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DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements

For the Degree of Doctor of Education,
Interdisciplinary Leadership

Governors State University
University Park, IL 60484

2017
Abstract

This study focused on qualitative elements in its design. It sought to explore the process of women ascending to leaders in higher education unions and discover the barriers that derailed them or which they broke through on their leadership journey. It investigated the stereotypes and assumptions about women as leaders. The researcher looked at similarities and differences of the experiences of women in leadership roles to discover unknown phenomena within their unique experiences. Women in unions may be limited by proliferation of negative stereotypes and sexism. The purpose of this study was to explore the gender barriers of five women in higher education unions.

A qualitative study using grounded theory was used by the researcher. It was conducted in Illinois’ Chicagoland area. Three Caucasian and two African-American women were interviewed about their role as union president, how they were restricted or welcomed into the fold, how they were supported or not supported, and challenges that they faced.

Five major themes emerged from the five participant in the study. First, the presidents possessed extensive experience; next, they all had feelings of sisterhood. In addition, they all understood the importance of a union. Furthermore, they patterned their behaviors after their heroes. Most importantly, they all had an assertive (assured) personality.
Acknowledgements

Hubris gets you into a doctoral program; humility gets you through it. I want to thank my team for guiding, consoling, and celebrating me. I am so grateful to my dissertation committee who saw potential and nurtured it with attentive reading, invaluable feedback, and support:

**Dr. Stephen Wagner**—Thank you for guiding me through every crag and crevice of this endeavor. Thank you for making special trips on Fridays to meet with me and discuss my research. Thank you for believing in my writing abilities and helping me improve. Most importantly, thank you for always being a strong advocate for my research.

**Dr. Rashidah Muhammad**—Thank you for taking on assessment of my research study despite your full schedule. Thank you for your keen insights, and for reminding me that I was an English major first before I started this dissertation. Finally, thank you for always being a smiling, supportive face at the table.

**Dr. Auréliio Valente**—Thank you for always responding critically and positively simultaneously. Your support of my writing and your keen attention to detail helped me grow as a doctoral candidate. Clearly, you drew heavily from *The Student Personnel Point of View* when addressing my student needs.

**Dr. Michele A. Graham**—Thanks for being the best Department Chair at Olive-Harvey College. Thanks for that final read. ENGLISH!

**Dr. Lori Ellens-Manuel**—Lori, when I was blocked, I heard your voice saying, “Just keep writing. Just keep writing.” Thank you for reminding me of what I do.

**Marc Dukes**—I would be negligent if I did not thank my husband for always running a critical eye over my fifth or sixth draft, for entertaining our son for hours while I read and wrote, and for loving me when I threatened the world. You are the calmness in my soul.
Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to two people in my life who taught me to love and forgive:

**To my mother, Audrey Mae Robinson:** Your spirit survives in me. Thank you for being such a strong parent, and for teaching me that education is one thing that can never be stolen away.

**To my son, Scott Dukes:** *Mi hijo*, your spirit and desire helped drive me to complete this program. Know that you can accomplish all of your dreams.
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Chapter One

Introduction

America has a rich history that is based on the principles of power and control. Once “discovered,” it was colonized through subjugation of its indigenous people, and it was expanded through the implantation of a slave class. This arrangement placed White men firmly at the top of the power structure and left all others at the bottom. As a result, African-Americans’ and women’s rights were virtually non-existent until they were built up by the 13th, 14th, 15th and 19th amendments and the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (which actively sought to enforce the requirements of the 14th Amendment). Until then, African-Americans and women were treated as children at the feet of White fathers — treatment which left behind a residual belief that they were inferior, and a perception that they could not be true leaders. This lack of confidence in women is evident in higher education, notably in roles of union leadership. Women’s opportunities to lead are often stifled at the intersection of gender and race that holds them in a “double bind” of sexual and racial stereotypes. However, despite additional barriers of gender and race, some women in higher education ascend to union presidency. This qualitative research study sought to explore the experiences of five women in higher education unions.

Research Questions & Justification

Justification of theory. Currently, literature discusses women’s disenfranchisement in the higher levels of power within unions. Kaminski and Yakura (2008) purported that women constitute 44 percent of the labor movement and 46 percent of union membership. However, they represent a smaller percentage as union presidents. Approximately 14 percent of local union presidents were women; African-American women had even less power in unions with
only 3.3 percent of them being president (Kaminski & Yakura, 2008). Also, this inequality can be seen in the AFL-CIO. At the state and national levels of the AFL-CIO, women constitute 33 percent of leadership and 18 percent of the Executive Council (Kaminski & Yakura, 2008). However, women have a better opportunity to serve as a steward at the local level than at the national level (Kaminski & Yakura, 2008). Serving as a steward does not garner the level of exposure and influence that the positions of vice-president or president hold.

However, little research has been done on women who served as union leaders in higher education. There is a gap in the research regarding female presidents in higher education unions, such as adjunct faculty and faculty unions. Although the figures are not recorded, nationally women are underrepresented as leaders. However, some women are given support and break through the barriers to ascend to leadership roles, particularly in higher education unions. The purpose of this qualitative study is to explore experiences of women in higher education union leadership roles, to explore the gender barriers that women face in positions of power, and to identity any factors that lead to some women breaking the gender barriers of presidency and some not being successful. Using grounded theory, the researcher posed a series of qualitative interviews to two Black and three White women in higher education unions. The goals of the study were as follows: to understand the traits or factors that derailed some women on their career to presidency and what traits helped others break through the barriers, the types of challenges/barriers and stressors the women encountered in their union positions and the types of coping measures or support systems they use to persist as leaders. Therefore, a constant comparative data analysis between women’s experiences will be conducted to help generate the theory.
Education unions usually encompass faculty, professionals, and clerical workers. At the primary and secondary levels, women’s leadership abilities are not questioned or limited; however, there is a dearth of female union leaders in higher education locals. While higher education unions face fierce attacks, they are not diversifying their leadership to be inclusive of women, particularly women of color. More research should be conducted to see if women could help satisfy the demand for stronger union leadership in higher education. The reasons why some women encounter a glass ceiling and others reach the penthouse must be explored. This study sought to contribute to the current body of knowledge.

Research Questions:

1. What are the gender barriers and challenges that women face in positions of power in higher education unions?
2. What are the behaviors that lead to some women breaking the gender barriers of union presidency and some not being successful?
3. How is the career mobility of women described/revealed in higher education unions?
4. What are the resources or support systems available to women within higher education unions?
5. In what ways do higher education unions socially and emotionally support women?
6. How do stereotypes and myths affect women in leadership?
7. How do the experiences of African-American female union leaders differ from White female union leaders?

Theoretical Framework. Women have often been constricted by gender roles. Labeled the “weaker sex,” women have fought long and hard to remove that stigma. Women are judged
from the male-centered perspective and held to the standards prescribed by men for men. This standard places women at a disadvantage because they do not fit into the traditional male model. This inequity permeates all areas of American society. Often, women have had to fight for equality in America.

Caucasian women had to fight for equality. However, there were two different fights for these women, which were separated by class. Women from the upper class only had to contend with gender bias. These women fought for the right to vote and the right to higher education in the Suffrage Movement. They struggled to separate themselves from the stereotypes of being more emotional, less rational, more fragile, and less intelligent than White men. Climbing down from the pedestal upon which they had been placed was their primary goal. During the Reconstruction Period, the Women’s Suffrage Movement developed. The Women’s Suffrage Movement of the 1800s helped women gain tremendous ground: they gained the right to vote. (Sanchez, 2006). Soon the right to attain higher education followed. However, these rights did not eradicate sexism or produce equity in salaries.

Poor women had a more difficult time. These women and girls faced harsh, rigorous workloads, long working hours, and poor pay in factories on the East Coast. They also endured unsafe working conditions, which placed girls and women in the danger. Women and girls worked 14-hour shifts and endured intolerable heat and deafening noise (Sanchez, 2006). These poor working conditions caused female workers to strike at the textile mills. Prior to the Civil War, female textile workers created unions to address this issue. After the Civil War, the dangerous working conditions persisted in some factories. In New York, an even greater error included the large amount of factory workers employed at large buildings. More than half of Manhattan’s garment employees worked above the seventh floor or higher, which was outside of
the reach of fire truck ladders at the time (Sanchez, 2006). This factor was a recipe for tragedy against one of society’s most vulnerable working units. On March 25, 1911, the infamous fire in a Triangle Waistcoat Factory killed 146 women. The International Ladies Garment Workers Union (ILGWU) founded in 1900 brought national attention to this tragedy. Stronger city fire code laws and penalties were a result of this tragedy.

However, that fight was different for Caucasian and African-American women. The fight for female equality was an especially difficult one for African-American women, as they were discriminated due to their race and gender. African-American women fought with their men; then, later these women were discriminated by those same men. African-American men fought in the Civil War to gain freedom. After the Emancipation Proclamation, they fought for job access and inequality. In the past, African-American women have fought with their men. When A. Phillip Randolph started the Brotherhood of the Sleeping Car Porters (BSCP), their wives became advocates and were members of the Ladies’ Auxiliary to the Brotherhood of Sleeping Car Porters. These women were instrumental to their men during the Pullman Porter strikes. Although these women were essential in raising funds and recruiting members for the union, the BSCP preserved an attitude of paternalism and disdain toward African-American women (Pfeffer, 1995). Regardless, African-American women supported their men in their fight for economic equality due to racial segregation and discrimination. This fighting spirit is rooted in their civil rights history of fighting for their families and communities.

While some women were fighting for improved working conditions and economic parity, other women were addressing social issues in academia. As students, women faced discrimination in the higher education sporting opportunities and classroom parity. In 1972, Title IX was passed, requiring funds for women to compete in college-level sports teams. Title
IX allowed more female athletes ingress into the academy. Colleges and universities had to hire female coaches and create female locker rooms for the growth of new female sporting teams. Before Title IX was introduced, girls and women had little opportunity to participate in sports at high schools and colleges. After Title IX, girls’ sporting teams (such as baseball, soccer, and basketball) were provided access to government funding like their male counterparts were given. This money did not eliminate the stereotypes that female athletes endured in those contentious beginnings. Women, in general, have problems being viewed as leaders, whether it be in sports or in the education (the classroom) by both women and men. They are limited by Eurocentric Patriarchal stereotypes against women. This stereotyping manifests itself in the form of micro-aggressions and overt aggression against women. Pierce (1989) posited that micro-aggressions were “subtle, minor, stunning, automatic assaults . . . a major offense mechanism by which Whites stress Blacks unremittingly and keep them on the defensive, as well as in psychologically reduced condition” (p. 308). Micro-aggressions, in this case, are subtle offenses that are made against women by men. These micro-aggressions are used to make women feel like outsiders in male settings. In the arena of sports (be it secondary, post-secondary, or professional), these micro-aggressions may more pervasive.

For female students, Title IX has included addressing sexual harassment and sexual assault in post-secondary institutions. Recently, sexual harassment and rape on college campuses has become an issue. Colleges and universities are hiring Title IX officers to handle sexual violence complaints. Harvard University recently hired Mia Karvonides as its first Title IX officer, tasked with clarifying for students the difference between unwelcomed sexual conduct and a romantic encounter (Hartyallis, 2016). Also, post-secondary institutions are allotting millions for investigators, counselors, lawyers, and case managers to manage this
problem. This new layer of bureaucracy in higher education is a result of policy mandates from
the federal government, which requires institutions to hire at least one Title IX officer. The
government is investigating more than 200 institutions because they handled sexual complaints
(Hartcollis, 2016). Students must be made to understand the complexities and repercussions
of what they may consider casual flirting.

There are other issues with post-secondary institutions not enforcing Title IX. American
unions have noticed the resulting problems with a lack of enforcement (Schmidt, 2016). The
AAUP has claimed that faculty’s academic freedom and due process rights are being abused by
the Department of Education and post-secondary institutions due to a lack of enforcement of
sexual harassment policies. Schmidt (2016) noted the issues that the AAUP raised in a 1994,
2012 and 2014 report. There are two sides of the argument. Republicans of Congress have
supported colleges who are pushing back against the IX policies, which claim that enforcement
of IX is putting demands on institutions that are not detailed in the law.

In the 21st Century, women are emboldened to strive for leadership in all kinds of
employment. However, they are not being afforded many leadership opportunities in
employment. The disparity of women employed with power is apparent in high-paying careers.
The number of women of color holding board seats is drastically lower than that of White
women; both White and Black women are lagging White men. African-American women
possessed only 1.9% of board seats in Fortune 500 compared to 12.7% of Caucasian women
(League of Black Women, 2007). The number of women of color in CEO positions is far lower
than that of their male or Caucasian counterparts. Ursula Burns is the sole Black female CEO of
a Fortune 500 company. More importantly, female leaders of color are not treated with the same
respect as other leaders. Bell and Nkomo (2001) reported that African-American women
managers in education noted occurrences of blatant racism, clandestine challenges to their authority, and being held to a higher standard of work (quoted in Ospina & Foldy, 2009). Therefore, after African-American women have fought to gain positions of authority, they are not as well accepted as their African-American male or Caucasian female counterparts.

More women are attending and graduating from colleges and universities than men. From 1900 to 2000, the number of women receiving bachelor’s and master’s degrees increased from 20 percent to 58 percent (May, Moorhouse & Bassard, 2011). Women are also acquiring doctorates. By 2000, women earned 20 percent of all doctorate degrees (May et al., 2011). However, once these women enter the university as employees instead of students, their positions may not be as strong. There are few women in positions of power in American universities and colleges. Also, there are fewer female faculty members, particularly at research universities. In 2002, women represented only 35% of all full-time faculty and only 25% at the country’s top research universities (May et al., 2011).

Even in post-secondary institutions that are unionized, women are still limited in their roles of power. American unions, like many of the country’s higher education institutions, have largely earned their reputation as men’s only clubs. Penny and Gallard (2006) defined such a good old boys’ club as a being a system that trained women to fulfill the sex-role expectations of men and seek external approval and feedback from men for female submissive behavior. It follows, then, that women would tend to avoid advancing in areas where they were denied this approval. Thus, a club could control its membership even without explicit bans on women. This exclusion of women can be seen in many facets of the American experience, particularly in higher education and unions.

In the beginning of the twentieth century, many trade unions had restriction measures
written in their constitutions. Membership was reserved to only US-born, English-speaking, White men; the extent of the exclusion based on race and gender varied (Leymon, 2011). This exclusion of women can be seen in the masculine names of specific unions, such as the United Brotherhood of Carpenters & Joiners of America, International Brotherhood of Bookbinders, Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, and the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, which emphasize manhood and the need for unions to help men earn a decent living wage. Women were not considered potential workers in these jobs.

The evolution of unions in higher education was also a unique one. Though their origins are unique, three such organizations have made strides in post-secondary education. The National Educational Association (NEA) was founded in 1857 and included primary, secondary, and post-secondary teachers and administrators (Cain, 2009). The NEA switched away from higher education issues. This is when the American Association of University Professors filled the gap. The creation of The American Association of University Professors (AAUP) in 1915 and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) in 1916 proved the necessity of unions in higher education. These two organizations may have gained more members due to the conservative nature of the NEA. Originally, the AAUP was not concerned with collective bargaining for faculty’s salaries, benefits, and pensions. Reichman (2015) noted that early leaders were more concerned with higher education influence on society’s good than for the rights or needs of professors. It was the AFT that encouraged the AAUP to change its focus from the common good to faculty needs, to drop the “association” from their name, and to seek “union” status through collective bargaining (Reichman, 2015). The NEA was also pressured to become involved in academic freedom. In the 1930s, the NEA created two committees, a Committee of Academic Freedom and a Committee on Tenure, to fight for its members’ rights (Cain, 2009).
As the professoriate grew in the 1940s and 1950s, the need to unionize against rogue administrators arose. Once faculty began bargaining for salaries and working conditions, their power in higher education grew. Faculty senates had influence on institutional policy and governance. By the 1960s the success of the AFT in organizing unions in both the community colleges (two-year colleges) and four-year universities in Wisconsin and New York, and pressure from faculty in AAUP influenced the AAUP in seeing the value of collective bargaining; thus, the AAUP organized a 1964 Conference on collective bargaining (Reichman, 2015). Over time, the pressure to function as a collective bargaining agent increased for the organization. In 1967, Belleville College (now Southern Illinois University) replaced the AFT with AAUP as its sole agent to negotiation collective bargaining agreements; in 1970, Rutgers University, St. John’s, and Oakland University joined AAUP (Reichman, 2015). In 1972, the American Association of University Professors (AAUP) acquired the right to function as a bargaining agent for eight four-year universities, four public and four private (Reichman, 2015). The AAUP and AFT acquired many more two-year, four-year, public and private post-secondary institutional faculty through the last thirty years of the last century. By 1978, there were 180 public post-secondary institutions and 38 private institutions that were unionized in 29 states, DC, and Guam (Miller, 2015). However, the beginning of the next decade dealt unions a blow in the courts. The National Labor Relations Board 1980 decision of Yeshiva rendered faculty in private universities unable to unionize due their managerial status.

Academic freedom was another key issue in the role of unions. One court case, Sweezy v. New Hampshire (1957), wherein the Supreme Court acknowledged the significant value of academic freedom in not revealing political party members, was critical. Also, Keyishian v. Board of Regents of the University of the State of New York (1967), wherein the state tried to
force faculty members to sign statements denouncing Communism and subversive organizations, was an attempt to contain faculty’s mobility and freedom (Law and Higher Education, 2016). Although mainly focused on salary, working conditions, benefits, and retirement packages of faculty, unions also have clear impact on post-secondary institutions’ policies. The tension between faculty and administration is still palpable on some campuses. Faculty’s desire for shared governance, pitted against administration’s need for control, often causes conflict in the academy. Many pundits argue that more well-run institutions are such due to the lack of a union presence (Law and Higher Education, 2016). Conversely, faculty would argue that unions provide the most benefit to faculty and help preserve the integrity of the academy.

Unfortunately, tension within the faculty also exists. Male and female faculty members are engaged in conflict due to stereotyping of women in their roles in the academy. Legislation, such as Title IX and Affirmative Action, allowed women more access to higher education; however, the need for these two pieces of legislation is challenged regularly. Male faculty often argue that Affirmative Action discriminates against White males and promotes the hiring of more women and minorities who are not as qualified as they. This belief of the male faculty has caused isolation and sometimes ostracizing of women and minorities who enter departments. This phenomenon can be most prevalent in male-dominated fields, such as the sciences and mathematics (Beasley & Fischer, 2012). A reduction in the number of full-time tenure positions can make infighting for research grants and other honors increase, which would further delay women’s advancement in higher education. Also, tenure is a concern for female faculty.

The shift, however, from full-time to contingency (adjunct) faculty makes tenure more precarious at post-secondary institutions. By the end of the 20th century, some teaching and research assistants in public institutions acquired the right to bargain collectively. However, by
the 1990s, faculty power within the institution had waned. Shared governance is being reduced, and privatization in higher education is preventing union expansion. Currently, full-time faculty, adjunct faculty, and graduate assistants face difficult futures as funding for education is reduced, and collective bargaining rights are challenged. Faculty’s role and power in the academy is reducing as its full-time numbers reduce.

Within post-secondary institutions, the roles of faculty and administration are clearly defined. Stoessel (2013) defined the president’s role as mediating faculty disagreements, organizing and dispensing resources, and coordinating the quality of the institution’s outcomes; faculty’s role is to represent the core principles of the organization to the student. The attainment of tenure involves both faculty and administration, and attaining tenure has been a bone of contention. Landmark cases, such as the Board of Regents of State Colleges v. Roth (1972) and Perry v. Sinderman (1972), revealed that the Supreme Court supported faculty members’ rights to due process and tenure. In Roth, the faculty member alleged that he was not rehired due to a violation of due process (neither hearing nor notice); in Perry, the Court upheld Perry’s “property interest in continued employment” due to his previous one-year contract, the College’s Faculty Guide Book, and agency rules of the state (Law and Higher Education, 2016).

New territory, such as organizing adjunct and graduate assistants, has been opened to both the AAUP and AFT in the last thirty years. Adjuncts face remarkably poor working conditions, even as they contribute the most labor in post-secondary institutions (Bailey, 2015). Unions have conducted research on this phenomenon. Bailey (2015) referenced a 2014 AAUP report that indicated in 2011 adjuncts were 76.5 percent of the teaching faculty in American post-secondary institutions. These faculty members actively sought organizing at the turn of the last century. In the late 1990s, the Coalition of Contingency Academic Labor (COCAL) created
strategies, such as Campus Equity Week, to aid in the fight for adjunct pay equality (Miller, 2015). Contingency workers seek the same benefits that a collective bargaining agreement provides: fair pay, working conditions, work schedule, and some form of seniority. A tenure track position would be the ultimate reward for these workers.

The benefit of tenure for faculty is not debatable. Guthrie-Morse, Leslie, and Hu (1979) asserted that in 1977-78, tenure attainments had risen 3% higher for unionized faculty versus non-unionized faculty. However, in the last 35 years, private four-year institutions continue to have the higher salaries, regardless of unionization. At public and private institutions there are groups seeking unionization. Those groups include full-time faculty, part-time faculty, and graduate teaching assistants. The latter two groups do not have a living wage. Post-secondary institutions are fighting union organization due to a reduction in federal funding. Institutions must evaluate economic variables of graduate student unions on their budgets. A 2001 National Labor Relations Board ruling allowed collective bargaining for teaching assistants at New York University (NYU) to sign the first contract for a private university in 2002 (Ehrenberg, Klaff, Kezbom, & Nagowski, 2004). Recent decisions by the National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) indicate that unionization at private post-secondary institutions may increase.

Unions have changed in growth and in their roles in higher education. Since 1971, the three most significant unions, the American Association of University Professors (AAUP), the American Federation of Teachers (AFT), and the National Education Association (NEA), have recruited more than 200,000 faculty members (Arnowitz, 2006). While faculty should share in the shared governance of post-secondary institutions, some people question whether unions should be involved in shared governance. Actually, at no place in America “in the public sector do faculty have a legal or institutionally sanctioned right to negotiate over issues of governance,
whether through unions or faculty senates” (Arnowitz, 2006, p. 26). The resistance to faculty having shared governance or even striking rights can be seen in both public and private colleges and universities. Under the Civil Service Law, Article 14 §210 Prohibition of Strikes, New York’s Public Employees Fair Employee Act (Taylor Law) allows the Public Employee Relations Board (PERB) to settle contract disagreements by restricting public employees’ right to strike. While most members would be willing to strike over issues, such as salaries, benefits, working conditions, and even academic freedom, many may not be willing to risk all for the ability to have shared governance. Convincing faculty that shared governance is their right may be the next step for union leaders.

