Article

Principals Responding to Constant Pressure: Finding a Source of Stress Management

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Abstract
This conceptual article presents a review of the research concerning the stress level of principals over the past three decades, with emphasis on the occupational stress that principals encounter because of heightened accountability and expectations for student achievement. Mindfulness meditation, as a stress management intervention, provides the theoretical background for this article; the scientific evidence concerning benefits of mindfulness meditations are reviewed. Finally, the author presents suggestions for the prevention and reduction of stress for principals.

Across America, principals are charged with leading schools with diminished resources, increased expectations for student achievement, changing demographics, and increased accountability and connectivity, often referred to as "24/7" access from central office personnel, parents, students, and school board members. More than ever before, principals are connected with instant communication, and as a result, they receive email and text messages from parents, teachers, and central office staff. Current issues such as responding to the Common Core Standards and metrics that change high school graduation to college and career readiness further escalate the stress for administrators. As principals respond to these demands there is a resulting level of increased stress (Sytsma, 2009). The increased scrutiny of schools with particular

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emphasis on the level of achievement of students, coupled by the age of many baby boomer principals with subsequent career changes, has led to concerns for the shortage of principals as many principals make plans to retire (DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2008; Pijanowski, Hewitt, & Brady, 2009).

This article will present a picture of principal job responsibilities, occupational workload stress, and options for stress reduction and stress management. Despite the fact that the literature contains numerous descriptions of the professional life of a principal, there is little pointing to methods to avoid or cope with burnout and stress-related illness for educational leaders.

The Professional Life of a Building Principal

Numerous descriptions of the professional life of a building principal report the tensions and burnout that accompany the job, but perhaps none more aptly capture the stressors than the partial title of a research article by Grubb and Flessa (2006) depicting the responsibilities of building leadership, "A job too big for one." Other authors point to the concerns for the future of professionals willing to take on the role of principal with subsequent principal shortages (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; Fink & Brayman, 2006; Pijanowski et al., 2009).

Reports of the job duties and subsequent stressors of building principals are not new; a review of research articles from three decades revealed descriptions of the principalship that were filled with concerns for the levels of stress that principals encounter on a daily basis. Gmelch (1978) wrote of the headaches, change, conflict, and other health ailments of principals, indicating that managing personal stress was a challenge for principals. Williamson and Campbell (1987) reviewed the four major stressors as reported by high school principals, "management of time, relations with supervisors, relations with subordinates, and matters of finance" (p. 109). Bailey, Fillos, and Kelly (1987) analyzed the levels of stress that principals experienced, indicating that principals who are labeled as being within the top 10% of effectiveness by their superintendents reported the same levels of stress that their colleagues who were rated lower experienced. Bailey et al. reported that top stressors included resolving school conflicts, making important decisions that affect lives of others, and compliance with state and federal mandates. Lyons (1990) wrote of the stress that is particularly high for the leaders of secondary schools with the endemic conflict that occurs within the building. Given the high levels of stress that principals encounter, the mentoring and induction efforts are increasingly important. Research concerning principals new to their jobs indicated that "time management, multiple managerial styles, stress management, and paperwork management" were the topics that were least effectively addressed during induction to the job (Cale, 1993, p. 115).

Weick (1996) referred to the metaphors that are used by administrators when they describe their work as fighting fires because of the continually explosive nature of their work:

> If you listen to educational administrators describe a typical day at work, they talk about taking the heat, putting out brush fires, getting burned by decisions, stopping rumors that

spread like wildfire, looking for fire where they spot smoke, facing explosive situations, and watching the fireworks at board meetings. (p. 565)

Armenta and Reno (1997) described the mental strain of the job that often contributes to principals leaving the profession when the job duties become overwhelming. Ripley (1997) referenced the strain principals feel as they strive to find balance in their lives. Kafka (2009) summarized the changes in workload stresses of principals:

Yet the history of the school principal demonstrates that although specific pressures might be new, the call for principals to accomplish great things with little support, and to be all things to all people is certainly not. What is new is the degree to which school are expected to resolve society's social and educational inequities in a market-based environment. (p. 328)

The political environments of the principal with calls for change and improvement are common denominators of the contemporary views of the principalship.

