional Enrollment	Operational Budget	Age at first presidency /current age	Years of experience	Earned leave days Annual/sick/ other (combined)	Total compensation
George Washington	L4	>10,000	>\$61,000,000	>30/>60	25-30	>61	>\$301,000
John Adams	M4	0-10,000	\$31,000,000-\$60,000,000	>40/>50	0-5	40-50	\$100,000-\$250,000
Thomas Jefferson	S2	0-10,000	\$5,000,000-\$30,000,000	>50/>50	5-10	50-60	\$100,000-\$250,000
James Madison	M4	0-10,000	\$5,000,000-\$30,000,000	>40/>50	5-10	40-50	\$251,000-\$300,000
James Monroe	L2	>10,000	\$31,000,000-\$60,000,000	>50/>60	5-10	50-60	>\$301,000
John Quincy Adams	M4	0-10,000	\$5,000,000-\$30,000,000	>50/>50	0-5	40-50	\$251,000-\$300,000

As discussed in Chapter 1, I realized that the schedules of college presidents were not different from those of many senior-level executives in the American workforce, i.e., long working hours and extended overnight business trips. My upbringing left me highly committed to spending time with my children, but my working hours and commute make it less than ideal. This represented the genesis for this research. The questions that came to mind as I began my study but did not include in my protocol were: How is it possible to be both a college president and a father? I hoped this would be answered in our dialogue in the form of contextualized stories. My analysis situated stories within the presidents' personal experiences about their jobs, families, and support systems. My hope is the information gathered from my interviews will be useful to fathers and would-be fathers who seek to become college presidents in terms of understanding the work-life challenges that lay ahead.

George Washington

“The three marriages”

George Washington leads a large public four-year degree granting institution with over 40,000 students enrolled. He has been a president for 26 years, and in his current position for 15 years. *George Washington* is married with four children. All children were under the age of 18 when he first served as president. His youngest child is a sophomore in high school. I arrived at *George Washington's* office quite nervous. He had the most experience and his institution is by far the largest and most popular. He is very influential; and I found as I interviewed other presidents, he is very highly regarded. To put me at ease, I texted a friend who works in the same building and asked if I could visit with him after the interview. This

put me at ease knowing that the two of us would discuss one of our favorite sports teams, the Miami Heat. This gave me something to look forward to and eased my apprehension. After checking-in with security, I entered the elevator and got off at the top floor. As soon as I entered the president's office I immediately felt overwhelmed by the understated yet opulent atmosphere. I passed through the door and into a very quiet lobby. The president's assistant greeted me. She was very friendly but also reserved. There was very little small talk as she invited me to take a seat as I waited for George Washington. George Washington was very well dressed. He wore a matching suit and blazer no tie. He is about 5'8 and weighs about 180 pounds. As we entered his office, I found George Washington to be very friendly and eloquent in his speech. His office was fitting of his stature in the community where his college is located as one of the 50 most powerful people in the city for four years in a row. His office was large and his desk was clear and very well organized. There was a large conference table in his office and this is where he invited me to sit as we began the interview.

George Washington began working in higher education as instructor in 1980. Prior to becoming a president, he served as a vice president and chief academic officer for eight years. After earning his Ph.D. in 1989, he became a president in 1991 at 34 years of age. Now a president for 25 years, he has a comfort level in managing the position of president. He indicated that his board has been generous with time off, which he tries to take. The national reputation of the institution he leads dictates that he travel 50 nights per year. He spoke of how his and his wife's home roles and responsibilities have changed since his first presidency when he had two young children, and the beginning of his second presidency when he had four young children, one a teenager. He indicated two his four children are grown; and that of the

remaining two, one just entered college, and his youngest is not yet in high school. In addition, he and his wife share in the responsibility of taking care of their parents: one lives with them, and the others live a few doors from their residence.

In terms of thinking of work-life balance, George Washington provided insight from one of his favorite authors who

. . . basically proceeds from the premise that when people think about work life balance, what that often means is I go to work; I'm a workaholic at work, and then I'm a workaholic at home. So, however intense I am about my work, I'm gonna be that intense about home life too. And, ya now, my relationship with my wife and my relationship with my children, whatever, and he says that's really not an adequate definition. What we're really after is a balance, but what he calls fidelity. So what you want to do is live. . . with fidelity toward the commitments that you've made, to the other, your wife or husband, um, to your work, and self, um, and to Other with a capital O, um, which I think is a better way of thinking about it. So, I don't, I never sit back and say how balanced am I? Instead I'll ask the question, who needs me? Am I being faithful to my commitments? Am I neglecting anyone that needs my attention and ah, including myself. (lines 215-224)

This definition provided the framework for how this president balances his work and family obligations. He does not see the presidency as over demanding and does not think the work is more demanding than any other job. President Washington stated: "I really don't feel like we've got a tougher demanding life compared to anyone else. And I don't let what demands of work shape my relationship with my children especially." (George Washington, lines 329-

331). Thus, his perspective places family separate from work and does not allow his job to compromise the relationship with his children.

John Adams

“24/7”

John Adams leads a medium, public, four-year degree granting institution with over 7,000 students enrolled. He has been a president for four years. John Adams is married with one child who is currently in elementary school. I have known John Adams for 10 years. He and I both have daughters the same age (my daughter was born a few weeks before his). John Adams is the inspiration for this study because he was named president of his current institution when his daughter was four years old. He is a very friendly man, and I was very much looking forward to meeting with him, as it had been some years since we sat and talked. This setting was a bit more formal than I would have liked, but it was good to see him. I arrived at his campus 30 minutes early but was glad I did because I got lost. I stopped in three different buildings trying to find his office and also had trouble finding parking. I finally parked and saw him walking into the building. I entered the building and proceeded to his office. I walked in and introduced myself to his assistant. She asked me to wait in the waiting area just outside of the president's office suite. I admit I was a little put off about being asked to wait outside the office but as soon as I exited, John Adams called out to me, embraced me, and asked me to come in. He told me he was on leave today because his father had passed and came in just to do the interview. I offered my condolences, and we sat in his office. John Adams is about 6'4 and slender. I comment that the presidency has not aged him one bit. He

appeared very relaxed. John Adams was dressed in a button down shirt with his shirt tucked in. We talked for about 15 minutes about our lives, his hobbies (he restores vintage cars which understandably is on hold) and our children. His office was large and quiet. The lights were off, but the natural light from the windows was more than adequate. He had a desk with several folders on it. Adjacent to his office was a conference room with a large rectangular table. He said this is often where his daughter sits when she accompanies him to work. He said she usually is playing with an app on an iPad. He also had a sitting area with a couch, coffee table, and side chair. I sat on the couch; he sat in a side chair, and we began the interview.

John Adams began working in higher education as an administrator in 1989. After earning his Ed.D. in 2003, he served as vice president of student affairs and vice president of academic affairs. He is a first-time president in his fifth year and is growing more comfortable with the role. He tries to spend as much time with his daughter as possible. Fortunately, there are resources on his campus that allow for visitation. For example, the college has a pool that is open to the community. John Adams' daughter took swimming lessons with an outside organization that leased the pool. Near the end of his workday, John Adams took time to watch his daughter learn how to swim.

So, her swim lesson starts at 5. Now, that's usually, ya know, summertime we work till 5:30 officially. I mean, I'm working more than that, but ah, I'll just take time off. I know I've got a pile of paperwork to sign, go over and watch her for her 30 minute swim lesson and then just come back to the office and finish up my paperwork and then go home. (John Adams, lines 290-293)

John Adams continues to take time to drop his daughter off, pick her up, and stays to watch her swim meets if time permits. Having the facilities on campus allows him to do this without the interruption of having to leave campus.

John Adams considers the responsibilities of the job to be 24/7. Although there are a lot of hours involved, John Adams indicated:

. . . ya gotta mind your schedule...You can make it as hard as you want to as a President or you can manage it well, delegate effectively, and get the things done without burning yourself up. Cause, I'm a big believer in telling folks, don't burn the candle, I would say, burn the midnight oil and the candle all night. There are times when I burn the candle from both ends, um, it just eats you up. So, you gotta balance that out and find time for your family. (line 146-151)

Clearly, time with his family is important, but as one of the younger presidents with the least amount of experience, 90% of his day is spent dealing with the administrative functions of his job. I thought it was interesting that he compared the job of the president to that of writing a dissertation: "It's up to you to manage your schedule and know what has to be done" (John Adams, line 227).

Thomas Jefferson

"Locus of control"

Thomas Jefferson leads a small public two-year degree granting institution with over 1,000 students enrolled. He has been a president for seven years, and in his current position for four years. Thomas Jefferson is married with three children. Two of his three children were

under the age of 18 when he first served as president. His youngest is a senior in high school. I felt like Thomas Jefferson and I connected in our initial conversation to set up the interview. He was very interested in the topic and even seemed open to the idea of mentoring me. In our initial discussion he spoke of locus of control and stated the notion of work-life balance was dependent on the priorities in one's life. He also talked to me about creating a career path to the presidency that avoided pigeonholing me and that would expose me to a variety of experiences. In his view, the problems of the position of president are complex and unpredictable. To say I was looking forward to this interview was an understatement. The words of wisdom Thomas Jefferson offered were already invaluable to me on a personal level. This was the only interview that caused me to travel by air. It was my first time on a prop plane, and that was an adventure. I arrived the night before on a flight that was four hours late. I managed to find a pizza place that was still open and ate. The next day I woke up early and took a cab to the campus. It was the summer break, and the campus did not have a lot of student traffic. I arrived at Thomas Jefferson's office suite; his assistant greeted me and asked me to have a seat. I could hear Thomas Jefferson "talking through the wall," discussing matters with his assistant. When he was ready, he greeted me, and invited me in. He asked if I wore a suit just for him. I said, "Of course I did!" I dressed for all of these interviews as if I was making a first impression for a future interview. Thomas Jefferson was about six feet tall, slender (about 180 pounds) and dressed in a button-down, tucked in, with his sleeves rolled up. His office was large but was less of a business atmosphere and more like a country home with wicker furniture and tropical decorations. I would come to find that this environment was well suited to Thomas Jefferson's personality. He placed his phone on his desk and asked me to sit

where I would like. We sat across the room in two very comfortable chairs with an end table separating us. We then began the interview. This was the longest interview, I think, due to the familiarity we had with one another in our previous telephone conversation. What made it even more meaningful for me was he informed me:

. . . on this day [I would be] driving back to the house to let my wife in cause she locked herself out. . . So you are sitting between me trying to get back to her so I can let back in the house again. (Thomas Jefferson, lines 47-52)

Thomas Jefferson began working in higher education as an administrator in 1989. In 2007, he served as provost at before becoming the founding CEO for an institution in 2009. This is his second presidency, and he is in his fourth year. He has an Ed.D. and was awarded an honorary doctorate in humane letters. In terms of work-life balance, to Thomas Jefferson, accessibility to the college, family, and community stakeholders is paramount. He accepts calls or texts from family and board members and stated that “. . . I make myself very accessible and um so accessible the, the tags on my car say [college initials]. . . ” (line 392). He enjoys working at small colleges because of the connection to various members of the college community. The community appears to be an extension of his family. He stressed that he is not a victim of his work because he chose to do it this way.

