

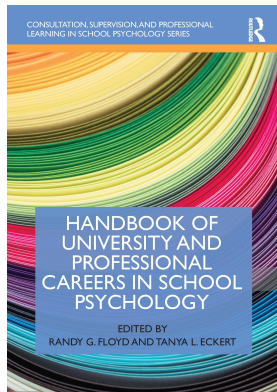
This article was downloaded by: 10.3.97.143

On: 10 Dec 2023

Access details: *subscription number*

Publisher: *Routledge*

Informa Ltd Registered in England and Wales Registered Number: 1072954 Registered office: 5 Howick Place, London SW1P 1WG, UK



## **Handbook of University and Professional Careers in School Psychology**

Randy G. Floyd, Tanya L. Eckert

### **Succeeding as a Woman in School Psychology**

Publication details

<https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9780429330964-17>

Michelle K. Demaray, Robin S. Coddling, Beth Doll, Stacy Overstreet, Janine M. Jones

**Published online on: 30 Dec 2020**

**How to cite :-** Michelle K. Demaray, Robin S. Coddling, Beth Doll, Stacy Overstreet, Janine M. Jones. 30 Dec 2020, *Succeeding as a Woman in School Psychology from: Handbook of University and Professional Careers in School Psychology* Routledge

Accessed on: 10 Dec 2023

<https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/doi/10.4324/9780429330964-17>

**PLEASE SCROLL DOWN FOR DOCUMENT**

Full terms and conditions of use: <https://www.routledgehandbooks.com/legal-notices/terms>

This Document PDF may be used for research, teaching and private study purposes. Any substantial or systematic reproductions, re-distribution, re-selling, loan or sub-licensing, systematic supply or distribution in any form to anyone is expressly forbidden.

The publisher does not give any warranty express or implied or make any representation that the contents will be complete or accurate or up to date. The publisher shall not be liable for an loss, actions, claims, proceedings, demand or costs or damages whatsoever or howsoever caused arising directly or indirectly in connection with or arising out of the use of this material.

# 11 Succeeding as a Woman in School Psychology

*Michelle K. Demaray, Robin S. Coddling, Beth Doll, Stacy Overstreet, and Janine M. Jones*

The goal of this chapter is to cover topics relevant to women who are either pursuing a career or working in a career as an academic in the field of school psychology. The chapter starts with a summary of the history of women in school psychology academic roles to provide a larger historical context. Then, the following issues relevant to women are discussed: (a) experiences of women in the larger university system, such as salary, workload, promotion, and tenure; (b) scholarly productivity; (c) work–life balance; (d) experiences of sexual and gender harassment; and (e) retention of faculty women of color. Suggestions and action steps from throughout the chapter are summarized in Table 11.1 and a list of recommended readings is provided in Table 11.2.

*Table 11.1* Quick Reference Table for Recommended Strategies for Success in Academia

---

## *Strategies for Equity in University Settings*

---

- Faculty Salaries & University Finances
    - Take initiative to request and negotiate appropriate salaries and annual raises
    - Know how own salary compares nationally and regionally and to others in the department and university
    - Know when and how raises are routinely granted, who has authority to approve them, and how to make an informed decision about raise-size request
  - Faculty Workload & University Productivity
    - Understand how productivity is defined by university
    - Think of workload and productivity as a whole
    - Take advice of respective colleagues
    - Engage in intentional reflection to set realistic goals for workload
  - Power, Authority and Building Influence
    - Interact with other university and college leaders outside of immediate department
    - Make own expertise and contributions to the academy known
  - Faculty Contributions & University Value
    - Ensure own contribution and achievements are visible and documented
    - Know that promotion is based on productivity and quality
    - Set vision for promotion and tenure within the first 2 years of joining a department faculty
- 

## *Strategies for Scholarly Productivity*

---

- Leadership
    - Get directly involved in the process of grant awards and professional honors that promote change and success for research
    - Advocate for more women representatives at the table
  - Graduate Training
    - Suggest graduate training programs and seminars
  - Implicit Bias Training
    - Be active in gaining and promoting specific training that help faculty detect subtle bias that may impact hiring and evaluating practices
- 

*(Continued)*

Table 11.1 (Continued)

---

*Strategies to Promote Work–Life Balance*

---

- Self-Care
    - Focus on getting enough quality sleep, exercise, and eating a nutritious diet
    - Promote activities that provide social connectedness
    - Create a gratitude journal to document moments during the day which you are grateful for
    - Use cognitive training to replace automatic negative thoughts by reframing the thought in a positive light
    - Practice mindfulness and meditation
    - Create an active and rewarding life outside of the university
  - Negotiate flexible work arrangements
  - Advocate for family-friendly policies
  - Work on developing good time-management strategies
- 

*Strategies for Handling Sexual and Gender Harassment*

---

- Keep a verbatim record
  - Walk away from the harassment
  - Maintain a written log of date/time, events, location, and people involved
  - Re-examine own boundaries
  - Seek advice of respected colleagues
  - Understand and use reporting and appeals processes
  - Seek out other women to see if a pattern of offensive behavior justifies a collective appeal
- 

*Strategies for Retention of Women of Color Faculty*

---

- Advocate for and enact structured mentoring policies such as peer mentoring programs, support groups, and teaching circles
  - Cluster hire faculty members with common interests from different disciplinary backgrounds
  - Empower faculty to build personal and professional connections with colleagues who also have racialized experiences in life and the workplace
  - Provide faculty the space and support to establish their own organizations and activities where the faculty themselves set the agenda for discussion and action
- 

*Table 11.2 Suggested Readings*

---

**Goldsmith, J. A., Komolos, J., & Gold, P. S. (2001).** *The Chicago guide to your academic career.* Chicago, IL: Chicago Press.

Chapter 10 of this book, “Family, Gender, and the Personal Side of Academic Life” discusses personal challenges that women in academia face. It talks about the effect of family in academic career, shared appointments, discrimination in academia, and sexual harassment and consensual relationships.

**Gutiérrez y Muhs, G., Niemann, Y. F., González, C. G., & Harris, A. P. (2012).** *Presumed incompetent: The intersections of race and class for women in academia.* Logan, UT: Utah State University Press.

*Presumed Incompetent* is a book that focuses directly at the intersecting roles of race, gender, and class in the working lives of women faculty of color. Chapters address topics such as hiring, promotion, and tenure, as well as navigating relationships with students, colleagues, and administrators.

**Seltzer, R. (2015).** *The coach's guide for women professors who want a successful career and well-balanced life.* Sterling, VA: Stylus Publishing, LLC.

A how-to manual with advice on various aspects of academic career. Furthermore, Seltzer brings out the psychological and sociological issues that lies within challenges that scholars face, both at the personal level and societal level.

**Toth, E. (2009).** *Ms. Mentor's new and ever more impeccable advice for women and men in academia.* Philadelphia, PA: University of Pennsylvania.

A guidebook intended for scholars, both men and women alike, to help them navigate through the challenges in academia today.

---

In order to acquire a broad and representative view of women's experiences in academia, a survey was developed by the chapter authors targeting women who previously worked or currently work in academia in the field of school psychology. Results from this survey will be referenced throughout the chapter when discussing relevant topics. The survey built upon but did not replicate a prior survey of women in academia (Akin-Little, Bray, Eckert, & Kehle, 2004). After receiving Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, a Qualtrics link to the survey was sent out on two listservs (i.e., Trainers of School Psychology and Council of Directors of School Psychology). The survey link was also posted in one Facebook group for school psychologists with approximately 16,000 members (i.e., Said No School Psychologist Ever).

Responses were received from 224 individuals who identified as women. Most participants identified as White (87%), while the rest identified as African American (8%), Latino or Hispanic (4%), Asian or Pacific Islander (3%), Native American (1%), and Other (<1%). Most of the respondents were currently employed in an academic position (89%), and their mean length of years in academia was 13 years. The mean age of the sample was 47 years. Regarding the highest degree conferred, 91% of participants had a PhD, 4% had a PsyD, 3% had an EdD, and 3% had a MA/MS or Specialist degree. These degrees were conferred from 35 different states. Sixty-five percent of the participants reported having tenure. In terms of rank, 33% of respondents were at the assistant level, 33% were at the associate level, and 27% were full professors. Most respondents were employed in a specialist training program (69%), 44% were employed in a PhD-doctoral training program, and 9% were employed in a PsyD-doctoral training program. Less than half of respondents were employed in American Psychological Association (APA)-accredited programs (41%), and the majority (74%) were employed in National Association of School Psychologists (NASP)-approved programs. Most women (77%) reported being married or living with a significant other. Sixty percent of women reported having children, and on average, participants had two children.