More recent research lists both newer and more aggravated challenges involved with the principalship, citing multiple expectations for principals' performance, including highly complex and politically charged leadership (Bolman & Deal, 1994; Cooley & Shen, 2003; Pounder & Merrill, 2001). The roles of the principal have shifted from the dominance in managerial issues to those of instructional and transformational leadership (Catano & Stronge, 2006; Hallinger, 2003). The calls for innovation, improvement, and reform dominate the legislative agendas, be they national or state, with local mandates mirroring the need to prepare students for the 21st century, referred to as "dynamic tension between fear and innovation in schools" (Schoen & Fusarelli, 2008, p. 182). The job of the principal is seen considerably less desirable than it once was (Catano & Stronge, 2006; DiPaola, & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Owings, Kaplan, & Chappell, 2011). Descriptions of stress dominate the roles and responsibilities of the building principal (Cooley & Shen, 2003; Grubb & Flessa, 2006; Kafka, 2009; Pounder & Merrill, 2001; Schoen & Fusarelli, 2008; Weick, 1996). Principals experience isolation in their roles as a result of the changing roles and increased expectations of the work (Cassavant & Cherkowski, 2001).

Teachers are the largest pool of candidates from which principals may be drawn, and they are less interested in leaving their jobs for the workload responsibilities of the building principals (Pounder & Merrill, 2001). Concerns now exist for the future of the principalship because of the low applicant pool now applying for replacement positions (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; DiPaola & Tschannen-Moran, 2003; Fink & Brayman, 2006; Grubb & Flessa, 2006; Pijanowski et al., 2009, Winter & Morgenthal, 2002). Among the concerns are the numbers of applicants deemed qualified to lead the schools, especially given the demands for instructional and transformational leadership (Whitaker, 2001). Among concerns for the stability in schools as new leaders emerge is that of the probability of sustained change in schools, which is at risk with the quick turnovers in principal position (Browne-Ferrigno, 2003; Owings et al., 2011; Pijanowski et al., 2009). These turnovers often result in "inexperienced and unprepared principals" taking their place without succession plans (Fink & Brayman, 2006, p. 84).

Wells, Maxfield, & Klocko (2011) reported that building principals listed diminished resources as their primary stress, followed by personal stressors such as keeping up with email communication, insufficient time to get the job done, work-life balance, loss of personal time, job expectations, and feeling overwhelmed with the responsibilities of the job. Wells et al. reported that the personal task management category had the highest mean scores of the four categories included in their study: professional task management, instructional demands, handling conflict, and personal task management. It is clear that professional duties of a job that are overwhelming may lead to stress and burnout of a very personal nature and that the principals may end up feeling that stress.

Two specific types of stress that many principals feel include emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, two constructs of burnout (Whitaker, 1996). Burnout is especially insidious because emotional exhaustion leaves diminished energy for a job that demands much. Because there is a dearth of information about principal burnout (Whitaker, 1996), this article will integrate information regarding burnout from the business and psychological literature and research. The health consequences for stress include psychological, physiological, and medical issues, all of which may result in attitudes toward the work and interfere with the ability to be successful on the job (Sorenson, 2007). The nature of work-related stress is not unique to the principalship; research from the business and medical world inform educational leaders and analysts as to how stress is manifested and what can be done to prevent or mitigate its effects.

Occupational Stress

The literature describing occupational stress has its roots in psychological and medical research where stress-related symptoms may be described in emotional, psychological or medical terminology (Kabat-Zinn, 2009; Richardson & Rothstein, 2008; Siegel, 2007; Stanton, Balzar, Smith, Parra, & Ironson, 2001). Additionally, because of the presence of stress in the workplace, the business world includes information on the impact of task performance and stress-related illness and loss (Dane, 2011; Lambert, Lambert, & Yamase, 2003; Stanton et al., 2001; Stoica, 2010; Zemke, 1991).

Occupational stress has been linked to myriad health and psychological complaints, including headaches, high blood pressure, sleeping difficulties, heart palpitations, heart attacks, dizzy spells, breathing problems, nervous stomach, anxiety, and depression (Atkinson, 2004; Kabat-Zinn, 2009). Stress-related illness results in time away from work (Sauter & Murphy, 1990). Work-related stress is also attributed to on-the-job injuries and job turnovers (Atkinson, 2004). Americans work long hours, often taking on increased responsibilities, and job stress rises with these expectations (Richardson & Rothstein, 2008). Occupational stress is not limited to the world of school principals. It is estimated that one-third of American workers report high levels of stress in their jobs (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003).