When women joined the higher education union battlefield, there was a different kind of exclusion, particularly if the women were African-American. An African-American woman’s place in the White patriarchal academy is a precarious one. Often people relate her experience from either the female or African-American context. However, the African-American woman’s situation is unusual in that it makes her a double minority and a double outsider in most circles. These women’s relationships within unions are often layered and conflicting. African-American women experience leadership differently. African-American female leaders’ experiences are different from Caucasian female leaders.

In the unions which govern higher education faculty, women’s roles in leadership positions should be examined to assess barriers. The root of some of these barriers is buried in the American psyche of gender roles and negative stereotypes that are entwined around the African-American female form. Societal roles are often prescribed based upon American beliefs or values. Simeone (1987) affirmed that role theory attested that roles are bound in reciprocity; therefore, if a leader, such as a department chair or union president, is not deemed to possess
qualities that followers believe he or she needs for that leadership role, then that leader may not be seen as a leader. The leader is dependent upon the followers to be seen as effective, persuasive, or competent. Subjectivity of the follower is the glue between a person and his or her ability to be deemed a leader. Because positions such as department chair and union president are often reserved for men, women are often eliminated as options for these positions due to the varied myths and stereotypes surrounding women as leaders.

Women, particularly African-American women, who enter the workplace may be judged as being incompetent due to residual effects of negative stereotypes. Brown and Kennelly’s (1999) interviewed of Atlanta employees and discovered that employers believed that Black female workers were merely single mothers; this was a dominant misconception (Dickerson, 2006). These stereotypes make the work environment a treacherous place. Black women are not being judged solely on how well they perform as employees, but on the pre-conceived notions and expectations of their White and male counterparts. These superficial differences (based on gender and race) have negatively limited leadership opportunities for women. Giving women more leadership roles would also extinguish stereotypes about African-American women as being aggressive or incompetent leaders or Caucasian women as being gay or incompetent leaders. When polled, 48% of African-American women believed that negative stereotypes toward Black women negatively affect their well-being and global positioning (The League of Black Women, 2007). These constricting stereotypes function as barriers for Black women. These stereotypes live in the American psyche and reduce access for Black women in many industries.

Leaders of organizations should avoid applying stereotypes during their hiring practices. Pejorative stereotypes that are lodged in the American psyche must not be considered when
organizations, especially unions, are selecting their leaders. Unions must thoroughly vet leaders to avoid chaos in the organization and hopefully to promote diversity. A union leader must be sensitive to cultural differences, interested in other cultures, and open to diversity and inclusion. However, the members (followers) of that union must also be willing to follow a leader who is not a member of the dominant culture. This task becomes difficult when gender and race are intermingled with leadership.
Chapter Two

Literature Review

Women Gaining Higher Education

After the Civil War, education and employment opportunities opened for both White and Black women. The Emergent Nation Era (1790-1869) saw a broader base of students (Cohen, 1998). After the Civil War, the First Morrill Act of 1862 allowed land grants to establish state colleges. These institutions offered courses in agricultural, mechanical, and industrial subjects. Additionally, public support for higher education for Black students was reflected in the enactment of the Second Morrill Act in 1890 (Cohen, 1998). The Act required states with racially segregated public higher education systems to provide a land-grant institution for Black students whenever a land-grant institution was established and restricted for White students. After the passage of the Act, public land-grant institutions specifically for Blacks were established in each of the southern and border states. As a result, some new public black institutions were founded, and several formerly private black schools came under public control; eventually several black institutions were designated as land-grant colleges (Cohen, 1998). This Act created the Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs). These institutions are considered the Ivy League Colleges for African-Americans.

In addition, there was the development of small colleges and colleges for women. Women and African-Americans became students during this era. The first college to enroll women and minorities was Oberlin College (Goodchild & Wechsler, 1989). Oberlin’s first female graduate was Mary Kellogg who earned a bachelor’s degree (Clahaugh, 2010). The first women’s college, Vassar, was founded in 1865; (Goodchild & Wechsler, 1989). This concept of founding women’s colleges spread. Sophia Smith was encouraged to endow a women’s college
in 1868 (Goodchild & Wechsler, 1989). Thus, the college classroom became a place of diversity and challenge for both the learner and instructor. The Morrill Act of 1862 not only allowed more women access to college. This act caused the creation of female student organizations, such as sororities and female-only clubs. The Women’s Suffrage Movement of the 1800s helped women gain tremendous ground: they gained the right to vote (the 19th Amendment) and the right to attain higher education. However, these rights did not eradicate sexism or produce equity in salaries. Once female students arrived on college campuses, female professors soon joined them.

In 1881, two women (Ellen Richards and Marion Talbot) met with 15 other female graduates from eight colleges to discuss forming an organization to meet the needs of college-educated women; they created the American Collegiate Alumnae (ACA). (AAUA, 2016). The ACA morphed into the American Association of University Women (AAUW) which found its headquarters in 1921 in Washington, DC (AAUA, 2016). The AAUW saw a need to improve the lives socially, financially, and emotionally for all women.

By the end of the 19th century, both White and Black women were being educated in many American universities. Upon women’s arrival in the classroom, noticeable differences could be observed. Writers, psychologists, and other theorists were not of the opinion that women could or should be taught. Clahaugh (2010) noted that “D. H. Lawrence, Freud, Jung, Kierkegaard, Hemingway, Marx, and Heine, to name a few influential men, publicly argued or privately expressed the view that women had limited capacity, suffered from incompleteness and general defects, or were either uneducable or at least incapable of genius” (p. 175). Even Ralph Waldo Emerson articulated that women had a lack of intellectual abilities. Regardless, college instructors needed to create a space that is conducive to learning for a new gender that was still draped in stereotypes of inferiority.
Perry and Pauletti (2011) identified three constructs that greatly factor into gender theory: gender typing, gender stereotypes, and gender identity. Gender typing involves traditional gender traits that are considered either mostly feminine or masculine in nature. Patriarchal Universe of Discourse, as outlined by Penelope (1990), recognized a system that divides the world by gender. Power is then regulated through gender. Men possess the power, which is visible in actions and language. Language, then, can be used as tool or weapon to control women. This can be seen in gender stereotypes. Gender stereotyping involves societal notions or beliefs about which traits are considered manly or womanly. Gender identity is the gender that a boy or girl most identifies with regardless of his or her sex at birth. Gender typing can be ascribed to males or females based upon gender stereotypes. For example, being aggressive and assertive are considered masculine traits. Being polite and nurturing are considered feminine traits. When women or men deviate from these traits, society often judges them severely. This is true in the school or work environment. Role Congruity Theory reflected how gender roles and the breaking of those roles negatively can impact women. Role Congruity Theory asserts there is prejudice towards women in the workplace due to the women’s characteristic alignment with dominant men (Eagly & Karau 2002). This prejudice can be traced back to childhood in the primary school setting.

There are studies on how boys and girls are treated in the classroom. Sadker, Sadker, and Long (1993) studied boys’ and girls’ interaction in primary education. They noted the differences between boys and girls in the classroom, notably, boys asked and answered more questions than girls did and received more praise and constructive criticism that girls (Sadker, Sadker, and Long, 1993). Girls’ inability to exert their voices in the classroom can directly relate to their self-esteem. This difference in treatment can be traced to nursery school, where boys are
rewarded for assertion and independence and girls are rewarded for neatness and passivity (Richmond-Abbott, 1983).

Furthermore, gender issues can be observed at the post-secondary level. In higher education, male faculty should avoid gender stereotyping and bias. All college instructors must create a space that is conducive to learning for all genders, especially since gender stereotypes of women are still prevalent and laced in inferiority. Once women were inside the classroom, the job of educating women was among the most pressing issues for male professors. The first difference that did not escape educators was the fact that women learn differently than men do. MacKeracher noted that some learners, particularly women, “learn most effectively” in environments that allow for personal experience to be connected to the material that is being learned (Barer-Stein & Draper, 1993, p. 77). These environmental goals are important for all students, but particularly, they are important for first-generation, minority, underprepared, and female students.

This gender bias has had a negative effect on female learners in post-secondary institutions. Feminism seeks to rectify the inequality in the higher education environment. Feminists recognize the Patriarchal Universe of Discourse as being a system which divides the world, attempts to control women, and deprives women of power (Penelope, 1990). Such control is seen many areas of society. To create an environment that is conducive to learning, the female instructor must address three key issues: not allowing the teacher to be objectified, recognizing the differences between men and women’s interaction and experiences in the classroom, and avoiding gender bias in the classroom.

First of all, the instructor must define his or her role, especially if the professor is female. It is generally accepted that there is a relationship between the reader and the text. However,
Toni Morrison suggested that a third factor, the instructor, joins the duo, thus yielding another voice that must be decrypted (Johnson, 1994). This role becomes more complicated if the instructor is a female or minority. Because the instructor is female, she must rise above the students’ scrutiny, which is constructed by their own “socially constructed readings of race and gender” (Johnson, 1994, p. 410). As a minority, she is already viewed as the stereotypical maid, mammy, or welfare princess. Similarly, as a woman, she must rise above the stereotypes of being a wife, mother, or sex object. In both cases, the women are rarely seen as rational and intelligent, and she must exhibit her own power and voice, which goes against traditional, male stereotypes that label her as hysterical in many cultures. Once the female instructor has gained her voice (power), then she can mentor her female students and assist them in gaining their voices.

In addition to creating a conducive learning environment, the female instructor must recognize the concept of gender differences in the classroom. There have been many studies of gender interaction, which reveal that female students’ classroom experiences are different from male students. First of all, women tend to feel more alienated in the classroom. One reason why they feel this way is due to the “curricula which largely excludes the experiences of females” (Kramarae & Treichler, 1990, p. 41). Women have been taught at an early age that only men create theories, write and make history, and define processes for instruction, math, and science, thereby excluding women from rational thought or empowered voice (Gallos, 1995). It is difficult for women to pair this masculine erudition with their female experiences. In addition, female students reported different experiences in the classroom. Unfortunately, sometimes both female and male instructors treated male and female students differently. Gallos (1995) noted that instructors made “more eye contact with male students,” call on female students “less often,”
allow men to “call out answers while women raise their hands,” and offer “more precis feedback or praise to men than women” (p. 104). Carol Gilligan studied teenager girls and explored the female experience in the classroom. In her study at Emma Willard School, Gilligan studied girls ranging from the ages of 11 to 16 who had experienced the “wall of western culture” and felt excluded from discussions in the classroom (quoted in Hannan, 1995, p. 104). Possibly, in a “feminist consciousness-raising discourse style” of classroom, women would be placed in positions of “authority and expertise” whereby their experiences are “paid attention to and validated,” their internalized sexism is challenged” and they are “encouraged to change their positions as women in their society and in the world” (McMahill, 1997, p. 614).

Women also find it difficult to gain their voice in the classroom due to their different ways of learning and knowing. Sexism in the classroom stifles women’s voices; therefore, a professor’s ability to address sexism in the classroom is critical. Instructors must assist students in building a community through collaborative learning groups to promote positive interaction and dialogue while fostering positive interdependence among students. This is particularly important in male-dominated fields, such as math and science. Boysen’s (2013) study revealed that when professors in math courses confronted male students on their gender stereotypes against female students, the “ratings of the teacher’s effectiveness and knowledge were significantly higher” (p. 304). Students do not feel comfortable when gender bias steers the lecture away from the content of the course. Gender stereotypes and bias are intrusive distractions in the classroom. Female students may also create their own gender bias in themselves due to their gender typing.

When female students view specific traits as being solely male, these students may place themselves at a disadvantage in the classroom. Greenwald et al. (2002) argued that the female
student may associate a specific gender stereotype to males. For instance, female students who identify intensely with femininity and identify science as being male typed may exclude math from their self-concept.

However, they persist and prevail in male-dominated fields, such as Science, Technology, Engineering and Math (STEM). Beasley and Fischer (2012) asserted that *stereotype threat* is the “social-psychological threat arising from a situation or activity for which a stereotype about the actor’s group” (p. 429) has been used to explain the under-performance of women in STEM fields. In this example, women may feel that their failure at something affects others’ future perceptions of women as a whole. However, sometimes stereotype threat is misinterpreted with performance anxiety. Beasley and Fischer (2012) revealed in their study that under-preparedness and stereotype threat were the major reasons for women and minorities attrition in STEM college courses. Enrollment in technology courses has decreased by 25 percent; however, the women’s enrollment in technology courses has declined “by 93% since the peak of women’s enrollment in 1983” (Ali, 2009, p. 226). However, nationally, women have higher enrollment numbers in post-secondary institutions. Between 1970 and 2005, women became the majority at American colleges and universities (Brock 2010). Unfortunately, women are not being aggressively recruited into STEM fields (Beasley & Fischer, 2012). Stereotypes or myths surrounding women’s abilities might be the root of this phenomenon.

**Women and Employment**

During World War II, women became instrumental in the war efforts by working jobs that were vacant due to men serving in the war. When the men returned, the women were forced out of those jobs. After World War II, the United Nations listed gender “among its forms of discrimination banned by its charter” (Jaquette & Summerfield, 2006, p 20). By the 1960s and
1970s, the Women’s Movement increased enrollment of women in post-secondary institutions, increased salaries, and opened more markets and fields that had previously been barred for women. Since the 1970s, women have made strides politically through groups, such as The National Organization of Women. The United Nations was also instrumental in bringing women’s issues to the forefront. In the trade and higher education unions, women have had to fight incessantly. Women joined traded union because they would earn better wages. African-American women fought about their own employment disparities. Historically, African-American women have suffered from inequality in pay. Their working histories were often in occupations at the bottom of the blue-collar job pool (under White women); when Black women are in these jobs, they need more education and more time to advance from these positions. They were often limited to specific jobs for lower pay. This employment disparity habitually increases when men are added to the equation. African-American and Latina women have the lowest pay of all gender/race group (Dickerson, 2006).

In addition, there is a lack of parity in the hiring of women in post-secondary institutions. Women face discrimination in being hired as faculty, attaining tenure, and being promoted to full professorship. Of tenured American college and university faculty only 36 percent are women and only 27 percent of full professors are women. (Niemeier & Gonzalez, 2004). Furthermore, women are limited to power within departments. Within American college and universities, 80 percent of departments are chaired by men (Niemeier & Gonzalez, 2004).

Inequity in female professors’ promotion is visible at private and public institutions. Bilen-Green, Froelich, and Jacobson (2008) noted that even if an institution has a female president, unless it is a private independent post-secondary institution, women still are less likely to be granted tenure. There is a distinction in female faculty hiring at public and private
institutions. Bilen-Green, Froelich, and Jacobson (2008) discovered that female faculty is most represented at public research institutions and least represented at religion institutions. This may be a result of the stronger gender stereotypes that are rooted in religious institutions, which are mainly patriarchal in their hierarchy of power. Women who transition from faculty to dean may also be in the minority, regardless of the type of institutions. Bilen-Green, Froelich, and Jacobson (2008) discovered that women represent 28 percent of deans at religious institutions, about six percent of presidents at religious institutions 13.5 percent of presidents at research institutions, and 23.5 percent of provosts at research institutions.

The inequity in positions and salaries between men and women continues to be present. In higher education, where equality should be espoused and lived by, gender inequity is prevalent. Curtis (2011) noted that men outrank women in tenured faculty positions, presidential positions, and in Chief Financial Officers (CFO) positions. Rank distinctions were also lower for women. Curtis (2011) asserted that only 28 percent of women were full professors. The inequity is further revealed in salaries. Men earned more than women at public institutions ($13,616 more) and at private institutions ($17,843) (American Council on Education, 2016). In the academic year of 2013-2014 for faculty, men earned an average salary of $85,528 while women earned an average salary of $70,355 (ACE, 2016). Inequity in pay and position keep the patriarchal power structure firmly in place. Women continue to seek equity in pay and advancement in the workplace.

Due to this imparity, women sought pay equality when they joined service and trade unions. Their resistance against harassment and poor treatment in the labor force caused them to fight in social protests against inequality. They also fought to join unions. When they joined, they became extremely active in union work. Nike T. Dickerson (2006) asserted that African-
American women continue to fight for positive structural changes in unions to enhance the labor market status of women.

Today, women continue fight for parity and power in unions. Kaminski and Yakura (2008) noted from a Canadian study that female union leaders mainly held lower positions than the men; those offices were held in smaller unions, and they received less pay for their work in the union. In smaller unions, the data is more alarming. Women do not have as much power. Approximately 14% of local union presidents were women; African-American women had even less power in unions with only 3.3% of them being president (Kaminski & Yakura, 2008).

Minority women in the workplace struggle due to both gender and racial bias. In her study, Dickerson (2006) interviewed seven minority women (three Latina and four African-American); she noted that all stated that they must mainly rely on themselves and their own perseverance, that they repeatedly had to prove they were fit to do their jobs, and that few of them had a coach to groom them. Thus, their resources were limited, and their support systems were non-existent. Therefore, Black women can only rely on themselves for support and are required to continually prove they are worthy of their positions. Kaminski and Yakura (2008) noted that female union leaders tended to have lower positions than men, were officers in smaller unions, and had fewer hours and received less pay for union work. In these unions, women and minority women do not have as much power. Fourteen percent of women were local union presidents; minority women were only 3.3% of presidents (Kaminski & Yakura, 2008).

In industrialized places, such as Australia, women in trade unions are also being marginalized. In 1927, the Australia Council of Trade Unions (ACTU) was formed; it would take until 1983 before a woman (Jennie George) was elected as president, and another 20 years before another woman, Shoran Burrow, followed her (Rea, 2005). This lack of female
leadership is not so surprising among trade unions. However, the limited roles of women in unions are prevalent. Although women fight for equality just like men, they are often marginalized in the organizations that they support, particularly in unions. This marginalization is prevalent in trade and higher education unions. Only in primary education, administrative assistant, and nursing unions are women given equal footing to men. Because these fields are traditionally reserved for women, women are not seen as threatening in these leadership roles.

In higher education unions, women still seek equity in pay. For female faculty members, clandestine forms of gender bias exist prior to tenure and as they advance in their careers. Lodico, Spaulding, and Voegtle (2010) noted women’s gendered roles in the academy by having to teach more courses, doing more students advising, and serving on institutional committees. Their male counterparts may devote their time to research, which is more valued in four-year and research institutions.

Women also have a difficult journey ascending to the top administrative levels of academy. Women have a slow road to the status of college president. Curtis (2011) noted that as of 2006, only 23 percent of post-secondary institution presidents were female, and only four of the 13 Ivy League institutions have female presidents. Bilen-Green, Froelich, and Jacobson (2008) asserted that the greater numbers of women in positions is due to the larger number of female applicants not a reduction in gender bias in higher procedures. When women are promoted to a position of authority, they are sometimes viewed as tokens, and their talents are ignored. Once women begin performing in administrative roles, they still endure gendered experiences. Bilen-Green et al. (2008) reported that female graduate students, faculty, and administrators experienced both covert and overt gendered treatment, such as being assigned to more intensive work on less powerful committees, being prescribed supportive roles instead of
leadership roles, and having a lack of support services from the institutions. These events limit women from matriculating to power. Their leadership styles may conflict with the gendered environment that exalts patriarchal ideals.

Women must possess or cultivate a specific skill set to be successful leaders. Dunn, Gerlach, and Hyle (2014) asserted that successful leaders possess self-awareness of their behaviors and their effects, are selfless, build networks of support, are task-oriented, focus on fund-raising, face resistance and challenge with persistence, and learn from their mistakes. Being selfless can backfire for female leaders. Dunn et al. (2014) noted that if a female leader allows her subordinates to take all the credit, then she is unable to develop a reputation as an effective leader. As leaders, women often allow their subordinates to receive credit for work they have done.

While women are fighting for fair salary, benefits, recognition, and power in the workplace, they are also fighting inside themselves. For most working women with families, there is a tension between work and family responsibility. Women struggle to be wives, mothers, and workers. Research reflects that women have difficulty having a family and navigating a career, whether it is in an office, hospital, or research lab (Kimmel, Gaylor, & Hayes, 2014). Gender expectations and roles often make childcare and child rearing the responsibility of women. The need to fulfill these roles causes tension in women’s lives and can derail their career trajectory. Beyond FMLA, institutions often lack support services, such as child care and flexible schedules, for working mothers.

Gender discrimination has caused much litigation in higher education. One area that is often litigated is the denial of tenure. Glazer-Raymo (1999) referenced the infamous Penn v. EEOC case in which Rosalie Tung, an Asian-American associate professor at Pennsylvania’s
Wharton School of Business filed a 1984 sexual discrimination case. The Supreme Court ruled that First Amendment academic freedom did not protect tenure review files (Glazer-Raymo, 1999). This court case caused colleges and universities to better articulate their tenure procedures and rank promotion criteria. In addition, the case allowed for more transparency in the tenure process so that members could better anticipate expectations and plan goals in their academic careers. In 2015, the school board of State College of Florida in Sarasota, Florida voted 7 to 1 to eliminate tenure for all newly hired faculty (Gutentag, 2015). This ruling eliminated the prospect of tenure for many adjunct faculty in the university.

**Women and Limiting Stereotypes**

Others are constantly defining women who enter the workforce. Women, be they White or Black, must fight against stereotypes about their ability to lead effectively. It is an African-American woman’s plight to constantly battle against being defined by the dominant hegemonic culture, which seeks to control her (Collins, 1986). She may be judged as being incompetent due to residual effects of pejorative stereotypes. Brown and Kennelly’s 1999 interviews of Atlanta employers revealed that these employers had the pervasive misconception that Black female workers were single mothers (Dickerson, 2006). These stereotypes make the work environment a treacherous place. Black women are not being judged solely on how well they perform as employees, but on the pre-conceived notions and expectations of their White and male counterparts. The first, most difficult area to change is the presence and perpetuation of negative stereotypes that surround African-American women. These stereotypes run deeper than the images seen in exploitative rap songs and videos, which portray African-American women as promiscuous, unprincipled, and money-hungry. African-American rap culture has created these
stereotypes; however, the original African-American stereotypes, created by Anglo-American society, are rooted in slavery.

There are many stereotypes of African-American women in the American psyche, but four are particularly virulent. African-Americans were seen as animals; therefore, rape of African-American women was justified. The control of African-American sexuality, particularly the female form, was one of the intents of American stereotypes.

One of the stereotypes is the mammy or matriarch image, which originated in slavery. The mammy on the American plantation functioned as nursemaid to the southern White slave master’s children. “Even though Black female bodies were symbols of corporeal excess, savagery, laziness, and unbridled sexuality that were a danger to White women,” they also were central figures in the Anglo domestic world and acted “as the nurturer of children, keeper of secrets, and the caretaker of hearth and home” (Magubane, 2008, p.10). The mammy often reared, entertained, and even breastfed the White slave master’s children. This Black woman was often represented in literature or media as a dark-skinned, heavyset Black woman who wears a kerchief (head scarf) on her head or around her neck.