## History of Women in School Psychology Academia

The migration of women into the psychology faculty occurred gradually. Scarborough (1992) described the first three decades of the new discipline of psychology (1892–1921) as initially gender neutral and open. By 1920, the same year as the ratification of the 19th Amendment to the United States Constitution granting women the right to vote, there were 61 women members of the American Psychological Association (APA). These women were active in presenting papers at the annual meetings, and two women were elected president of APA in its early years: Mary Calkins in 1906 and Margaret Washburn in 1922. Subsequently, as the profession of psychology gained in prominence and confidence, it also became increasingly restricted to men, although women continued to participate as practitioners, particularly in education and social services. Scarborough concluded,

Women were attracted to the field, sought and obtained the necessary training through graduate study, regularly contributed to the knowledge base of the discipline, and were admitted without prejudice to the national association. Full participation in governance, however, was realized by only a very few of them. (p. 311)

School psychology was no exception. Between 1920 and 1970, 32% of the doctoral degrees in school psychology were awarded to women, but only 22% of the faculty positions were filled by women (Fagan & Wise, 2007). Progress of women into the faculty was slow but inexorable. By 1983, 59.5% of the doctorates in school psychology were earned by women (Alpert, Genshaft, & Maria, 1988). Five years later, in 1988, 42% of Division 16 members were women,

and 41% of the division's presidents over the previous 40 years had been women. Women had moved into positions of recognition in prominent school psychology journals, representing approximately a third of the editorial boards for the journals *Professional School Psychology*, *School Psychology Review*, and *Journal of School Psychology*. However, as of that year, there had not been a single woman editor of the journals, and estimates were that only 18% (estimated by APA) or 28% (estimated by the National Association of School Psychologists; NASP) of school psychology faculty members were women. Moreover, there were no good data to describe the academic rank of women members of the school psychology faculty, but other information from that time suggests that a disproportionate number of women were lecturers and instructors rather than faculty members in the tenure track, and it was still the case that more women had master's degrees than had doctoral degrees (Russo, Olmedo, Stapp, & Fulcher, 1981).

Within the next two decades, school psychology shifted to be a profession of predominantly women (Castillo, Curtis, & Gelley, 2013). By 2009, 77% of the practicing school psychologists, 80% of the graduate students enrolled in school psychology training programs, and 62% of the school psychology faculty were women. Nevertheless, women's gender majority did not necessarily bring about gender equity. Advancement in the academy is linked inevitably to achievements and recognition external to the university (e.g., acceptance of papers for publication, funding awards for research, organizational leadership, and awards) that subsequently become drivers for advancement internal to the university (e.g., salary, tenure, rank, and administrative leadership). Both internal and external achievements and recognition were more restricted for women. Rosa Hagin (1993) concluded, "Although participation of women in organizational leadership, honors, fellow status and publications may reflect some degree of underrepresentation compared with the gender ratios in the field, historically school psychology has provided many women with a growing, challenging professional specialty" (p. 123). We agree, but progress toward gender equity continues to be a priority.

### **Framing Women's Academic Careers within the Ecosystem of Universities**

Any progress toward gender equity must acknowledge the gendered nature of universities (Acker, 1990; National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, Medicine, 2018). Universities have largely been built by men, for men, who are more likely to hold leadership positions in academia and continue to make up a disproportionate ratio of full professors (Hatch, 2017; West & Curtis, 2006). Thus, universities are organized in ways that create and perpetuate inequities through workload expectations, role models, recognition systems, and interpersonal interactions (O'Meara, Kuvava, Nyunt, Waugaman, & Jackson, 2017). Given their organization and structure, it is not surprising that gendered inequities exist in terms of salary, workload, promotion and tenure, and experiences of sexual and gender harassment.

#### ***Salary***

Since the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) began collecting separate faculty salary data for women and men in the late 1970s, gender pay gaps have remained virtually unchanged (Hatch, 2017; West & Curtis, 2006). From the time of hiring through each full-time faculty rank, women earn less than men (West & Curtis, 2006). Despite 2014–2015 salary data showing that women's salaries grew at a slightly higher rate than men's, that growth was not enough to close the gender pay gap (Hatch, 2017). Based on 2017–2018 salary data,

salaries for women on the tenure track or with tenure fall between 91% and 98% of men's salaries, depending on the rank and the Carnegie classification of the university (see <https://data.chronicle.com/>).

Results from our survey are consistent with gender pay gaps observed in the literature with 67% of women reporting that the climate at their university favored men in salary determinations, while only 22% reported the climate supported equity in pay. Interestingly, a small percentage of women (11%) reported the climate at their university favored women, which could reflect efforts at their university to close the gender pay gap.

### *Promotion and Tenure*

A recent report by the TIAA Institute (Finkelstein, Conley, & Schuster, 2016) documented a 31% gain in faculty who are women appointed to tenure-track positions from 1993 to 2013, compared to a 2.4% loss in tenure-track faculty who are men. Across all colleges and universities, women faculty make up 48% of tenure-track faculty, making them roughly on a par with men in tenure-track appointments. However, women remain less likely than men to gain tenure or promotion to full professor. Across all colleges and universities, women faculty make up 38% of the tenured faculty and 36% of full professors.

The APA-Committee on Women in Psychology (CWP) report (2017) indicated that approximately 40% of psychologists employed in colleges and universities are women. Interestingly, these data were disaggregated by profession permitting a window into how these factors align with school psychology. The APA-CWP task force concluded that within school psychology, the average annual change from 1990 to 2012 in the production of doctoral-level professionals was represented by a 54% decrease for men and a 102% increase for women. In this report, the largest percentage of women doctoral students was found in school psychology programs (83%), yet the median percentage of women doctoral-level school psychology faculty was 50%. These data may suggest that many women psychologists with doctorates are not choosing to enter academe, which is likely contributing to the prevalent faculty shortages in school psychology (Castillo, Curtis, & Tan, 2014). Although these numbers are a welcome sign of the shrinking gender gap, they also indicate there is more work to be done.

Results from our survey concur. Overall, 56% of women reported that the climate at their university supported gender equity in the advancement to tenure; 45% perceived gender equity in the advancement to full professor. However, a minority of 32% believed that the climate favored men in tenure advancement. Some of these perceptions may be driven by the different workloads often faced by men and women on the tenure track.

### *Workload*

Studies of workload allocation have found that women faculty engage in more service and teaching activities, which are often viewed as less prestigious than research, relative to their White male colleagues (O'Meara et al., 2017). O'Meara and her colleagues (2017) found evidence of these trends in a study of 111 associate and full professors at 13 research universities. In their study results, women spent significantly fewer hours per week engaged in research activities and significantly more hours per week engaged in teaching and advising activities than men. In addition, women received 3.4 more new work requests than men over the 4 weeks of the study, and those new requests were more likely to be for service, advising, or teaching-related activities.

Women in our survey also noted gender differences in faculty workload. The disparities reported in academic labor were striking, if not surprising. In our survey, most women (80%)

indicated that they have more service responsibilities than men and that they bear greater responsibility in supporting students (87%). Additionally, most women (57%) also reported bearing more of the responsibility for teaching, although 40% of women felt teaching responsibilities were equitable in their institutions. Fewer women (35%) reported equitable research opportunities; 45% of women felt that men had more responsibility for research. This gendered pattern of academic labor where women are spending more of their time in “organizational housekeeping” and less of their time in valued research activities undoubtedly contributes to the disparities in tenure and promotion.

### *Strategies for Equity in the University*

A pivotal question is, what should women in the academy do to position themselves for equity? Strategies must necessarily be cognizant of the unique social ecosystems of universities in the United States as they have evolved in the 21st century. Granted, this ecosystem is gendered, and women’s paths towards equity continue to be met with difficult obstacles. However, certain aspects of this ecosystem are particularly relevant to women’s work to build professional careers as members of the school psychology faculty.