The problems with regard to health, psychological issues, and ensuing job productivity are estimated between $50 billion and $100 billion each year (Sauter, Murphy, & Hurrell, 1990). The fastest growing of workers' compensation claims in the United

States is under the category of stress-related (Kottage, 1992). The factors leading to health or psychological problems are based in the pace of work, the stress of work roles, and problems among workers in the facility, the schedule, and a number of issues that originate beyond the scope of the work environment (Sauter et al., 1990). L. R. Murphy (1995) reported that stress factors might lead to "psychological (anxiety, depression, and irritability), physiological (high blood pressure, high muscle tension levels), or behavioral (poor work performance, accidents, sleep disturbances, substance abuse) . . ." (p. 46). The statistics regarding health-related stress problems include the high costs of health care for workers (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003).

Burnout on the job has serious consequences for principals who provide the vision and energy for change and growth; it is difficult to be the energetic leader when one is feeling the emotional exhaustion from the job. Maslach and Leiter (2008) reported the dimensions of burnout of exhaustion, cynicism, and a reduced sense of efficacy on the job. People who score high on burnout dimensions feel emotionally exhausted as opposed to energized, a dimension that is the one most widely reported in the literature; job overload contributes to the feeling of exhaustion and burnout (Maslach & Leiter, 2008). It is easy to understand how emotional exhaustion is correlated with cynicism. By understanding how burnout contributes to stress, and how stress fuels the constructs of burnout, it is important to recognize early signs of stress and plan programs to prevent as well as manage and reduce the stress that principals encounter on the job (Leiter & Maslach, 2004). The stress levels that school principals face are similar to that of other professions, including the medical field.

The medical field reports high levels of stress, burnout, substance abuse, and other negative consequences for workers and those engaged in medical training (Linzer, 2009). Medical students are at risk for high levels of stress, depersonalization, and emotional exhaustion (Rosenzweig, Reibel, Greeson, Brainard, & Hojat, 2009; Shapiro, Shapiro, & Schwartz, 2000; West, Shanafelt, & Kolars, 2011). Additionally, primary care physicians report high levels of stress, which relates to reduced health care for patients, attrition in the field, burnout, and consequences to their medical care if they are unable to fully attend and respond to patients (Krasner et al., 2009; Shapiro, Schwartz, & Bonner, 1998).

The parallels of the medical and educational profession with regard to stress and burnout become obvious; the people who enter these fields are leaders within their organizations, and as such, as looked to for guidance and support, areas that are difficult to achieve when one is suffering from the effects of a high level of continuous stress. One or a combination of interventions, either for the worker or the organization, may moderate the levels of stress.

Interventions

The interventions for work-related job stress are labeled as primary, secondary, and tertiary (L. R. Murphy, 1995; L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003; Richardson & Rothstein, 2008). The primary interventions are designed to help workers cope with stress; these interventions are stress reduction techniques. The stress reduction methods help alter

the amount of stress at work where jobs may be altered to increase decision-making for the individual and allow them to become involved with support groups. The secondary interventions include stress management training, in which attempts are made to reduce stress symptoms before they become health concerns that have more serious consequences (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003). These methods include muscle relaxation, meditation, biofeedback, and cognitive-behavioral skills (L. R. Murphy, 1996; L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003). The tertiary programs include the employee assistance programs where employees are able to access confidential and cost free connections with mental health professionals (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003). With regard to stress reduction or management techniques, organizational interventions such as work redesign are seldom offered; relaxation techniques are most frequently used (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003; Richardson & Rothstein, 2008).

In the 1980s a variety of stress management seminars were employed to share information with workers that would assist in conflict resolution. Within the past 20 years, job flexibility, including part-time work or work at home, has become more common. The results of these approaches have only engendered a small effect of satisfaction (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003). The understanding of work-life balance and the need to support families is now more readily apparent in many organizations, but there is still a reluctance to change either the job functions or routines that are most problematic to the workers (L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003). Job stress interventions can be altered with appropriate stress prevention approaches.