Another stereotype often applied to African-American women is the Jezebel: the temptress who lures men, typically White men, into her bed. Representing the African-American woman as sexual objects is “central in this nexus of elite White male images of Black womanhood because efforts to control Black women’s sexuality lie at the heart of Black women’s oppression” (Magubane, 2008, p. 77). This oppression is expressed in society at large, and in the workplace and classroom specifically.

The Mammy and Jezebel stereotypes are the oldest American-made stereotypes that stem from slavery. Society not only objectifies African-American women, but also places them on a
lower level than Caucasian women. During slavery the distinct roles between White and Black women were apparent. While White women are placed on a pedestal, Black women are relegated to the fields. In the American psyche, if there is a Madonna/whore dichotomy, Caucasian women are the saintly Madonna figures, and Black women are often depicted as the whores. If contrasted today, White women are good (worthy of marriage), and Black women are bad (worthy of sex only).

In the last 40 years, the welfare mother has emerged as another stereotype. She is a woman who gives birth to many children, then does little to care for her screaming children as she waits for her next welfare check. The last common stereotype for African-American women is tyrannical superwoman. She is strong, opinionated, aggressive, loud, and emasculating; however, she is extremely accomplished in her career. Oprah Winfrey, Star Jones, and Sherry Shepard are women in the media who represent this stereotype. Again, aggressive and angry women are “safe” to listen to or laugh with because they are heavy-set mother figures that also physically resemble the mammy archetype. They do not connote desire or attractiveness to most of White or Black America denizens. However, even if these women are considered attractive, they are considered dangerous and uncontrollable when they state their refusal to be used as a racial prop or be attacked for looking or acting too black. Melissa Harris-Perry is an intelligent African-American woman who was mispresented as an angry Black woman when she severed her ties with MSNBC. Rhonda Lee, an ABC affiliated meteorologist was fired for addressing a racist post about her hair on Facebook. Thus, Black women are often silenced or fired to keep the stereotypes pervasive in American culture.

These four stereotypes are destructive in that they encourage prejudice against African-American women and limit their roles. Many Black women who enter fields of business,
education, finance, medicine and law carry these stereotypes with them. When an African-American woman acts in an unexpected manner or perceived negative light, employers, or potential employers, grow uncomfortable and see her as untrustworthy. If she does not live up to expectations that define the way a “safe” employee of her race and gender should act, the workplace environment can quickly turn treacherous for her. For example, a woman in a supportive role might be seen as failing expectations, even if she fills all job requirements, simply because her supervisor has fit her into the mammy stereotype, and she doesn’t seem “comforting” enough to match that image. Conversely, if some aspect of a woman’s appearance or language runs afoul of a stereotype in a manager’s mind, fears are stoked that she will turn out to be a distracting Jezebel or an intractable Sapphire. In these cases, each woman is not being judged solely on how well she performs as an employee, but on whether she satisfies the preconceived behavioral requirements perceived by her management, which will largely be White and male.

These superficial differences (based on gender and race) have limited leadership opportunities for women, particularly African-American women. When polled, 48% of African-American women believed that negative stereotypes about African-American women have negatively affected their well-being and global positioning (The League of Black Women, 2007). These constricting stereotypes live in the American psyche and reduce access for women in many industries.

Even when African-American women are in positions of power, they face adversity. The study of Dickerson (2006) revealed that women who were lucky enough to have a mentor, such as Carmen Alvarez, needed those mentors to protect their protégés from attempts by others to sabotage the protégés’ projects. However, once these union leaders learned how to be
resourceful and strategic, they were able to be more successful. After overcoming these barriers, some of these union leaders realized how the world truly worked, which led to other survival strategies, such as creating their own support system, actively seeking and developing mentoring relationships, necessary resources, and information critical to their advancement (Dickerson, 2006). Women must continue to fight for further implementation of a plan to increase diversity in unions. The status quo will not simply yield power.

Similarly, White women face stereotypes in the American psyche. Since childhood, White American girls have also been inundated with stereotypes of how to be as women. One detrimental stereotype is the princess. A princess is a beautiful, docile woman of noble birth who waits to be saved by a man, her prince. In essence, she is a prize (a thing) to be won at the end of a battle or quest. Her freedom is dependent upon a man’s rescue not her own intellect. This can be seen in early fairytales, such as Sleeping Beauty and Cinderella or recently in video games, such as Mario Brothers, wherein Princess Peach waits in a castle for Mario and Luigi to rescue her. The princess theme was so popular that Walt Disney’s second feature Cinderella (1950) reflected the dominant themes of domesticity, female submission, and romance (Forman-Brunell & Eaton, 2009). Another stereotype that has plagued American women is the Susie Homemaker stereotype. Susie’s role is inside the house. Women in this role must serve their husband and children. Caring for the family and home is her primary concern/role. Susie, as mother, must clean the home, care for the children, cook for the family, and sexually fulfill the needs of the husband (Forman-Brunell & Eaton, 2009). She does not work outside the home and is dependent financially on her husband. This stereotype was such a strong one that until the 1970s women could not purchase a car or lease an apartment without their father’s or husband’s signature. Adolescent stereotypes, such as mean girls or teen queens, reflect female power, but
only to subjugate or ridicule other girls. The power is gained through beauty and popularity, is regulated within the clique, and has no influence on males other than via sexual exchange. This mean girl stereotype can be transmitted to adulthood, but again does not affect the larger male-dominated power structure in America. The mean girls power is only power over women.

Like her African-American sister, the Caucasian woman has a Jezebel stereotype, the over-sexualized woman. This type is slightly different in that it can start in the late teens and can be viewed positively or negatively. For instance, the celebrities Britney Spears and Brooke Shields sold music and clothing, respectively, based on their sexuality. Their sexuality is neither shaming nor resented. However, the slut stereotype, which most closely parallels the Jezebel, is often tied to a home wrecker, such as Monica Lewinsky. Ms. Lewinsky, being a full-figured woman, was not viewed as a sex symbol or over-sexualized icon; instead, she was seen as a slut who used sex to gain notoriety within America. Other researchers have found similar prevailing stereotypes that imprison women to powerless roles. Kanter (1977) denoted four major societal stereotypical roles to which women are regulated: the mother (who provides emotional support, encouragement, send service), the pet (who amuses and gives affection), the seductress (who provides sexual delight), and the iron maiden (who is aggressive, which makes her an outlier). The first role is one of the most important. It provides the first encounter between males and females. The second role is more of a daughter role. The pet is a fan to a man; she could be a sister, a cousin, a confidant, or even a sexual object that is designed to please and support a man. The seductress is the most exploited of all roles because both her mind and body are manipulated by men in this role. Women who are seductress use sex as a commodity or are used and coveted like a thing by men. Their interactions with men is a transactional one. The final role is the most rejected by men. She who is the iron maiden is the “other,” the squeaky wheel, the radical who
goes against her designated role of mother, seductress, and pet, the bad woman. The iron maiden is often viewed as such by men in the workplace. She is the outsider due to her behavior and/or dress. She has chosen to reject any traditional role and has assumed a role that is not typically reserved for women. She has chosen to have voice and speak. Her speaking is seen as being aggressive, offensive, and abnormal.

When women enter the workplace and meet challenges, new stereotypes are thrust upon these women. For instance, when a woman encounters sexism, if she complains, she is viewed negatively. A century ago she would have been called hysterical. The root for hysteria comes from the Greek word for womb. Here, a women’s reproductive organs prescribed her to being emotionally weak in the patriarchal societal gaze. Therefore, a woman’s excessive emotional state was a result of simply being a woman and having a vagina. Only a hysterectomy could save her from her instability and insanity. In today’s organizations, women are sometimes viewed as being emotional or troublemakers when they complain about sexism. Caplan (1993) interviewed female academics and revealed 27 myths in her research. Myths 13-27 focused solely on women. Caplan (1993) noted the most damaging characterizations of women are myths 13-23, which are as follows: good women ignore mistreatment, do not ask for much, do not get angry, are dangerous if given power, are innately, incessantly nurturing, are constantly emotionally needy, and are intuitive and irrational; if women work, then they work less than men; if they are married and mothers, then they work less; if they are single, then they should teach more classes and serve on more committees; women’s failure is their own fault due to their fear of success and masochism. The myths of women in the academy are expressed in myths 24-27. These myths hone in on the power structure of the academy and speak to its systemic problems. Myths 24-27 are as follows: Affirmative Action provides an unfair advantage to
women and minorities; Affirmative Action and equitable representation of women and men at each level of an institution are the only solutions to gender bias; women’s studies and feminist perspectives are restrictive to others not in those disciplines, and “an imperfect woman teacher is a bad woman teacher” (Caplan, 1993, p. 63). These myths are most detrimental to women. They hold up women to an impossible standard of selfless, mothering supporter who must do more to attain less power in any organization. Any sign of weakness is viewed negatively against women. Any attempt to complain about the status quo is viewed as hostility. This places women in a Catch-22 situation. In her research, Caplan (1993) noted 15 Catch-22 situations. These situations are dichotomies that limit women with “if/then” scenarios. For example, catch-22 number three noted that

If you do anything nurturing or caretaking—of colleagues, other staff, or students—that work may be invisible or unappreciated, or it can even be used as ‘proof’ of your lack of professionalism; but if you don’t nurture, your lack of nurturing behavior becomes highly visible, and you are considered a ‘cold bitch’ (Caplan, 1993, p. 66).

A catch-22 prescribes gendered behavior that is assigned to women and judges women negatively whether they do or do not exhibit the behavior. Women also face this stereotyping if they do or not choose to be a mother as a healthy, “normal” woman would do (catch-22 number 4), if they socialize with men as a loose woman would do (catch-22 number 14) or if they band together to stop harassment as radical, militant women do (catch-22 number 5). If a woman has a child, she is considered a real mother, but if she has a child, she is judged for spending too much time away from work to care for her child; if she socializes or is too friendly with men, she may be considered a slut, but if she does not interact with men, she may be viewed as standoffish or bitchy. Caplan (1993) noted that if women band together, they are considered threatening,
aggressive troublemakers; however, if they do not band together, they may be regulated to isolation and powerlessness. Women simply cannot win or survive in academia when they accept these gender stereotypes and when they are forced into these stereotypical roles.

Gender stereotypes affect women’s personal and professional lives. Stereotypes restrict women’s access into power, thereby limiting their ability to help themselves or other women. This is reflected in all realms of society, including academia, where critical thinking and diversity are supposed to be preferred. Unfortunately, no area is excluded from collective societal bias. These stereotypes factor into women’s perceptions as leaders, hinder women’s ability as leaders, and contribute to disparity in organizations in America. Eagly and Chin (2010) affirmed that leadership requires a person acknowledging himself or herself as a leader and hinges upon others recognizing and giving approval of him or her as a leader. The approval and recognition of leadership is difficult for women to attain. Clearly, the title of being a leader is largely in the control of the followers. If followers fail to see women as leaders, then those women will not be leaders for long.

**Women as Leaders**

Women in higher education can and do benefit from using transformative leadership. Transformative leadership places the followers’ morals, motivations, needs, and values at the center while also drawing upon the leader’s ability to attend to followers’ needs and growth (Northouse, 2015). Transformative leadership is a process where an individual leader establishes a relationship that increases the motivation level and morality in both the followers and the leader (Northouse, 2015). In this relationship, the leader must attend to the followers’ motives and needs to help the followers reach their maximum potential. It draws upon characteristics that are generally considered feminine and acceptable for women to possess. Northouse (2015)
affirmed that numerous obstructions that women experience as leaders come from “the incongruity between the female gender role and the leadership role” (p. 408). Historically, women are viewed as followers who cannot and should not lead. The characteristics normally that are associated with leadership are not stereotypically related to women. Thus, when women are placed in leadership roles, they are judged differently and sometimes harshly. Women are expected to possess characteristics, such as kindness, sensitivity, and humility (Stoker, Van der Vahl, & Lammers, 2012). This expectation is due to patriarchal societal gender roles. Eagly and Chin (2010) affirmed that women are expected to both approach leadership as their male counterparts do and provide the friendliness and warmth that women culturally are expected to give. This becomes a challenge and a balancing of femininity and masculinity for women. Women face scrutiny and judgment when they display characteristics that are socially acceptable to men, i.e., being assertive or demanding. Role Congruity Theory asserts there is prejudice towards women in the workplace due to the women’s characteristic alignment with dominant men (Eagly & Karau 2002). Consequently, transformative leadership can assist female department chairs, deans, vice-presidents and presidents in being accepted as leaders because the represented behaviors are acceptable to societal programming of gender roles.

In addition, women can use transformative leadership to allow for more inclusion. Women who choose to lead in higher education can benefit from a transformative style. Research substantiated that because people resist when a woman in assertive, women respond by exhibiting a more participatory and democratic style of leadership (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Thus, women are more inclusive in decision-making. They seek out the participation of men and women, thereby being seen as less threatening. In a department that is traditionally mainly male, such as science or math, male faculty members may judge a female department chairperson
harshly when she attempts to perform post-tenure evaluations, or they may dismiss her authority to perform such a duty. Faculty evaluations may be extremely difficult for both parties if she is much younger than her male colleagues. Using transformative leadership in an inclusive way may help this department chair avoid resistance. She could seek department members’ assistance in developing the evaluation questions for post-tenure and their suggestions on making the process more equitable and supportive. These behaviors may lower the guard of the male faculty members because they are now participating in the process. The men may not view the department chair as a threat and fully partake in their own developmental process.

Women also reflect more transformative behaviors. Women are more transformative when it comes to “mentoring and developing workplace colleagues” (Eagly & Chin, 2010, p. 219). Mentoring is critical for women in the workplace. Both female mentor and mentee benefit from a mentoring relationship. The mentee receives access to training, opportunities to be seen by other key leaders and participate on special projects, and emotional support. The mentor gets a supporter, which she may call on later as she ascends the employment ladder. The mentor and mentee have a trust and mutual respect. The relationship is not built on personal motivation for both parties.

In addition, transformative leadership yields positive results for female leaders in higher education. Female transformative leaders are producing effective leadership that is reflected in followers’ satisfaction and productivity. Eagly and Chin (2010) asserted that “scholars of leadership have increasingly emphasized that effective leadership emerges from inspiring, motivating, and mentoring followers” (p. 219). Transformative leaders do just that. They inspire followers to do more and be more than they thought they could be. Female college presidents can gain more faculty buy-in by being transformative. Inclusion is extremely important in the
higher-education setting. Faculty senates and student government organizations must be included in major changes, such as the closing of programs and launching of new initiatives. Constituency buy-in helps leaders get support. This support can mean faculty helping to launch student retention efforts and students providing mentoring and tutoring for remediation courses. This can produce higher retention and ultimately higher graduation rates for the post-secondary institution.

A key strength of transformative leadership is that it has been extensively researched from various perspectives. Also, people intuitively like the concept of transformative leadership, favoring the idea of a leader “advocating change” for other people (Northouse, 2015, p. 176). In addition, transformative leadership can be taught at all organizational levels. Most importantly, transformative leadership has been proven effective (Northouse, 2015) Transformative leaders influence; however, how that is measured in outcomes is a topic of debate. Transformative leadership is the optimal choice of leadership styles, as a leader must reach out for member participation. Female leaders should target the most marginalized members, other women, minorities, and homosexuals, to create a more inclusive institution.

Unfortunately, when women are in leadership positions, they are limited due to surface differences. Avolio and Gardner (2005) defined Early’s position that “women and other ‘outsiders’ who have not traditionally had access to certain leadership roles, may find it difficult to achieve relational authenticity because they are not accorded the same level of legitimacy as leaders” (p. 319). Being seen as an outsider can make belongingness a goal for women in the workplace. The origins of some of these feelings can be traced to a history of oppression or exclusion (based on race, gender, or class). Joanna Kadi expressed how oppression (or a sense of a conquered self) reduced her ability to see herself positively in one of the most prestigious
university in Canada (Tokarczyk & Fay, 1993). Societal oppression based on gender, race, and class works to negatively affect women, and it works more so particularly if women are of minority or working class. This history of oppression may have some effect on a woman’s style of leadership.

Women's leadership style is unique from men's leadership style. Usually, both male and female leaders are judged based upon stereotypical societal roles. Eagly and Chin (2010) asserted that the probability of prejudice is apparent when “social perceivers hold a stereotype about a social group that is incongruent with the attributes that they believe are” necessary for successful leadership (p. 217). Stereotypical male leaders apply assertion, aggression, directness, and control in their leadership styles. These attributes are rarely used to describe female leadership. Women who do use these styles are often judged harshly and negatively. Women’s potential to lead is viewed less favorably than men because leadership characteristics, such as aggressiveness, control, and detachment, are associated positively with men; women who exhibit these same traits are viewed negatively and not as good leaders (Eagly & Karau 2002). This incongruity of roles is probably greater in male-friendly organizations, such as higher education institutions and trade unions. Female leaders are expected to be supportive, nurturing, and motherly. They are expected to put others before themselves and to be modest. Budworth and Mann (2010) noted that while conforming to modest roles will make women likeable, it will not grant them access to leadership or success in their careers. Taking credit for accomplishments and being assertive are attributes that are not admired in female leaders. These same attributes, however, are expected and respected in men. Similarly, African-American women are stereotyped when they function in ways that are masculine while they are leaders. Eagly and Chin (2010) argued that how other people expect women and minority groups to behave may
restrict those groups’ leadership. African-American and Caucasian women are placed in difficult roles when they are leaders. Sometimes they are expected to act in two conflicting ways. Eagly and Chin (2010) asserted that on the one hand, women are expected to be firmly take control as leaders, but simultaneously they are expected to be warm and friendly, which are “culturally prescribed” traits for them (p. 218). This contradiction might indicate that women and men should not be judged using similar leadership models. Eagly and Karau (2002) noted that female leaders are often judged less favorably than men. However, if women solely adopt masculine traits, such as aggression or detachment, they face even more scrutiny. Budworth and Mann (2010) argued that research should be conducting on the ways in which males and females become effective leaders and analyze their strategies and perspectives as men and women. Perhaps even a new model should be created based upon those differences.

In academia, women are restricted by stereotypes and organizational policies and structures. When women are allowed the full status of men, i.e., tenured professor, full professor, department chair, dean, vice-president, or president, they are sometimes viewed differently than their male counterparts. Monroe, Ozyurt, Wrigley, and Alexander (2008) asserted that typical administrative positions of authority, influence, power, and status are devalued when those positions are held by women. This gender devaluation turns a position of power into a role of service when it is held by a woman. In their qualitative study of 80 women at the University of California at Irvine, the researchers noted the themes of exclusion from power within their departments and the university, feelings of personal responsibility to adjust to the discrimination, and the struggle to negotiate family responsibilities and work responsibilities (Monroe et al., 2008). Tenure and positionality were not factors in improving the circumstances of women in higher education. Service roles were often delegated to female faculty members
while men were selected for positions of rank, research grants, and honors (Monroe et al., 2008). This delegation usually happens due to a culture of strong prescribed gender roles. Service is associated with women because they are thought to be more comforting, supportive, and nurturing. Hence, women are automatically asked to perform duties, such as note taking and any other clerical duties.

Women also have their own internal barriers in leadership. Sometimes they often devalue their accomplishments so that their team members or subordinates can be given credit. Women often fail to self-promote for a variety of reasons: selflessness, generosity, insecurity, or modesty. Female leaders who know the value of relationships with their followers give more to those followers and can gain position results. Kouzes and Posner postulated that these kinds of leaders develop quality in their relationships with followers that would assist these leaders in doing great feats in the workplace (McMahan, 2010).

Modesty is probably one of the most detrimental traits that limits women’s ascension to power. Women should promote their accomplishments at work. Budworth and Mann (2010) noted self-promotion in female leaders is tolerated whereas aggression and dominance is not. Self-promotion connotes capability and can be used as commodity toward career advancement. Toth (1997) suggested that women should self-promote anytime they publish an article or book. Often, women are not rewarded for their accomplishments unless the take credit for their accomplishments.

However, female leaders who are seen as effective leaders tend to be more transformative. Transformational leadership yields more positive outcomes. The followers become more empowered to achieve the shared goals, and the managers also benefit. Bass affirms that managers who “are tagged as high performers by their supervisors were also rated, in
a separate evaluation by their followers as more transformative than transactional . . . Their organizations do better” (McMahon, 2010, p. 259). Thus, transformative leadership benefits the leader’s reputation with his superiors and subordinates, benefits the followers with empowerment and engagement, and benefits the organization with highly inspired employees. Both followers and leaders are changed positively from this relationship. Northouse (2015) asserted that the participants create “a connection that raises the level of motivation and morality” (162). Thus, the process enhances personal development of leaders and followers. Using transformative leadership is a win/win situation for organizations.

Similarly, African-American women have been viewed as illegitimate leaders. African-American women have provided a huge influence in the labor movement at both the supportive and leadership capacity; however, they are not encouraged or assisted in elevating to the union president position. Due to their history of service leadership, women in the workforce and in unions are an untapped resource for executive leadership roles. They are not seen as leaders due to their station in society. This is especially visible in higher education. Crawford and Smith (2005) noted that because African-American women are at the bottom of the social order, they are at a disadvantage in the employee pool; thus, it is difficult for African-American women in higher education to be instrumental in society due to educational restrictions and insufficient recognition from the dominant society. This is particularly true in higher education unions.

Black feminist thought is the theoretical framework that investigates how gender and race work against African-American women. Advanced by Collins (1986), Black Feminist Thought centers around African-American women being the architects of their self-definition and self-critique, creating multiple consciousness to survive the oppression of a masculine White world, and recognizing an urgency to represent African-American women’s culture. Black feminist
thought is imperative to the Black woman’s ability to overcome inequity due to racism, sexism, and classism in her life.

There are many historical, racial, and gender obstacles that African-American women experience as leaders in unions. Because of this inequality, African-American women are not provided adequate emotional support (mentoring programs, women-centered professional development) in their leadership roles. While no one will deny that unions provide higher salaries for both White and Black men and women, there can also be no denying that the experiences of women, particularly African-American women, are perforated with obstacles and contradictions. The three most common areas reflected in African-American women’s experiences as union leaders are as follows: their battle against myths and stereotypes, their representation as leaders, and their need for mentoring/support.

Clearly, race and gender comingle to restrict African-American women from ascending in higher education. These numbers are surprisingly lower even though African-American women are attending colleges and universities in higher numbers than African-American men. Black women are entering academia as professionals at a higher percentage than before. The rates of African-American women in the professoriate jumped from 2.1% in 1989 to 4% in 2009 (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2009). For every African-American female faculty member, there are 73 Caucasian male faculty and 29 Caucasian female faculty members (Allen, Epps, Guillory, Suh, Bonous-Hammarth, 2000). When African-American women are granted access into academia, they are often burdened with the mentoring and counseling of minority students as part of their many responsibilities towards gaining tenure. Without such faculty support, however, the success of African-American students is questionable. The dearth of black faculty in higher education reduces the prospect that African-American students will finish graduate and
professional programs at a similar rate as Caucasian students (Allen, Epps, Guillory, Suh, Bonous-Hammarth, 2000). Therefore, these faculty members are often left with the responsibility of mentoring others while not having mentors to assist them in navigating through the politics at their places of employment. They rarely ascend to department chair, and they lack the resources or connections to guarantee their safe passage through tenure. They are shipwrecked on an island of the unknown and must navigate their way to shelter.