**University finances and faculty salaries.** To compete effectively for shrinking university dollars, women faculty need to seize the initiative to request appropriate salaries and annual raises and to be savvy negotiators when making these requests. Successful negotiations are always informed negotiations (Gunsalus, 2006). When negotiating starting salaries, candidates for faculty positions need to know the national and regional salary ranges in their discipline as well as the salary offers that have been extended to other new hires in their profession and in the unit where they are candidates. Because school psychology has struggled with faculty shortages for a few decades, salary offers for beginning faculty may fall towards the upper end of existing salary ranges.

In requesting raises, women need very specific information about how their own salary compares to all faculty in their department and college. (Cherry-picking the salaries of one or two highly paid colleagues opens a request to easy dismissal.) In most public institutions, salaries are public information, but it will require some work to pull the salary data and sort it by rank and years in rank. The sorted list will support an informed decision about the raise size to request; accompanying that request with the sorted salary data will provide specific facts in support of the request’s size. A second critical piece of information is when and how raises are routinely granted within the institution and who has the authority to approve them. Requests made outside of these timelines and procedures are more difficult to act upon. In most public institutions, annual raises are linked to annual merit reviews that are the responsibility of department chairs. Generally, authority over the amount of salary funds available for raises rests with the dean or upper administration. These annual raises are usually incremental but can accrue over time to correct salary inequities. Often, a department chair or dean may also have a small, optional fund to bump up salary in special cases. When salary data show that a woman’s salary is seriously compressed relative to men on the faculty, or when a pattern of inequities is pronounced across several women in a department or college, the most productive strategy is to meet with and request assistance from the dean, department chair, or both in addressing the inequities. When these steps are not effective, most colleges or universities have a process for applying for salaries to be realigned to address gender inequities. A faculty member can make a formal appeal for restitution of inequitable salary decisions.

**University productivity and faculty workloads.** As university budgets have grown snug, the attention of higher education administrators has focused more narrowly on comparing program costs to program outcomes—enrollment, tuition dollars earned, time to graduation, numbers of graduates, credit hour production per faculty member, external funds secured,

and program contributions to the university's reputation. Stagnant budgets mean that growth in highly valued programs now comes at the expense of already established programs in the university. Programs that flourish under these conditions are those that are entrepreneurial, maintain close connections with university leadership, are familiar with their program data, and identify pragmatic strategies for optimizing it. For women, these changes have meant that faculty workload expectations are less flexible and likely to be closely linked to faculty productivity.

Consequently, women faculty members need to understand what constitutes productivity in their current institution. These metrics have shifted in the last decade. As one example, teaching used to be measured by counting the number of credit hours taught by a faculty member; however, to link teaching productivity more closely to the tuition dollars that it generates, current practice is to count the number of student credit hours generated by the faculty member's courses. In the past, research productivity was assessed by counting the number of refereed journal publications authored by a faculty member; however, to link research productivity more closely to its reputational value to the institution, current practice is to examine the impact factors and number of citations generated by a faculty member's published work. Competitive research funding has gained even more importance, as it represents one solution to snug university budgets; however, other sources of external funding (contracted work, non-competitive grants, and donor contributions) have gained in value as these, too, contribute to the financial resources of the unit.

Women faculty need to consider their workload relative to the collective work assigned to their unit and how their own productivity contributes to the collective. National indicators suggest that, in most cases, the contributions of women faculty members will be disproportionate to their numbers. Importantly, it is no longer possible to represent a faculty member's workload with a single metric (e.g., teaching a 2-2 load). Instead, the multiple indices of productivity are better represented by a profile that, taken together, can be compared to the work allocated among the other members of the faculty and staff. While some universities have written guidelines related to workload, many do not, and untangling traditions can require conversations with several respected colleagues within the unit.

There is one variable that women members of the faculty have more control over—the amount of time that they spend completing each assignment of their workload. With intentional reflection and using the advice of respected colleagues, a faculty member can set realistic goals for the time they will allocate to each aspect of their load. For example, early career faculty can allocate teaching time (e.g., 2 hours of preparation for each hour of class time) and limit service to no more than 3–4 hours weekly and protect their remaining time for research and scholarship.

**Power, authority, and building influence.** As unencumbered funds have become less available, universities' financial decision-making has become increasingly centralized outside of departments to the deans, provosts, chancellors, and presidents. Thus, representation among the tenured faculty is no longer sufficient to guarantee women's place at the table as much as representation among the lead college, campus, and university administrators. Consequently, women faculty members need to know who makes which decision within their university and to seek out opportunities to insert themselves into the network of college and university leaders outside their immediate department. This requires judicious planning; it is still important that women not over-commit to service responsibilities that displace the time they will spend in building their scholarship. However, the principle is important: At least some service needs to be spent within the college or broader university to contribute to the faculty member's network of colleagues. The goal is to “manage up” so that other members of the institutional community will know the faculty member's name, expertise, and contributions to the academy.

**What universities value and how faculty contributions are counted.** Universities are competitive work environments that simultaneously value collaboration and team science while



also expecting that each faculty member's record of achievement will stand strong and compare favorably against others of similar rank. The paradox does not go unnoticed. An apt explanation of this shift has been represented in the strategic plan of the University of Nebraska Lincoln's College of Education and Human Sciences; the plan prioritized constellations of collective scholarly achievement over a few bright stars of individual scholarly excellence. Women faculty members will need to choose constellations wisely and ensure that the excellence of their contributions is visible and documented. Women who can represent their achievements within the metrics of the university will be better prepared for promotion and tenure decisions. Metrics for promotion build on those representing productivity, such as student credit hour production, peer-reviewed publications, and the number of advisees. However, promotion and tenure decisions give equal if not greater emphasis to quality metrics, such as evidence of teaching quality, impact and citation of publications, authorship showing notable leadership on an equitable share of publications, and local regional and national awards and invitations. Since many professional accomplishments completed today will show up on a vita 2 years later, women need to seek out a clear vision of the traditions for promotion and tenure within their first 2 years of joining a department faculty.

### **Scholarly Productivity of Women in the Academe**

Scholarly productivity is the cornerstone of a tenure-track faculty position. Gender inequities in scholarly recognition have been documented across various aspects including publication rates, grant funding, scholarship honors, invited talks, and representation in the editorial process. These gaps in opportunities and recognition are likely responsible, in part, for the discrepancy observed between men's and women's rates of promotion and tenure and the underrepresentation of women in psychology at the full professor level (APA-CWP, 2017).

Across the subdisciplines of psychology, women's publication rates are lower than men's publication rates regardless of career stage (e.g., Duch et al., 2012). Additionally, these lower publication rates among women faculty have been found to be associated with resources required to conduct research. Therefore, gender differences in institutional support impact women's publication rates, particularly in professions where research expenditures are high. This pattern is observed in psychology but to a lesser degree than other STEM fields because the cost of conducting research is less (Duch et al., 2012). National and international research collaborations are also consistent predictors of research productivity, and women are less likely than men to report engaging in such collaborations (Padilla-Gonzalez, Metcalfe, Galaz-Fontes, Fisher, & Snee, 2011).

Several studies have examined the individual scholarly productivity of school psychology faculty, yet only three studies examined differences according to gender. These studies differed in terms of the faculty sampled. Grapin et al. (2013) examined the productivity of doctoral-level faculty from APA-approved programs finding that although there were more women faculty members, men produced significantly more publications with higher citations. These differences persisted across faculty rank, with the descriptive data suggesting a larger proportional difference at the assistant professor level. Conversely, Watkins and Chan-Park (2015) included tenured and tenure-track faculty across both doctoral and specialist-level training programs. Although these authors found significant gender differences for *h*-index factors, after accounting for seniority this difference dissipated. In this sample, more men represented senior faculty, and a greater proportion were at the rank of full professors. More women faculty were identified at assistant and associate ranks. Another recent analysis by Johnson, Schneider, Hulac, and Ushijima (2017) including faculty from both doctoral- and specialist-level programs found that neither gender nor rank was significantly related to productivity; however, Carnegie classification and working within an APA-accredited program were important predictors. These

latter findings point to environmental factors associated with the university or program that may be important to consider when interpreting faculty productivity results. Without consistent evaluation across time considering the increasing proportion of women in the profession and in relation to environmental factors, it is difficult to determine whether women's scholarly productivity is commensurate with that of men.