I recognized very early on that it's all about your locus of control. And if you are someone who tends to be more externally focused, then you are going to let everything else dictate your pace. I am much more internally focused; and when something happens, I don't let look around for who to blame. I make it my responsibility to figure out what role I played in making this thing happen. Or not. And I don't let the

circumstance dictate my reality. All kinds of things happen, good, bad and other wise.

And if something occurs that I had no control over, it doesn't mean that I will not try to have control over how I respond. (Thomas Jefferson, lines 1570-1584)

Self-motivation and his desire to be close to his family and community led me to believe Thomas Jefferson was in the right place at the right time of his life. His lifestyle is very relaxed; and he enjoys cooking, gardening, and spending time outdoors tapping into his creative side.

James Madison

“Work expands so as to fill the time allotted to it”

James Madison leads a medium, public four-year degree granting institution with over 6,000 students. He has been a president for 15 years, and in his current position for six years. James Madison is married with two children. Both children were under the age of 18 when he first served as president. He has an Ed.D. in Higher Education and prior to becoming a president he served as a vice-chancellor for academic affairs. I should note that prior to our interview, the cigar shop owner informed me that James Madison was a finalist for another presidency. He has since accepted another presidency so I consider myself fortunate to have met with him when I did.

The drive to James Madison's campus took 90 minutes. I arrived and introduced myself to his assistants. They were very nice but did not participate in any small talk. I waited quietly, making myself busy reviewing my protocol. Once James Madison was made aware of my arrival, he greeted me and asked me to come into his office. His office was what I consider a reasonable size but nothing like the previous three presidents I had interviewed. He was

dressed casually, plaid button-down shirt with a nametag and khakis. There was no indication that he served in the military but he reminded me of a “military man.” He had a buzz cut, stood upright and his movements were mechanical. He was about 5’8 and I would estimate close to 200 pounds. As I walked in, we talked sports. Venus and Serena Williams played in the U.S. Open the night before, and we talked about how well they played and how we witnessed history. As we began the interviews, he seemed brusque with his answers; and I feared this would be a dry interview. After I asked a few more follow-ups, he warmed up and the interview experience was enjoyable.

In terms of work-life balance, James Madison’s stance on the matter is contained in his values statement. He stated, “I value my role as a husband and father, my role as a president, a teacher, a colleague, a citizen, and an individual” (James Madison, line 997-998). The values are displayed in his daily commitment to all of the above except for teaching which he simply does not have time for in his current role.

So, I’m probably a little different than most presidents in that. . . regard in that there is an old, I don’t know if it is a joke or what, but they call it Parkinson’s law. Which says, work expands to fill the time allotted to it. So, I am a person who when I am on task I am on task. And I can do eight hours of work in four hours. You know, I don’t, I don’t sit and fret and mope and stuff like that, so I get a lot done in a short amount of time.

(James Madison, lines 160-170)

To achieve these commitments, he has had to sacrifice many things he enjoyed such as teaching and distance running which is part of individual values. James Madison was very candid about the politics of the area and the potential for corruption in state and local affairs. It

turns out this was one of the areas that caused some stress early on, but he learned he could not control the demographics in the surrounding counties he served.

James Monroe

“It’s not a job, it’s a lifestyle”

James Monroe leads a large public two-year degree granting institution with over 13,000 students. He has been a president for six years. James Monroe is married with one child. His child was under the age of 18 when he became president. He is the oldest president of this group and informed me that he and his wife decided to adopt a child late in life. James Monroe has a Ph.D. in Public Administration and prior to becoming a president of the institution where he worked for 17 years, he served as an assistant-vice president. This seemed to me like a large leap. As I read James Monroe’s biographical information I thought to myself “Am I two positions away from a presidency?” As I continued to read his biography, the reality set in. Higher education is actually his third career. He concurrently served 30 years in both the United States Armed Forces and law enforcement. In addition, James Monroe has been active in various community boards such as economic development councils, chambers of commerce, educational foundations, philanthropic organizations, and has been inducted into an academic college’s hall of fame.

The drive to James Monroe’s college took two hours. The drive, on a two-lane highway, was long and boring. It was scenic but there was no breakdown lane on the right, only what looked like a 40-foot drop into a valley of pine tree tops. There was an accident; a pick-up towing a motorhome had rolled over. Luckily, it was not into a ravine. I kept thinking

that I did not want to be out here at night. When I arrived at the college, I was surprised to see parking reserved for State representatives. I walked into a very modest president's office suite and sat, waiting and making small talk with the president's secretary about the unpredictability of interstate traffic. I waited 15 minutes longer than anticipated because one of the college board of trustees dropped in to meet with James Monroe.

James Monroe completed his meeting, apologized, and invited me in to sit at his conference table. He said I could sit anywhere but in his seat. We laughed. He is what most people would view as imposing, even intimidating. He reminded me of a lineman coach. He was a large man, standing at 6'2, and I would estimate over 260 pounds. In terms of work-life balance, James Monroe defines his in the following way:

. . . I don't believe in work life balance, by the way...I believe in work life integration. .
. because this is a, it's not a job, it is a lifestyle and any President that doesn't get that
yet, it would be a shock to me. . . you're never off, um, so it's an integration question. .
. I blend my personal and my, and my, business time all the time. (line 74-88)

He does not believe that one can separate himself from this particular job. The president is who he is. In James Monroe's case, the lifestyle did not seem to interfere with his marriage and spending time with his son. Early during the interview he made me aware that he would stop what he was doing to be with his wife and/or son if they needed him. So although the role and lifestyle seem consuming, he is willing to interrupt whatever he has going on to speak or be with them during his workday.

John Quincy Adams

“I didn’t seek to be a president until the end of my career”

John Quincy Adams leads a medium public four-year degree granting institution with over 5,000 students. He has been a president for two years. John Quincy Adams is married with one child. His child was under the age of 18 when he became president. As the newest president, I was interested to hear his thoughts on the presidency and the competing demands this role has on him as a father. John Quincy Adams has an Ed.D and has worked for the institution of which he is president for 26 years. Prior to becoming president, he served four years in an office at the state level, which oversees the college system. This interview was the second longest of my interviews and was definitely one of the most engaging. This was an afternoon interview that was delayed because John Quincy Adams had a last minute appearance to make at a luncheon. The college was only a couple of miles from the hotel where I stayed, so I decided to take some time to purchase souvenirs for my family, have lunch at a Panera, and prep for the interview. I made the short drive to the college and arrived 10 minutes early. The staff who directed me were very friendly and the president’s office was in a building that had heavy student traffic. This layout was a bit different from what I had seen to this point. John Quincy Adams’s secretary was very friendly. We talked about the city and how much it has grown over the past few years. While we were talking, she texted John Quincy Adams to make sure he was enroute because she said he is known to talk long after meetings are over. I would soon experience this. She also wanted to keep him on track because he had a program review meeting right after our interview.

John Quincy Adams arrived. He was 5'8" tall, about 200 pounds, and wore khakis and a long sleeved, button-down shirt with the college logo below the collar. One of his VPs had walked him to the building and to his office. He greeted me, asked me into his office and told me he was glad I was there because, "That guy can talk!" We laughed, and the interview began. John Quincy Adams's office was large, and it seemed circular as if we were in a rotunda. We sat at a large circular conference table. His office was well decorated with memorabilia (footballs, baseballs, softballs) and pictures of sports figures. I noticed a large flat-screen T.V. on the wall which he revealed was there so he could catch up on movies every once in a while. I didn't get the impression that John Quincy Adams relaxed in an easy chair watching TV in his office all day. To the contrary, because of his state level experience and the role he played in auditing the very office he works for throughout the state, this president's goal was "... to try and get out of this job without having, uh, caused a section of law to be created that has my name attributable to it" (John Quincy Adams, lines 419-420). It has been my experience that higher education personnel are not fans of gun ownership and shooting. I have found, even in a university as large as the one I work for, that it is difficult to find folks that truly enjoy shooting. This is not the case with John Quincy Adams. He enjoys target shooting and owns several guns, including a few heirloom pieces that belonged to his grandfather. This is one of the activities that he enjoys with his son and his wife. He was very candid about the job, his health, diet, and his family. He was also the funniest interviewee of the group.

CHAPTER 6 FIRE IN THE BELLY

Introduction

This chapter will provide additional analysis of the results where I uncovered themes and answered my research question: *How do male college presidents balance their work and life domains?* Analysis of the interview transcripts proved to be both time consuming and tedious. After reviewing the transcripts several times, I sought ways to reduce the data collected even further. Analysis of the interviews was conducted in three parts. In the previous section, Part 1, I reviewed interviews with each of the presidents, and this afforded me the opportunity to analyze the presidents' answers per question, gaining insight as to who these men were. This method allowed me to focus on each president as an individual.