African-American women continue to fight for these changes to be a reality. Briskin (2006) rejected that leadership is engendered as female or male and purported that leadership style should be considered outside of a context of gender. She chose a different framework that recognizes the unique leadership style of women in unions regardless of them being women, thereby rejecting all limiting stereotypes that are associated with being feminine. Her framework, materialist/social construct, affirmed that gender is a social connection and the possession of a person (Briskin, 2006). Women’s experiences then are grounded in experience, not simply from being female. Briskin (2006) believed in the collective context of unions, and alternate representations of gender as resistance may help redefine the definitions of both gender and negligibility. This redefining gives women power and voice in union leadership.

Women, in general, have problems being viewed as leaders by both women and men. Avolio and Gardner (2005) defined Eagly’s position that women and other outsiders, such as minorities who have been restricted access to certain leadership roles, may find it difficult to achieve relational authenticity because they are not afforded the same level of legitimacy as leaders, notably White males. Therefore, those who are not White or male are not seen as authentic leaders because they do not fit the traditional image of a leader, i.e., a White man. Again, surface differences limit the trust that African-American women can gain from non-
minority followers. When women enter new professional territory, they are almost always met with skepticism, and often with aggression.

The way in which women are viewed as union leaders is different from men. They are often tied to stereotypical notions of mothering, teaching, and supporting. Briskin (2006) referenced Eaton’s 1992 study wherein 80 U.S. union leaders, 15% men and 85% women, were asked to define leadership traits and skills; the results were that women union leaders attempted to empower, teach, or involve others. To describe male leaders, employees used words, such as “give direction” and “make decisions” in their leadership definitions (p. 362). After reviewing other studies, Briskin (2006) noticed a theme with how women union leadership styles are unique. Women are more participatory, “inclusive” and “consultative” (Gray, 2001, p. 135), democratic, filled with a sense of community (Harriford, 1993), and flexible (Harriford, 1993; Gray, 2001, p. 135). Stinton and Richmond (1993) echo that women’s styles tend to be more helpful to members and more participatory in nature, while men tend to be more authoritarian. (Briskin, 2006). Therefore, women’s leadership styles are seen as positive for the most part. These female leaders appear to be using House’s Path-Goal theory by applying participative leader behavior, i.e., in that they are encouraging their followers to have influence on decision-making and work operations. These styles allow leaders to give consideration to their followers and include followers in processes.

A leader should reach out to members to increase their connection and participation in the union. Leaders should target the most marginalized members, women, minorities, and homosexuals, to create a more inclusive union. Transformative leadership is of specific importance to unions that have declining membership because it is necessary for them to reach out to marginalized workers. These workers are marginalized by their “labor market, their
locations, and regrettably, by their unions” (Briskin, 2006, p. 367). It is in these instances where African-American women are not given input on matters that will directly affect them.

**Women and Survival Strategies**

To survive in the academy, women must be adaptable, innovative, and observant. They must create tactics that help them acclimate to the academic environment. There are several strategies for women’s survival in the academy that previous research has revealed. Because their paths are mired in gender, and sometimes racial obstructions, women need to work harder to be seen as leaders. Having a guide on this journey would be beneficial. In their study on women in a research post-secondary institution, Monroe, Ozyurt, Wrigley, and Alexander (2008) noted three strategies that female faculty and administrators used to combat institutional gender bias: “administrative mechanism, collective action, and individual coping” (p. 223). When a female faculty member uses one of the administrative mechanisms, she is taking advantage of an institutional equity policy or rule to go on sabbatical or FMLA leave either to conduct further research or to have child, respectively. Doing so would increase the faculty member’s time attaining tenure and would cause judgment from senior faculty. Often, women are judged negatively for doing this. The long-term benefits to using an administrative mechanism are not visible from this study. Collective action involved establishing mentoring programs for women by women. Many researchers have studied the positive effects of mentoring for women. Dogson (1986) noted that Canadian administrators in primary and secondary education reported support and guidance as direct results of having a mentor. Monroe et al. (2008) noted from their study that mentoring created “both role modeling and concrete illustrations of alternative life choices to the traditional male model” (p. 223).
Mentoring could assist female leaders in developing into transformative leaders that know how to navigate through the male work hierarchy. Mentoring is important for women in making the correct connections within an organization. Brown (2005) asserted that because men dominate powerful positions in academia, they have more ingress to promotions and sponsorship. Women do not have this luxury. Therefore, mentoring can be a positive experience for women.

Mentoring, whether it is formal or informal, has specific roles. A formal mentoring relationship involved attempting to match a mentor to a mentee. This type of mentoring is structured. However, informal mentoring is more organic and unstructured. Regardless, both mentor and mentee have clear roles in the relationship. Simeone (1987) affirmed that the mentor/mentee or sponsor/protégé relationship can be beneficial in that the sponsor can inform the protégé of “the customs, demands, and expectations of academic life” while providing wisdom, encouragement, recommendations, and career assistance (p. 101). A mentor must be aware of the mentee’s aspirations. A mentor must possess connections within the organization to support the mentee’s goals. A weekly or monthly scheduled time for the mentee and mentor to meet and discuss goals, strategy, and progress must be maintained. The relationship will evolve if time and commitment are preserved by both mentee and mentor. Zachary (2006) noted that mentors must mediate relationships within the organization, communicate effectively to the mentee and others within the organization, give advice, direction, and feedback for the mentee, and manage any strife for the mentee.

Choosing a mentor is an important process. A mentee must be careful in selecting his or her mentee. A mentee must select someone who has power (necessary relationships) within the
organization, who can communicate effectively, who is strategic, who is supportive, who is astute in assessing the mentee’s strengths and weaknesses, and determining an action plans.

The mentoring relationship is as essential to the female faculty member as it is to the female student in higher education. This mentoring would be most effective if it was a mandatory institutional initiative for both male and female faculty. Then, the formal structures of goal setting, guidance, and intervention would be established and available for all employees. Therefore, both the mentor and mentee would share in the obligation of meeting, setting goals, such as publications and grants, improving performance, mapping a career trajectory (short-term and long-term goals), and implementing a career plan (inside and outside the organization).

Finally, women in the academy must create coping strategies, whether they can or cannot locate a mentor. Through their narrative analysis, Monroe et al. (2008) discovered strategies for equity in higher education: allow alternative paths to tenure, avoid using traditional male models of success, reward service and build community in academia, and offer spousal hiring and child care. Because women often perform many service roles (which are not rewarded in academia), these women’s paths to tenure are longer and more circuitous, especially if they have children. These women expressed feelings of anxiety, exhaustion, and stress (Monroe et al., 2008). They need a support system so that their career trajectory is not derailed. Mentoring, childcare, and an alternative path to tenure would greatly assist them.

There are other strategies that can keep women sane in higher education environments. Caplan (1993) provides a few suggestions for surviving in higher education: join in a group to discuss shared experiences of being a woman in the academy, find a role model or mentor, document everything, and educate and act (be your own advocate when discrimination occurs
and share with others). Another strategy, getting a mentor, is one of the most important career decisions a woman can make.

Research has shown the value of mentors in women. The value of the two styles of mentoring (informal and formal) are often debated. Many people feel that mentoring should be informal; therefore, the mentee selects the mentor based on commonalities, shared interests, and so forth. However, some institutions, particularly those in the corporate world or higher education, may benefit from formal mentoring, which assigns a mentor to a mentee. Mentoring can be a factor for female faculty and administrators in higher education. For female faculty, gaining tenure depends not only on one’s work, but the support of an often male department. The politics of academia are real. Having a male or female mentor to navigate the political landscape can determine whether a female faculty member gains tenure, ascends to department chair, or rises to administration. Leadership in higher education is seen in both the power of the administration and the union. In the administrative branch, women have mentioned the value of mentoring in determining the trajectory in their careers.

Brown’s study of female college presidents provided insight into the value of mentoring. Brown (2005) studied 91 female college presidents and revealed that 56% of the participants had primary mentors and 64.4% functioned as mentors to others. Because mentors provide guidance and support, having a mentor is key in advancing the careers of female administrators. When face-to-face mentoring is not available, Mueller (2004) suggested online mentoring, such as such, MentorNet ACE, which can relieve the time constraints and geographical issues for mentors and mentees who live in different parts of the world.

African-Americans, in particular, could benefit from a female mentor because they and other minority women are under-represented in the work environment. Patton (2009) asserted
that mentoring relationships with African-American women advisors and faculty assist in removing their feelings of ostracization, specifically in male-dominated environments where it may be more arduous for graduate women to establish mentoring relationships. Her study sought to explore the mentoring relationship among African-American women in graduate and professional programs. Her study revealed the expectations of mentoring, perspectives on mentoring, White mentors, and “other” mentoring relationships. Only four of her eight participants had an African-American mentor; all expressed shared views on the importance of obtaining an African-American female mentor (Patton, 2009). Those who had White mentors did not feel as if they could trust them on a deeper level (Patton, 2009). The most common concern among the African-American women was that their White mentors were not trustworthy and were unwilling to understand the African-American perspective (Patton, 2009). Two participants, however, had no problems with their White mentors; one felt that because her research was so different from her mentor she was not seen as a threat: the other indicated that in her upbringing she was never taught to seek out Black relationships (Patton, 2009). However, perhaps the results would have been different had the mentees been paired with African-American female mentors. Having similar experiences of being both women and minority are valuable for both mentees and mentors. It can allow for another, deeper level of bonding. Many studies highlight the mentorship based upon the similarities between mentors and mentees. Swoboda and Millar (1986) and Johnsrud (1991) asserted that when mentors select their mentees based upon shared hobbies and similarities, the relationship has a higher propensity of being positive for both the mentor and mentee. There is an advantage to being paired with a mentor who shares similarities. Because White men are the majority in most administrative settings, they are very rarely paired with a non-White mentor. These men see themselves—and are
seen—as leaders more often than Caucasian or African-American women. When female union women are developing into leaders, they could greatly benefit from a mentor. Kaminski and Yakura (2008) noted that a good mentor can supply opportunities to use these skills, “give encouragement about these skills and capabilities, and offer guidance and advice” (p. 463). Mentoring also has its advantages for the mentor. It can help her emotionally and politically. Emotionally, the mentor is giving back and making a difference in other women’s careers. More importantly, the female union mentor is fostering loyalty and political support in the future from her mentee. Mentors assist their mentees in rising in an organization through the mentor’s influences within that organization. (Kaminski & Yakura, 2008). Mentoring must be contextualized to fit the needs of female leaders. Morley (2013) noted that there is a struggle to save the act of mentoring “from neo-liberal constructs of performance and women’s missing agency and find new conceptual grammars that move beyond hegemonic and patriarchal indicators of achievement” (p. 125). Therefore, women should remove the male models on mentoring, which would limit how achievement is measured. Such collectives will challenge the patriarchal culture in unions and practices, which have marginalized women and other minorities. Women may also need training to unlearn socially-acceptable gender behaviors that are hindering their mobility in their careers. Budworth and Mann (2010) asserted that to overcome obstinate ingrained social obstacles tied to likeability and gender, women must acquire the skill of likeability. They have a need to be liked by colleagues, direct reports, and superiors at work. This socially-conditioned need conforms women to play meek, modest roles. This role-playing is not in their best interest. Women still need to learn and use the art of self-promotion in their workplaces (Budworth & Mann, 2010). Then, they would be able to acquire rewards for
their accomplishments as their male counterparts do. This would allow women to be pro-active in their training and empowerment.

Women need to seek sources of support to survive in higher education unions. Kaminski and Yakura (2006) suggested mentoring as one strategy to assist women. A pairing of female leaders with female mentors is the optimal choice. Having same race role models can drastically affect how women perform in the world. Similarly, Loventrice Farrow (2008) conducted a study that examined the mentoring experiences of seven women of color, two Chinese-American women, three African-American, and three African women. Farrow interviewed the seven participants and analyzed those interviews. Farrow (2008) noted that all of the women had been mentored except for one participant. Farrow (2008) examined how the mentoring experience had psychosocial advantages, such as an increased sense of competence and effectiveness, identity in a professional role, and career-related characteristics that boost career enhancement. Caucasian women and men were the mentors to the minority participants. The minority mentees felt that their mentors were competent and effective; however, they felt that a male mentor would have been more beneficial for career advancement (Farrow, 2008). Even women, regardless of race, feel that men have more power and influence for career advancement. Notably, the minority women were not given minority women mentors probably due to the low numbers of women of color in leadership positions in all organizations. Bahniuk and Hill (1998) noted that regardless of the mentees’ gender or race White males are the most frequently mentored group in corporations. The reason for this is that there are not enough African-American women in power to mentor other African-American women (whether the women are students or employees). Brown (2005) noted that the majority of female college presidents had a mentor who aided in their ascension in the organization. This is the case for women who enter most occupations,
particularly higher education. Women in higher education unions are limited in power due to the gender barriers that they must encounter.

Committees at the university and national levels must be reestablished to provide investigation and exposure of gender inequity at post-secondary institutions. Perhaps the reinstitution of a commission or task force on the status of women could bring more focus to the problems that women face in higher education. In 1970, the University of Michigan’s president, Robben Fleming, established a Commission on Women after female faculty and professionals won a class action suit alleging claims of sexual discrimination (Glazer, 1999). Post-secondary institutions need to create policies that protect women, minorities, and other marginalized groups in higher education from discrimination. Administrators should review their Title IX and Affirmative Action policies and create an institutional manual of these polices. Employees should be required to take mandatory sensitivity and tolerance training. Finally, post-secondary institutions should hire an officer to handle sexual harassment and discrimination claims. Administrators should also take these measures to protect themselves from litigation and protect their federal funding.

Conclusion

Women are facing many obstacles when they enter the workforce. Specific occupations, such as business, law, medicine, and sports, have been historically more difficult for women to perforate. However, due to women’s high numbers in academia and their tradition of teaching in the home, one would think that women would have an easier time in these fields. Unfortunately, this is not the case. Women are still viewed as interlopers in higher education. When women enter the labor union hierarchy in public institutions of higher learning, they are further barricaded from access to power. Transformative leadership is of specific importance to unions
that are declining because it is necessary for them to reach out to marginalized workers. These workers are “marginalized not only by their location in the labour market but also, regrettably, by their unions” (Briskin, 2006, p. 367). It is in these instances where women are not given input on matters that will directly affect them.

Female support groups and mentors could be sources of support and guidance in higher education unions. Women must seek these resources for themselves. These support systems will not be apparent or available. Women must come together to support to each other. Only as a collective spirit can women move into positions of power and gain a voice in the halls of academia and organized labor. They must build their own networks of support within institutions, across institutions, and between states. The network of support should include mentoring for women, national female organizations, and the application of diversity and inclusion in hiring processes. Organizations should also create succession plans that focus on diversity. Mentoring and perhaps women-only education would assist women union leaders in developing into transformative leaders. Women’s Studies programs, founded at Berkeley in 1976 and cultivated female leaders in the fields of anthropology, sociology, psychology, provide understanding of women’s socialization, sexuality, struggles, myths, stereotypes, and ways of being and knowing. Women’s Studies Programs and female-organizations, such as American Association of University Women, National Organization of Women, and the American Medical Women’s Association, seek parity for women in all realms of society. Briskin (2006) asserted that constituency organizing, separate organizing, and female committees or caucuses create a different space for women unionists to enter into union leadership and provide socialization to become transformative. These female-only committees will offer women support and inclusion, something that they miss in their unions. Such collectives will challenge the patriarchal culture
in unions and practices, which have marginalized women and other minorities. This allows women to be pro-active in their training and empowerment. American history dictates that power must be taken like the Europeans took the Americas. If women want to lead in higher education unions, they must fight for the gavel or continue to be judged by it. Silence is the new smallpox in the American annals.
Chapter Three

Methodology

Defining Terminology

Because this qualitative study involves union work, specific terms pertaining to the sphere of union work must be clarified. Understanding the following terms will help the reader better grasp the study.

**AFT:** American Federation of Teachers

**Barriers:** obstacles that prevent movement or access.

**Chapter Chair:** the union steward/representative for a college in the City Colleges of Chicago

**Gender:** the state of being male or female, usually used regarding cultural and social differences rather than biological differences

**IFT:** The Illinois Federation of Teachers

**Inequality:** lack of fairness and justice

**Local Union:** an organization that serves as the local bargaining unit, possessing its own constitution and bylaws, elects its own officers, and is charted by a parent union (a larger organization).

**Myth:** a false belief or idea that is widely held.

**Mentoring:** A relationship in which a more experienced or knowledgeable person (a mentor) guides, supports, and encourages a less experienced or knowledgeable person (a mentee) in academic, career or personal decisions.

**Role Congruity Theory:** prejudice towards women in the workplace due to the women’s characteristic alignment with dominant men (possessing stereotypical masculine traits).
**Stereotype:** a widely held, fixed and oversimplified belief, preconceived notion, or image of a particular type of person or thing.

**ULI:** Union Leadership Institute is the AFT’s training school in Delevan, Wisconsin.

**Research Design**

This research study was a qualitative study. Qualitative research seeks to analyze behavior of individuals in their natural setting. Merriam (2009) noted that one primary trait of a qualitative study is that it allows people to “construct reality in interaction in their social world” (p. 22). The researcher’s role was to comprehend how individuals make sense of their experiences. The researcher’s central concern was “understanding the phenomenon from the participant’s perspective” (Merriam, 2009, p. 14). This process is inductive. Inductive reasoning affirms that the researcher believes that numerous perspectives will be revealed in his or her research (Lodico, Spaulding, & Voegtle, 2010). The various perspectives of the female union presidents were revealed and detailed the differences or similarities in those experiences.

The researcher used grounded theory design. Creswell (2015) asserted that grounded theory is rooted or grounded in the data; it offers a detailed systematic procedure for analyzing data. Grounded theory extends beyond understanding the phenomenon. Merriam (2009) affirmed that grounded theory aims “to build a substantive theory about the phenomenon of interest” (p. 23). Grounded theory has six characteristics: it uses a process approach, theoretical sampling, constant comparative data analysis, a core category, theory generation, and memos (Creswell, 2015). This approach was best suited for this study because it yielded insight into different groups (African-American and Caucasian women in higher education unions) who may experience different or similar phenomenon (in their roles as faculty and as union leaders).
Therefore, this study explored the process or phenomena of ascension or denial of union leadership for women, particularly African-American and Caucasian women. The researcher conducted causal-comparative research. Lodico et al. (2010) defined ex post facto (after-the-fact) research approach as a method that tries to explain “differences between groups by examining differences in the experiences of the group members” (p. 31). In this research study, the experiences that women had (mentors, training, exposure) caused an effect on how each group progressed in its path to union leadership. Those experiences were similar or different in many ways.

Grounded theory has three approaches from which a researcher may choose: Glaser (1978, 1998), Strauss (1998, 2008) or Charmaz (2006, 2009). Glaser and Strauss (1967) were the founders of Grounded Theory, which was first applied in the social science. Merriam (2009) noted that a grounded theory contains “categories, properties, and hypotheses that are the conceptual links between and among the categories and properties” (p. 199). The researcher began by creating categories. Properties are aspects that describe the categories. The researcher continually compared and sought to create a strong substantive theory. She compared categories and hunt for core categories.

Since then, grounded theory has been used in many other disciplines, particularly education. The researcher chose Glaser’s approach because it yields to this qualitative study in three ways: it is highly structured (which a novice researcher would value); it is more participant-centered (which means the data evolves from the participants and not the researcher), and it is emergent (which does not allow for researcher’s bias to affect the data).

Sample
Female union presidents from Illinois higher education unions were recruited through the Illinois Federation of Teachers and personal contacts. None of the female union presidents were part of the researcher’s union, Local 1600. The researcher used purposeful sampling, intentionally selecting people and sites to examine the specific central phenomenon. Lodico et al. (2010) posited that using purposeful sampling, the researcher will select participants due to their expertise in the field of study. Also, she was hoping to get snowball sampling to occur. Snowball sampling occurred and, one participant recommended two others to engage in the study. The researcher collected data from current higher education union presidents in the Illinois Federation of Teachers.

The unit of analysis was a group of women in Illinois Federation of Labor. The researcher analyzed how Caucasian and African-American women functioned as leaders, how they were restricted, how they overcame or succumbed to the restrictions/barriers, and how they were supported. Their experiences in these Illinois unions yielded insight on the barriers that women encountered. The circumstances that allowed them to ascend to power, the people who mentored them, and the character traits that they possessed yielded insight into their journey as union leaders.

There are many types of sampling in qualitative research. The researcher conducted theoretical sampling. Strauss and Corbin (1998) affirmed that in theoretical sampling “data gathering is driven by concepts derived from the evolving theory and based on the concept of” comparing items (p. 201). Using Grounded Theory, the researcher collected data through interviews. In addition, the researcher collected data more than once, returning to the data sources throughout the study until the categories are overloaded and the theory is completely expanded (Creswell, 2015). She also used other archival data, such as emails, campaign
The researcher attempted to avoid sampling error. Creswell (2015) defined sampling error as the difference between the actual population score and the sample estimate. Therefore, the researcher gathered a large enough sample, a minimum of five women for her qualitative study. The IFT provided a list of seven current female union presidents that were not part of the researcher’s local. The researcher was able to get five of those presidents to agree to be interviewed. After the study, the IFT noted that there were 33 higher education union presidents within Illinois.

**Data Collection, Procedures and Analysis**

Since the researcher was conducting a qualitative study, she had more options to gather and store data. Qualitative research uses “flexible, naturalistic methods of data collection” and typically does not require the use of “standardized instruments as its major data source” (Lodico et al., 2010, p. 112). Current female union presidents from Illinois higher education unions were recruited through the Illinois Federation of Teachers, the American Association of University Professors, and personal contacts. The researcher used purposeful sampling, intentionally selecting people and sites to examine the specific central phenomenon. The researcher collected data from current union presidents. The researcher contacted union presidents from the City Colleges of Chicago to participate in the study.