Another indicator for evaluating equity in scholarly productivity is to assess opportunities for grant awards. With respect to grant awards, women tend to be more successful receiving funding from the National Science Foundation (NSF) than men. It is important to point out that beginning in 2001, NSF developed an initiative directed at addressing gender inequity in academe by removing barriers faced by women (e.g., Zippel & Feree, 2019). However, women were less likely than men to be recipients of grant awards from the National Institutes of Health (NIH; women received about 30% of NIH awards in 2012) and received, on average, lower amounts of funding than men (Shen, 2013). The proportion of women serving on review panels for the NIH is also about 30%, thereby mirroring the proportion of women funded. The Society for the Study of School Psychology offers two grant funding opportunities supporting early career scholars and doctoral candidates. The award history, which is publicly available, illustrates that 63% of early career award recipients were women, and 86% of dissertation award recipients were women.

The APA-CWP report also demonstrated underrepresentation among women in the editorial process—finding that 41% of women psychologists in APA in 2013 were involved in APA journals, albeit primarily in ad-hoc roles, and women only represent 18% of APA editors. Across the major school psychology journals, gender equity in editorships has varied. For example, since their inception, between 20% and 27% of editors of *School Psychology Review*, *Psychology in the Schools*, and *School Psychology International* were women. However, the first women editors of the *Journal of School Psychology* and *School Psychology* (formerly *School Psychology Quarterly*) were only recently named in 2015 and 2020, respectively. Other journals, such as the *Canadian Journal of School Psychology* and *Journal of Applied School Psychology*, have never had a woman editor (Floyd, 2018).

Gender disparities have been and continue to be present in terms of awards recognizing women's scholarship in psychology, although these discrepancies have reduced over time. For example, one-third of all APA fellows are women. Although the APA-CWP (2017) noted an increase in APA awards given to women, women represent only 38% of recipients, and men were awarded significantly more often in six out of seven categories. Women are notably underrepresented among the awards for distinguished scientific contributions and applications. Among Division 16 (APA) fellows, a similar discrepancy is present with women representing 29% of recipients. Division 16 also offers the Outstanding Dissertation, Lightner Witmer, and Senior Scientist awards, all of which recognize scholarship at various career levels. Perhaps illustrative of the overall patterns noted in the APA-CWP report, a large proportion of women received the dissertation award (80%), whereas 36% received the Lightner Witmer award, and only 17% received the Senior Scientist award.

In our survey, when asked whether women or men engage in more research at their professional institution, respondents indicated that men engage in slightly more research than women. More specifically, 38% of respondents agreed (strongly or somewhat) that men have more opportunities for collaborations, and 40% perceived (strongly or somewhat agreed) gender inequities for research mentorship favoring men. Thirty-seven percent of respondents perceived gender inequities within opportunities for grant funding. Likewise, 36% of respondents felt they had less opportunities to receive awards than men. When asked about the level of current stress for conducting research, 38% of respondents reported no or mild stress, 37% reported moderate stress, and 25% reported much or extreme stress. In response to the question of whether the editorial process is equally fair for men and women, 49% of respondents

neither agreed nor disagreed with this statement, 27% agreed that the editorial process was fair (strongly or somewhat agree), and 24% disagreed (strongly or somewhat) that this process was fair. The patterns in these data are notable given that research was rated as the top job expectation for only 27% of respondents, whereas teaching was rated as the primary role for 69% of respondents.

### *Strategies for Scholarly Productivity*

**Leadership.** When it comes to gender disparities in grant awards and professional honors one proactive strategy is to get directly involved in the process (APA-CWP, 2017). The good news is that within APA, D16 represents 1 of 11 divisions in which the majority (57%) of members are women, indicating active engagement compared to other divisions. Choosing service commitments that will simultaneously promote potential success in research is a way to integrate workload expectations and advocate effectively for change. For example, women may choose to join executive board committees that govern the integrity of the award processes or volunteer to serve as a member on, or chair of, award committees. Participating as part of a grant review panel is an important professional activity as it not only permits exposure to the process but also ensures that more women have a place at the table. Assisting with university, college, and departmental policies that provide adequate travel funding and incentives for national and international research collaboration may have a direct impact on the research productivity of women (Padilla-Gonzalez et al., 2011). Finally, most editorial review boards offer opportunities to serve first as ad hoc reviewers; however, after repeated requests to serve in this capacity, it is appropriate to request a seat on the editorial board.

**Graduate training.** Rather than leaving mentorship, grant writing, and career planning up to individual faculty members or advisors, it behooves graduate training programs to incorporate training systematically so that it is equally available to all students (Kratochwill, Shernoff, & Sanetti, 2004). For example, seminars on grant writing that include reviewing available funding streams for research are useful along with mentorship for career planning, research, and leadership. As an example, with the support of a United States Department of Education Office of Special Education Programs training grant awarded to the University of Minnesota, leadership training seminars were conducted twice monthly for all interested students that covered topics such as research funding supports, grant agencies, faculty searches, faculty job interviews, generating research agendas, constructing curricula vitae, and establishing a line of research. Some institutions have also established advising guidelines that promote equity across roles and responsibilities of advisors as well as time and access to advisors.

**Implicit bias training.** Gender bias, albeit well documented, is often subtle, unintentional, and embedded in the systems and practices of universities (Cundiff, Danube, Zawadzki, & Shields, 2018). For example, empirical studies have found substantial evidence for implicit bias in relation to hiring (e.g., women viewed as less hireable, offered lower salaries, and provided less mentoring) and performance evaluations (e.g., Hart, 2016; Heilman, 2012; Moss-Racusin, Dovidio, Breascoll, Graham, & Handelsman, 2012). However, one study illustrated it is possible to provide specific training that is active and experiential with game-like elements that can help faculty detect subtle bias, which can impact hiring as well as evaluation practices, including tenure and promotion decisions (Cundiff et al., 2018).

### **Work–Life Balance and Available Supports**

One common issue for working women is achieving work–life balance. In research on the division of labor in United States households where two parents work by the Pew Research Center (2015), more working mothers reported difficulty balancing work and family (60%) compared

to fathers (52%). Interestingly, work-family balance becomes more difficult for mothers with more education. Among working mothers with a college or graduate degree, 70% say they struggle with work-family balance (versus 61% of men reporting such; Pew Research Center, 2015). Research on work-life balance in academia has found that women report more difficulty with maintaining balance (Fox, Fonseca, & Bao, 2011; Wilton & Ross, 2017). The time when women are starting their academic careers or trying to obtain tenure is also the time when they may be starting a family making work-life balance more challenging for women (Ward & Wolf-Wendel, 2004).

In our survey, women were asked to rate the stress of balancing a full-time academic job and other obligations, 86% said it is more stressful for women than men. When asked about the stress of balancing work and parenting responsibilities, 99% said it was more stressful for women than men. These results are in line with other research conducted on women in academia (Fox et al., 2011; Wilton & Ross, 2017). In addition, these two work-balance questions were presented in a survey of women in school psychology academic positions conducted by Akin-Little and colleagues (2004). However, the rating format for these two questions in the prior survey ranged from 1 = *More Stressful for Men* to 7 = *More Stressful for Women*. In response to the statements, “Female faculty experience more stress with balancing work and other obligations than male faculty” and “Female faculty experience more stress associated with balancing parenting responsibilities than male faculty,” participants clearly reported these tasks were more difficult for women with ratings of 6.36 and 6.38, respectively.

### *Supports for Work-Life Balance*

**Family-friendly policies in the university.** In our survey, when women were asked if family-friendly policies were in place within their university, 13% strongly agreed, 40% somewhat agreed, 15% neither agreed or disagreed, 20% disagreed, and 11% strongly disagreed. Of the women surveyed, 31% had taken a family medical leave (FML) during their career with 64% of those women taking one leave, 33% taking two, and 3% taking three. Of the women who took FML, 83% received a paid leave with 72% receiving full compensation for their paid leaves. Additionally, 25% indicated that they delayed their tenure by an average of 1 year.