The stress prevention programs follow the same categories of primary, secondary, and tertiary. L. R. Murphy (1995) reported that primary prevention is concerned with eliminating or reducing actual risk factors of the job, and its organization or duties; the secondary risk prevention helps employees reduce the actual risk symptoms of the employee, usually before the employee demonstrates signs of illness. Tertiary prevention programs are designed to offer therapy or treatment for employees who are at risk of demonstrating disease symptoms.

For purposes of this article, the s*econdary* stress management interventions will be explored for the relief that they may bring to the individual. While principals may be seeking stress reduction in their work roles, it is beyond the scope of this article to enlist myriad options for job redesign for principals, a topic worthy of subsequent study. Instead, this article will advocate for an evidence-based approach to stress management known as mindfulness meditation. The review of research reveals the promising aspects of mindfulness as relief for psychological, medical, and emotional symptoms initiated largely by stress (Ludwig & Kabat-Zinn, 2008).

Mindfulness

Mindfulness refers to being aware of the present moment without judgment or striving; it means paying attention on purpose (Baer, 2006; Kabat-Zinn, 2003; Smalley & Winston, 2011). Mindfulness meditation includes seeing life and reality exactly as they are, becoming aware of thoughts and feelings and noting them as such (Gunaratana, 2002). Mindfulness meditation encourages compassion and open-mindedness, qualities

that can cultivate empathy and understanding (Williams & Penman, 2011). By paying attention to the moment and being aware of reactive patterns, mindfulness also contributes to being less reactive (Smalley & Winston, 2011). Mindfulness centers on the awareness of thoughts and emotions without judging or comparing (Bays, 2011). In essence, mindfulness includes three axioms: intention, attention, and attitude; the *intention* is to practice on purpose, the *attention* is about attending to or paying attention, and the *attitude* refers to the mindfulness qualities such as doing the practice in a standard way that is open and interested (Shapiro, Carlson, Astin, & Freedman, 2006). Although mindfulness has its roots in Buddhist meditation, "Buddhism itself is not the point" (Kabat-Zinn, 2009, p. 25). Meditation has a long-standing tradition in Eastern cultures. Kabat-Zinn (2003) noted of mindfulness, "There is nothing particularly Buddhist about it" (p. 145).

In 1979, Jon Kabat-Zinn, a scientist with experience in meditation persuaded the administrators and physicians at University of Massachusetts Medical Center to include mindfulness meditation for the medical patients who were not being helped by traditional medical means; these were patients with chronic pain, cancer, anxiety, depression, and other health ailments that were not successfully treated by conventional methods. As a result, the mindfulness-based stress reduction (MBSR) clinic was formed (Kabat-Zinn, 2005). Since that time, mindfulness training, retreats, seminars continue to grow in mainstream acceptance (Kabat-Zinn, 2009; Lazar et al., 2005). Mindfulness meditation is now taught in law schools at Yale, Columbia, Harvard, and Missouri (Kabat-Zinn, 2005). Kabat-Zinn (2003) reported, "Mindfulness-based programs are now offered in hospital and clinics around the world, as well as in schools, workplaces, corporate offices, law schools, adult and juvenile prisons, inner city health centers, and a range of other settings" (p. 149).

Mindfulness meditation can be learned in a variety of settings. The MBSR programs are taught in group format. The MBSR programs include 8 weeks of training, where mindfulness meditation is taught to groups of generally 10 to 40 people; participants generally meet for 1.5- to 2.5-hour sessions each week (Shigaki, Glass, & Schopp, 2006). Participants are involved with sitting mediations, walking meditations, and Hatha yoga or gentle yoga with slow, deliberate stretches. MBSR classes also include the body scan where participants learn to mentally sweep through regions of the body while guided by the instructor, doing so with an openness and curiosity as opposed to evaluative nature, beginning with the toes and moving up the body to the head.

Participants share insights of their training and experience each week, and they have "home assignments" in which they agree to practice meditation and become aware of their thoughts and feelings. Additionally, MBSR training includes a 1-day retreat, most of which involves silent participation where the participants follow the guided meditations and take part in Hatha yoga, mindful walking, eating in silence, and some instructions, guided meditation, and information from the instructor. The full-day retreat concludes with a quiet sharing of insights from participants, as they talk with each other in low voices; the day concludes with the sharing of insights and observations from the day. The MBSR curriculum includes a variety of exposure to

meditation on the breath and breathing, as well as learning to observe the thoughts, body, and senses of the body. The training is designed to cultivate awareness of thoughts, be fully present, moment-to-moment, and to engage participants' understanding of mindfulness meditation (Kabat-Zinn, 2009).