The unit of analysis was a group of women in the Illinois Federation of Teachers. The researcher analyzed how women (Caucasian and African-American) functioned as leaders in a higher education setting, how they were restricted or welcomed into the fold, how they overcame to the challenges, and how they were supported or not supported by others and their institution.
There are many types of sampling in qualitative research. The researcher conducted purposeful sampling to select female union presidents. Using induction, the researcher built her theory from the data she gathered. Lodico et al. (2010) asserted that qualitative studies use inductive reasoning in qualitative research to collect and summarize data using “primarily narrative or verbal methods: observation, interviews, and document analysis” (p. 11). Primarily, the researcher collected data through interviews. There are three types of interviews that the researcher could have used: structured interviews, unstructured interviews and semi-structured interviews. To conduct a structured interview, the researcher arrived with a set of questions from which he or she did not deviate and posed these questions in a specific order for each participant. To conduct an unstructured interview, the researcher had a few topics, used open-ended questions, and conducted a more flexible interview, using a conversation approach. To conduct a semi-structured interview, the researcher could have changed the order of the questions or augment the phrasing of the questions. The researcher framed precise questions in terms that were specific to the participants. Maxwell (2013) posited that doing so prevents the researcher from making inappropriate generalizations, helps with recognition of diversity within participants or their settings, and assists in concentration on particular actions, beliefs, and contexts in which all are positioned. The researcher examined their how they judged their treatment from others, how they understood their perceived disadvantages in the academy and unions, and how they were influenced by others. The questions were structured in a way that is conducive to the research goals. Maxwell (2013) affirmed that research question should be framed in a manner that yield “practical goals . . .” and will not “interfere with the coherence and feasibility of” the research design (p. 29). The researcher did not allow the goals to dominate the
research. However, she showed how the research questions relate to the conceptual framework and her goals (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The data guided the direction of the study.

During these interviews, the researcher took copious notes. She used two types of field notes: descriptive notes and reflective notes. Lodico et al. (2010) defined descriptive field notes as being written descriptions of field observations (what the researcher observed and heard in the setting without subjectivity), and reflective notes which show researcher’s feelings or reactions to those observations. These notes were helpful when the researcher began the coding process.

In qualitative research, there are preferred ways to collect data. Merriam (2009) asserted that gathering and analyzing data happens simultaneously. In addition, the researcher collected data more than once and returned to the data sources throughout the study until the categories were overloaded and the theory was completely expanded (Creswell 2015). If the researcher did not conduct continuous analysis, the data may have become overwhelming, repetitive, and unfocused due to the large volume of unprocessed material (Merriam, 2009). The researcher attempted to avoid sampling error. Creswell (2015) defined sampling error as the difference between the actual population score and the sample estimate. Therefore, the researcher gathered a large enough sample, a minimum of five women for her qualitative study.

**Data Analysis Plan**

The primary data collection instrument for this qualitative research study was the interview. The researcher created her own ways to collect and record data. This researcher conducted open-ended, face-to-face interviews with each participant at her location site. The researcher then transcribed the interviews and coded the data from the interviews. Coding involved assigning words, phrases, symbols, or a combination of these to identify specific portions of the data. The researcher systematically analyzed the data. In qualitative research a
code is a word or short phrase that assigns a particular meaning—a summative, crucial attribute—to a piece of language-based or visual data. (Saldana, 2009).

The data consisted of transcripts from interviews and field notes from the researcher. Lodico et al. (2010) noted that most researchers separate the preparation of data from the transcription of interviews verbatim; the latter typically required eight to ten hours per interview. Although time-consuming, the researcher transcribed the interviews manually. She both audio recorded the interviews with a tape recorder and took copious notes. In addition, she used paper-based forms. Also, Mac-compatible qualitative data analysis programs, such as Atlas.ti or HyperRESEARCH, may be used to store the data (Creswell 2015). Using a computer database program could have allowed the researcher to retrieve information more quickly. She could enter files by category and their related data; multiple levels of coding are available for the same piece of data (Merriam, 2009). The researcher did more cross-referencing of themes. The researcher used the Olympus recorder and word processing software on her Mac computer to record and transcribe all interviews.

The researcher wanted to record all gestures, pauses, and non-verbal cues that can be observed during the interviews. Lodico et al. (2010) suggested that researchers also record “laughter, interruptions, changes in vocal tone or emotion, and places where the tape is inaudible or not understandable” (p. 181). Like stage direction, these aspects of the interview were placed in brackets. This observable data indicated reluctance or trepidation in the participants, which led to a fuller, more descriptive picture of the phenomenon in its natural environment. Therefore, the researcher did not only record phrases that contain important information from the interview, but also she made notes to herself. These could be considered memos.
The researcher looked for categories, patterns, or themes in the experiences of the participants. She analyzed each piece of data in the field notes and archival data. Creswell (2015) asserted that grounded theory has three stages: open coding (identifying open coding categories, utilizing the constant comparative approach by comparing data with the incident and the incident with the categories), axial coding and developing a coding paradigm (selecting a core category, putting it at the center of axial coding process, reanalyzing the data to identify causal conditions, intervening and contextual categories, strategies, and consequences to create the axial coding process) and selective coding (writing a theory from the interrelationship of categories in the axial coding model). From this scrutiny, themes or categories emerged. The researcher sought to explain the phenomenon that occurs in the experiences of the female union leaders. Strauss and Corbin (1998) asserted that in coding, categories represent the phenomenon: conditions may be micro or macro and change over time. There are three types of conditions: causal, contextual, and intervening. Causal conditions are the events that affect phenomena; contextual conditions are patterns of conditions that cross over time; intervening conditions mitigate the impact of causal conditions (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The researcher reviewed the conditions carefully to challenge any assumptions about causality. The researcher examined the tactics of the participants in specific situations. The tactics are either strategic or routine (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Strategic tactics are planned and purposeful, but routine tactics are habitual and unintended. The tactics tie to the interactions between the research study participants and others in their lives. Sometimes these interactions may work negatively or positively depending on the tactics and the person. These consequences were what the researcher evaluated. The researcher examined the ranges of consequences and looked for contradictions.
The researcher was able to see themes emerge as she analyzed the categories, conditions, and dimensions. Creswell (2015) noted several types of themes that she encountered: ordinary themes, unexpected themes, hard-to-classify themes, and major and minor themes. The researcher knew that she had a theme when several participants in the study mentioned having a similar experience, such as barrier, emotional response, or feeling. Therefore, the researcher was seeking multiple perspectives or “... several viewpoints from different individuals and sources of data as evidence for a theme” (Creswell, 2015, p. 249). The researcher used a mini-framework and conceptual diagrams to reflect cross-cuts between two major concepts. Stauss and Corbin (1998) suggested using mini-frameworks and conceptual diagrams because the mini-frameworks arise out of coding around a concept and conceptual diagrams are little “diagrammatic theoretical structures” (p. 141). The researcher saw where themes overlapped and diverged.

The researcher used triangulation for her data collection and analysis. Data collection in a qualitative study comprises more than one data collection method or uses “the same technique at different times to valid findings” (Lodico et al., 2010, p. 165). The researcher triangulated the data, i.e., later compare the various data sources with one another. Triangulation allowed the researcher to be more thorough and yields more understanding of the research study. The researcher analyzed and interpreted the data throughout the study. Merriam (2009) asserted that the researcher should examine pieces of data and derive “tentative categories”; as the researcher collects and analyzes more data, she should notice whether earlier derived categories are confirmed/ revealed in “subsequent data” (p. 183). The researcher used comparison throughout the data collection process to identify categories. The researcher used one of the two types of comparison. Strauss and Corbin (1998) identify two methods of comparison: a) compare event to event or item to item and looking for differences and similarities in properties for
classification and b) make theoretical comparisons in which abstract concepts (categories) are contrasted and compared to show clandestine properties and dimensions that are hidden to the researcher. There are three ways to conduct theoretical comparison. Strauss and Corbin (1998) denoted three methods to conduct theoretical comparison: the flip-flop technique (examining extremes and opposites to reveal important properties), systematic comparison (compare event in data to a recalled event or one in literature), and waving the red flag (recognize when the participants’ or researcher’s bias, preconceived notions, or beliefs have inserted themselves into the analysis). Once this occurred, the researcher determined clear themes and their overlap. The researcher interpreted these themes and wrote the theory. The researcher’s interpretation could involve future discourse on how the study will compare to previous studies.

The researcher built an original theory from the data. Using structural coding, the researcher integrated and refined the theory. The initial step to creating a new theory is conceptualizing (labeling abstract events/phenomena). This step leads to classifying, which can be done in a myriad of ways. The attributes of the item place it in various classifications. Strauss and Corbin (1998) argued that when coding, researchers should “want to discern the range of potential meanings” of the participants’ words and develop them “in terms of properties and dimensions” (p. 109). Properties are the traits or characteristics of a category; dimensions denote the range of variation of the properties, which yields specificity to a category. From here, categories and subcategories should be developed. Strauss and Corbin (1998) posited that categories are concepts drawn directly from the data; phenomena are significant “analytical ideas that emerge from” the data (p. 114). Strauss and Corbin (1998) denoted that both “dimension and relationships add density and explanatory power to a theory and will continue to emerge during analysis” (p.136). The researcher analyzed and contrasted the data to identify
themes. The researcher sought theoretical saturation. Saturation occurs when no new properties, dimensions, or relationships have surfaced. These themes developed and emerged into a new theory. The researcher started by writing the storyline of the new theory. Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggested reading the material several times for a general sense and not for detail. There are several steps to getting the storyline written. Strauss and Corbin (1998) advised that researchers do the following: identify the story through memos, move from description to conceptualization, use diagrams, and review and sort through the memos. The new theory then should be reviewed. For the researcher to refine the theory, Strauss and Corbin (1998) posited that she do five steps: review the scheme for internal consistency and logic, fill in poorly-developed categories, trim the theory, validate the theoretical scheme, and build in variation. Thus, the researcher made sure the theoretical scheme was consistent, had depth, was free from erroneous, unnecessary information, and had an abstract rendition of the raw data.

Validation is one of the most time-consuming feats. Strauss and Corbin (1998) suggested comparing the raw data to the scheme in “a high-level analysis” or having the participants read the scheme and respond to its accuracy.

The newly created theory was evaluated based on four criteria: fitness (closely related to the substantive area), understanding (people working in field will understand it), generality (is not too abstract that it is not understandable, and must explain or be a guide to the condition), and control (must be clearly expressed and worthwhile in application) (Glaser & Strauss 1967). There were also ethical questions that were considered in the construction of the new theory. Strauss and Corbin (1998) provided eight criterion questions that must be considered on an empirical grounding of a theory: are concepts generated, are the concepts systematically related, are there many conceptual linkage and are the categories well-developed, is variation built into
the theory, are the conditions under which variation can be found built into the study and explained, has process been taken into account, do the theoretical findings seem significant and to what extent, and does the theory stand the test of time? Since the theory accomplished these criteria, then it can be the primary text (source) on this subject.

**Limitations**

The researcher was limited to higher education unions in Illinois. All of the five participants were in the Chicago area. Only two of the seven female union presidents in Illinois were outside of Chicago. Due to their remote location (in the suburbs of Chicago and in Springfield), their experiences may be affected their geographical location and the population of people who reside there. Downstate Illinois is extremely rural and does not have the same demographics as Chicago. This area also does not have the same political or socio-economic struggles as Chicago.

Also, the researcher was not provided with the total number of union president for the IFT until after the study. She reached out to IFT President Daniel Montgomery for the numbers on female union presidents. After the date of her defense, he notified her that there were 33 higher education union presidents. Therefore, prior to the study, the researcher was not provided with a full picture of the demographic makeup of union leadership.

In addition, the researcher could have been biased in her interpretation of the data because she is female union leader. The participants’ biases may be a limitation in the interview process. The researcher did not interview men; therefore, her sample is limited to women. Few of the participants may be minorities.
Ethical Considerations

The researcher had one major ethical issue to consider. Because she is a union leader in one of the unions (CCCTU) of the state of Illinois, she must exclude all possible participants her own union (Local 1600). She did, however, interview female union leaders within her college system. Also, she had a minor issue of ensure objectivity. Because the researcher is an African-American woman, she was as objective as possible when she conducted the interviews and when she analyzed the data.

The researcher had all consent forms signed prior to the interviews. She ensured participants’ privacy and confidentiality were maintained; interviews were conducted in a private location of the college or at a location chosen by the participants. Participants were assigned a number and an alias to provide confidentiality. Participants could choose to stop the interview at any time for breaks or indefinitely. None chose to end the interviews. The interviewer mentioned this process at the start of the interview. Completed interviews will be stored for at least five years in a secure location in the office of the Supervising Researcher (Dr. Stephen Wagner) at GSU. Then, they will be destroyed.

Data Collection Analysis

After she coded the data, the researcher developed the theory. Here, the researcher interrelated the categories in the coding paradigm. Creswell (2015) offered several ways to do this: refining the axial coding paradigm and displaying it as a model or theory; writing propositions that give testable ideals for future research, or present the theory as a series of propositions or suppositions. She used a table or matrix to see the themes. She developed a hierarchical tree diagram to show the connectedness of themes and a demographical table for
each of the participants. These steps occurred before she wrote a narrative analysis for her report.

Therefore, the researcher allowed adequate time to convert word responses into themes. Johnson and Christensen (2007) affirmed that interviews are time-consuming and costly; also, the measures need validation. The researcher collected the oral narratives of the women’s experiences both in academia and in the union. She looked for differences and similarities in both areas and between all participants. The researcher took notes and used a tape recorder for all interviews to reduce the possibility of error and to use time more efficiently. She also cross-checked themes for accuracy.

**Timeline**

The researcher contacted the AFT for possible participants in June 2015. She applied for IRB approval between December 2016 – January 2016. Upon IRB approval, she conducted interviews in late January of 2017 and early February of 2017. She coded and analyzed the data from January - February 2017. She wrote the research report in February of 2017. She submitted the document to her capstone committee chair on February 23, 2017. She submitted the document to her capstone committee on February 27, 2017. She defended on March 21, 2017. She was scheduled to complete revisions and submit the final draft on March 27, 2017, and to graduate on May 20, 2017.

**Conclusion**

This chapter introduced the design of the study, sample selection data collection and analysis procedures, and researcher’s biases. The methodology used in this qualitative study probed how female higher education union presidents addressed adversity and provides a template for future training and research. Data analysis techniques that reflected grounded theory and constant
comparative analysis were used to analyze the participants’ interviews to discern categories, themes, and emergent theories. The collected data ranged from the researcher using qualitative observations and qualitative document analysis. Open, axial, and selective coding was used to identify general themes, interpret meaning and relationships, and discern core categories, respectively. To a large extent, five female union presidents participated in structured interviews that ranged from forty-five to sixty minutes in length.

Overall, Chapter 4 provides demographic profiles of the female union presidents. The demographic profiles include their education, type of union, years performing union work and years as president, narrative of their experiences in higher education union work, and their philosophy as a union leader. Also, the participants experiences which link directly to the research questions is reflected. Chapter 5 describes the emergent themes from the participants’ interviews, the new theory, the new theory’s relationship to the theoretical framework, recommendations, and implications for future research.
Chapter Four

Results

The five participants in this study came from both faculty and classified unions, meaning their membership consisted of faculty or clerical staff, respectively. The following chart reflects demographic information on the five female union presidents.

Table 1. Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant Number</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Years as Leader</th>
<th>Union Type</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Amy</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Classified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Becky</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>Black</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Adjunct Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Cynthia</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Faculty/Pro</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Dawn</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Faculty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Eve</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>White</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>Faculty/MM</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The participants in the study were from broad perspectives and different units in academia. The adjunct, clerical, and professoriate unions were represented in this study. With different educational backgrounds, different racial backgrounds, and varying years of experience, the women still shared common experiences in areas of this study.

Demographic Participant Profiles

Five female higher education union presidents were interviewed between January 23-February 17, 2017. The interviews lasted between 45 -60 minutes. Participants’ ages ranged
from 54-70. Two participants were African-American, and three participants were Caucasian. All of participants, except for one, had a Ph.D.

Amy is president of an adjunct union in the City Colleges of Chicago (a two-year institution). Her members consist of mostly White men, White women, and a few African-Americans. She has been a union president for three years. She entered the union as secretary because this position was vacant. She spent maybe two to three years as secretary. Then she became vice-president and spent a total of six years as vice-president/grievance chair. She has been doing union work for 14 years. She has a B.S., M.A, and Ph.D.

Amy is a 63-year-old African-American women. She is a single mother of two. She became interested in the union and union work early in her career. Earlier in her work history, she worked for state and national educational organizations. She quickly understood how a union could positively affect young educators. She believed that the union had power if all of its members practiced solidarity. When she joined the adjunct union, she noticed weakness in the Collective Bargaining Agreement (CBA). She blamed the union president and felt that his leadership skills were lacking. When her membership was trying to decide who should run against the then president, she volunteered. After she won the election, she was functioning in a silo. The previous presidents were all male, and none of them offered her any assistance, training, or mentoring. Also, local presidents in her region were all male. She was in isolation and therefore at a disadvantage. She quickly took advantage of all the training opportunities that the IFT offered to union presidents. She divulged that the learning curve is long and hard. From this experience, she became a firm believer in mentoring others.

Finally, Amy believes in the future of her local. She has a mentee to whom she gives advice, union professional development opportunities, and support. Amy believes that the union
is a reciprocal machine in which union presidents fight for their members, and when the 
president faces retaliation from administration, members fight for their president. For Amy, the 
union is a collective of minds, strengths, and resources.

Becky is the president of a clerical union at the City Colleges of Chicago (a two-year 
institution). Her membership consists of mainly African-American women. She has been union 
president for 19 years. She spent eight years at Truman and 13 years at Harold Washington 
campus representation. Then she was vice-president for a year. Her president’s mother died, 
and Becky finished her president’s term. She has a total of 40 years in union leadership. Becky 
possesses two A.A. degrees and a B.A. in Labor Studies.

Becky is a 65-year-old African-American woman. She is a divorced mother of two. Becky 
learned the value of a union within her first week of employment. Seven days after being 
hired, her union went on strike. Becky had not completed her six-month probation. She 
admitted her naivety in that she didn’t know she could be fired because she was striking. The 
first president of her union singled her out for union leadership due to her energy during the 
strike. She was asked to participate on the contract committee, which is rare for a young 
unionist. Thus, her mentoring career was born. She was provided training by the IFT. She rose 
from college representative to grievance chair and later vice-president. At the level of vice-
president, Becky functioned as president due to her president’s family health emergencies. She 
negotiated two contracts during that time, so her ascension to presidency was an easy transition. 
Her history of leadership made her an easy selection for her members.

Becky attributed her success as a union president due to her training and her mentors. 
She had many mentors who assisted her. One mentor in particular assisted her when she went on 
maternity leave. The chancellor at the time was determined to fire Becky after she took 55 days
of maternity leave due to her asthmatic child; however, the CBA only allowed for 12 days of leave within an academic year. This was at a time before FMLA existed. Here Becky learned the power and support of the union. Becky’s union president saw the lack of support for mothers who are involved in union work. Becky’s president spoke to the chancellor to make the entire hearing process disappear. Nothing was placed in Becky’s file; she was neither suspended nor terminated. This example forged a clear impression in Becky’s fighting spirit. She knew that the union works for its members, and she felt it was her responsibility to work for the union.

Becky is committed to her union. She retired from her job, but she still works for her union. She mentors her vice-president and other union clerical members toward leadership. She is a firm believer and advocate for women in union leadership. She often counsels her mentees to take care of their health. She knows firsthand that the work-family balance is difficult for female union leaders to navigate.

Cynthia is the president of a local university in the southern suburbs of Chicago. Her members mainly consist of faculty and professionals (academic support and advisors). The racial makeup of her unit is primarily Caucasian women and men and a few African-American, Asian, and Latina men and women. She has been union president for two years. Most of her union experience is from her years in K-12. Once at the post-secondary level, she ran for union president in 2014 and won. She possesses a B.S., M.S., and Ph.D.

Cynthia is a 70-year-old Caucasian woman. She is married and has two children. Cynthia has a long history in all levels of education, primary, secondary and post-secondary. She started in K-2, where she and her comrades faced their first strike during the second semester of her first year of employment. In this environment, she worked on contract negotiations, advocated for site-based management, and shared decision making. Her school’s
strike garnered national attention. Without any training, Cynthia and her negotiating team wrote the playbook for negotiations in Rochester, NY. It was an easy transition for Cynthia to become involved in union work when she entered post-secondary education.

In higher education, she was urged to run for union president after the previous president proved to have an unethical and advantageous relationship with the university’s provost. Also, because Cynthia had worked on task forces for the university, she had a strong reputation as a leader. While Cynthia was offered training, she felt that she did not need it. Once Cynthia became union president, she reached out to other women for support. She believes that union work is extremely important, particularly since Illinois does not have a budget. She keeps close ties with key legislators, namely Dick Durbin, to keep her local abreast of state politics.

Next, Dawn is the president of a union at a four-year research university in Chicago. Her membership consists of both tenure-track and non-tenure track faculty. She has worked for the union for seven years, but she is halfway between her second and third year as union president. Because her union has non-tenure-track (majority female) and tenure-track faculty, her membership is mainly female. She has a B.A., a MURP, and a PhD.

Dawn is a 54-year-old Caucasian woman. She is married and does not have any children. Dawn began her employment 20 years ago (in 1997). Previously she had worked in the public and private sector in a field dominated by men. When she started at the university, the idea of a union was bounced around, but it did not become a real discussion until 2010 when the university required mandatory furlough days. The faculty were angered and reacted by forming a union. The 70-year old union president came to Dawn and suggested that she run in the next election. After the first contract negotiations, Dawn decided to join the contract negotiation team. Being one of two women on the team made her realize the need for more female
representation at higher levels of the union. Dawn slowly realized that she wanted to contribute more from being part of this negotiation team. A team of faculty started conversations with Dawn about becoming president. Then, in 2014, she ran for union president unopposed. However, in her first year as union president, she felt overshadowed by the previous president. She felt that because she was not one of the founders of the union, she had to work harder to show her strength as a leader. To change the optics and to perform her work in the union as she had done in her career, Dawn became more inclusive and communal in her executive board. More time was spent talking through strategy and tempering confrontation. This move built her representation as positive leader. She has been so successful as union president that she has kept their union from only having one grievance. While she did not have a mentor, she is a mentor to one of the junior faculty. She believes that it is her duty to instill union ethics and professional advancement in others.

Finally, Eve is the union president at a four-year university on the far north side Chicago. Her membership consists of both tenure-track and mid-management. She has worked for the union for 13 years, but she has only been president for four and a half years. She holds a B.A., an M.A., and a PhD.

Eve was the most noted female union president in the state of Illinois. Other than Karen Lewis (Chicago Teachers Union President), she was the most mentioned and revered by the other female presidents. Eve is a 57-year-old Caucasian woman. She is married and has one child. Eve chose her place of employment because it was a unionized four-year university. During her first semester of employment, her university faculty went on strike. During this strike, Eve began her union leadership journey. She served as strike captain leader and then served on two grievance panels. However, working on the personnel committees within
departments, particularly the economics department, made her aware of the union’s web of interconnectedness to the university. She, like Becky and Dawn, was encouraged to be union president. The former union president asked her to do the job when it became too much for her. Eve immediately reached out to her female mentors for support. Three key women were her springboards for advice on strategy. She intimated that she does not plan to die in the role of union president. She believes that junior faculty must be recruited to keep the union strong and evolving.