**Available departmental support.** Women in the survey rated their departments as having more family-friendly policies than their universities. In fact, when asked if family-friendly policies are in place within their departments, 35% strongly agreed, 34% somewhat agreed, 14% neither agreed or disagreed, 12% disagreed, and 5% strongly disagreed. The following supports were offered by departments to help with balancing work and family responsibilities: 30% extended time for tenure, 26% paid family leave, 10% course reduction after birth, 19% alternative work schedule (e.g., 40 hours in 4 days), and 10% other supports. Six percent said none of these supports were offered by their department. Almost all of the women (96%) said they work from home some days each week; the same amount reported flexibility in the hours they work. Approximately half of the respondents with children altered the number of days they worked to take care of children.

**Support from other sources.** In our survey, the most common supports reported by women included live-in partners (32%), friends (30%), relatives/family (19%), daycare providers/nannies (16%), and other (3%). Some of the other supports were babysitters, children’s schools, and after school programs.

### *Strategies to Promote Work-Life Balance*

**Commitment to self-care.** Commitment to self-care is critical in preventing burnout and impaired professional functioning (Barnett, Baker, Elman, & Schoener, 2007). As such, it

is especially important for faculty members to take measures in order to avoid burnout and psychological distress, which can take the form of self-care. Owens and colleagues (2018) provided an excellent summary of strategies for faculty members to promote work–life balance. These strategies include attending to one’s physical health as well as mental health. In regard to physical health, suggestions for improving sleep, exercise, and diet were provided. They also recommended connecting socially by promoting activities that provide social connectedness. Lastly, they suggested cognitive training; specifically, they recommend replacing automatic negative thoughts via cognitive reappraisal or reframing with positive ones in order to reduce negative emotions and stress. Other recommended strategies included mindfulness and meditation, which research has shown to be related to stress reduction (van der Zwan, de Vente, Huizink, Bögels, & de Bruin, 2015).

**Negotiate flexible work arrangements.** Most of the sample of women faculty we surveyed described participating in flexible work arrangements. This may be one of the more important negotiation tactics that women can engage in. Flexible working arrangements can include work-from-home arrangements (spatial flexibility) that minimize work-family strain and increase efficiency, increased compensation for childcare expenses, extending or pausing the tenure clock, or varied work schedules (temporal flexibility) to address unpredictable family circumstances or permit women to spend 1 or 2 days per week providing full-time care for children (Fuller & Hirsh, 2019; Halpern, 2008).

One study suggested that university environments that promote spousal hiring policies or job search assistance in addition to family leave policies are advantageous (Halpern, 2008; Padilla-Gonzalez et al., 2011). Being married or living with a partner was found to be a predictor of research productivity for faculty women yet research productivity rates of married faculty women have been shown to be lower than those of married faculty men. Such policies may minimize the tension that can be associated with dual-working partners. Advocating for family-friendly policies at the college and university levels is important to ensure that these policies are substantial enough to produce the intended benefits. Some examples from Halpern (2008) include (a) one semester leave or substantially reduced duties for new parents with caretaking responsibilities, (b) pausing the tenure clock for 1 year to permit time to care of a newborn or newly adopted child, (c) flexible start-time schedule to accommodate substantial caregiving responsibilities, and (d) 1-year unpaid leave to care for child or other family member. Other institutional support mechanisms that can be instituted include a commitment to availability of high-quality childcare (including infant care) and housing assistance.

**Promote family-friendly university policies.** Early career faculty women should be made aware of the university policies that are available to them, and tenured faculty members should dedicate effort to ensuring that faculty women feel supported when taking advantage of family-friendly policies. Researchers have documented that many new faculty women do not utilize parental leave or “stop-the clock” policies because of a perceived implicit bias against caregiving (Halpern, 2008). Motherhood penalties or similar types of stereotyping have been more recently recognized in the legal court systems as a violation of equal rights legislation (Halpern, 2008).

## **Sexual and Gender Harassment**

The social interactions women experience in universities also differ from those of their male colleagues. In a groundbreaking meta-analysis of sexual harassment across different workplace environments, Ilies, Hauserman, Schwochau, and Stibal (2003) found that 58% of women faculty and staff experienced sexual harassment, which represented the second highest rate of sexual harassment reported in the study, with the highest rate occurring in the military. The majority of harassment experienced by women faculty and staff is characterized as gender

harassment, which includes “verbal and nonverbal behaviors that convey hostility, exclusion, or second-class status about members of one gender . . . [and] comments that denigrate women as a group or individuals” (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine, 2018, p. 29). Other types of sexual harassment, such as unwanted sexual attention and advances, are rarely experienced in the absence of gender harassment.

Our survey asked women faculty to report whether they had ever experienced gender harassment (e.g., sexually inappropriate language and a condescending attitude toward women), sexual harassment (e.g., sexual solicitation and sexually inappropriate touching), and gender discrimination (e.g., discrimination based on gender). A large percent, 82%, reported experiencing gender harassment, and 16% reported experiencing sexual harassment at some time during their career. Consistent with the findings of the National Academies (2018), the experiences were significantly positively correlated ( $r = .20$ ,  $p < .01$ ). In the absence of gender harassment, not a single woman in our survey reported sexual harassment; however, for women who experienced gender harassment, 19% also experienced sexual harassment. Gender discrimination was reported by 45% of the sample and was significantly correlated with sexual harassment ( $r = .25$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and gender harassment ( $r = .30$ ,  $p < .001$ ).

When asked “If sexually harassed, did you report it to your university?” only 21% of women who responded to this question indicated that they reported the harassment. There are myriad factors that affect whether a woman chooses to report harassment. On the one hand, women may not label the behaviors they experienced as sexual harassment or they may not consider the behavior as sufficiently serious to report (Cantor et al., 2015; Ilies et al., 2003). In these instances, women may worry that their reports will not be taken seriously or be addressed, decreasing the likelihood that they will report the experience. On the other hand, even when women clearly label the behavior as harassment and are motivated to report, they may worry that the formal reporting process will result in backlash or retaliation and thus choose not to report (Tenbrunsel, Rees, & Diekmann, 2019). Unfortunately, most women (87%) in our survey who reported their harassment were slightly to extremely dissatisfied with how the incident was handled. As noted by Tenbrunsel and colleagues (2019), universities’ commitment to academic freedom, shared governance, and due process can result in weak responses to sexual harassment. Furthermore, the confidential nature of due process proceedings in academia often result in uncertainty about whether and how the report was addressed.

The experience of harassment and the stress of navigating the reporting process, even if a woman ultimately chooses not to report, can have negative personal and professional outcomes (Tenbrunsel et al., 2019). Our survey data indicate that the experience of sexual harassment had a greater negative impact on women’s careers than the experience of gender harassment. Of women who reported experiencing sexual harassment, 47% reported a moderate to great negative impact on their career; only 8% of women who reported gender harassment indicated the same level of negative impact.

### *Strategies for Handling Sexual and Gender Harassment*

Two of the most urgent needs of women faculty members are (1) identifying strategies for reacting in the moment to bad behavior and (2) securing the formal university procedures to file a complaint to make it stop. In the moment—when confronted by an abusive or harassing statement or act—the faculty member is often shocked, hurt, and uncertain of what to do. Particularly if she is in a position of lesser power, and if the abusive behavior is continuing, the inclination is to do nothing. In the face of verbal misbehavior, an immediate and often effective option is to begin writing a verbatim record of what is being said; this seems to be effective because the act of writing cues the offender that these words will be open to judgment. When an offensive behavior continues, physically walk away from the situation. In every case, keep a

written log of the date and time, what happened, where it occurred, and who else was in the room. The log will be an important record if a formal complaint is made. Being the recipient of bad behavior is always a cue to re-examine one's own boundaries including the places, people, routines, or activities that are detrimental. It can be valuable to seek the advice of one or more respected colleagues to identify what could be done to prevent future occurrences. Regardless, avoid the trap of holding oneself personally responsible for causing the offender to behave in abusive or unprofessional ways.