Results of Mindfulness Practice

Mindfulness meditation has been correlated with numerous health benefits. Moore, Gruber, Derose, and Malinowski (2012) reported the scientific interest in mindfulness meditation, and the meditative benefit of attentional control of meditators. Kabat-Zinn (2009) reported the cultivation of nonjudgmental, equanimous attitudes toward one's own thoughts, feelings, and attitudes that are less reactive, and more responsive to outside events. Building principals are expected to respond to countless situations throughout the school day and evening events. Rather than over-reacting to tense situations, the practice of responding can bring a sense of calm.

Mindfulness is also correlated with reduced psychological stress and improved immune and health states (Baime, 2011; Brantley, 2007; Brown & Ryan, 2003, 2004; Carmody & Baer, 2007; Davidson et al., 2003; Stahl & Goldstein, 2010). Hölzel et al. (2011) reported that the "Cultivation of mindfulness, the nonjudgmental awareness of experiences in the present moment, produces beneficial effects on well-being and ameliorates psychiatric and stress-related symptoms" (p. 537). The regular practice of mindfulness is associated with increasing mental flexibility, where past regrets and worries of the future are released, and help to prevent sadness from the descent into depression (Williams, Teasdale, Segal, & Kabat-Zinn, 2007). Other health benefits associated with mindfulness include the reduction of stress, anxiety, and depression, as well as increased immune response from regular mindfulness meditation practice (Carmody & Baer, 2007; Greeson, 2009; Smalley & Winston, 2010). The practice of mindfulness uses the social circuitry of the brain, which influences the ability to be more attuned with oneself; there is a great sense of well-being, in a psychological, social connection, and psychological sense (Siegel, 2007). All of these attributes associated with mindfulness can be of benefit to overworked and stress building principals.

While principals may report the benefits of meditation on their personal and professional life, scientific evidence may also be used to indicate the specific changes that occur in the body from regular meditation. Lazar et al. (2005) used magnetic resonance imaging scans of brains and concluded "Brain regions associated with attention, interoception and sensory processing were thicker in meditation participants than matched controls, including the prefrontal cortex and right anterior insula" (p. 1893).

The MBSR techniques have been used successfully with people experiencing chronic pain, anxiety, depression, physical, or psychological problems, with reports of significant improvement (Germer, 2009; Shapiro & Carlson, 2009). A meta-analysis conducted by Grossman, Ludger, Schmidt, and Walach (2004) revealed that MBSR might assist people with a wide range of clinical and nonclinical problems. Davidson and Begley (2012) found that meditators who were given flu shots had 5% higher

levels of antibodies in their blood than those of the control group, suggesting the positive element as the increase in the body's immune system. Davidson and Begley also found that mindfulness practice actually trains the brain to have new methods to experiences and thoughts, ones that can weaken existing overreactions to events and situations, and to have ways to strengthen those responses that create less anxiety. When commenting on the neuroplasticity of the brain from regular mindfulness practice, Davidson and Begley reported, "Mindfulness meditation carves new channels in the streambeds of the mind" (p. 205).

Integrating Mindfulness Meditation

Building principals, health care practitioners, and workers from the business world report the common state of the stress-filled environment in which we live. For principals, expectations continue to escalate with new legislative mandates for increased student achievement, teacher performance based on standardized test results and common metrics, and the principals' own evaluations, which may be tied to student performance and the transformation of the school's culture.

The interventions typically employed in the occupational world relative to stress are of three types: primary, which deals with altering the stress levels or decision-making at work; secondary, which includes stress management training such as mindfulness; and tertiary, which includes confidential therapy such as those in Employee Assistance Programs (L. R. Murphy, 1995; L. R. Murphy & Sauter, 2003; Richardson & Rothstein, 2008). For purposes of this article, mindfulness meditation is presented for its availability and evidence-based success factors.