For Part 2, I eliminated the moderator questions and comments, which resulted in a document that only had the presidents' statements in order to gain further insight into the stories the presidents were telling me that did not focus on questions asked. As I continued to read the transcripts and analyzed the narratives, I began to understand each president better. In order to make further meaning of presidents' work-life balance, I further reduced the data by compiling each interview in a document per question format. This method allowed me to compare and contrast each president's response to the questions asked. Once I contextualized the presidents' stories, I proceeded to retell their stories. Setting and context were key in shaping the experiences of presidents as fathers.

Part 2: Fire in the Belly

I recently met with a current president over coffee early one Saturday morning. He is a former supervisor in my present work organization, and we have stayed in contact since his departure six years ago. He advised me that if I wanted to become a college president I would need three attributes. First was a “fire in the belly.” If I were serious about pursuing this, I would have to have a drive and ambition to reach that level. Next, I would have to be mobile. Opportunities may not be in my current state of resident, and would need to be prepared to look at the potential opportunities within the United States. Last, I would need to have a narrative of my experiences to present so that search firms, boards, hiring committees, and communities would have a sense of not only who I am but also what I stand for. This led me to the second part of my analysis in which I focused on the narrative of each president.

Narrative of George Washington

George Washington places a great deal of emphasis on creating time for self. He stated that, even though he juggles a lot of responsibilities,

I still . . . have time for an active music life, and an active speaking life and an active writing life. Not enough in any of those areas, to make me fully satisfied, but . . . you make those tradeoffs. (George Washington, lines 85-90)

This was an important point to me, because it is all too easy to be captured by a position that is as consuming as the presidency. He, like all of the other presidents I interviewed, admitted that the position is “24/7” but indicated he still made time to pursue hobbies that he found fulfilling. In describing his time with family George Washington reveals:

Our involvement with them in the last 3 or 4 years has largely been around um, school and music because they're both musicians as well. So, um, ya know, I attend a lot of performances. I've always done that. The first two are also ballerinas and we, I've must have seen um, ah, the Nutcracker 60 times. (George Washington, lines 160-162)

We laughed about that, but I was impressed that he never indicated skipping out on the moments that were important to his children because he had done it before.

I was impressed with his viewpoint as his wife as the "first lady". As Dodds (1962) indicated, the challenges facing the family of a college president can be enormous: the family is now in the public eye, and their activities may be mentioned in the local media as well as among different on campus groups. George Washington told me:

We had an arrangement from the beginning. I said, look the college is my job, not yours. . . because it's a community college and not a university in that we didn't have a house on campus which is really an aquarium. . . and that the expectations of entertaining at home. . . just weren't there. . . as a campus president. . . in a community college environment, particularly earlier in my career when I was part of a multi-campus college district. . . so I entertained, but I did at it the executive club or on the campus, or someplace like that. And, we attended lots of events in the community and my deal with her on that was anything you want to attend your welcome. You're not expected to be anywhere. . . it's entirely up to you and once every year or two there'd be a command performance, maybe a Board party. . . something like that, but not for the most part. . . she participated when she could, but wasn't. . . the first, they call it the President's wife wasn't the first lady. (George Washington, lines 168-180)

Thus, George Washington created an atmosphere in which his wife did not have to feel the pressure of being seen as much as he was in the public eye which, in essence, shielded his family from his work responsibilities.

In addition to his two youngest children who are still living at home, George Washington revealed that he and his wife share in the responsibility of taking care of their parents. His wife's mother has resided with them for 15 years, and his parents, who are 93 and 87, have lived virtually next door for the past four years. George Washington and his wife share in caretaking responsibilities such as taking them to doctor's appointments, as they do not drive anymore, and what he characterized as "a thousand little things" to ensure their well-being. In balancing the aforementioned familial needs with an understanding of what the job wants of you, George Washington described the necessity of allowing work into his family life:

At the very beginning. . . of the tenure, everybody got to see. . . what an organization wants from its President. . . [It] isn't just ya know, your cleverness, and your. . . leadership ability, your competence, and those things, what they really want is a little bit of you. They want to identify with you. They want to know you at some level and so, being a little revelatory with the family early on so they'll see how I'm situated, what I'm committed to, who belongs to me and to whom I belong, is important for the organization. It starts to build trust, so they know who you are and can predict how you'll behave, and so on. Um, and that was true again when we moved here when we had the second wave of children. So, my youngest, my son was only four months old when we moved here and a number of people at the college kind of adopted him, holding him when we had events. (George Washington, lines 310-319)

Although George Washington acknowledged that balancing work and family are critical, he does not believe they are the most important. He believes it is essential to tend to what he refers to as his interior work before doing anything else. His interior work begins in the following way:

. . . through journaling. . . [I] have dozens and dozens of journals full of um, embarrassing things, ah reflection on the work, and my character and who I'm becoming and why I think and feel and react the way I do and about other people and observations on how they're succeeding or failing. And, what I can learn from that, all sorts of things. So, um, the most important thing I do is take care of my interior life.

It's even more important than physical health. (George Washington, lines 348-352)

Once he provides the necessary attention to his interior life, George Washington turns his attention to the outside world, specifically, those he relies on who he may have unintentionally neglected. He described this exterior work in terms of a "... sort of hygiene of relationships, so to make sure that there's no, ah, long list of wounds, grievances, frustrations, whatever, with the people I love and depend on every day. Sort of keep me short of counts. (George Washington, lines 354-356). The final way George Washington seeks to achieve balance is

. . . making sure that both mentally and physically I'm staying in shape" [and also] "making sure I have the time to read and read widely and have people in my circle that I can discuss the books I read with has been really important. (lines 361-365)

Narrative of John Adams

In discussing how he manages the job, John Adams acknowledged the following:

There is a lot of, a lot of hours involved, but. . . ya gotta mind your schedule. You can make it as hard as you want to. . . or you can manage it well, delegate effectively, and get the things done without burning yourself up. (John Adams, lines 148-149)

John Adams consistently tells his employees “don’t burn the candle... burn the midnight oil” (John Adams, lines 149-150) which, to me, means “Go until your tired and get rest; do not work yourself to exhaustion.” In addition, John Adams offers insight into the qualities of a good president. The complex organizational structure of the college seems to offer some independence. John Adams explained:

I have seven board members, so seven bosses. . . I’m their only employee at the College. And, I’m accountable to them, but they’re not here every day checking “Did he come in at 8-o’clock or 8:30?” My schedule is so fluid, and these guys know it. I don’t come in always at a set time because if I was up until 9 pm last night at an event or doing emails or working on something, I’ll be in at 8:30. But, I usually tell them to make sure they know where I am at all times. . . you need to have flexibility in the schedule, but it’s never a question of are you working enough hours. (John Adams, lines 232-239)

Even though he’s relatively new to the job, John Adams understands that it is easy to be a workaholic to benefit the college. He said, “You’re working 60 hours [a week] ‘cause I’m just so motivated to make sure we do something well for the College, but ah, it’s a balancing act.”

(John Adams, lines 241-242) He does, however, understand that taking care of self is important and elaborated as follows:

You've got to make time for you. Take the time off; go spend two hours with your daughter doing something. If you get a down time, take it. . . because you don't get many of them. . . so many different presidents of colleges [tell me to] enjoy that time whenever you can get it because you don't get a lot of it. (John Adams, lines 246-252)

John Adams is especially sensitive to not being there for his daughter. I got the sense this sensitivity is heightened because she is so young, but he revealed another reason for his sensitivity:

I forgot what movie it was; I think it was the movie, *Liar, Liar* with Jim Carrey saying, "I'll be there. I'll be there for your birthday party." And then he doesn't show up. No. You gotta be there. . . cause, see both my parents were working when I was growing up. And they had my grandmother move in to kind of help raise me for a few years while they were working and ya know, I just, really appreciated the fact that you gotta have somebody there. And I want to be that somebody, so I don't want her to think "My daddy's [always] at work." (John Adams, lines 652-657)

John Adams takes his responsibilities as a father seriously because he doesn't want his daughter to have any regrets of her father because of his role as a president. As such, when possible, he has his family join him on work related trips.

I love to have them join me in those conferences. Um, just because I don't get to see 'em as much. And that's where people say, I know some places ah, some colleges and even universities, they cover the expense of bringing your family for. . . two trips a year

because they know you don't get to see 'em. And usually there's a spousal component to some of those professional development sessions. (John Adams, lines 687-690)

John Adams has a low-key approach for his role when he interacts with members of the community. He said that when he is out at a non-college related event, he is asked:

What do you do? I work at the College, if they don't know me and I don't like bragging about it. It's like, well what, um, what position? Well, I'm in Administration. They gotta go to three levels before I'll finally break. It's like, well Administration, what kind of administrator? Well, I'm the President. Oh. I didn't know that. It's like, I don't want any special favors or things like that, whichever. I mean, I probably, I like just to go out. I'm just another employee of the College. (John Adams, line 825-829)

This humility seems to keep John Adams grounded and focused on what is really important: family.