In the event that a formal complaint is necessary, it is important that women faculty members understand the process for appeals within their institution including who receives the appeal, the procedures that are followed, the consequences that this might hold for oneself and the offender, and the timeline that is followed. It is almost always the case that an appeal proceeds more predictably if the faculty member has first attempted to resolve the problem with the department chair and college dean. When that is not possible, many universities also have an ombudsperson with whom the problem can be discussed as well as the optional steps that can be taken. In the event of a formal appeal, the written, factual log of events that have occurred is valuable supporting evidence. Often, women will decide not to move forward with a formal complaint because the consequences are likely to be harmful to their career. Before deciding to abandon the complaint, seek out other women in the unit and determine whether the bad behavior is a repeated pattern that has victimized multiple colleagues. A collective appeal may have greater impact than that of a single faculty member.

### **Retention of Women of Color Faculty**

The shift in gender composition of school psychologists from predominately men to predominantly women is one of the most dramatic changes in the history of the field (Castillo, Curtis, & Gelley, 2013). This dramatic shift, however, has not proportionately occurred with regard to the racial diversity of school psychology faculty. Of the estimated 230 doctoral degrees granted in school psychology in 2013, only 57 (25%) were awarded to individuals from racially diverse backgrounds, including African American, Hispanic, Latinx, Asian, and American Indian backgrounds (Grapin, Bocanegra, Green, Lee, & Jaafar, 2016; National Science Foundation, 2013). Diverse racial representation continues to develop at a glacial pace despite the proliferation of efforts in colleges and universities to increase the presence of underrepresented faculty including pipeline programs focused on graduate students (McMurtrie, 2016). Regardless, the proportion of underrepresented faculty remains the same. The need for innovative and better-informed diversification strategies is clear.

### ***The Continuing Challenges to Diversifying the Professoriate***

As colleges and universities have undertaken efforts to diversify their faculty (Shinnar & Williams, 2008), questions remain regarding the unfavorable experiences of these faculty members, particularly in cases where changes in traditional practices and procedures have been minimal. Researchers have identified a variety of challenges still encountered by faculty of color at predominantly White institutions that provide insight into the continuing complexities associated with faculty retention. Within our survey, when asked whether supports specifically tailored for women of color faculty are present, a resounding 71% of respondents indicated no.

Faculty diversity initiatives are intended to promote a campus climate that is fully welcoming of diversity (Milem, Chang, & Antonio, 2005). Despite these and other diversity initiatives, however, many faculty of color perceive campus climates that are not welcoming, and this often has a major impact on their job satisfaction and their decision to stay at an institution (Laden & Hagedorn, 2000). A national study of campus climate, retention, and job satisfaction found

that 75% of underrepresented faculty surveyed considered their campus climates to be moderately to highly negative and that an increased desire to leave the academy was associated with an increased perception of racial hostility on campus (Jayakumar, Howard, Allen, & Han, 2009). These researchers found that Black and Latinx faculty reported the highest levels of racial hostility and that this was correlated with reporting the lowest levels of job satisfaction. Interestingly, the study also found that the retention rates of White faculty members were highest at the institutions with perceived hostile racial climates.

Indicators of racial hostility are apparent to faculty of color through myriad of their professional responsibilities, especially their research agendas. In circumstances where the research agendas for faculty of color are influenced by dimensions of race and ethnicity, there is a perceived risk that their scholarship will be undervalued and serve as a barrier to tenure. Faculty women of color are most likely to feel scrutinized by their colleagues and least likely to believe that colleagues value their research (Gutierrez y Muhs, Neimann, Gonzalez, & Harris, 2012; Thomas & Hollenshead, 2001). Universities need to develop tenure and promotion procedures that reward and value diverse knowledge systems, ways of thinking, and scholarly contributions (Williams & Williams, 2006).

In teaching, challenges from students in the classroom can place faculty of color, and particularly women of color, in positions of having to establish and defend their authority (Gutierrez y Muhs et al., 2012; Rockquemore & Laszloffy, 2008; Thomas & Hollenshead, 2001; Turner, 2002). Faculty of color are mindful of their tone of voice, facial expressions, body language, and choice of attire used while in the classroom, as these relate to perceived levels of competence (Constantine, Smith, Redington, & Owens, 2008). Without institutional support, authority-challenging interactions with students and other classroom experiences can lead to perceptions of a hostile racial climate, making it difficult to retain faculty of color (Essien, 2003; Gutierrez y Muhs et al., 2012).

While service is generally undervalued with regard to faculty tenure, it faces even further devaluation for faculty of color who are often expected to serve in roles that support diversity issues and student diversity organizations. Faculty of color who serve in these roles pay what is referred to as a “race tax” and “cultural tax” simply as a result of being a member of a particular racial or ethnic group (Rockquemore & Laszloffy, 2008). For example, women of color faculty pay a disproportionately high race tax with each paycheck when they accept “extra” service duties because of their race (e.g., faculty panels on race issues, meeting with students of color to increase their success rate, advocating for resources for students of color, developing admissions policies that will enhance the chances for a diverse pool of students, and representing diversity perspectives on search committees). As a result, faculty women of color can quickly become resentful, burnt out, and disappointed by the lack of support provided by departmental colleagues. Further, feelings of tokenism, the understanding that faculty of color are asked to participate in decision-making matters only when diversity or multiculturalism is of concern, can result from these forms of service (Constantine et al., 2008).

Professional responsibilities, institutional expectations, and the perceptions of colleagues can complicate the ability of faculty of color to feel satisfied with their work lives. An individual’s perceived quality of work life is found to have a direct impact on one’s morale, which ultimately impacts one’s decision to leave an academic institution (Johnsrud & Rosser, 2002). Isolation is a noted experience for faculty of color that can affect morale (Constantine et al., 2008; Laden & Hagedorn, 2000; Rockquemore & Laszloffy, 2008). Efforts to minimize this isolation, be these formal or informal, can impact the perception that faculty of color have about their professional experiences and encounters and potentially increase the likelihood that they will decide to stay in the academy.

Finally, a lack of access to mentoring and networks of professional support have been found to contribute to the difficulties experienced by faculty of color (Diggs, Garrison-Wade, Estrada, &



Galindo, 2009; Jayakumar et al., 2009; Stanley & Lincoln, 2005). Calls for institutions to enact structured mentoring programs (McMurtrie, 2016; Moody, 2004) reflect the need to structurally support faculty success. A better understanding of how to navigate the institution to locate campus resources, it is argued, can contribute considerably to the individual and group successes of faculty of color (Turner, 2002).

### *Empowerment of Women of Color Faculty through Mentoring*

Given the myriad of challenges, an ideal approach for retaining women faculty of color in the academy is empowerment mentoring, a positive, innovative approach that addresses their various professional roles (research, teaching, and service). Empowerment strategies are distinct in that they lead to the establishment of retention programs and policies that are largely led by faculty for faculty. As such, these programs are authentic, organic, and allow for self-determination in setting an agenda for success. Peer mentoring programs, support groups, and teaching circles are examples of efforts that can be driven by a framework of empowering strategies. The formation of structured groups of individuals from diverse backgrounds allows for an opportunity to build community, gain support, provide for peer-to-peer mentoring, and eliminate isolation. Further, programs initiated by the faculty (and for the faculty) often incorporate a feedback loop that provides constant reassessment and revision of the programming to meet the needs of its group membership. Retention programs such as these allow faculty members to gain an understanding of how to succeed despite identified problems and, equally as important, can then provide other faculty of color with that shared knowledge. Relatedly, another effective approach being implemented to enhance diversity is cluster hiring, where a group of faculty members with common interests are hired from different disciplinary backgrounds. This approach to hiring improves retention of faculty of color, increases socialization, and reduces feelings of isolation among faculty of color by providing an immediate support network and critical mass of faculty of color (Sgoutas-Emch, Baird, Myers, Camacho, & Lord, 2016).

Inherent in these strategies is the growth in the development of a collective identity among faculty of color. When they build personal and professional connections with colleagues who also have racialized experiences in life and the workplace, they no longer see themselves as isolated individuals who must learn how to cope with cultural differences in the work setting alone. Thus, empowerment strategies facilitate a collective sense of institutional identity where together faculty women of color support one another and, in this process, promote each other's individual success.

### *An Empowerment Model*

An empowerment approach to promoting the retention and success of women of color faculty is a viable, pragmatic, efficient, and sustainable mechanism that is likely to lead to the building of a more inclusive faculty than many past efforts have been able to attain. An empowerment model should include the following elements: interdisciplinary, self-determined, collectivistic, holistic, and sustainable.