Data collected from the participants’ interviews allowed the researcher to acquire direct details of their experiences in union work and union leadership. The different academic cultural contexts were revealed. Because the participants came from both two-year institutions four-year institutions, a richness and variety of experiences were displayed. This study revealed commonalities and distinctions among the five female presidents of higher education unions. They all had challenges in which gender was and was not a factor.

**Gender Barriers and Challenges that Women Face (RQ 1)**

The research divulged that gender challenges exist in higher education unions; however, these challenges were overcome through the women’s resilience and strategy. Sometimes the challenges with gender came from women and not men, which was the case with Cynthia. At least two women maintained that they did not see gender when they met people (Cynthia and Dawn). For them, gender was a not as prevalent a challenge in the daily operations of the union. Role Congruity Theory posited that breaking of those roles negatively can impact women (Eagly & Karau 2002). However, only one female president, Eve, faced any backlash from stepping
outside of her role of being a lady. All of the women were able to successful run their locals without any judgement regarding any perceived lack of femininity.

When asked about their challenges, two of the participants mentioned two commonalities: having their intelligence challenged and dealing with men who displayed superiority. The first apparent commonality for two of the participants was the barrier / challenge of people second-guessing or not trusting their leadership decisions because they were women.

Amy articulated a situation in which her own members questioned her strategy. Amy stated that

    Our executive committee members have aspirations of being president with absolutely no skills and no training. . . They are very disrespectful. They say things that I feel they shouldn’t say. They question my actions, even things that I, like I am a professional journalist. I know how to write press releases and proposals, all kinds of things. They question I know the time frame and who to send them to. These people who barely know how to write a college essay think they know better.

Also, Becky mentioned experiencing others’ doubt in her leadership abilities. She mentioned White people thinking less of her as a leader due to her race and gender. To support this fact, she stated, “I think, in almost all circles, you get a few Blacks and a whole lot of Whites, there, there, there, Black person.” In this context, Becky felt that her race was more of a hindrance in gaining respect than her gender. She hinted that White people patronized Black people and thought that Black people were less intelligent than White people.

However, Cynthia, Dawn, and Eve felt that their authority was recognized by their membership. They believed that because the faculty were mainly female, they were shown
respect for their competency as leaders. Cynthia knew that her faculty trusted her acumen. This confidence in her abilities is noted when she stated, “I’ve been here long enough to have some strong feelings and felt like I was really in tune with what the faculty wanted. I had so many conversations. We were on the same page and everything else.” Dawn also had the support of her membership. Her membership actually encouraged her to run for president. She contended,

So we had this kind of practical discussions, but I agreed that I would run for president. And everyone seemed really pleased that I was going to do it, so that made me feel confidence in myself to do it. And you know it was interesting. It was interesting. So 2014, and I ran unopposed. There was no one.

Finally, Eve had a similar experience in her journey to union leadership. She had the support of the membership due to her exposure as a fighter. This pathway to her presidency is seen when she contended,

we had a very confrontational university president for the next negotiations. And I became involved in a group that was helping strategize what to do with that. We called ourselves the squirrels at points because it was a bit secretive and some of what we did was to really de-legitimize her. So there was kind of an ugly de-legitimization campaign, and I was sort of Ms. Priss. I would put things up publicly that were the less inflammatory things. And other people were putting up the more inflammatory things, some of which were hysterical. I actually want to collect all that stuff at some point. But being kind of the more public face of the mobilization, that put me in place to run. Then run for president of the union. And those were the steps.

Eve also had the endorsement of her previous union president, who was burnt out from being a leader. Her former president begged Eve to take on the role of president. Eve maintained,
The person who had been the president of the union was coming out of a really bad negotiations session after things were going really well, and she had really snapped at the vice provost and the things she said was “I’m becoming too brittle. I can’t do this.” And she really seemed like she was having a panic attack. And she said, “I need you to do it.” And I said, “Yes.”

This support from her faculty group and the encouragement of the current president were the precursors to Eve’s rise to union presidency.

Another challenge that four of the women faced was male’s feeling of superiority and/or male obstructionism. At some point in their union journey, a man or men presented themselves as a challenge.

Amy contended that

The main challenge that I have experienced is the president that I replaced will not go away. . . He sends out hateful emails; he comes to our holiday parties and general meetings, and he goes from table to table spreading lies and comments.

Unfortunately, this female union president is continuing to experience a disgruntled man who does not believe that she should be union president. His spontaneous appearances at union functions thwarts Amy’s efforts at having a stronger cohesive union.

Becky also revealed that men were an obstacle in her career. She contended,

There was a superiority by men and I worked with over the years, I worked with a lot of unions, a lot of attorneys, a lot of legal firms. And I think in the beginning, because I did not make a name for myself or didn’t get out there and show that I had a little muscle behind me. We would get into a big meeting. And it would always be a male figure trying to shut you down in a conversation. When you are trying to move something or a
thought through in those meetings, it was always a man in the room who felt like you were out of place.

In contrast, Cynthia mentioned that she was unaware of any gender barriers that she had experienced in her life in either K-12 or higher education. When asked about gender being a factor in her union presidency, she maintained, “If I have, I’ve probably been oblivious to them.” However, she contended that women, not men, were an obstacle in her union journey.

The obstructionist nature of women in Cynthia’s life is evident when she stated,

The only problem I’ve had is with this university president who has demonstrated several times any strong female that is in her path, she removes them. She did that to a dean of one the colleges. . . And then the president found out how well-liked and respected she was and she sent her back to the classroom. Much like my story with the president. I forged a grant through the Library of Congress. . . I send her an email saying I’m going to Washington is there anything you want me to say to Senator Durbin? Is there anything you don’t want me to say? And I get an email that was ready to cut my head off. Why are you talking to Dick Durbin? That’s my job. Yadda, yadda, ya. And I’m going woah, jeez, I’m sorry I asked. I could have just gone and not told you. And, um Then that was it. That was it. Between her and this provost, then they just figured we’ll just take the grant away from her; then she can’t talk to him. And that was it. And I really loved that grant. So my experience, my recent experience with female bosses makes me think, it’s a horrible thing to say, that I’d rather work for a man. I’ve never had that kind of relationship with men that I worked for.

Dawn, like Amy and Becky, noticed the gender issues in her new role as union president. Dawn expressed a lack of female representation in her presidency. Her first experience occurred during
the contract negotiations where she was one of two women on a seven-person negotiating team. She contended,

It turns out I was one of two women involved. And one of the other women, it was harder for her schedule to be at many of the bargaining sessions, so I was the only woman there. And they had a whole lot of discussion points that we could have on that. Not that the men were bad. It was just queer. It’s a men’s space.

For Dawn, being in that male space, was strange, but not unfamiliar. Because she works in Urban Planning, she is accustomed to being in rooms with a majority of men. She is also comfortable in that male space, and others in her university knew about her self-confidence in those spaces. This confirmation is revealed when she stated, “I kind of rose up. Early on, I was often asked to speak, not just to put a woman out front, because they knew I could kind of manage the crowd. I’m pretty good at that. You know, kind of dealing with all the positions, the faculty and so, I found myself enjoying that.”

Finally, Eve reflected upon the gender issues that affected her as a union leader. She felt that the provost of her university was using gender stereotypes to undermine her as a leader. She noted,

when the provost was putting out emails trashing me to the entire university, and I would put things out to the union trashing him back, there was definitely a whiff of you’re not being lady-like. There was definitely a whiff of I was not supposed to be street fighter like that.

Eve’s provost tried to use gender against her. He inferred that her behavior was unfeminine. He attempted to control her behavior in public as a way to silence her. Using these stereotypes is a
base attempt at controlling the union’s voice, crippling its force. Eve fought off those stereotypes and fought for her membership.

The Behaviors that Lead to Women Breaking the Gender Barriers (RQ 2)

The research disclosed that women use a myriad of techniques to handle gender challenges. None of the women used any stereotypical female charms, such as acting subservient or coquettish. All confronted their obstacles directly using both the legal means of the CBA, such as the grievance procedures, a conversation or threat to the administration, or an outright verbal attack of the administration. These presidents had the support of their membership in fulfilling their presidential duties. Therefore, Role Congruity Theory would not be applicable in these women’s behaviors.

All women had their methods of handling gender barriers that challenged their success as leaders. Amy used the Socratic Method to handle gender issues. When people questioned her ability to lead based upon her gender, she posed them a series of questions to disarm them. She asked them to explain their feelings about her ineptitude. For example, she stated,

What have I ever done or said to you that makes you feel that you can talk to me in this way or, why would you, what plan have I made or something that I done that you felt was so wrong that you should talk to me this way, that you should discount? . . . What do you feel about me as a leader?

Her detractors’ responses were never sufficient. They would then accept her abilities to lead based on her effectiveness.

Becky took a different approach. She outright attacked people, often White men, who acted as barriers in her leadership journey. Becky stated that she made up curse words and spoke aggressively to those people that presented themselves as obstructions. This resistance to barriers
is in her words, “People around me know I make up curse words. I make up curse sentences. I make up curse words. I make up things that can belittle.” Becky felt that her confrontational manner worked in her favor when she was battling men. This persona put her on a closer footing with her male adversaries.

Cynthia, fortunately, never had anyone question or attack her ability to lead. The past union president’s behavior might have influenced the membership’s readiness to follow Cynthia, who was a more ethical selection. The past union president did several questionable actions due to her close relationship with the administration. This comingling is reflected in Cynthia’s words,

when you see the president of the university take the president of the union to China for three weeks with her. And then turn around a semester later and give her a three-month sabbatical to study in China. And you walk into union meetings and you see the union president and the university president are sitting in the corner chatting for the first half hour and the union president’s not even meeting and greeting members. And I knew we weren’t, and then, the last straw was a contract that was negotiated that increased everybody’s workload and there was no financial compensation to speak of to justify that. And her unwillingness to even think about a strike vote. She immediately wrote off that professors wouldn’t go on strike and didn’t even attempt to see if we wanted to. And then outright lies during those ratification meetings.

These actions might have allowed Cynthia’s faculty to welcome her leadership style due to the poor leadership that the faculty had endured. In addition, Cynthia’s credentials in union work may have been a factor in faculty approaching her to run for the presidency position.

Dawn offered two methods that she used to handle gender issues with men.
When overwhelmed, she acts one way; when things become combative, she functions as an even-tempered mediator. In meetings with men when she is the sole female voice, one of two events may happen. Dawn contended,

Once, I got so upset, and I just had to leave. I just walked out, which could be a man kind of thing. But I knew it was my solution because I was just so upset, I was gonna cry, and I did not want them seeing me crying. Um, I also, though, have been the woman in the room. This is more my role during bargaining which was to be like “Settle down, boys,” having to kind to calm this room of testosterone down. Where they’re working through things, in my opinion, in irrational ways. Like let’s settle down here and talk about this. You know how women are the calmer. Again, I want to solve the problem. I want to kind of calm it down and get them to refocus.

Ironically, the woman, who is seen as an outsider in these very male spaces, is sometimes the agent for diplomacy. She accredits her ability to do this with being female because “women are the calmer.”

Most importantly, Eve had the most public displays of handling gender bias on her campus. She wrote confrontation emails to the union membership; she took the fight to the administration. She purported, “so what I did was toughen up and be a real ass to him {the university president} back and then relied on the institution to help as well.” Dawn did this by using her internal communications within the college to gain power as a leader. She stated,

I came up with my pedagogical goal is that you’re going to be pleasant with me by the end of the semester. It’s good for you and me. And that’s really pretty much what I did with the then provost. And now with that said, I was taking very much that leadership
position with we’re not going to take this off of him. The whole university sort of mobilized against him.

Dawn is a strategist in that she leverages her professional reputation to garner support around herself and the union’s mission. The president’s attacks on her became an attack on the union, which the university was not going to allow. He has learned from this lesson and now respects the union. This respect or fear of the union is reflected in his actions. Dawn contended, “He never does anything without texting me or calling me on the phone and giving me a heads-up.” Her president learned the hard way that fighting the union is an up-hill battle, one in which he does not want to participate.

The Career Mobility of Women (RQ 3)

The ability to rise in higher education unions can be a factor if certain foundational structures, such as the areas of the constitution or bylaws being geared towards a male president instead of a female president. If women were not considered as potential presidents, particular problems that women face would not be included in the creation of the union’s constitution and bylaws. Lack of release time for union work could negatively affect a female president who had a family. If a union did not have term limits, that might discourage women with young children from running for presidency.

None of the women saw any structural factors, such as a lack of term limits, as being a factor in a woman’s career mobility or ascension to union presidency. While two presidents (Amy and Becky) mentioned creating term limits for the position of president, they did not see term limits as the reason why women would or would not be elected as president within their unions. However, Eve mentioned a factor in union presidency work that might limit women. She contended, “I think one thing that is problem for us in not formal rules or regulations, but it’s
a problem for those of us that have children to be in such central leadership. So, I don’t think this was structured this way on purpose.” This point is poignant. While the creators of the constitution and bylaws of her union were thinking of the duties of the future union president, this president being a woman was never factored into the job description. If so, perhaps more release time for maternity leave or family duties would have been provided for a female union president. As it stands, only the top four positions in the union are released from teaching. Eve expounded, “We have this expansive understanding of what the executive board is. There’s a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer. And we’re all compensated so we get a course release.” Perhaps a female union president with kids could use or may require more than one course release.

The Resources or Support Systems Available to Women (RQ 4)

Support is important to a leader’s success. Leaders need the support of followers and sometimes their peers to help others see a vision and execute plans. If no support systems are available, a leader may be less successful. Women are particularly vulnerable to failure if they are in hostile, unsupportive environments. Persistence in a field, such as math, science, or labor requires a specific constitution.

All of the participants mentioned training and resources that were available in their union. Three of the presidents chose to use those resources; two did not. Amy mentioned several training opportunities. She revealed that her union provided training to its leadership. She stated, “our union, our state affiliate invested a lot of time and training.”

While Amy acknowledged that there were professional development opportunities in her local, she maintained that other women were the most important resource for women. She
intimated this when she stated that her biggest resource was “Other women who are experienced
and are working, to share war stories.” The experience of sharing and consoling appears to be an
important resource for women. It allows them to be in a safe space of support that they may not
get in the company of men.

Becky also experienced a rich history of training and mentoring opportunities within her
local. Her union invested money in training on the mechanics of stewardship, such as writing
grievances, understanding contract language, and becoming a leader. This training can improve
a leader’s performance. The positive results of training are reflected in the following dialogue:

You’re going to go through ULI, through the cycle with grievance handling, contract
handling. Um, we’re going to always talk to you about training, and how to, how to think
like a union representative as opposed to a member that doesn’t have a voice, give voice
to your campus, give voice to your leadership.

ULI is the AFT training that allows union stewards to learn how to be a better union steward.
The training is in Delevan, Wisconsin in the summers. Becky’s local also offered her other
educational opportunities in Chicago. Becky stated,

You’re sent to the AFT; you’re sent to the IFT. That is how I got involved in SNL
{School for New Learning at DePaul University}. I became a recruiter for SNL. So,
SNL was more than a school. It was an active participation for me, and for me
channeling students through SNL.

Cynthia did not know of training opportunities from the IFT and the AAUP, except for the ULI,
in which she did not participate. She stated that “They must offer things, such as the AFT/IFT
conferences”; however, she had never attended any. Also, she maintained that she never knew
about any workshops or seminars on union stewardship or leadership.
In addition, Dawn, being a new president of a newly organized local took advantage of some of the opportunities of her union. She participated in two events. Dawn stated,

The Regina Polk event, we’ve gone a couple times. I actually got to go, and it was fun. At least two people from our union went. If an opportunity comes along, I try to encourage everyone, if it’s open to everyone. . . they had the presidents conference two years ago (two Februarys ago) down in Springfield. They brought all the presidents together for a whole weekend. That was really good for me.

Finally, Eve mentioned attending AFT Conferences. She stated, “when you go to one of these AFT Conferences, they teach you how to be a president that doesn’t do everything, but has the rest of the people do stuff.” The people stuff, for Eve, was the pluralizing of work.

Ways in Which Unions Socially and Emotionally Support Women (RQ 5)

Unions primary functions are to fight for better working, higher pay and benefits, and protect members’ rights. Social and emotional support of members or officers do not fall under the purview of unions. Therefore, it is not surprising that women are not emotional supported as a group by their locals. They are also not mentored by their affiliate leadership. Support comes from other places for women, such as women within the local, women in other locals, and at times from men.

While all of the women referenced training, none of them mentioned any socially and emotional support offered by their locals. Most of the presidents saw women as possible sources for emotional support and believed that mentoring could be a good resource for other female union leaders.
The next similarity was the belief in the value of a mentor and qualities of a good mentor. While Amy did not have a mentor, she saw the value in having one. She attested that there were attributes that a mentor should possess. This is seen when Amy contended,

I think the primary job of a mentor is, first of all, someone to commiserate with, someone to help me understand the limitations of the people I would be working with, or how to revamp an idea, and more importantly, to share their experiences.

While Amy did not have a mentor, she had ideas on the purpose, goals, and values of a mentor. Amy purported that a mentor should provide specific services to mentees. These duties would help a mentee in decision making, career guidance, and professional development. Amy asserted that a mentor should provide

Encouragement, a gentle criticism, an evaluation of things, someone to sound ideas off of, most importantly, share your experience and if you have an experience that particularly relates to what the mentee is expressing, share that and how you were able to work your way through it. And more importantly, get a sounding board. Listen and have developed a relationship so that there is trust and you can really tell them the truth.”

Becky also revealed in her interview the necessary requirements of a mentor. This is reflected when she indicated that a mentor should tell her mentee to “Know your body, know your health. Practice good breathing. And if possible, you know, keep your constitution working.” Becky also emphasized that a mentor tells a mentee that she must be strategic and be sure before attacking an opponent. This advice is given by Becky when she stated, “Before you go to war, before you even attempt to go to war, before you pick up your baton or pen to write war, take a good inventory of self. Health is very important.”
Cynthia and Dawn did not have mentors. However, Dawn mentioned that she was mentoring to a junior faculty member. Eve had peers who functioned as supportive sisters. Cynthia, Dawn, and Eve intimated that they could see the value in mentoring.

**Stereotypes and Myths that Affect Women’s Leadership (RQ 6)**

Myths are part of all cultures. However, American myths created around the Patriarchal power structure limit access for specific groups. In American society, women are one of those groups. Stereotypes and myths based upon perceived gender weakness can disparage women in leadership. How women react to these stereotypes and myths can also affect their leadership.

When asked about gender stereotypes, some of the women revealed that men’s stereotypes and myths of women were present in their experiences. First of all, Amy stated that people questioned her leadership based on their beliefs of her ability as a woman or African-American. When people questioned her decisions she stated, “Why am I getting this kind of shit? But I never say it is because I am a woman or it is because I am Black, but we know the truth.”

Similarly, Becky revealed past interactions with men that reflected their sexism. She felt that she had been viewed as weak and treated like a servant to men. Becky expounded about how men thought of her as a little play thing to which they could give orders. This is expressed when she recalled, “I would say that when we first started, it was a sexist thing. It was you’re a cute little something, something. You don’t mind pouring me a cup of coffee or you don’t mind.”

In contrast, Cynthia was not aware of any stereotypes or myths affecting her as union president. She felt that she was judged as an individual and not as a woman by her members. Their support of her was not limited by any sexist beliefs. Cynthia maintained,
And I think, I think probably because I often, although I am heterosexual, I don’t see people by gender. Gender, color. I just see people. And I’ve never had anybody do anything to me, other this president and her provost, based that was overly based on gender. So, I think maybe I am oblivious to that. Whether it’s helpful, harmful, I don’t know. I just see neutral, not playing a role at all.

Cynthia’s open-mindedness might have allowed her to misread or fail to read signs of gender discrimination. This might have been partially due to the large number of female members in her union.

Similarly, Dawn intimated that she had problems identify gender issues immediately. She maintains her challenges with gender when she affirmed,

I’m not really good at gender to be honest with you. I don’t. I mean I know it. I know these things, but I don’t let them get to me as much. And I don’t play to it that much. But there are certain things where I am “Oh, yeah, that’s a girl. That’s kind of a girl thing to me.

Perhaps Dawn’s experience of working in mainly male settings better prepares her for the rooms of maleness. Maybe her comfortability around men translates something to them that reduces the amount of gender-coded language she receives.

Finally, Eve clearly noticed how gender was used against her during her union presidency. Her university provost acted aggressively toward her and disparaged her in emails, yet he wanted her to not respond to his aggression because she was female. Eve explained, when the provost was putting out emails trashing me to the entire university, and I would put things out to the union trashing him back, there was definitely a whiff of you’re not
being lady-like. There was definitely a whiff of I was not supposed to be street fighter like that.

If Eve had been a man, her response to her male provost might not have been questioned due to a history of gender roles expecting men to be more assertive. However, women are expected to be demure and silent in open confrontations. Eve continued to challenge her provost until he respected her and the union.

**Different Experiences of Black and White Female Union Leaders (RQ 7)**

Gender inequality is part of the American sinew. However, racial inequality is also present. When race and gender intersect, a double bind can occur for a leader. African-American union presidents have different experiences from Caucasian union presidents aside from their gender similarity. While this study was limited to gender, those differences cannot be ignored.

All of the African-American female union leaders affirmed that there was another attribute that factored in their union leadership experiences. The female participants who were African-American had an additional layer of judgement that was articulated in their interviews. Amy and Becky noted that they were judged based on their gender and race. Amy complained that her legislative board often attempted to usurp her power or challenge her authority due to her gender and race. This is apparent when she stated,

> But I never say it is because I am a woman or it is because I am Black, but we know the truth. I just want to know why you think it is appropriate to … the membership chair, I told him, read your bylaws, read your job description. I’m the president. You’re the membership chair. I ran for this position, this office, and I won twice. Let me do my job.
Amy felt that previous presidents, even bad presidents, were not judged by the same high criteria as she has been judged. This judgement may or may not have been due to the large number of White men in Amy’s union. Becky shared a similar experience of judgement, except it was from the administration and not from her own members. Becky noted,

There was a superiority by men and I worked with over the years, I worked with a lot of unions, a lot of attorneys, a lot of legal firms. And I think in the beginning, because I did not make a name for myself or didn’t get out there and show that I had a little muscle behind me.

Becky alluded to the fact that perhaps judgement of her may have included something other than gender. It could have included the fact that she was young and was an unknown in the union fight. Her inexperience may have allowed the White male attorneys to believe that she was not a viable contender in union arbitrations and negotiations. However, her extensive training at the DePaul University and ULI was sufficient in her union career.