Narrative of Thomas Jefferson

One of the things important Thomas Jefferson is the opportunity to mentor others. In this regard, he noted:

I do the best that I can to try to both mentor, encourage, help people along who are in this process to either earn a doctorate or maybe considering getting into higher ed or becoming a president, or switching from faculty to administration. . . . (Thomas Jefferson, lines 17-22)

Thomas Jefferson spoke of the many individuals he connects with, across the country, who seek his counsel on their careers. He believes this is a part of his role as president. Another

aspect of the presidency that Thomas Jefferson takes seriously is his availability. In discussing his availability, he informed me that his contract reads that he must be available to the college 24 hours a day. Although many of the other presidents I interviewed said the same thing, he takes it seriously enough that he does not have an out-of-office reply on his email. This “always on” approach to the presidency gave me a sense that Thomas Jefferson the person is synonymous with Thomas Jefferson the president. He explained by saying:

And you know it's the work, you are the work. The work is you. And as I often say to people it's the reason why I don't do social media, I don't do Facebook, I don't do . . . twitter, I don't do any of those. . . snap chat whatever, I don't do any of those things because. . . my concern is for the institution and that whether it is through something that somebody misreads. . . something that somebody connects to me in some way that I maybe or wasn't a part of but when something gets said about me they are also saying it about the institution. (Thomas Jefferson, lines 327-337)

Admitting that the duality of the role governs his conduct, Thomas Jefferson also acknowledged that he, like most college presidents, is a workaholic, but stated “It's not an issue of whether we are spending time on work related activities. The issue is really, what work related activity is worth spending the time on?” (lines 377-378) Thomas Jefferson admitted to disconnecting from work when he decides to take a nap or go to bed. Otherwise he spends his downtime at home in his garden thinking of creative ways to resolve issues at work. He reflects on this stating:

You know, one of the things that is really nice about where we live, you know we have got a large, large double lot and we've planted some really nice fruit trees. . . I have

created my little spots, a swing here, a bench there, that I can just go sit in the shade and sometimes you know. . . I'll take my laptop or an iPad and I'll be sitting there and you know and I grew up on a farm so for me that's where I need to be I need to be outside. But I also pull out a lot of, um, analogies and meaning out of just sometimes simply watching a butterfly land on a flower. And I'll be thinking, wait a minute, how does that butterfly know to go right to the spot every time or you watch it and you make observations and so that connection is always there for me, I mean, at heart education is what I do. So, even when I am not connected I am in some kind of a distant way. It's hard not to be connected. (Thomas Jefferson, lines 738-753)

Thomas Jefferson finds that the creative space is a necessity in resolving the unprecedented problems institutions of higher education face today. His outdoor space allows him the freedom to think about out-of-the-box solutions for these complex issues.

When Thomas Jefferson first came to his role, the institution had its share of problems. He arrived knowing that he needed to restructure the organization which meant making cuts to the budget and staff. Thomas Jefferson recalls a conversation with a search firm representative just after taking his current position in which he said “. . . God, you know this college has a lot of problems.” (lines 1404-1405) He knew tough times were ahead and may have had some concerns about what was about to happen. He continued with his reflection by telling me:

So, a few weeks ago she called me, um, it was around commencement just before or just after, it was actually commencement day I think. Cause I was headed out to commencement, it was before commencement. I can't remember one or the other and she said, “I really need to talk to you because you know we think you will be a great fit

for another presidency.” I said “Why would you?” She says, “Well, you know, I remember when you first got there you told me about the problems at the college and everything and I said but that was three years ago.” I said, “Do you have any idea what we have done since and how much the place is different and how it’s shaped up?” She said, “So your telling me no.” I said, “Yeah, I’m telling you no.” [Laugh]. And as one of my senior administrators said to me the other day, “Um, somebody suggested that they’d be a good fit for another position presidency and asked whether or not the application would be forth coming” and they said, “No.” “Do you realize the mess we pulled the college out of and the kind of exciting things we are doing now? This is the fun part. Why would I want to leave now?” (Thomas Jefferson, lines 1405-1421)

Thomas Jefferson and his team are not looking to leave anytime soon. It was quite obvious to me that he relishes the opportunity to enjoy what the good days have to offer. In addition, Thomas Jefferson genuinely likes where he is right now. He reflected on this by saying:

. . . I really like small colleges...I had a campus with eighteen thousand students in [another state]. I am not enamored by that. I think that [the] education we’re getting [is much like] the Wal-Mart model. . . You know it is why I sit out on that bench. And I will tell you that if 10 students walk by, once the semester gets going and you give me a little time, I probably know five of them. [by] first name. And the other five I could tell you a story about them. I know every one of our employees here cause I interview everybody who is a finalist for a job. I did that even when I had close to a thousand employees. That is something I do. I make it a point to do that. Cause you know we get so distant from people. And this is why for me, when you asked the questions

earlier, you said well how much time, I'm literally on all the time. Um, decisions that affect people's livelihoods. So for example arriving here and having to do some restructuring and reorganizing and you know shaving in some places because the classes weren't filling or the programs weren't doing well and having to say to people "I won't have a job for you." That, that to me is the most stressful part of this and as I tell every supervisor particularly new ones doing it for the first time if you have to let go somebody, if you have to terminate them even when it's for cause and you don't have you know something like a tennis ball in the pit of your stomach making you feel like you're crap, then you are in the wrong business. You should not be like "Hooray, I'm getting rid of somebody" because even when you are doing it for cause there is an economic reality to that for that person." (Thomas Jefferson, lines 1431-1474)

The small college environment, plus the locale, offers the type of relaxing intimate environment that allows Thomas Jefferson to thrive. This environment, while comforting, is not without its stressors; and sometimes there is a need for a time-out. When he gets to that point, he will go home and tend to his garden as a means to unwind.

Thomas Jefferson's perspective on work and life is one that I really appreciated. He again discussed how and why he reacts to situations when he told me the following:

Um, I don't know if there is anything that I would change because as I think I said to you on the phone for me I recognize very early on that it's all about your locus of control. And if you are someone who tends to be more externally focused, then you are going to let everything else dictate your pace. I am much more internally focused and when something happens I don't look around for who to blame. I make it my

responsibility to figure out what role I played in making this thing happen. Or not. And I don't let the circumstance dictate my reality. All kinds of things happen, good, bad and other wise. And if something occurs that I had no control over it doesn't mean that I will not try to have control over how I respond. Does that make any sense? So I'm not going to be a victim of the work. I'm going to make this work because I chose to do this. This didn't happen to me and so I've very deliberately, you know, made like, for example, when I was in [a previous presidency]. . . I made a point of buying a home that was close enough to the campus that if on a really bad day I could walk home. In [a previous presidency] I did the same thing. In fact, on most days it was probably faster for me to walk to work than to drive. So I didn't, like some of my colleagues would do, um, when I say colleagues I'm not referring to one person in particular. You know, some of us, we have to buy a home in particular area. Because that's what the status is all about. That's not who I am. I let my circumstances and the decisions about my family dictate how we respond for that. And as I am fond of telling people and um somebody who has, somebody who knows me well enough now he said, "I see a pattern here and how you buy homes," because even the home we still own in [another state] if you go to where that home is you will swear you are in the country somewhere. There is deer on the property. There are turkeys, there are, you can get fresh um, peaches. And we find those little places wherever we can. So that you can be close enough but yet so very far away." (Thomas Jefferson, lines 1569-1622)

I really appreciated Thomas Jefferson's humility and connection to all of the people he serves in his college's community. His sense of responsibility was articulated in a way that the other

presidents in my study had not articulated so eloquently, and it is a perspective I hope to emulate as I advance in the future.

Narrative of James Madison

James Madison offered his perspective on work which shows how focused he is on the job at hand. His perspective begins with trust, and he explained it this way:

I am also very trusting of my staff. That is another thing that helps my sanity. When I go to these meetings, I see all of my colleagues bouncing up to go out and check their phones. And need a break and all of that. I turn the baby off. It is good for my staff to have to figure things out when I am not there. That is developmental for them. And I take that as an opportunity. So, I am getting ready to leave for my son's wedding in a week. I will basically unplug. I mean they will have emergency contacts if they need, but I just trust people. I trust my staff, so I am able to, I think I am able, to segregate that pretty cleanly. And the other nice thing about that is that it does give me a chance to sort of rejuvenate. When I go to these meetings, I can just leave it in other peoples' hands. And I'm pretty good at that. I think so, so anyway, so, that has been effective almost always. Yes, almost from day one, I felt like, because you can take this job and you can make it into a 90-hour a week all-encompassing and have a heart attack by the time you're 50. If you are not careful and so, I just decided that that wasn't worth it. You know, it pays well, but it doesn't pay that well. And so I just said that is not worth it. I got to surround myself with good people. And part of their learning and development, you know, so I have been a president now for 15 years. And five of the

people I have had working for me have earned their doctorate while they are working for me and are now presidents or chancellors somewhere. . . I view that as part of the best success I have had is creating that network around the country. (James Madison, lines 172-231)

By not allowing work to become all-consuming, and trusting his senior staff to make decisions when he is away, James Madison is able to successfully delegate many of his responsibilities to his staff when he is not in the office.

During our discussion, I found James Madison to be a good steward of college resources and taxpayer dollars. When asked about traveling to conferences and meetings he responded that he avoids travel “. . . in part because I really feel like most of the work that needs to be done for a community college president is in the community.” (James Madison, lines 304-305) If he travels to meetings, he prefers to drive. If the drive is more than five hours away, he will call in if that option is available.

I try not to go to more than one national meeting a year. And I try to make sure it is a developmental sort of meeting. So, last year, instead of going to one of these general conferences like the AACC. . . I try to go to something that really makes me better. (James Madison, lines 326-329)

James Madison talked about attending a conference on student retention. He said he was probably the only president at the conference but learned a great deal about how properly onboarding students can increase their persistence to graduation. He said he was able to bring back what he learned to challenge his leadership to make top-down changes in the way the college orients new students. James Madison also talked about the expense of attending

conferences and does not believe it is fiscally responsible to have a large travel budget. He explained:

So, I don't feel right not giving good pay raises and then spending \$25,000 a year in travel. So, I do as little as I can. And, then I always make sure it's worth the effort for the college. It is not a vacation or something like that. Now, I will say, though, there is a group that brings presidents in where the expenses are paid. Uh, and they offer, you know, you have to meet with vendors. And the nice thing is, we have been going through a whole new computing system, so I went to this a couple of years ago and they paid for everything. . . we actually got some real value out of it, so I have been going back to that. (James Madison, lines 344-361)

James Madison also spoke about family-work interaction. He was previously president of an institution that had on-campus residences for students. That institution had a residential high school for gifted students. His youngest son had an opportunity to attend and “. . . said absolutely no, I don't want to go; I do not want to be at a school where my father works.” (James Madison, lines 594-595). His son eventually attended “but he did have that hesitancy about being. . . in the glass house. . . if he went there.” (James Madison, lines 609-611)

James Madison's perspective on work is “. . . I try to separate the two as best I can. And again, I think it is, you know, it is finding that work/life balance...The work can easily consume all the downtime, so you just have to force it away” (James Madison, lines 664-670). Yet James Madison moved closer to campus in order to be more efficient. He said:

I recognize how much time I'm wasting back and forth. And so, so, I am very close, so if there is some reason that I need to come over here, I will come over here. I've also

learned the value of taking advantage of the holiday or the long weekend to get a little work done. So, I came in Monday, Labor Day, and spent two hours here doing stuff and it has made the week wonderful. I am so far ahead of the game. (James Madison, lines 704-717)

There were times where family commitment conflicted with work. James Madison recalled a time his wife asked him to take three days off from work. He responded:

I can't take three days off to do that. I need to be here. I've got this one meeting and she would say, no somebody else could cover that for you. So, we would have a back and forth and I'd have to really do a gut check and sometimes I could go and I was just finding an excuse not to. And at other times, no, what was happening at work was too important. The job, the job took precedence over that, so it did affect family travel plans. (James Madison, lines 810-817)

In terms of autonomy, James Madison believes as he advanced to higher level positions in higher education he has had more freedom in the tasks he takes on. He said delegating to others based on strength and weaknesses has allowed a great deal of freedom over his workday responsibilities. He believes this autonomy has made it easier to be a father.