**Interdisciplinary.** One benefit of facilitating the coming together of faculty from distinct disciplines is that it normalizes challenges and depersonalizes a sense of individual deficiency or inferiority. Interaction across disciplines allows faculty members to see that the challenges they face are not just in their own field but often exist across fields, research methodologies, modes of analysis, and professional training. Interdisciplinary relationship development also has the benefit of allowing members to learn about the full range of expectations for productivity in research, teaching, and service and how common themes can exist despite disciplinary differences.

**Self-determined.** In an empowerment model of faculty retention, faculty are provided the space and support to establish their own organizations and activities where the faculty themselves set the agenda for discussion and action. The advantage of this approach is that it directly addresses the feelings of powerlessness reported by women of color faculty by directly empowering them to decide when and how they will work to build successful careers.

**Collectivistic.** Among the most effective ways to address the sense of isolation reported by many faculty women of color is to allow them to come together as a group. In doing so, faculty members can understand that they are not the only ones facing challenges. This also has the benefit of depersonalizing the sense of individual deficiency and allows individual faculty members to benefit from the shared experiences and advice offered by their colleagues. When experiences are based on issues such as underrepresented status including race, ethnicity, gender, and sexuality, the group can define new spaces of legitimate belonging and identity at predominantly White institutions. This builds a more inclusive validation of differences at the institution where more faculty can determine that they, in fact, do belong there. By providing an opportunity for the formation of a collective identity, women of color faculty can internalize their sense of being scholars *and* people of color *and* women. This sense of intersectionality can produce a strong sense of belonging and legitimacy across multiple aspects of a faculty member's life.

**Holistic.** There are benefits to integrating professional challenges with the personal and family challenges that many faculty women of color face. Advice, strategizing, and learning are important to faculty members in both their private and their professional lives. An empowerment model understands the integrated nature of women of color faculty members' lives and legitimizes the articulation of all aspects of faculty members' responsibilities that can have a direct impact on their work. The bridging of the personal and the professional also provides opportunities for faculty members to build relationships with one another on dimensions other than work. This can lead to a healthy work–life balance.

**Sustainable.** The bringing together of women of color faculty has the advantage of allowing them to work to build their careers and have a support network over the long term. It is not just a matter of dealing with the very real issues of the moment, whether these are challenges in teaching a specific course, annual merit review, tenure, or promotion. Instead, each faculty member can learn from the experiences and advice of their colleagues in ways that can help them better anticipate, and possibly avoid issues they may confront in their own futures.

Overall, an institution that seeks to recruit and retain women of color faculty should apply an empowerment approach to the institutional practices. By creating systems of support that address the structural inequalities that have persisted for decades, the institution is more likely to overcome the barriers to change and evolve into more welcoming institutions that resemble our society at large.

## Summary

Women have contributed in important ways to the science and practice of school psychology since 1896, when Lightner Witmer established the first psychology clinic at the University of Pennsylvania (Fagan, 1992). With the turn of the 21st century, school psychology became a profession of predominantly women (Castillo et al., 2013). Nevertheless, within the gendered university, women have historically struggled for equity in salary, rank, tenure, workload, and resources. Most of the faculty women in school psychology have experienced gender harassment in the university workplace at some time in their careers. Gender inequities in scholarly recognition were more prominent in the past but continue to be evident in the present, and these have contributed to inequities in university recognition. These trends are even more pronounced for faculty women of color. Some scholars suggest that gender inequities within

academia will not achieve parity for more than 100 years with explicit, systematic intervention efforts (Cundiff et al., 2018).

Despite the pervasive gendered inequities that exist in academia, most women in our survey reported that their professional needs were supported by their current institutions (54%) and their departments (69%). University policies and practices related to equity are constantly being updated. Most universities now have policies that acknowledge the unique needs of women faculty members. Almost every university has a formal family leave policy that guarantees leave and pause of the tenure clock upon birth or adoption of a child, and federal family leave policies now mandate leave (albeit unpaid in some instances) to care for a family member. Every university has policies to respond to gender harassment. At the same time, these policies and standards have not solved the problem of gender inequity and have been slow to address issues of combined gender and ethnic diversity.

We described several opportunities for enhancement within our profession. It is incumbent upon all of us to engage in practices that will promote equitable practices. One important step towards ensuring women's success on the faculty is the creation of an active and rewarding life outside of the academy. The essential point is to have a network of social support and opportunities for joy that do not rely on the academic community. For faculty members in school psychology, this means that we practice what we preach and cultivate our own emotional well-being and mental health.

## References

- Acker, J. (1990). Hierarchies, jobs, bodies: A theory of gendered organizations. *Gender and Society, 4*, 139–158.
- Akin-Little, A., Bray, M. A., Eckert, T., & Kehle, T. J. (2004). The perception of academic women in school psychology: A national survey. *School Psychology Quarterly, 19*, 327–341.
- Alpert, J. L., Genshaft, J., & Maria, D. (1988). Women and school psychology: Professional training, practice, and affiliation. *Professional School Psychology, 3*(1), 3.
- American Psychological Association, Committee on Women in Psychology (2017). *The changing gender composition of psychology: Update and expansion of the 1995 task force report*. Retrieved from <https://www.apa.org/pi/women/programs/gender-composition>
- Barnett, J. E., Baker, E. K., Elman, N. S., & Schoener, G. R. (2007). In pursuit of wellness: The self-care imperative. *Professional Psychology: Research and Practice, 38*, 603a.
- Cantor, D., Fisher, B., Chinbnull, S., Townsen, R., Lee, H., et al. (2015). *Report on the AAU campus climate survey on sexual assault and sexual misconduct*. Retrieved from [https://www.aau.edu/sites/default/files/%40%20Files/Climate%20Survey/AAU\\_Campus\\_Climate\\_Survey\\_12\\_14\\_15.pdf](https://www.aau.edu/sites/default/files/%40%20Files/Climate%20Survey/AAU_Campus_Climate_Survey_12_14_15.pdf)
- Castillo, J. M., Curtis, M. J., & Gelley, C. D. (2013). Gender and race in school psychology. *School Psychology Review, 42*(3), 262–279.
- Castillo, J. M., Curtis, M. J., & Tan, S. Y. (2014). Personnel needs in school psychology: A 10-year follow-up study on predicted personnel shortages. *Psychology in the Schools, 51*(8), 832–849. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.neu.edu/10.1002/pits.21786>
- Constantine, M. G., Smith, L., Redington, R. M., & Owens, D. (2008). Racial microaggressions against Black counseling and counseling psychology faculty: A central challenge in the multicultural counseling movement. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 86*(3), 348–355.
- Cundiff, J. L., Danube, C. L., Zawadzki, M. J., & Shields, S. A. (2018). Testing an intervention for recognizing and reporting subtle gender bias in promotion and tenure decisions. *The Journal of Higher Education, 89*, 611–639.
- Diggs, G. A., Garrison-Wade, D. F., Estrada, D., & Galindo, R. (2009). Smiling faces and colored spaces: The experiences of faculty of color pursuing tenure in the academy. *The Urban Review, 41*(4), 312.
- Duch, J., Zeng, X., H. T., Sales-Pardo, M., Radicchi, F., Otis, S., Woodruff, T. K., & Nunes Amaral, L. A. (2012). The possible role of resource requirements and academic career-choice risk on gender differences in publication rate and impact. *PLoS ONE, 7*(12), 1–11.