All three of the White female president did not feel judged as unqualified in their roles as union president. All three had the support of their faculty and were viewed as the most qualified to lead the university. Amy had the support of a group of people who pushed for her presidency. Amy contended,

I had about 10 professors across the university take me out for pizza to tell me I had to run. And I said. Well, I ran against her the other time. And she had been vice president, though, of the union. And people just went, “oh, well, she was vice president, so we’ll vote for her.” and I lost that election. I thought I’m done. I was riding out to retirement.
And these 10 people said, you got to run. I said I did that once and I lost. I’m doing it again. I don’t like to lose. And they said, We will campaign for you like you’ve never been.

Cynthia felt no judgement as a female leader. She was supported by a group of people who actively campaigned for her to win the election. She has been union president ever since.

Dawn also had the support of her membership. In fact, the current union president asked Dawn to take over the union. She stated, “Joe Persky, our president, kind of pushed me.” Aside from the union president, the union members also wanted Dawn to be their leader. She purported, “So we had this kind of practical discussions, but I agreed that I would run for president. And everyone seemed really pleased that I was going to do it.”

Having the support of the outgoing president and the members can make a union president’s transition easier. She does not need to deal with internal conflict when she has to run an executive board, fight grievances, and negotiate a contract. This state of support might be the result of a majority female environment.
Chapter Five

Conclusions

New Theory: The Formula For Female Union Leadership

This study’s purpose was to engender a conceptual theory of how female presidents are made and to provide other female union members with a pathway to union presidency. From the data of the five participants, the researcher noticed similarities and differences. Grounded Theory maintains that themes arise from the participants’ experiences; thus, they emerged from the data. From this researcher’s data, a new theory about how women create pathways to union presidency emerged. These women possessed the necessary tools, skills, and mindset to be successful union presidents. This cadre of talents yields a theory of why these women are successful.

Open and Axial Coding

Open and axial coding are the first two stages of coding in grounded theory. In open coding, the researcher identified open coding categories and utilized the constant comparative approach by comparing data with the incident and the incident with the categories (Creswell, 2015). When the researcher performed axial coding, she developed a coding paradigm; she selected a core category, put it at the center of axial coding process, reanalyzed the data to identify causal conditions, intervening and contextual categories, strategies, and consequences to create the axial coding process (Creswell, 2015).

The following codes were revealed:

- Professional development for union leaders
- Supportive women (from either inside the membership or in other unions)
Connectedness through unionism

Unexpected situations

Strong personality of leaders

**Selective Coding**

Selective coding is the final stage of coding in grounded theory. The researcher conducted selective coding by writing a theory from the interrelationship of categories in the axial coding model (Creswell, 2015). These categories reflected similarities in the participants’ experiences. The following codes were revealed during selective coding:

- Having opportunities to learn more
- Feeling supported by women in other unions
- Feeling connected to membership (through conversations and mutual ideology)
- Adjusting behavior to different situations
- Fighting for rights (for others and self)

Of the five participants, there seemed to be different pathways to leadership. The common denominator for some women being forced into leadership was a crisis with the previous leadership or inadequate leadership. In Becky’s case her union president lost both of her parents, causing Becky to finish the previous president’s term. For Amy and Cynthia, the previous president was ineffective or inept. Cynthia’s president further abused her power for political favors with the administration. Finally, for Dawn and Eve, the previous president encouraged them to be the next union president. For Dawn, it was a suggestion; for Eve, it was a plea.

Also, having or not having a mentor did not seem to factor into the effectiveness of the female leaders. Many of the participants (Amy, Cynthia, and Dawn) did not have a mentor to
guide them in their leadership roles. Also, a few participants (Cynthia and Dawn) did not attend any formal training from the IFT or AFT.

However, there were similarities among the five union presidents. During the structural coding, the researcher identified several commonalities among the participants which was the foundation for the new theory. She analyzed participants’ responses and identified similarities and themes. The researcher recorded the following five emergent themes in all five of the female presidents:

1. possessing extensive experience
2. having feelings of sisterhood
3. understanding the importance of a union
4. patterning behaviors of heroes
5. having an assertive (assured) personality

In three of the five presidents, the themes of mentoring others and being a life-long learner were present.

**Theme 1: Extensive Experience**

The first theme that emerged among the participants was the extensive experience that the female union presidents possessed prior to their ascension. These women had years of experiences inside and outside of the union and in different types of union, such as K-12 and post-secondary education. I would argue that these women also had emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence might be the most important and determining factor of true leadership. Goleman (1988) argued that emotional intelligence is twice as imperative as other factors and is linked to performance. A leader with higher emotional intelligence may perform
better than a leader without such a skill. Emotional intelligence can be identified by several behaviors. Goleman (1988) asserted that the five components of emotional intelligence involved a person possessing self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. Such attributes are critical because they allow a leader to self-regulate and act appropriately in different situations and responded correctly to followers’ varied behaviors and expectations. A self-aware leader is aware of his or her limitations and strengths. These presidents tied their extensive knowledge and their emotional intelligence to lead their memberships.

Amy mentioned her long history in union work in various positions. She stated:

Because I had some skills, having worked in other industries other than education and union, that involved negotiations and grievances and stuff like that, I knew that I had some skills that would have been beneficial to the union. So I’d rather help than set around and criticize. So that’s what I did. I came in as secretary, filled a position that was vacant because somebody left. I spent maybe two, three years total as secretary. And then I became vice-president and then I think I spent a total of six years as vice-president/grievance chair. And then finally because the guy that was running our union was so uninformed that I just had some ideas about how we could move forward, so I actually challenged him for president and I won. Twice and I am on my second term as president.

Amy also had work experience in journalism and with social media, which allowed her to craft press releases and other documents that assisted her union during in contract campaigns and negotiations.

Becky also intimated that she had worked in various positions within her local. She stated:
I think I served on two or three contract committees. I became campus rep somewhere back there. I worked on different union committees: working condition, grievance committee, union rep, for at least 13 years I was a campus rep. I know that from one count at one of my schools. I think the total campus rep time was a lot longer.

Becky has spent 40 years serving her local. During that time, she has served her members as union president for 19 years. Her experience at all levels of her local was the foundation for her becoming a phenomenal leader.

Also, Cynthia had an extensive level of experience fighting for union members in the primary, secondary, and post-secondary levels of education. She started in the suburbs of New York in the primary and secondary school districts. Later in her career, she matriculated into post-secondary education in the suburbs of Chicago. She stated:

You know I originated in K-12 education, and I was always active in the union then. I participated in contract negotiations. So coming to the university it was only natural that I’d want to be involved . . . I go back to when it was illegal for K-12 teachers to strike. The first school district I worked in, no I worked in two, we were NEA, and I was a second-year teacher, September of my second year, and we were on strike. . . We created the playbook that I like to think that’s led to the kinds of negotiations that go on now.

In addition, Dawn came to union leadership with an extensive background. Dawn noted,

Before I came to the university, I ran a non-for-profit, that very small one, very small, didn’t make a lot of money, but we built it from scratch and ran it for five years. I came to UIC in 2004. I became co-director of this research center that we are sitting in. How do you manage people? How do you deal with the structure of non-for-profit boards? I
was president the of the Urban Planning Association, which is about a 900-member organization, so it’s kind of similar.

Dawn’s experience in non-for-profit and the private sector prepared her for managing people for a common goal. Because the field of urban planning is mainly male, Dawn was prepared to strategically argue with men without qualms or fear. Her work history made her ready for union battle.

Finally, Eve had a strong background; she was pursued by her union president who was finishing her last term. Eve contended,

So in 2010 Terry was president but I was really sort of strategizing the timing and everything. . . Terry would always call and Terry would always say two sentences and how you’re doing and then immediately go into union strategy. . . So that’s Terry calling me for advice. I think that was the absolute best training she gave me. Because I was always in her head. We were thinking it together, so that in making the transition into being a leader myself, we just kind of rearranged the table a little bit. But we were very much thinking together, so there was very much a collective sort of shared mind thing that I can’t image with many other people.

This “training” was actually preparation for Eve to take the reins as president. Eve was able to work with the outgoing president and get acclimated with the stressful situations of union leadership. She did not have to learn on the job; she participated in leadership from the shadows.

Theme 2: Feelings of Sisterhood

Sisterhood among women is a powerful tool. Its root may be a communal spirit that exists in some women. These female presidents sought advice and strategized through the
communal efforts of other women. These female leaders sometimes used transformative leadership to include women who were often disenfranchised in organizations. As leaders, women often exhibit a more participatory and democratic style of leadership (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Thus, women are more inclusive in decision-making. Yukl (1999) purported that collaboration reduces the expense and difficulty of carrying out a request. The followers’ collaborative interaction would assist the leader in achieving goals. Roles are determined through a democratic process based on strengths. Followers would be compelled to do their best as they are invested in the outcomes.

Because four of the five presidents worked in female-centered unions, their ability to get things done using a democratic process amassed support from their membership.

All of the women also identified the existence of sisterhood in their union experiences. This sisterhood was felt between women in various types of unions. Therefore, sisterhood ties stretched between women in sister unions. Amy articulated that having meetings with other union sisters was a source of strength. This is seen when she stated that she saw, “Other women who are experienced and are working, to share war stories. That one meeting you and Delores and I had was phenomenal. Gave me a lot of courage. And the belief that I could do it.”

In addition, Becky mentioned the value of women and sisterhood of women in unions. She stated,

Because I represent a unit of mostly females, it’s a most labor unions of higher ed are predominately female, I am in a female-centered union. The head of our national are females. We got the trifecta of leadership, three women at the very top. I am learning that even at their very top, they have obstacles and problems and they are still dealing
with gender issues. So, that lets me know that I am not by myself, that others are dealing with this. You know, we are all in it.

The trifecta that Becky was referencing is the three women who head the AFT. Although these women experience gender issues, they still have the support of the sisterhood within the local.

Furthermore, Cynthia expressed how much easier her job as union president was due to the sisterhood that she has with the majority of her female members. She stated, “My faculty is more female, so if anything, you know, I find us to be on the same wavelength.” That wavelength is the foundation for sisterhood, which allowed Cynthia more support from her members.

Furthermore, Dawn mentions a bond between female union members that spans the length of the state of Illinois. She has two union sisters with whom she communicates for advice and emotional support. Her contentment in her sisterhood within the IFT is evident when she stated,

There aren’t that many women. I know Sophie {Mehic}. That’s the one who I look to who I would to have be my mentor, but she has a lot going on. She doesn’t know that she mentors me, but I learn from her from being in a lot of meetings. For the last like year and a half, between sitting around the CTU strike last spring, there were a lot of faculty leaders sitting around so with the union leaders. So I learned a lot watching her.

Because there are only two other female union presidents, one at Northeastern Illinois University and one at the University of Illinois at Springfield, the possibility of gaining a female mentor or comrade is low. All of the women in this study knew of or knew the other union presidents in the state. Dawn also knows the other recently elected female president of a four-year university. Dawn noted,
I got to know Lynne Fisher whose down at Springfield, so UIS, she’s president down there. I really respect her, but we’re both new in this position, but we’re learning from each other. So I know her. And I haven’t . . . it’s interesting because I can think like at IFT, there are very few where there are women in higher ed.

Dawn leans on these two women for support like a sister. While she and Lynn are new to the union presidency, their confidant Eve provides guidance and support. Women need these kinds of supportive female relationships to improve the potential for success in their union jobs.

Finally, Eve proclaimed how her relationships with other female comrades is strong. The culture of her university is one that is open to the advancement of women. Eve purported, we have a strong, kind of, matriarchal culture at this university across the culture and across generations. So I came into departments with a lot of support from senior women. I came into the union and the administration with lots of support from senior women. So I think more so than other universities, this university is very good about already having women in power, and I know the people that kind of help push me and not just the union president before me.

Mentoring is a powerful tool for women. Eagly and Chin (2010) asserted that effective leadership is rooted in leaders providing inspiration and motivation to followers, particularly through mentoring. The presidents who had mentors mentioned the invaluable knowledge and support that their mentors provided.

Theme 3: Understanding the Importance of a Union

Union leaders must understand their union’s history and importance. If followers are unaware of the importance of the union, the leader must convey this mission and vision to them. Forster,
Cebis, Majteles, Mathur, Morgan, Preuss, Tiwari, and Wilkinson (1999) affirmed that leaders must “define and re-define reality for their followers,” especially when managing change (p. 13). That change can be preparing for a strike or preparing for contract negotiations. A leader cannot sell a vision if she is not invested in the vision herself.

The participants clearly understood the value of a union. This understanding was acquired either at the beginning of their careers or laced in the foundation of their upbringing. They had been part of a union either in another field or within their current field. Amy stated,

And I always, even from a little girl, I understood the importance of a union. A family is a union. Made decisions that’s good for all concerned. A sorority. That’s a union. A union is where collective minds come together, pool their strength and resources, to work for the good of all concerned. And that’s a good thing.

Here the importance of a union was known to the union leader in her childhood. When she first entered the union environment, it felt natural for her to be part of and fight for her union.

Becky also expressed her union’s importance early in her career. In her first year of employment, she experienced the value of the union when she was thrust into a union battle. This understanding of union work is visible when she noted,

I was approached by the union representative at the time in 1971 on my third day on the job who started explaining the privileges of being a union member. Seven days later we were on strike. That’s my very first strike. So, I was baptized by fire. Had no idea that I could have gotten fired. But for the benevolence of my then director because the union said that you could not cross a picket line. I took that literally. So, I worked with my union to protest. Totally green. Totally I don’t want to say ignorant, but what’s that
word naïve and unaware. Of what could have happened to me had I not had the protection of my union.

Cynthia saw the value of a union before she was even part of a union. One of her family members also had a history of being part of a union. She affirmed that,

Before I became president, I headed up Task Forces for the union, probably because I was the loudest voice complaining about that issue, and so I got asked if I would lead a task for the university, but I’ve always been involved in union’s all my life. My father was a union man.

Also, Dawn understood the value of a union. Her university had tried a few times to organize. She wanted to be involved, which is reflected in the following:

So, when we got to a point deciding how we were going to move forward with the contract, actually, so it took a while to get to card drop and all that. I was sort of building up my interest and making more room for it because I knew I wanted to get more involved. By that time, when we finally got to go into contract negotiations, it was a choice of being representative selected from my college or being part of the bargaining team. And I said, No, I want to be part of bargaining. I just need to be in there, because this is critical. I just want to be there.

Finally, Eve knew the value of a union before she was even hired. Being part of a union was important to her. This is apparent when she purported,

I became involved with the union in 2004. It was my first semester here on a tenure-track job. And we went out on strike. So, uh, I had been looking for a job for a long time. My husband and I are in the same field. And it was kind of I finally got my permanent job. And it felt like I finally got my job {at this university}, no I don’t. We’re on strike. But
because he teaches in the state system as well, I knew how bad downstate politics was about supporting universities and state workers, so one of the reasons I came to this university is because it was unionized.

Eve was acutely aware of the need for unionization in higher education. She sought that power of the union in her job selection process.

While all the union presidents come from different career backgrounds, such as urban planning, communications, K-12 education, and higher education, they all had an appreciation of a union in their lives and the lives of their colleagues.

**Theme 4: Patterning Behaviors of Heroes**

Patterning one’s behaviors of heroes was a style of leadership that these presidents used. These leaders augmented their behaviors in critical situations of negotiations and conflict resolution. Their leadership style can be tied to leadership theory. Stoghill’s two studies (1948) defined and then revamped (1974) the concept of trait theory, maintaining that no specific set of traits differentiated leaders from non-leaders, and that leadership was situational, dependent on the relationship of participants, leaders and followers. Leaders, like these female presidents, then adjusted their behaviors to the situation. These women assessed situations critically to ascertain how to act to draw the best results from their followers. Dawn and Eve used this approach to create strike campaigns. Eve used this to her advantage in amassing the support of her union and the administration when she openly fought her university president. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) argued that leaders must switch between directive and supportive behaviors to help followers accomplish institutional goals. In order to do this, a leader must discern followers’ competency levels and commitment to the task. Then, the leader must alter his or her behavior
and provide support or direction that the followers need. Followers may need less support as they become more autonomous with their tasks. House (1976) noted that motive arousal is effective in situations with followers’ outcomes. To gain follower support, a leader must locate specific items that will motivate followers to change behaviors, such as those mentioned by House. Modeling their heroes helped these union presidents effectively motivate their followers.

These presidents had a hero (leader) from which they drew attributes. For Amy, the hero was her brother. Amy stated, “I didn’t have anyone to ask a question, because prior to me, all the presidents had been male. And all the other locals from in my region were men. So there was really no one, and there was my brother, the mentor I had, who worked for Amalgamated.”

Furthermore, Becky had both female and male heroes from which she patterned her behavior. Her female heroes were Sojourner Truth and Harriet Tubman. Becky showed her reverence for these individuals when she contended, “my heroes were Sojourner Truth and Harriet Tubman. They were Black women with authority and were able to knock down the walls. See, we didn’t talk about the glass ceiling.” Her male hero was Muhammad Ali. His style of boxing became her style of verbally combating opponents. She showed her adoration of his ring work when she stated,

And I also was an advocate of Muhammad Ali. Not the fighting part, but the thriller part. I liked the way he danced and moved through a ring. And I would transform that into life. See when they move to the left, you move to the right. When they move to the right, you move to the left.

Becky used this physical fighting style in her verbal altercations with administrators and lawyers. Becky stated that her ability to respond to adversity by mimicking these historical African-American icons was a strength for her.
For Cynthia, her hero was Karen Lewis, the Chicago Teachers Union President, someone whom she had never met. Cynthia asserted, “Every time she opens her mouth, I think I want to be able to talk just like her; I want to be as strong as she is. Karen Lewis.”

For Dawn, her hero was Karen Lewis, as well. After having conversations with Karen Lewis and having her explain the grass roots style organizing of the CTU, Dawn noted, “I watched that, and so I was so impressed with her. I actually signed up to help her run for mayor.” In a similar vein, Eve emulated her hero Karen Lewis. Eve noted, “I personally have a relationship with Karen Lewis where I have never called her that she hasn’t gotten back to me. And so in terms of anything outside of UPI that is much more than IFT leadership, I go to Karen.” Eve also noted three other mentors, Terry, Barbara, and Jamie, women who she goes to as sounding boards.

Eve maintained,

Terry Shepfort. The woman who was the previous president was a very strong and continues to be a strong mentor. But prior to that Barbara Scott was probably and in some way remains as important as Terry Shepfort. . . those two are simply huge. And Jamie Daniel. I shouldn’t forget Jamie Daniel. Jamie Daniel was with IFT when I began as president of the union.

Eve, like Becky, has a plethora of female mentors. She used them to trouble-shoot problems and plan strategy. These female presidents attempted to emulate the strength, strategic skills, and general acumen of their heroes in executing their strategic plans for their unions and in serving their membership.

**Theme 5: Having an Assertive and Assured Personality**

The most compelling attributes of the five female presidents were their strong personalities and their sense of identity/self. These women did not conform to the assigned
attributes of their gender. These leaders rebelled against the gender typing that is dictated by society. Gender Theory’s first construct is gender typing which is the prescribed traditional traits that are considered masculine or feminine (Perry and Pauletti, 2011). Thus, when these women act assertively or confidently to defend themselves and their members, they do not feel as if they are being more masculine or less feminine. Openly challenging a male lawyer or publicly denouncing a university administrator are not considered feminine behaviors in stereotypical American society. However, these leaders used these behaviors because the actions felt natural to the women, and the behaviors were effective. These presidents were being themselves; they were being effectual leaders for their members.

First, Amy showed her fiery spirit in how she handled adversity within her own union. She attacked her opponents with questions. Amy confronted her members by asking, “What do you feel about me as a leader? That is what I am going to ask they ass tomorrow at this conference call. Why am I getting this kind of shit?” She questioned the logic in their attacking her. Becky used a different approach. She cursed and attacked unapologetically. Becky stated,

So, you learn that you have a persona and a presence. So, when people bring you gender stuff, with my kind of tongue, they have to be extremely careful if they are soft and easily hurt. You know that thing about I can disrupt Trump with a tweet. I can do less than a tweet, and turn your stuff upside down.

Becky attacked her opponents using the strength that she modeled from her heroes. She took on the role of a leader like an actress takes on the character in a play. She augmented her behavior as the situation dictated.

Cynthia believed that she was meant to do union work because of who she is as a person, not because she is a woman. She used her personal strength to lead. She purported, “I’ve always
been a strong woman. And that works both ways for you and against you. People say you’re too strong, and that turns them off.” While this female strength might be unappealing to some, it is a component in the formula for making Cynthia a successful leader.

Dawn’s personality may lean more toward aggressive than assertive. Dawn often seeks a fight in her role as union president. Dawn contended, “I love to fight. I’m scrappy. I want to go in that direction. So I will start with we should do this. We should do this, as in we should take this particular action which would be somewhat confrontational.” Luckily, Dawn uses a transformative style of leading. She seeks the consensus of her executive board and membership before she makes any moves.

Finally, Eve exhibited her assertive personality in how she handled her administration. She attacked her former provost and president as preparation for her strike and contract campaigns. Eve stated,

the whole organization of the whole school as well as the union, we kind of showed him that you have to deal with us. You can’t not deal with us. And that comes from the union started here. The board of governors started here in 1967. And, So we’ve had a strong union for a very long time. So there’s really a you can’t beat us so you might as well join us and work with us in some way. So what I did was toughen up and be a real ass to him back and then relied on the institution to help as well.

Eve used the history of the union, the strength of her union, and the backing of the institution as tools in her attack and discrediting of administration. Her aggressive behavior was fueled by her need to firmly put the administration in its place. It takes a strong personality to attempt and execute this strategy, which she did.
There were two commonalities between three of the presidents: mentoring others and being a life-long learner. Some presidents had mentors and others did not. While Amy did not have a formal mentor, she has started mentoring her replacement. Amy affirmed that

It’s like now I am in a great position to become a mentor to the woman I am working to become president. In fact, that’s the first we met here. I’ve trained her to be grievance chair, but I was so proud of her. She had some nature intuition, some wit, and she knew how to go and find information on her own. She wasn’t sitting there, waiting for me to walk her through step by step. And that was great. That is why I was glad to see that yeah, she would be a great, she’s a great mentee. And so I try share all my experiences. I try to tell her everything I’ve learned and all the paths that she can take, where she can find assistance, where she can find additional education. . . I came in looking back for my successor. That was my plan from day one. I was to come in, do the job, learn as much as I could, and find two or three people that I thought I could train and share this experience with, so that they could do a smooth transition into the office of president.

Becky is also giving back to other women who she hopes will be leaders. This fact is seen when she stated, “I am doing mentoring; I am doing mentorship right now. . . So, I tell people, even the young girls that I am working with, and I think I just did this recently, cause I mentor all over the place too, now, um, think about your health.”