As part of his inauguration some years earlier, James Madison prepared a personal mission statement as a way for his employees and constituents to get to know him better. He identified six roles he values: his role as a husband, father, president, teacher, colleague, citizen, and individual. I was impressed with the thoughtfulness that it took to prepare this document.

Narrative of James Monroe

James Monroe does not think of his work in terms of balancing time. Rather, he views it as managing priorities. He stated, “One of the things that I . . . gravitated to a long time ago, was making sure that I have a balance that exists with regard to my time. . . I learned that my assistant really doesn’t manage my calendar. She manages my priorities.” (James Monroe, lines 47-51) He believes managing priorities allows the most important stakeholders to have greater access to him. These stakeholders are divided into two groups: internal and external.

So internally, for example, faculty and staff, uh, students, uh executives who are part of executive team. So there, there is a number of those groups that I’ve identified that are important to me. Externally, she has a list and that list is comprised of uh other education leaders, the media. . . elected officials. . . and then I have. . . what I can consider. . . a transitional list of people. There are people that are sort of inside and sort of out, out, out of the college. For example, our Foundation. . . I give her this list. And I ask her to monitor my time and, from time to time, tap me on the shoulder and say, “You know. . .you haven’t spent much time with students in a while. . .” and that’s the way, Sean, that I try to keep a balance, uh, I don’t believe in work life balance, by the way. I believe in work life integration. (James Monroe, lines 58-78)

This is the first time I heard of a president sorting important people into different stakeholder groups. I always thought that certain people rose to the top based on job title and perceived importance. I can see how managing of priorities is more efficient for James Monroe, because it allows him to intentionally reach out to people he has not seen in some time.

James Monroe revealed that he and his wife adopted a child later in their lives. He explained that he sees his son as a blessing in his and his wife's eyes, given that they were unable to have children. Being a parent is very important to James Monroe. He spoke of his son being uneasy with his father becoming president. James Monroe said his son felt the pressure to be as intelligent as he was because he was a president.

And I tried to explain to him, at his age I wasn't as smart as me either. Um, but it, but it troubles me, troubles me deeply, that, that my role. . . might get in the way of, of him becoming what he needs to become. Um, but, other than that, um, you know I think there's some real positives to it. You know I've always said, because I was an older dad, when, when, my son was born, I had all that, not running around, but I had all that partying that I would do or going out for a drink with the boys. Or, uh, all that stuff was behind me. Uh, and now all of a sudden I had money. Like I'd never had in my life. (James Monroe, lines 749-762)

Salaries were not mentioned in any of my interviews. I was uncomfortable talking about it. There are many people who believe presidents are over-compensated. I am one of those people who believe they are not compensated well enough, given the magnitude of their responsibilities. I felt like James Monroe owned the fact that he was well compensated when he revealed "I'm comfortable taking time in doing whatever I want to do. And I got the money to do whatever the hell I want to do with that, boy. And, and, that's a great feeling." (James Monroe, lines 766-771) Money, however, is not what motivated James Monroe to pursue the presidency. He explained,

What drove me to apply for this job, was. . . an incident before I became President, where. . . I really became so aware of how we change lives and I thought if I had an opportunity to do this work and changes lives then. . . I wanted to give it a try. And, and I will tell you since I have been in here, Sean, that passion has only broadened and deepened. . . I have never felt more fulfilled. I've never felt like I've made more of a difference in my life. And my wife feels that and. . . senses that and is a part of that because she [plays a role]. . . here at the college too. . . so I think the evolution for she and I. . . is that. . . we have become just. . . driven by. . . what we can do while we're in this role. (James Monroe, lines 963-984)

For James Monroe, joy comes from helping people. This seems to be why work seems to be so rewarding for him.

Narrative of John Quincy Adams

My time and interview with John Quincy Adams was the most authentic. I never had the impression that he was trying to be presidential. This is not a slight to any of the presidents I had interviewed to this point. I, however, definitely got the sense in speaking to the others that the presidency was who they were, but for John Quincy Adams the presidency was what he does. In terms of his schedule he described it this way:

. . . The schedule I work. . . probably borders on bizarre. And my wife has been married so long [to me] that. . . she has given up on trying to figure out if it is going to be any different. I used to measure how much trouble I was in by the condition of dinner when I got home. .. it started out that. . . she would keep a plate, or she would

keep all the food on the stove. . . and then I would get home and it would have gotten burned or whatever and then, ah, that lasted for a while and. . . then she would create a plate and that lasted for a while. Uh, and then when my son got bigger, the food usually got eaten, so I didn't get any. And, my wife now doesn't even try to save any food. If I'm not home for dinner, she will package it up and put it back in the refrigerator when she gets done or whoever gets done and I'm on my own. (John Quincy Adams, lines 209-225)

I thought this was problematic, but John Quincy Adams explained that the compromise they had come to was his wife would not feel any pressure to make sure his dinner was on the table when he arrived home for the evening. He explained:

Some presidents. . . go through spouses. They have. . . little to no relationship with their families, with their kids. They made choices and priorities. . . I chose not to do that. I didn't seek to be a president until the very end of my career. . . The reason I say it that way is I didn't jump into this particular lifestyle at the beginning of my career. It's been kind of evolutionary, so I could adjust, and my family could adjust as the demands got to be more rigorous. (John Quincy Adams, lines 230-245)

None of the presidents expressed that they were divorced, and all expressed an unwavering love for their wives. This statement was not a surprise to me, but it shed some light on how being a president could potentially put a strain on a marriage. One of those factors is the amount of time spent on the job, dealing with stakeholders or constituents who need so much of one's time; leaving very little time for family. John Quincy Adams explained they cannot

be ignored, because “you may need them one day and so you want to try not to alienate them, so you spread yourself pretty thin” (lines 255-256).

John Quincy Adams’ perspective on spending time with children was something I had not considered before, but it is something I am currently going through. He said, “You don’t get to spend much time with high school kids because they don’t want you to!” (John Quincy Adams, lines 540). He did, however, explain how he manages the relationship with his children:

“One of the reasons that I was pleased my son chose to come back to school here instead of going to school elsewhere is though, even though, he is living in an apartment, he and I share a lot of similar interests and um I had a conversation with him last weekend while we were on a pontoon boat ride. We had a great time. Daughter, her husband came down from Atlanta, my son and my wife and we just spent the whole weekend together doing stuff because they are actually fun to be around. And um, my son said, “Gosh this was just really great. I really enjoyed this.” And I said, “My goal is to continue work on lifestyle changes so we can do this more often before I’m too old to be able to do anything” and he is too old to want to do anything with me. Um, I plan to try and, even though I work these weird hours, I will carve out time for my family. Because that is the most important thing to me. Though the college is a really, really, really, really close second.” (John Quincy Adams, lines 542-556)

Like the other presidents in my study, John Quincy Adams takes his responsibilities as a CEO very seriously and also to heart. He understands the magnitude of his decisions:

Well, um, I am responsible for the livelihoods of 400 people. . . . I make decisions and people's lives change. If somebody is not working out, and I say to them you need to look for another job, it's them, it's their spouse, it's their kids, it's sell the house. . . .

(John Quincy Adams, lines 1177-1185)

Emotionally, John Quincy Adams and I went from serious to funny and back to serious again throughout our interview. It was a fun interview and one that was filled with the knowledge of a person who has worked in many levels and observed higher education from different points of view.

Part 3: Emerging Themes From the Presidents' Narratives

Analysis of the interviews was conducted in two ways. First, I reviewed interviews per respondent, which afforded me the opportunity to analyze the president's answers per question. This method allowed me to focus on each president as individuals. I discovered the result of this analysis, although enlightening in terms of the nature of the lives of the presidents did not provide for a level of analysis that comparing their responses with one another might yield. I then compiled each interview in a document per question format. This method gave me a different framework for analysis by allowing me to compare and contrast each president's response within the context of the questions asked in the protocol. According to Creswell (2007), epiphanies are turning points where, or at which point, the plot of "fatherhood" might take a significant change in direction. During this part of my analysis, I looked for possible narratives involving epiphanies. Two themes came to the forefront of my analysis: Time in office and Borders and Boundary Spanning.

Time in Office.

The Presidents in my study discussed how their experiences have changed over time. Even the presidents with two to four years of experience noted a change in the way they deal with their stakeholders. The most experienced of the presidents I interviewed, George Washington, responded in the following manner when asked how stakeholders specifically his family would describe his schedule:

“I’ve had two presidencies, at the beginning of both of them, the work was exceedingly intense and you go in early and you come home late and it’s crazy for a year or more. I’ve been here 15, ya know, 15-1/2 years, and so, I can, ah, manage the workload a little differently...And the team manages a lot of the work I used to do myself...So, um, ah, I would say early on it was intense and long hours and...I can remember my daughter calling me the pizza man...Cause I stayed about as long as the pizza man stayed...when I came home, so there was a time when I wasn’t as present as I am now.”