- Essien, V. (2003). Visible and invisible barriers to the incorporation of faculty of color in predominantly white law schools. *Journal of Black Studies*, 34(1), 63–71.
- Fagan, T. K. (1992). Compulsory schooling, child study, clinical psychology, and special education: Origins of school psychology. *American Psychologist*, 47(2), 236–243.
- Fagan, T. K., & Wise, P. S. (2007). *School psychology: Past, present, and future*. Bethesda, MD: National Association of School Psychologists.
- Finkelstein, M. J., Conley, V. M., Schuster, J. H. (2016). *Taking the measure of faculty diversity*. Washington, DC: TIAA Institute.
- Floyd, R. G. (Ed.). (2018). *Publishing in school psychology and related fields: An insider's guide*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fox, M. F., Fonseca, C., & Bao, J. (2011). Work and family conflict in academic science: Patterns and predictors among women and men in research universities. *Social Studies of Science*, 41(5), 715–735.
- Fuller, S., & Hirsh, C. E. (2019). “Family-friendly” jobs and motherhood pay penalties: The impact of flexible work arrangements across the educational spectrum. *Work and Occupations*, 46, 3–44.
- Grapin, S. L., Bocanegra, J. O., Green, T. D., Lee, E. T., & Jaafar, D. (2016). Increasing diversity in school psychology: Uniting the efforts of institutions, faculty, students, and practitioners. *Contemporary School Psychology*, 20(4), 345–355.
- Grapin, S. L., Kranzler, J. H., & Daley, M. L. (2013). Scholarly productivity and impact of school psychology faculty in APA-accredited programs. *Psychology in the Schools*, 50, 87–101. Doi: 10.1002/pits.21658
- Gunsalus, C. K. (2006). *The college administrator's survival guide*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Gutierrez y Muhs, G., Niemann, Y. F., González, C. G., & Harris, A. P. (Eds.) (2012). *Presumed incompetent: The intersections of race and class for women in academia*. Boulder, CO: University Press of Colorado.
- Hagin, R. A. (1993). Contributions of women in school psychology: The Thayer report and thereafter. *Journal of School Psychology*, 31, 123–141.
- Halpern, D. (2008). Nurturing careers in psychology: Combining work and family. *Educational Psychology Review*, 20, 57–64. Doi:10.1007/s10648-007-9060-5
- Hart, J. L. (2016). Dissecting a gendered organization: Implications for career trajectories for mid-career women in STEM. *Journal of Higher Education*, 87, 605–634. doi:10.1353/jhe.2016.0024
- Hatch, J. (March, 2017). Gender pay gap persists across faculty ranks. Retrieved from <https://www.chronicle.com/article/Gender-Pay-Gap-Persists-Across/239553>
- Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 32, 113–135. Doi:10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003
- Ilies, R., Hausermann, N. N., Schwochau, S., & Stibal, J. (2003). Reported incidence rates of work-related sexual harassment in the United States: Using meta-analysis to explain reported rate disparities. *Personality Psychology*, 56, 607–631.
- Jayakumar, U. M., Howard, T. C., Allen, W. R., & Han, J. C. (2009). Racial privilege in the professoriate: An exploration of campus climate, retention, and satisfaction. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 80(5), 538–563.
- Johnsrud, L. K., & Rosser, V. J. (2002). Faculty members' morale and their intention to leave: A multi-level explanation. *The Journal of Higher Education*, 73(4), 518–542.
- Kratochwill, T. R., Shernoff, E. S., & Sanetti, L. (2004). Promotion of academic careers in school psychology: A conceptual framework of impact points, recommended strategies, and hopeful outcomes. *School Psychology Quarterly*, 19, 342–364.
- Laden, B. V., & Hagedorn, L. S. (2000). Job satisfaction among faculty of color in academe: Individual survivors or institutional transformers? *New Directions for Institutional Research*, 27(1), 57–66.
- McMurtrie, B. (2016). To diversify the faculty, start here. *The Chronicle of Higher Education*, 62(40), A20–A23.
- Milem, J. F., Chang, M. J., & Antonio, A. L. (2005). *Making diversity work on campus: A research-based perspective*. Washington, DC: Association American Colleges and Universities.
- Moody, J. (2004). *Faculty diversity: Problems and solutions*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Moss-Racusin, C. A., Dovidio, J. F., Brescoll, V. L., Graham, M. J., & Handelsman, J. (2012). Science faculty's subtle gender biases favor male students. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 109(41), 16474–16479. <https://doi-org.ezproxy.neu.edu/10.1073/pnas.1211286109>

- National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine (2018). *Sexual harassment of women: Climate, culture, and consequences in academic sciences, engineering, and medicine*. Washington, DC: The National Academies Press.
- National Science Foundation. (2013). *Doctorate recipients from U.S. universities: 2013* (Report No. 15–304). Arlington, VA: Author
- O'Meara, K., Kuvaveva, A., Nyunt, G., Waugaman, C., & Jackson, R. (2017). Asked more often: Gender differences in faculty workload in research universities and the work interactions that shape them. *American Educational Research Journal*, *54*, 1154–1186.
- Owens, J., Kottwitz, C., Tiedt, J., & Ramirez, J. (2018). Strategies to attain faculty work-life balance. *Building Healthy Academic Communities Journal*, *2*(2), 58–73.
- Padilla-Gonzalez, Metcalfe, A. S., Galaz-Fontes, J. F., Fisher, D., & Snee, I. (2011). Gender gaps in North American research productivity: Examining faculty publication rates in Mexico, Canada, and the U.S. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, *41*, 649–668. Doi:10.1080/03057925.2011.564799
- Pew Research Center. (2015). *Raising kids and running a household: How working parents share the load*. Retrieved from <https://www.pewsocialtrends.org/2015/11/04/raising-kids-and-running-a-household-how-working-parents-share-the-load/>
- Rockquemore, K., & Laszloffy, T. A. (2008). *The black academic's guide to winning tenure--without losing your soul* (p. 261). Boulder, CO: Lynne Rienner Publishers.
- Russo, N. F., Olmedo, E. L., Stapp, J., & Fulcher, R. (1981). Women and minorities in psychology. *American Psychologist*, *36*, 1315–1363.
- Scarborough, E. (1992). Women in the American Psychological Association. In R. B. Evans, V. S. Sexton, & T. C. Cadwallader (Eds.), *The American Psychological Association: A historical perspective* (pp. 303–325). Washington, DC: APA.
- Sgoutas-Emch, S., Baird, L., Myers, P., Camacho, M., & Lord, S. (2016). We're not all white men: Using a cohort/cluster approach to diversify STEM faculty hiring. *Thought & Action*, *32*(1), 91–107.
- Shen, H. (2013). Mind the gender gap: Despite improvements, female scientists continue to face discrimination, unequal pay, and funding disparities. *Nature*, *495*, 22–24.
- Shinnar, R. S., & Williams, H. L. (2008). Promoting faculty diversity: The faculty fellows Program at Appalachian State University. *Planning for Higher Education*, *36*(2), 42–53.
- Stanley, C. A., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Cross-race faculty mentoring. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, *37*(2), 44–50.
- Tenbrunsel, A. E., Rees, M. R., & Dickmann, K. A. (2019). Sexual harassment in academia: Ethical climates and bounded ethicality. *Annual Review of Psychology*, *70*, 245–270.
- Thomas, G. D., & Hollenshead, C. (2001). Resisting from the margins: The coping strategies of Black women and other women of color faculty members at a research university. *The Journal of Negro Education*, *70*(3), 166.
- Turner, C. S. V. (2002). Women of color in academe: Living with multiple marginality. *The Journal of Higher Education*, *73*(1), 74–93.
- van der Zwan, J. E., de Vente, W., Huizink, A. C., Bögels, S. M., & de Bruin, E. I. (2015). Physical activity, mindfulness meditation, or heart rate variability biofeedback for stress reduction: A randomized controlled trial. *Applied Psychophysiology and Biofeedback*, *40*, 257–268.
- Ward, K., & Wolf-Wendel, L. E. (2004). Fear factor: How safe is it to make time for family? *Academe*, *90*(6), 28–31.
- Watkins, M. W., & Chan-Park, C. Y. (2015). The research impact of school psychology faculty. *Journal of School Psychology*, *53*, 231–241.
- West, M. S., & Curtis, J. W. (2006). *AAUP faculty gender equity indicators 2006*. Washington, DC: American Association of University Professors.
- Williams, B. N., & Williams, S. M. (2006). Perceptions of African American male junior faculty on promotion and tenure: Implications for community building and social capital. *Teachers College Record*, *108*, 287–315.
- Wilton, S., & Ross, L. (2017). Flexibility, sacrifice and insecurity: A Canadian study assessing the challenges of balancing work and family in academia. *Journal of Feminist Family Therapy*, *29*(1–2), 66–87.
- Zippel, K., & Feree, M. M. (2019). Organizational interventions and the creation of gendered knowledge: US universities and NSF ADVANCE. *Gender Work Organ*, *26*, 805–821. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gwao.12290>.