While Cynthia did not have mentoring and is apprehensive of being mentored, she saw the value in mentoring and in trying to absorb as much to pass on to others in her local. She stated

I kind of created my own mentoring program. . . I don’t know. I might be a little resistant to mentoring (for myself) which is unusual.
Furthermore, Dawn did not have a union mentor. While Dawn lacked guidance of a mentor, she functions as a mentor at the university. She stated that “I am a mentor for one of my junior faculty. So I think about what that role is. And I’m not trained how to be a mentor. So what I do for her is to help answer questions that she has and to give advice on for her getting published and gaining tenure and all that.”

Finally, Eve intimated that her role as union president was a temporary one. She believed that new people must enter the union, be trained to lead, and lead in whatever roles they select. Dawn maintained, “the president doesn’t do everything; the rest of the people do stuff. . .our board is not full as it has been, so we’re having special election. The pluralization of roles and having lots of young people that actually have leadership positions helped a lot.” Those people must be guided in unionism.

Although not a theme, some of these union presidents were life-long learners learning more skills for their leadership role. This learning does not have to be professional development offered by the IFT or the AFT. It can be from other presidents or locals. Amy used the IFT (state) and the AFT (national) as a resource to learn more and become immersed in union work and learn as much as she could. She reflected this quest for learning when she asserted that

I became totally engulfed in the state and the national organization. And I was just mesmerized about how it operated. And that is, so when I got involved in the local, I wanted to do more and more because I realized the power that we had and how solidarity can take us so many places that these young educators didn’t even know was a possibility.
Becky expressed the value of learning new things throughout one’s union career. She expounded upon this when she stated,

You don’t know where you are going. See, that’s why I always tell everybody everything you do is a life, learning experience. So, you don’t stop learning. And even to this day, I am learning new things, and I have been at it for 20 years. So, I don’t assume that I know even if I know. I don’t make that assumption. Because things could have changed when I originally learned whatever it is I am doing: working in labor, coming up on arbitrations, going back and forth. You never know. Everything is a research opportunity, and it’s always ground zero. . . I kept moving up. I started going to DePaul, to the School of New Learning. Started working with them, doing research projects on women and labor, employment. Had no idea I knew what I was doing. But, you know, did pretty good. Um, worked with the George Meany Center, up at Silver Springs, Maryland. Always trying to learn more.

Cynthia believed that learning and adapting information can improve her local. She wants to grow and advance her union through whatever learning experiences are available with the IFT. This is revealed in her words. Cynthia asserted,

I’m like a sponge. I try to pick up everything I can. Even like I said, sometimes we get in involved in some K-12 things and they don’t fit our university, but I am always thinking about how can I adapted this to our place. We are not on the grand scale of the Chicago Teachers Union, but how can I adapted this to make it work at my place. So, everything’s better if you have a little training I guess.

Dawn and Eve did not mention their need to continue learning; however, both president intimated that they were not interested in remaining union president for another term. Both
Dawn and Eve work in female-centered environments where they see gender as less of an issue. A man being union president at their institutions would not be considered negative act.

These female leaders, regardless of their race, used a leadership style that was inclusive and transformative to their members. Transformative leadership, developed by James MacGregor Burns, requires that a leader build a relationship of trust with his or her followers. In this relationship, the leader must inspire and motivate followers. Once that relationship is built, a leader can achieve institutional goals more effectively. Bass (1991) posited that transformative leadership is a process where an individual leader establishes a relationship that increases the motivation level and morality in both the followers and the leader; the leader attends to the followers’ motives and needs to help them reach their maximum potential. These female presidents tried to tap into their members’ needs. A transformative leader can accomplish these goals through interaction with her followers’ needs in mind. Bass (1991) contended that transformative leaders may use charisma to inspire followers, may meet the emotional needs of followers, may emotionally stimulate them and may provide them with personal attention. Using charisma (idealized influence), a leader acquires trust of the followers and furnishes a sense of purpose and vision for them during a crisis. Using inspirational motivation, a leader inspires followers and relays the high expectations that he or she has of them. Using intellectual stimulation, the leader exhibits intellect and rational thinking that makes followers trust in his or her ability to address the crisis. For example, the leader would call a general membership union meeting to apprise followers of the situation and next steps. Finally, using individual consideration, the leader gives special attention to each follower; the leader advises, coaches, and supports followers in their development. The transformative leader is aware of followers’ distinct needs and supports followers through cultivation and individualized, special attention.
Using transformative leadership could assist a leader in navigating and promoting diversity within an organization. A transformative leader can positively affect teams. Kearney and Gebert (2009) asserted that transformative leadership is effective in diverse group settings, yielding more varied perspectives, different ideas, and positive outcomes while reducing conflicts surrounding the different viewpoints or ideas.

Amy is an example of transformative leader. She purposely tries to include and empower her members unlike her White male predecessor. She expressed this inclusive leadership style when she contended,

Whereas he [the previous union president] governed from a position of weakness, and he didn’t want to let people in so that they could see what was happening and what should be happening was not happening. What I want to do is create opportunities for others to serve with their strength.

Amy wanted her members, particularly her executive board, to be empowered and grow from their union experiences.

Becky also is transformative in her leadership style. She is transformative in that she provides support to her members and trains them to empower them, which is seen when she purported,

In my local, the first thing we tell them is this is not a social club, so you have to be trained. So, if you step in the set that says you are a rep, then we’re going to send you to DePaul. That’s one thing that is mandated to all my campus reps. Not saying that it is working to the best, but we make sure you’re going to get education and training.

Becky wanted her membership to be supported and empowered to succeed in their union career.

In addition, Cynthia exhibited transformative leadership in her role as union president. She reached out to her members to discover what their needs were. She wanted to fulfill those
needs in her role as leader. This is a key component of being a transformative leader. Cynthia’s interaction with faculty helped her assess their needs. This is revealed in the following “I’ve been here long enough to have some strong feelings and felt like I was really in tune with what the faculty wanted. I had so many conversations. We were on the same page and everything else.”

Thus, Cynthia gathered information from conversations with faculty members to better understand them and address their needs. Having these conversations built trust and created a rapport between the union president and her members. This is apparent when she maintained

I’ve been here long enough to have some strong feelings and felt like I was really in tune with what the faculty wanted. I had so many conversations. We were on the same page and everything else.

In addition, those conversations brought consensus and solidified the leader and the followers as a team. Due to its cohesiveness, that team would work better together to fight the administration. Both Amy, Cynthia, Dawn, and Eve had the advantage of being female presidents over mainly female members.

Finally, Dawn’s transformative leadership style is apparent in all that she does for her union. She wants to grow her membership and its leadership pool.

My philosophy on how you grow a union in leadership is you start with people in very small places, meet them where they are at, see what they want to do, and then you get them to get more and more comfortable to come into leadership roles. Some people want to come right into it. That’s probably more men than women. But I’m just trying to cultivate people.
Dawn cultivated her membership by listening to their needs and allowing the group to problem-solve collectively. Dawn attested that her style of leadership is allowing more space for listening and not trying to assert my authority which I felt I had to do. . . So I do a lot of work in communities. And we always talk about community process and engaging people, and giving people space at the table to talk. And what I found myself doing was going counter to my normal behavior, which is to let people talk and come up with ideas. I felt that I had to solve the problem because I was madame president. And I started realizing that the best thing I could do what be who I am and utilize these wonderful people around the table and not create the situation. . .

I was leading by letting them talk and then we worked through solutions.

This level of listening allows for her executive board to function communally. Their ideas are validated and incorporated into the strategy.

Lastly, Eve has a transformative style in working for her union. She often consulted with her inner circle to strategize and provide insight on how the faculty would respond to maneuvers that the union made. Eve stated,

I also have a group of people that were in the Squirrels. But it’s interesting. I think of the two men as peers. I can’t think of a man in a mentoring position. Right. There’s one senior colleague in history who’s retired now who kind of, sort of crosses over into a mentor, but not really. They’re more like peers. So I sound things out with them, but it’s of a different order.

These men provide insight, but not to the level of her female mentors. The squirrel group functions more like a gauge of the university. Eve also had her executive board fully involved in the union operations. Eve asserted,
we have this expansive understanding of what the executive board is. There’s a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a treasurer... there’s a lot of opportunity for people to come in. I think one thing that has been good with that and what I’ve done is really pluralize the workload.

Allowing people to do their assigned roles and not micro-managing the work allows this local to run better. This unity can be seen in their strength and organization for strikes. Eve noted, “so 2004 was a real strike that I came into. 2010 we had a significant strike build up, and then for the last contract we had a significant strike buildup.” Eve would not have been able to garner the strike support for those two contract negotiations if she had not been inclusive and communicative with her membership.

Curiously, three of the higher education union presidents saw a K-12 union president as a role model or mentor. Both Cynthia, Dawn, and Eve who are at four-year institutions named CTU President Karen Lewis as a mentor. Cynthia showed her adoration of President Lewis when she purported,

My friend in Chicago, she is my idol. Every time she opens her mouth, I think I want to be able to talk just like her; I want to be as strong as she is. Karen Lewis. I was so upset when she got sick. No, a good person can leave us like that. I am bound and determined to bring her here in the fall when we have our welcome back reception. I think she could inspire our membership.

Cynthia has never met President Lewis, but Cynthia watched how President galvanized the Chicago Teachers Union during the last two contract negotiations. Dawn expressed similar sentiments. However, Dawn had the luxury of meeting President Lewis. Dawn noted,
I have the benefit of briefly having conversations with Karen Lewis, but I watched her. You know, we were unionizing, as they were going out on strike. So our union was beginning bargaining as they were going on strike. Having watched what led up to that and what she was doing. Knowing that we were probably going to have to go on strike, but we didn’t go into it thinking we were going to have to go on strike, but watching her and seeing how she, and learning. We actually had her people come in and talk to us about how they implemented her vision of getting out into the classrooms and to the faculty really on the ground, real grass roots organizing. I watched that, and so I was so impressed with her. I actually signed up to help her run for mayor. Didn’t win that one, sadly. I think she’s someone definitely. I don’t know a lot of female higher ed leaders. Perhaps, women may be so hungry for a proper mentor that they will try to make a mentor out of anyone available even if they’ve never met them and they're just a role model.

In this study, Role Congruity Theory is a factor for one of the women and only slightly. Role Congruity Theory reflected how gender roles and the breaking of those roles negatively can impact women (Eagly & Karau 2002). Only Eve appeared to have been judged by her gender when she stepped out of her role as a woman. Eve’s very public battle with her provost positioned her in the spotlight to be judged based on her unfeminine behavior of speaking up for herself. This is seen when Eve posited,

I know that when the provost was putting out emails, trashing me to the entire university, and I would put things out to the union trashing him back, there was a whiff of you’re not being a lady-like. There was definitely a whiff of I was not supposed to be street fighter . . . I would have acted badly again if I had the opportunity. But it was definitely gender-coded. So I think that some of the stuff that I was doing was seen as shrill, whereas his wasn’t.
Therefore, gender stereotypes were a limitation for Eve fighting an administrator for her union. Those stereotypes made even Eve’s own union members think she had acted too masculine or gone too far in her attacks.

**New Theory**

From these emergent themes, one can discern the common characteristics of a female union leader who successfully rises to presidency. All five of the female presidents had three things in common: they were assertive in who they are and what they know; they were extremely experienced, and they understood the value of a union. They were able to persist as union presidents due to the traits of intelligence and Emotional intelligence.

In this study, three hypotheses regarding female ascension to presidency were posited as follows:

H1: The more experience the women had, the more prepared they were for union leadership.

H2: The more positive connections the women had with other women, the more they felt emotionally supported as a leader.

H3: The more confident and just the women felt, the more effective they were at fighting for union members.

The new theory extends beyond transformative leadership. Bass (1991) posited that transformative leadership is a process where an individual leader establishes a relationship that increases the motivation level and morality in both the followers and the leader; the leader attends to the followers’ motives and needs to help them reach their maximum potential. A transformative leader must put the followers’ needs first to mold their behavior to his or her will. This process is performed intentionally without malice. A transformative leader can accomplish
these goals through several distinct methods of behavior. He or she must interact with his or her followers’ needs in mind. Bass (1991) contended that transformative leaders may use charisma to inspire followers, may meet the emotional needs of followers, may emotionally stimulate them and may provide them with personal attention.

The five female union presidents appeared to be transformative leaders due to their inclusion of followers in problem-solving and their desire to increase the development of followers. While transformative leadership can be a positive tool for union leaders, transformative leadership does not factor the experience of the leader into the equation, and extensive experience seems to be significant to these female union presidents’ success in some way. Thus, the new theory adds a component that transformative leadership does not address. It extends a leader’s acumen as a component of success for female union leaders.

Furthermore, this new theory directly challenges Role Congruity Theory. None of the five presidents were victims of Role Congruity Theory in that their capacity as leaders was diminished. Role Congruity Theory negatively affected only one of the five female leaders (Eve) in a minor way. All five union presidents were effective leaders (fighting for members’ rights and negotiating contracts) regardless of prescribed gender roles, stereotypes, or myths. However, it is interesting to note that the two African-American female presidents intimated that race may also be a factor in how they were judged as leaders. They were recipients of the first threat of Role Congruity Theory. Both Amy and Becky had their leadership potential viewed as less favorable due to the prescribed gender stereotypes of being African-American and female. Crenshaw (1991) postulated that intersecting social identities (such as Black and homosexual or Latina and female) and the correlating systems of oppression or discrimination to those groups (Black, Latino, female or homosexual) creates new identities that are different from the separate
marginalized group. Thus, race and gender discrimination intersect when Black women are introduced in an environment because they are neither only Black (like Black men) nor only female (like White women). This discrimination did not affect these Black female presidents' effectiveness as leaders. Also, it did not make them play the roles that others were trying to prescribe on them (be silent or subservient). However, their experiences and other marginalized female leaders (Latina or LGBT) could be investigated in a future study if a larger sample size emerges.

This newly created theory is evaluated based on four criteria:

My hypotheses were based on the gaps that I saw in the literature. It was through the constructs of the literature that I connected to the four tenets of grounded theory. I situated those hypotheses in grounded theory.

First, the theory stands up to the first criterion of fitness in that it closely related to the substantive area. The concept of women as leaders in higher education unions has not been thoroughly explored. How women matriculate to union presidency depends on their experience as leaders, their support systems from other women, and their strong personalities as leaders.

The new theory also stands up to the understanding for people within the field of union work. Union leaders are aware of the small numbers of female union presidents and the high numbers of women as adjunct faculty and non-tenure track professors in post-secondary education. While the IFT does not keep records of the female presidents in the state of Illinois, the female presidents themselves know each other and were aware of the lack of female representation at the higher leadership levels of the IFT.

In addition, the theory passes the generality test. It is understandable that women need special support to ascend to presidency because there is no formal training for women to be
presidents. Union succession plans are also done in secret, and women are usually not considered. Grooming is often limited to men. Term limits on presidency may assist some unions that are functioning poorly.

Finally, the control element of grounded theory is clearly expressed. The condition under which this theory applies is within post-secondary education, particularly higher education unions. In K-12 education, women may not need to be as experienced and assertive in a leadership role, because women are more accepted as leaders in the primary and secondary education. However, in higher education, these personalities traits of tenacity/assertiveness, extensive experience, and strong understanding/history of a union’s value are necessary to combat the opposition of men and women. Not having a mentor had no impact on the women’s success. In addition, a lack of training was not impactful to the female presidents.

**Recommendations for Unions**

There are steps that union leadership can take to assist women in ascending to presidency in higher education. Unions must be made aware of the five commonalities: 1. possessing extensive experience, 2. having feelings of sisterhood, 3. understanding the importance of a union, 4. patterning behaviors of heroes, and 5. having an assertive and assured personality, that these female presidents had. Then, unions need to create a plan to support women.

First, all of these female union presidents had extensive experience in various roles within the union and in other industries. Because of this commonality, unions should offer professional development at the beginning of a female union member’s career in the union. She should be provided with as much exposure in IFT and AFT trainings, including the Union Leadership Institute classes, DePaul’s University’s School of New Learning (Labor Program), the Regina V
Polk Women’s Labor Leadership Conference, and all IFT and AFT Conferences. Then, she should be provided with opportunities to display her new skills in arguing grievances, organizing a strike campaign, and negotiating contracts. Women should be allowed to present special female-centered topics at IFT and AFT Conferences. Most importantly, union should create a demographic data base of union leadership compared to union members. This data base could provide more data for researchers to analyze the representation of women and minorities and display the lack of diversity in higher education union leadership. All members must have access to this data base. They need to know the number of female presidents, vice-presidents, and executive council members (IFT vice-presidents) in the state. Only after they are education of these figures will they be able to force the IFT to address the problem of a lack of diversity.

Next, the presidents felt a sense of sisterhood with other women within the IFT. There are less than ten female presidents of higher education unions in Illinois. This dearth of female power is a concern. Unions must create a mode for women to connect nationally. Thus, unions should create a female-only blog for union leaders (stewards, grievance chairs, vice-presidents and presidents) to allow for posting of questions and ideas for future gatherings. Unions should create a female mentoring program for female union stewards. A female-only Facebook page could be the start of an informal mentoring site. It could also be used to organize retreats and other political activities for female unionists. Young women should be connected with other female leaders (presidents and vice-president) outside of their unions. These young women could gain role models and possible mentors from this interaction. Also, a yearly female retreat would be help. All locals should be required to send at least two women with leadership potential to the retreat. Upon their return, these women must report to the membership their
experiences. Each local must respond to one need mentioned from these retreats. The results must be stored in an IFT database.

In addition, the five union presidents had a great respect and understanding of a union’s importance. This importance was taught to them early in life. However, the labor movement may not be taught in K-12 American history classes. Unions must provide a mandatory seminar for all union members on the history of both trade and educational union in America. Because Illinois is unique in its problems, members must be made aware of the political landscape in Illinois. Since the last gubernatorial election in Illinois, the climate has become one of an anti-labor lean. Illinois’ governor Bruce Rauner is an anti-union Republican who seeks to reduce state spending by not funding the state’s already underfunded pension plans. The impasse between Democrats and Republicans has pushed the Illinois budget into a stalemate, wherein specific social services that help some of the neediest populations, the elderly and children, were reduced. Illinois has not had a budget in two years. This setting makes Illinois, particularly Chicago, a hot bed of political strife for public workers in unions. Also, union members should be educated on these facts through email blasts and an IFT Facebook page. Furthermore, members should be provided with information on Illinois legislative updates. Moreover, union members must be educated on basic union history, such as that of Mother Jones, Norma Ray, A. Phillip Randolph, Norman G. Swenson, and other historical figures that led to the creation of union activism in America. Most importantly, unions must train their membership on the history of their locals and social shifts, such as globalization and public policy, such as NAFTA that affected unions.

Furthermore, the ability to pattern one’s behavior after one’s hero was a skill that the presidents used. Perhaps unions should offer a graduate-level leadership course focusing on
Transformative, Authentic, and Servant Leadership. This course would offer future leaders options of leadership models for their locals. Participants can be offered specific scenarios that will prepare them for various situations in union leadership, such as handling in-fighting, combating difficult members and administrators, galvanizing the membership.

Furthermore, feminist theory needs to be taught to female members to assist them in understanding the current need for advocacy. The 2016 presidential election clearly revealed a gender divide which many women might have otherwise overlooked. Women are organizing to battle negative stereotyping. The Women’s March of January 21, 2017 became a significant national movement promoted on Facebook by women who were appalled by incoming President Donald Trump’s behavior and policies. Democrats and feminists have joined to counter attacks against the American media and people. They have filed motions to block initiatives and appointees they see to be racist, homophobic, anti-women, or simply unqualified. Women in America are joining in large numbers, echoing the Women’s Movement for pay equity in the 1970s and the Suffrage Movement at the beginning of the last century.

Finally, all of the presidents had an assertive personality. Assertiveness is a personality trait and may not be taught. Female members should be tested for Emotional Intelligence and leadership traits. Members could be provided leadership models and assessment tools. The Leadership Competency Model and the Three-Skill Approach both required that leaders be aware of their strengths and weakness and work on developing these skills. The field of organizational psychology could be useful for unions in assessment and development of leaders. These steps can better assist unions in having a more diverse pool of members from which to locate a leader. A union’s succession plan should include diverse candidates from the membership.
Recommendations for Future Research

In a future study, the sample population could be increased to include the remaining two female union presidents in Illinois. Also, a future study comparing higher education unions across geographical locations (Indiana, Wisconsin, and Minnesota) could elucidate experiences of women higher education unions on a broader scale. The experiences of other women of color (Latina & Asian) who are union presidents could be investigated for comparative analysis. This information could help ascertain the overall progress of women in higher education unions. Conversely, the reasons why women do not persist or become union presidents should be investigated. A future study could identify women who experienced barriers and describe their experiences. For example, a researcher could interview women who ran for union president and their lost the election and women who won only one election and never won again. Their experiences could yield insight into barriers that others experienced and the reasons why their union presidency attempts were derailed.

Conclusions

Women are integral components to creating diversity in the academy, yet they are barely visible in higher education unions. Women must increase their representation in all ranks of the union, which leads to leadership positions. Unions should develop practices, policies, and professional development that are more inclusive for women. To enhance diversity, training practices of unions should include succession planning that includes women. Unions should create a mentoring program, specifically for women and other marginalized groups within the organization. Unions must regularly access attitudes of their membership through yearly surveys of union stewards and presidents to gain insight into their daily experiences, assess attitudes, and discover viewpoints of the membership. Retreats that bring African American and Caucasian
women together can serve as forums to highlight similarities as well confront negative stereotypes.
References


Appendix I: Dimensional Profile of Properties within Categories

Category: Possessing extensive experience

Property: Discussing history of experience in employment and union

Dimensions:
1. talks about experience in past employment (job titles and duties)
2. talks about past training from union
3. talks about people selecting them to lead
4. talks about the need for leadership

Category: Having feelings of sisterhood

Property: Discussing positive experiences with women

Dimensions:
1. turns to women for support and guidance
2. trouble-shoots difficult situations with female union members
3. strategizes with women during contract negotiations
4. leans on women during failures and setbacks

Category: Understanding the importance of a union

Property: Discussing previous experiences/interactions with union

Dimensions:
1. discusses family connection to union (another family member)
2. discusses how union protected them
3. discusses how union helps academic departments
4. discusses the benefits of union
Category: Patterning behaviors of heroes

Property: Identifying heroes and emulating behavior

Dimensions:

1. discussing childhood heroes
2. mentioning famous heroes
3. identifying union heroes
4. assuming the persona of others’ positive traits

Category: Having an assertive (assured) personality

Property: Identifying

Dimensions:

1. confronting men and women when challenged
2. being proactive instead of reactive
3. refusing to be silenced during conflict
4. having an emotional response to injustice