(George Washington lines 51-61)

He continued with an analogy, in which he compared mastering an instrument with mastering the presidency

. . . if you’re good at what you do, you make it look really easy. I can play really fast. . . And complicated things. . . and people say that’s awesome. What they don’t know is that I spent 3,000 hours doing that. You practice until your fingers turn blue and what was hard becomes easy, so there’s a sense of which having been in the role a long time, I’ve been a President for 24 years. Um, things that used to take a lot of time and energy to juggle now are easier to juggle. . . And ah, ya know, there’s always something new

to master as well. So, I think experience makes you more efficient, helps you decide what to focus on and how much energy to give it. (George Washington lines 73-82)

This reminded me of the 10,000 hour rule Malcolm Gladwell discussed in his book “The Outliers”. It was a new way to look at the job of the presidency that of a skill to be mastered.

This longitudinal effect of his experience as a sitting president, prior to assuming his second presidency, represented an epiphany for George Washington in that it altered the way he conducted his second presidency. He learned to better manage the role as president and make time for himself. Though he indicated experience makes him more efficient, it appears that the notion of “fidelity” to his work (interior and exterior), his family, his job, self, and other has also changed his approach to the presidency.

James Madison offered the following perspective when comparing his current role as president with his early years as president:

Every new every position I've had that I go higher has actually given me more freedom. . . Okay, I am able to delegate. I am able to decide where other strengths and weaknesses are, so the accountability level, the responsibility level is a lot higher. . . But the freedom, is much greater. . . I control a lot more of what I do today than I did 15 years ago, 16 when I was a chief academic officer. So, it has actually probably been easier to be a father. . . Because I can schedule those things. . . And I can get people to cover. . . Whereas before, I was the one who they went to cover. (James Madison lines 884-901)

For James Madison, the epiphany was he had more control of his time as president than he did in any other role in his career. This was not initially apparent to him though. It was not until

he work-role came into conflict with his family obligation that his wife questioned whether or not someone else could cover for him in his absence. This situation caused James Madison to check himself and ask the question: Was I making excuses not to be with my family because of work? This question represented an epiphany and changed the way he approached his work-family commitments. He acknowledged there were some work commitments he had to be there for (ex. Board of Trustees meetings for example) but there were others that she could assign someone else to attend in his absence.

My interview with James Monroe is what prompted me to consider time in office as a theme. As we began our discussion he stated:

One of the things that I hope comes up in your research is the additional element of time. My life today, this asks for a typical day in my life. . . . My life today, five years in as a President, is extremely different. . . Radically different, than the first year I was a President. . . But, Sean, what I would say is that my typical day today, in terms, particularly in terms of as a dad, is better and different than it was when I first became a President. (James Monroe lines 6-19)

I had somewhat of an understanding of what he meant but later in the interview he explained:

My days are not as long as they used to be. . . and my weeks are not as long as they used to be. When I first took this job, it was seven days a week and it, long days every day. And it was as you, when you first get into this role, everybody wants to meet the new President. . . And they want you to be at their event, and, um, at least in my case, I can't, I won't speak for others, but I, I'm sure you'll hear it more than just from me. You know, you want to do that, you want to be there, you want, you want to establish

the relationships. So a whole lot of time is spent, um, in that world. . . . Over time, you know, you're no longer the new guy, like for instance, in [the region he serves as president], which, it almost cracks me up to say this, you got [two universities and one college] I'm now the Senior President. . . Among the three institutions. . . Uh, with five years of experience on the job. And so the fascination now is well we want to, we want to talk to the newer Presidents, you know we gotta hear from them now. . . And, and so you don't get drawn into every darn thing that comes along. . . I get drawn into a lot, but not every darn thing. So my, my time is, is far more flexible than, than it was my first year. (James Monroe lines 98-120)

John Quincy Adams' explanation of the theme, time in office, offered the most insight. At the time, he had been in the role for 15 months and offered a fresh and candid perspective. He stated:

Your first year, uh, you have to go to everything. Uh, everybody expects you to go to everything and if you don't make it an awful good try, then they presume that you don't care or whatever. I've been told that the secret to success is that after the first year, you only start going to things hit or miss, so that they then know that you're busy and that they'll see you, but that they shouldn't expect you to be at everything. The mistake is if you try to go to everything the second year because then in the third year, if you miss some, then they think that something is unusual, so the secret is. . . In the year number two to have them find out that you will never be at everything. . . and it's just impossible. . . there are too many things, even in, this is a fairly small community and we are fairly small college and um ah I can't do all the things that I get invited to do

that I would want to do to be the face of the college. (John Quincy Adams lines 125-138)

John Quincy Adams offered a corollary, which he called “Adams” Theory of Competence. He believes it takes three years to develop competence in any profession. In his case he described his journey in the following manner:

In year one of a new place, new job, you walk around with a bucket over your head, so you don't know what's coming, you don't know what direction it's coming from, you just react to stuff. . . And that's your whole first year. . . even though I had grown up at this college, I had been gone long enough and more than 50% of the employees changed in the seven years I was gone. . . . So, when I came back it was a fairly different college from the one than I left and so I could still be surprised. It wasn't that I went, I got this one, because I go, I got this one and then it would hit me from that direction, I went, where did that come from?. . . So, in year one, you walk around with a bucket over your head and in year two, so you know when stuff is coming, about the time of year, you kind of know what it is, but you still don't know where it's coming from exactly, because you didn't see where it was coming from last time. . . You just know that it's coming cause it hits you. . . It's not until year number three that you can go, okay, I know when it's coming and I know it's coming from that direction and I know what it looks like, so I can predict and manage it better. . . So, it's in your third year that you really start getting comfortable and you can settle in and uh maybe that's when you make uh major changes, uh, maybe that's when you make some lifestyle adjustments and things, so I really think at the end of this next year, when I have a

couple of years as president under my belt, not that I will slow down. (John Quincy Adams lines 1328-1361)

Borders and Boundary Spanning.

This relates to the borders presidents place over/around their home and life domains. In some cases, home and life were integrated; and in others it was very well segregated. It also relates to how each president chooses to navigate between domains. Work or home priorities seemed to define domain strength.

George Washington asked me to describe what I meant by work. I realized that there were other dimensions of work, but I was specifically addressing what the literature called the continual disembodiment link and how access to technology has made work ever present. He said:

There's a sense in which most Presidents are never really off. . . I work hard to be off. . . I think it's important when I'm home to and with my family to be fully present to them. I have an office at home. I work at home, but not during time that's committed to them. (George Washington lines 102-107)

George Washington's work and home borders are permeable. With regard to his family and his work border he observed,

There are no rules. Ah, I get texts and emails and phone calls from time to time, but there's no rule about it. There's no don't bother dad or something like that. . . if they call and I'm in the middle of a meeting, I say, "Honey I'll call ya back, I'm in the middle of a meeting. Bye." With. . . smart phones, texting changed everything. . . in

some ways it, it takes the pressure off of other forms of communication, cause it's so nonintrusive. . . I can receive a text message wherever I am, and ah, discretely determine whether I need to respond to it or just receive it and ignore it for a while. Um, and that's increased the volume of communication in the sense that ya know, we can always get to each other. (George Washington lines 226-237)

His home border is not as permeable as his work border. While he has an office at home he said work ends at 9:00 p.m. each day and limits contact after that is limited to key people who will text him and await a phone call. George Washington follows Sunday as a Sabbath and considers that a black-out day for work although, he will use an hour or two Sunday afternoon to prepare for the week ahead.

John Adams, who is in his fourth year as president, still sees the job as "24/7" responsibility. When asked about the permeability of his work and family role, he responded:

Unavailable to the College? Well I'm always available to the College, so I don't know if I have any hours unavailable. . . because of this position, it's 24/7. I mean. . . the College provides a vehicle for me because even if I'm out of town or on personal stuff, they want me to use the College vehicle. . . So that they know I can get back to the campus if need be quickly, and it's not gonna break down. That's a thing the board was very emphatic about here when I got here. (John Adams lines 182-187)

While the job permeates into his family role, he rarely allows his family role to permeate into his work role. He conveyed the following scenario:

"[My wife] will call, but I'm usually in meeting, meeting, meeting, meeting, and I don't have a lot of time just to sit in the office and, "Hey, how ya doing? What's going on?"

How's your day going?" Um, she'll text me or stuff like that if there's something going on if she needs a decision, but if there is an emergency, we have a way to handle emergencies. Cause I would say 8 times out of 10, I'm not able to pick up when she calls. Cause I'm in the middle of a meeting and I like to focus on, excuse me, my wife's calling, let me. Um, the code is if she calls me twice, back to back that's the emergency. Cause I want to make sure she knows well how do I get; cause she's frustrated, "what if I have an emergency I need to get a hold of you? Um, and you call and you don't pick up." Well call back again, cause I'm usually looking at my phone. . . I'll see it's you, but I'll pause it, then if you call right back again, that's the signal for an emergency or call my staff. I always have someone in the phones in here, they know exactly where I am at all times and they can get a hold of me, get a message into me that there's an emergency or something like that. So, um, we've developed a process and I think you've got to figure out how you stay connected during the day cause the job's, you're pretty busy, during the day. . . And you know when you're sitting with a, ya know, big donor, or a legislator, or you're in meetings with an employee or a situation going on, it's harder to just take those personal calls. I don't have as much flex in my schedule for handling personal calls. And we don't want everybody handling lots of personal calls. I mean, you handle what you need to, but ya know, we got work to do too. (John Adams lines 449-467)

In contrast, Thomas Jefferson always answers his phone. He told the following story:

I had a habit, um, and a general practice where when my phone rings, which I don't even have it with me it is sitting over there. . . And I look down and I saw it was my

wife or it was my daughters or my son I would go, okay, I will call them back later and then that would sometimes turn into I think I am going to do it right after this conversation and it turns out it's an hour, two, three, four hour later, sometimes it's when I am going into the car, I realize, oh shoot, I didn't call them back. And I've, I made a very deliberate attempt and it has become a practice now that when they call I don't put them on hold anymore. I will answer the phone and I'll say okay, and you know, and my wife knows, then she will say "I just wanted to tell you" and if it is something like just casual conversations something fun or something I'll say "Alright, give me ten minutes and I'll call you back" (Thomas Jefferson lines 142-157)

This represented an epiphany for Thomas Jefferson. He felt bad for forgetting to return the phone call and now makes it a habit to answer all calls from his family, no matter what he is doing or who he is meeting with.