Busy administrators might ask *when* and *how much* to practice, before the *how* to practice, given the incredible and frenetic pace in which they live. It is difficult to find any time in the schedule when the schedule appears full. Although the recommendation for people who engage in the stress clinic training is 45 minutes per day, the benefits of a restorative healing from mindfulness are possible with as little as 5 to 10 minutes per day (Kabat-Zinn, 2009). The caveat he shares is that it is important to practice every day, even if for only 5 minutes, taking the time to watch and follow the breath.

The second question: *How* to meditate is one that is answered by Kabat-Zinn when he says that it is simple, but not easy. It is not easy to practice every day, and it is not easy to continually bring the busy mind back to the breath when it is running wild with thought. Kabat-Zinn (1994) reported that there is no one right way to meditate; it is not a technique. Mindfulness meditation includes various options that include listening and being aware of what is being heard, walking, sitting, lying down, observing the mind for thoughts, being aware of the breath as it enters and leaves the body, following the body scan, observing regions of the body, or gentle yoga. All of these meditations are practiced without judgment or striving. In that sense, the cultivation of being is center stage. By observing without judgment or striving, acceptance and compassion are cultivated (Kabat-Zinn, 2009). The meditation practice involves a slowing down and being in stillness.

Meditation begins with an attitude and willingness to practice and attention to the present moment. Paradoxically it is not about *striving* to relax, unwind, or do. Instead, meditation is about developing a sense of *being* not *doing*, challenges for administrators who are used to doing from morning meetings to night-time activities, including weekend assignments. Meditation involves a stillness in the body; mindfulness meditation involves the nonjudging of the self as one becomes a witness to all that one is thinking or experiencing. Patience is an important component of meditation, because it is about a willingness to practice, particularly when one might have other reasons not to.

There are mindfulness meditation CDs that guide the meditation process and 8-week MBSR classes available in many regions. What about bringing the practice of mindfulness to school leaders? There is little in the literature to discuss the merits of contemplative leadership. Jerome T. Murphy, Dean Emeritus of Harvard University (2011) wrote about how mindfulness can help educational leaders thrive in the tough times they face; Harvard recently sponsored a conference for educational leaders grounded by the central topic of mindfulness. Hopefully the insights being learned from mindfulness practice can inform administrative practice and the training included in administrative leadership programs.

Future Implications for Teaching Mindfulness

I began to integrate mindfulness training for graduate students in Educational Leadership classes several years ago. While not unanimous, the majority of comments I hear are about gratitude for learning how to sit in stillness and slow down the pace of the administrative or graduate student world; doctoral students find it useful to calm anxious thoughts and pay attention to the moment. Aspiring and practicing educational leadership students tell me that they are more aware of being in the moment, with gratitude for being more fully present to witness rather than react. It is empowering to learn how to be more responsive and less reactive to tense and challenging situations. It is also enlightening to be able to sit in stillness and focus on the present moment, something that is difficult, given the tendency we have to live and regret the past, or worry about the future. Often, it is the present moment that is totally lost. As a result, we talk about shutting off the Smartphones and Blackberry devices during class, to practice being in the moment, fully present for each other and the learning. As a result, we have all learned how to notice or be aware of the change in culture in the room as we practice with *intention* and *attention* to the present moment.

The past 2 years, I have taught these comments to teachers in the Teacher Leadership program and hear similar comments from them. Many of my graduate students have told me that they have begun to teach some elements of meditation to their students to allow them to experience moments of quiet and awareness. My goal as professor and researcher is to provide training and conduct research as to how mindfulness practice affects professional practice of educational leaders, a background I did not have when I served as a high school principal for 10 years.

Ultimately, there is a conceptual and experiential side of mindfulness. The scientific evidence informs us of the benefits of practice. The experiential component involved with mindfulness is the practice, and that is where each "story of one" is able to witness the impact on a personal level. It is the experiential side of practice that has made a huge impact on my personal and professional life and one that fuels me to continue the practice of practice and research. Educational leadership courses are preparing aspiring and practicing students to lead change in a highly charged political world, one that is stress-filled. *Why do we not offer the same benefits of mindfulness meditation that is present in the medical or corporate world?* Based on feedback from students, information from occupational stress, and the scientific evidence concerning mindfulness, I believe that collectively we can offer new conceptions of mindful leadership, topics that can provide preventive and stress management support for our nation's busy principals.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests

Funding

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