In terms of how permeable work is at home, Thomas Jefferson acknowledged that he views the job as "24/7" but explains that he indeed has a shut off. He stated:

"So, even when I am not connected I am in some kind of a distant way. It's hard not to be connected. But as I often tell people, when I put my head on that pillow at night that's it. I'm not waking up in the middle of the night to say I have an idea and I'm jotting it down. I don't do that. . . Cause people, especially when I was in [my previous job] people use to say "God with everything that is going on how do you sleep at night?" I said "I sleep very well." That's, I, I draw that line. I don't, I don't sit in my bed with a laptop or an iPad. (Thomas Jefferson lines 751-766)

Putting it Together: Literature Review, Protocol, Interview, and Theoretical Framework

As I summarized the literature, I initially discovered there were topics identified in either the literature review, interview protocol, or the interview that were not as sequential as I had thought they would be and subsequently overlooked their importance to my study. After further analysis, I discovered what the presidents conveyed may prove useful in terms of preparation for the role of the presidency and are thus included below.

One of the areas discussed in the literature review that was not asked as part of the interview protocol, but was inferred in my interviews, was the term “greedy institutions” which was coined by Coser (1974). In seeking exclusive and undivided loyalty, the role of the presidency appeared to reduce the claims of competing roles such as fatherhood responsibilities. Although Coser did not apply his theory to the college presidency and most presidents did not refer to the institution’s expectation of their role as greedy, there was no doubt that the “24/7” role of the college presidency was in conflict with their roles as father.

John Adams notes:

You’re always on. . . when you’re out in the community, when you’re in the College and that’s the thing that you have to get adjusted to as a President. People warned me about that. This is my fourth year now and ah, it, you start getting used to it, but it is demanding in terms of the schedule cause, I usually joke about it with the trustees is it’s 24/7. . . . (John Adams, lines 74-78)

He further stated:

I’m always available to the College, so I don’t know if I have any hours unavailable. Um, because of this position, it’s 24/7. I mean, it’s um, the College provides a vehicle for me

because even if I'm out of town or on personal stuff, they want me to use the College vehicle. (John Adams, lines 182-184)

Anecdotally, the presidents in my study claimed to mentor members of their executive team who expressed a desire to pursue opportunities for a presidency and consistently encouraged them to make time for themselves and family. Though many of the presidents expressed that they had a level of autonomy, and in fact had generous annual leave time, many found it difficult to be away from the institution due to the expectations of the role of president.

George Washington, for example, stated:

I think they know, they know that. . . a work day is an intense day for me, most every day.

I don't think they know the ways that I've created time for ah, rest and Sabbath in the middle of that. Um, but they've been very generous with time off, which I try to take.

(George Washington, lines 44-46)

Thus, Wright et al. (2004) asserted that even though institutions allow significant autonomy in the ways in which roles are performed they may be greedy in the amount of time required for successful role performance. While the term "greedy institution" appears to have a negative connotation in the literature, the presidents I interviewed did not refer to their institution as greedy. None of them had anything negative to say about the and all appeared sincere when expressing how fortunate they were to be a college president. As I reviewed our discussions I found that the president understood there was an expectation of availability to the institution which was part of the job. They cited instances where campus security or faculty, staff, or student safety is compromised as times when a president must be available and prepared to respond.

Another missing piece identified in the literature asked as part of the interview protocol and discussed in my interviews was the notion of blurred lines between work and home. In the literature, Gatrell and Cooper (2008) and Gatrell (2007) recognized that the integration between work and home and weak work-life borders were due to the continual disembodiment link or the expectation that one is always connected to work even when not physically present. Gatrell (2007) found that men reported feeling frustrated when they were unable to spend meaningful time with their children. My interviews with the presidents did not reveal that this was the case. In fact, presidents claimed if they lost sight of their family obligations, their wives often held them accountable and reminded them they were not spending enough time with their family. On this matter, John Quincy Adams said of his wife's response to not spending enough time with the family, "I do get the evil eye from my wife every once in a while" (line 837), and Thomas Jefferson concurred by saying his wife "... will usually say something like. . . do. . . you. . . know the last time we sat down and had dinner?" (lines 900-903). Clearly John Quincy Adams' wife acted in a manner that is consistent with the notion of a border keeper which was identified in the theoretical framework. Clark (2000) described border-keepers as individuals who are influential in defining the domains and borders and "play an important role in the border-crossers' ability to manage domains and borders" (p. 761). This it appeared while John Quincy Adams did not express any frustration, his wife was there to define the work domain.

In a third area, Ashforth et al. (2000), Clark (2000), and Voydanoff (2005) discussed the notion of borders, boundaries, and the transition between work and home and its importance. It was not as large of a focus in my discussions as I had anticipated. Only one

president discussed the boundary between work and home. George Washington, on the matter of entertaining at home, stated, “I do entertain at home. . . I bought and developed a house that we could do that. . . .” (George Washington, line 291). The purchase of a second home to entertain allowed him to create a rigid boundary between home and work. Thomas Jefferson spoke of the importance of making the transition between work and home when he stated:

So, one of the things that I do is I try to live fifteen to thirty minutes away and I use that time, the minute I get up here to leave to go home, the first thing I do is call my wife. And we will have a conversation about stuff, her stuff, my stuff, work stuff, you know family stuff and there are things that we get out of the way so that when I get home we are not just now beginning that conversation. (Thomas Jefferson, lines 167-174)

Thus Thomas Jefferson’s transition from the work to home domain happens in a purposeful way: not when he enters the house but while speaking to his wife on his commute home.

The final area that was identified in the literature by Schneer and Reitman (2002), that was not asked as part of the interview protocol but inferred in my interviews, was the familial model in which the father was the breadwinner and the mother was the caretaker. The exceptions to this were John Adams’ wife whom he described as a “solopreneur, so she has her own business” (line 100-101) and George Washington who “in early stages, of our life with children, my wife worked, and we shared those responsibilities heavily” (line 164-165) but indicated that she later gave up her career to care for the additional children they had during his second presidency. In the other four instances, the President’s wives were responsible for taking care of the children and home.

While such aspects of the presidency appear obvious to those who have worked in higher education for their entire careers, it is not so for an individual who spent most of their career working outside of the academy but seek to become a college president. I believe that the narrative, themes, and summary may prove useful for non-academic leaders who want to understand the culture of the academy.

The Big Reveal

How do male college presidents balance their work and life domains?

The presidents who participated in my study balanced their work and life domains in very different ways. However, all were in agreement that the presidency could be all too consuming and most (four of the six) found ways to counteract that.

For George Washington, this meant creating time for himself by pursuing personal hobbies such as playing music and reading books. He also realized that making time for his family or being present was important as well. When he mentioned seeing the Nutcracker 60 times when his children were younger, there did not seem to be a hint of regret in his voice. George Washington also balanced his work and life domains by shielding his spouse from the role of the presidency. He never insisted that she take on a role as a first lady, and this allowed her to compensate for his not being there for the some of the childcare related activities (taking children to school, doctor appointments, etc.). Finally, George Washington found balance by staying in both mental and physical shape through reading, journaling, and participating in regular physical exercise.

In addition, John Adams believed being flexible and utilizing downtime for oneself or to spend time with family was also a way that he as a father could counteract the consuming nature of the presidency. He was one of the few presidents in my study who regularly took his family to conferences so he could spend time with them during his downtime.

Thomas Jefferson viewed mentoring or giving back as a way he is able to balance the work and life. He seemed to have a unique understanding of the duality of the presidency and the individual and maintained that this dual nature was a way of staying connected to community and family. He also said that presidents must find an environment that suits them. As an example, he explained that all too often presidents sought to live in communities that fit their stature as president. He said he grew up on a farm and is most comfortable in what most would consider a humble environment. Staying true to oneself is how he is able to balance his work and life domains.

James Madison balanced work and life by trusting his staff and delegating where appropriate. He said there were two beneficial results from this arrangement: first it provided his staff with opportunities to grow professionally; and second, it helped to give him a greater degree of autonomy over his calendar, and this translated to more time with his family.

I would not say that James Monroe and John Quincy Adams did not have work-life balance. They, however, did not articulate how they manage their work and family obligations other than saying they take the time they need to. All of the others, except John Adams, were presidents prior to their current position so it is understandable that were able to articulate a method for achieving balance. Although John Adams did not have a plan, he was opportunistic about the ways he sought to balance his work and life domains.

CHAPTER 7 CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This dissertation explored the recollections of work-life balance and fatherhood through the reported experiences and reflections of six college presidents. This study represents a significant addition to the scholarly literature concerning work-life balance as experienced by male college presidents, as little scholarship on presidents as fathers exists.

In this final chapter, I will discuss conclusions and the implication of my findings. Even though my findings are not generalizable beyond the presidents who participated in this study, they can serve as a guide for those seeking to gain understanding of the male perspective of balancing work and fatherhood as well as informing would-be presidents with families of what lies ahead. Recommendations for future research, as well as closure to my positionality, are also provided.

Conclusions

What I Learned

At the outset of this study, all that was known about male college presidents with children was the complexity of the role of a college president, the shift in demographics, and the information gleaned from a half-page discussion of how a college president's family should comport themselves given his or her new role and stature in the community. The dearth of information of the college president as a father meant that I would have an opportunity to break new ground with this topic. I learned that presidents worry about whether they are spending

enough time with their children. They are also concerned that they are not putting too much of the parental responsibility on their wives (in instances where the wives are the primary home care providers). I learned that presidents spend time thinking about their children's perceptions and whether or not their children feel any additional pressure (to succeed or behave) given their father's role or stature in the community. I learned that the political ramifications of a presidency may go beyond his office and has an impact on the way people in the community treat his children (In one case his son's teacher told him to ask the president to hire her). I learned that all but one of the presidents in my study had to be convinced to pursue and accept the position as president (by either their children, wives, or in one case both) because of their concern for the impact the role would have on their family life. I learned that in all but two cases, the presidents in my study waited until their children were older to pursue this opportunity.

In terms of lessons for new presidents, it seems everyone has a different motivation for wanting to become a college president. Based on my discussion with these six presidents I think they would convey the following:

- Realize that the presidency is all too consuming, and everyone wants every bit of your time.
- Learn to say no. Just because someone wants your time doesn't mean they deserve it.
- Family comes first; if they call, answer. Allow them to drop in from time to time.
- Learn to delegate. It is not only good for you. It provides invaluable opportunities for the people to whom you delegate to learn, and it gives you more flexibility.

- Take the time to pursue your hobby.
- Take more vacations (a regret of each president).

Implications and Recommendations

Boards of Trustees are typically responsible for hiring college presidents. A sensitivity to understand what the job entails and what the president's responsibility is to his family is necessary. This speaks to the borders and boundary-spanning theme identified earlier. Understanding that work or home priorities define domain strength presidents place over/around their home and life domains, boards need to find ways to support how their presidents choose to navigate between domains. For example, many of the presidents in my study, especially the new ones, cannot seem to carve out time to be home for dinner with the family, because they typically have work that carries over into the evening or a work-related social function they need to engage in after hours. Some guidance from the board on the president's obligations as to when and where he should be seen would be helpful to many of the new-to-office presidents as well as non-academic leaders who are new to their roles.

There are several professional development associations whose mission is to prepare executive leaders for a presidency:

- Harvard Graduate School of Education Professional Education
- American Council on Education Fellows program
- American Association of Community Colleges
- Council of Independent Colleges
- American Association of State Colleges and Universities

Each of the organizations has at least two programs which claim to assist newly hired presidents with making the transition into office, but none offer any seminars focused on preparing the family for the presidency other than sharing information cited in the literature from almost 40 years ago. The initial discoveries in this study can help to inform the direction of future leadership training.

I recommend that spouses, partners, and children have a voice in future research on this topic. In each case, the presidents spoke for their spouses and children, but there was no way to verify or get an alternative explanation of the story telling because it was outside the scope of this study. I cannot help but wonder what triangulating the data gathered for this study would look like if their voices were included.

I also recommend exploring the impact of caring for elderly parents on the presidency. Only one president in my study discussed caring for his parents and his in-laws.

Closure to my Positionality

I don't let the circumstance dictate my reality. All kinds of things happen, good, bad and otherwise. And if something occurs that I had no control over it doesn't mean that I will not try to have control over how I respond. . . I'm not going to be a victim of the work. . . I'm going to make this work because I chose to do this.

--Anonymous college president

As I close, I cannot help but think of this topic from many different perspectives in relation to me, personally (the person, father, doctoral student, researcher, and future president). The summation of all of these perspectives provides closure to my positionality.

As a Person

Not much has changed in the world during the last 17 months. There is still a war; my children are still playing inside; and my fears and goals remain. For me, completing this research represents completing something I thought I was not cut out to do 26 years ago. A doctoral degree was not my goal at the time, but something internal kept pushing me to do this. This may have been the "fire in the belly" a friend of mine mentioned. The world has not changed; I have not changed; but there is something different about me as a result of this process.

As a Father

Doing my best to ensure my children value the discipline and consistency that are necessary for success is still a major focal point. What I have added is the importance of my doing my best to spend time devoted to them. Allowing them an opportunity to get to know me, to understand the obstacles that were in my way and how I overcame them is most important. My epiphanies can be as helpful to them as the presidents' epiphanies were helpful to my study, and as helpful as my father's epiphanies were helpful to me.

As a Researcher

As mentioned earlier, the literature had a wealth of information on motherhood and the college presidency; and in contrast, a dearth of information on fatherhood and the college presidency. The opportunity to make a significant contribution to the scholarly literature concerning work-life balance experienced by male college presidents was there, and I seized it. It was not easy finding these gaps, but I kept thinking of what the literature was saying, what I already knew about presidents with families, and what I wanted to know. I am excited about the opportunity to present this information to professional development associations whose goal is presidential preparation. I think there is a great deal that future presidents can learn from my research.

As a Future College President

The college presidency, to me, still represents hope, vision, and service to a broad community of not just faculty, staff, and students but a community of all those who support

learning and progress. Through both the literature review and my interviews, I understand that even though the responsibilities of a college president are vast, presidents remain concerned with their roles as fathers. When I began my research, I did not think college presidents were overly concerned with their roles as fathers. I thought that their work-role was all-consuming and their spouses filled in where necessary. My upbringing helped me to understand the gap. Although several institutes prepare individuals to become college presidents, none focus on their families. I believe the insights gained in this study will be useful to fathers and would-be fathers who seek to become college presidents in terms of understanding the work-life challenges that lay ahead. They have certainly helped me.

APPENDIX A
PERMISSION TO USE WORK-FAMILY BORDER THEORY



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APPENDIX B
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Introduction to participant: Thank you for coming out to speak to me. My name is Asquith Armstrong and I am interested in hearing about your perspectives on fatherhood as a college president. I appreciate your openness and willingness to participate in my research study.

Introduction to the study: The purpose of this study will be to explore the past recollections of work-life balance and fatherhood through the reported experiences and reflections of selected college presidents. The potential significance of this study is notable since much of the literature on presidents and parenthood has focused on women presidents and their role as mothers. This study will be designed to allow fathers to make meaning of their experiences while employed in their very demanding role as college president. At this time do you feel you still meet the criteria? The initial interview will last approximately 90 minutes based on your responses to various open ended questions. Additionally, you will be asked to meet a second time for 30 minutes to ensure the transcript is correct. If a follow-up interview is required, I will contact you via phone or email to set that up as well.

Explanation of interview proceedings: The interviews will be audio recorded to ensure I do not misinterpret words. The audio recordings will be transcribed so that I may use them in conjunction with other interviews to identify any themes. May I have your permission to begin recording our conversation?

Confidentiality: Everything you state in this interview will remain confidential. Your name, institution, and names of your spouse, children, friends, and co-workers if mentioned will be changed to protect your personal information. If at any time you feel uncomfortable, please let me know.

Thank you again for your participation. Are you ready to begin?

Part I – Demographic questions

1. What degrees did you earn and from where?
2. When did you begin working in higher education?
 - a. What was the job?

3. When did you get married?
4. What position did you hold prior to becoming president?
5. How old were you?
6. How long were you in that position?
7. When did you become a college president?
8. How old were you?
9. How old were your children when you appointed as a college president?
10. Does your wife work outside the home?

Part II – Work-life balance (INTERVIEW)

1. Would you mind describing your schedule in terms of a typical day/week/month?
2. How would the following stakeholders describe your schedule?
 - a. Faculty
 - b. The Board of Trustees
 - c. Family
3. This position has been described by the literature as “juggler-in-chief”. How do you reconcile the competing demands on the professional side?
4. How many hours a week do you work?
5. Do you have “black out” times in your work schedule?
 - a. How many hours a week are you unavailable to the college?
6. Who holds you accountable if you are not spending enough time on work related activities?
7. How often do you travel?
 - a. Is your travel schedule predictable throughout the year?
8. Do you take vacations or annual leave?
 - a. When you are on leave or vacation can the college get in touch with you?
9. You mentioned your work hours above, how much time do you spend with your children on activities such as: School events, Assisting with homework, Medical appointments for your children, Staying home with your children when they are sick, Socializing with your children, Playing with your children?

- a. Are there any other types of activities you engage in with your children?
10. How connected are you to your family when you are at work?
- a. Do you receive calls or visits from family members?
11. How connected are you to your work when you are at home?
- a. How many hours do you spend on college business while working at home after leaving campus?
 - b. How often do you work from home? (Not present in the office)
12. How often do you entertain guests or dignitaries at your home?
- a. How frequently is your family involved in college activities?
13. Who holds you accountable if you are not spending enough time on family related activities?
14. Did your new position as president cause your role as father to change?
15. In order to prepare yourself for the role as college president, you made certain investments in your education and professional development. What investments have you made to ensure your health and lifestyle are fit for the rigors of the position?
- a. Have you had any major health issues?
 - b. Do you exercise? What type of exercise and how often?
 - c. How would you describe your diet?
 - d. Do you eat out often?
 - e. Who is responsible for cooking at home?
 - f. Sleep?
16. What role do you play in household activities? Do you have “chores”?
17. Tell me about your wife and children’s reaction when you were first named president?
- a. Has the feeling changed over the course of your presidency?
18. What would you consider the most stressful aspect of the job?
19. Do you have someone you can talk to about the stresses of the job?
20. How would you describe your balance between work, home, and social aspects of your life?

21. Knowing all that you know now, what would you change to create more balance in your work and family life?

APPENDIX C
INSITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL



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Approval of Exempt Human Research

From: **UCF Institutional Review Board #1**
FWA00000351, IRB00001138

To: **Asquith S. Armstrong**

Date: **March 13, 2015**

Dear Researcher:

On 03/13/2015, the IRB approved the following activity as human participant research that is exempt from regulation:

Type of Review: Exempt Determination
Project Title: Male College Presidents with Children: Recollections on Perceptions of Work-life Balance
Investigator: Asquith S Armstrong
IRB Number: SBE-15-11069
Funding Agency:
Grant Title:
Research ID: N/A

This determination applies only to the activities described in the IRB submission and does not apply should any changes be made. If changes are made and there are questions about whether these changes affect the exempt status of the human research, please contact the IRB. When you have completed your research, please submit a Study Closure request in iRIS so that IRB records will be accurate.

In the conduct of this research, you are responsible to follow the requirements of the [Investigator Manual](#).

On behalf of Sophia Dziegielewski, Ph.D., L.C.S.W., UCF IRB Chair, this letter is signed by:

Signature applied by Patria Davis on 03/13/2015 03:16:08 PM EDT

IRB Coordinator

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