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Predicting Asian American College Women's Leadership Intention Using Social Cognitive Career Theory

Jeong-Eun Suh

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

PREDICTING ASIAN AMERICAN COLLEGE WOMEN'S LEADERSHIP INTENTION
USING SOCIAL COGNITIVE CAREER THEORY

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

PROGRAM IN COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY

BY

JEONG-EUN SUH

CHICAGO, IL

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Importance of Diversity in Leadership

Today's world has become rapidly globalized, and the population of United States has grown more diverse. Along with this comes an increased need for improving diversity in leadership, not only for the benefit of individuals belonging to minoritized groups, but also for entire organizations across for-profit and non-profit sectors in the U.S. (Eagly & Chin, 2010)

At the organization level, leadership should be more inclusive in order to be effective, given the change in the population. The general population/employees of organizations are becoming increasingly diverse, calling for more individuals with minority identities to assume leadership. For example, in terms of racial breakdown, it is estimated that the population in the U.S. will be over 51% people of color by 2040, which results in growing racial diversity in organizations across public, corporate, or civic domains (Jones, 2018). Researchers have shown that leaders with minority identities can help with the retention of employees and staff with minority identities by providing them with mentorship and role modeling (Akutagawa, 2013). Furthermore, diverse leadership can contribute to enhancing multicultural competency that, in turn, benefits the climate of organizations (Jones, 2018).

Diversity in leadership can also produce better solutions to complex problems (Jones, 2018). With expedited globalization and advances of technologies worldwide, the problems facing organizations have been rapidly changing and growing more complicated. Given these

systemic shifts, researchers have pointed out that the homogeneous leadership comprised of the White North American male heterosexual leader prototype cannot effectively work to solve problems. Lack of diversity in leadership is more likely to lead to group thinking, a psychological phenomenon that occurs when groups make problematic decisions while trying to follow a single group norm (Page, 2008). Conversely, diverse leaders can produce better solutions for complicated problems, by enabling each member to apply different cultural lenses and add voices to come up with creative solutions (Page, 2008). This notion is supported by findings among 366 companies across the U.S., Canada, Latin America, and the U.K. showing that each company with leadership in the top quartile for racial/ethnic diversity and for gender diversity were respectively 35% and 15% more likely to have financial returns above their industry median (Hunt, Layton, & Prince, 2015).

More importantly, growing diversity in leadership is an important agenda for underrepresented groups from the perspective of social justice and vocational psychology. From a vantage point of vocational psychology, equity of chances for leadership positions, regardless of social group membership, is vital for career advancement and career mobility, especially for individuals of oppressed groups (Lechner et al., 2018). Social justice can be defined to include a vision of “full and equal participation of all groups in a society that is mutually shaped to meet their needs” (Bell, 1997, p. 3). In this light, one of the ways to realize full and equal participation would be empowering individuals belonging to minority groups to assume leadership, so that they can actively participate in decision making processes to make society better meet their needs. In fact, we have witnessed leaders with minority identities play an important role in leading influential movements pursuing social transformation. Examples include African American communities leading Black Lives Matter, immigrant youths leading the Dreamers

(Kodama & Dugan, 2013a), and high school youths leading Anti-Gun Violence movements (Sisson, 2017). The current spike of anti-Asian hate crime since the COVID pandemic, the murders of six Asian women in Atlanta, and the media's stereotyped portrayal of Asian American women even after these incidents, strongly call for Asian American women leaders to work together to dismantle the status quo, now more than ever.

However, there is a significant gap between the needs for developing diversity in leadership and researchers' attention to the issue. Leadership theories have been silent on incorporating diversity and multiculturalism, often adopting the ethnocentric approach that views leadership as a privilege of elite or mainstream groups (Eagly & Chin, 2010). Fortunately, psychologists have realized the importance of addressing this topic, as this aligns with missions and strengths of the field. For example, *American Psychologist*, one of the major journals in a field of psychology, published a special issue on diversity and leadership in 2010 addressing topics including gender-race intersecting identities' effect on leadership, family-work interface and leadership, and leadership of individuals belonging to sexual minority groups (see Chin, 2010). These studies pointed out that extant studies about diversity and leadership tend to be confined to counting the number of minority leaders (Zweigenhaft & Domhoff, 2006) as opposed to investigating the development of leadership for minorities. In other words, beyond focusing on absence and presence of leaders from minority groups, researchers (Chin, 2013b; Chin & Sanchez-Hucles, 2007) urge the field to examine how identity as a leader intersects with identities in terms of race, gender, ethnicity, religion, sexual orientation, and disability statuses, and how the different cultural experiences of leaders from minority groups impact their exercise of leadership. In response to these calls, investigating the development of leadership for minorities from the perspective of vocational psychology is warranted.

Underrepresentation of Asian American Women in Leadership Positions

Though more women and minorities have been entering into leadership roles in the past few decades, they remain underrepresented in leadership positions (Klenke, 2017). One of those minority groups is Asian American women. Asian American women comprise 3.1 % of the general population of the U.S. (The U.S Census Bureau, 2013), and their numbers are expected to keep increasing, as Asian is the fastest growing demographic group in the U.S. Compared to their share in population, their numbers in leadership positions are disproportionately low. For example, there are only three Asian American women (0.6%) who are Fortune 500 executive officers (LEAP, 2011), and they only make up 0.52% of the total 5,524 board seats at the corporate board level (LEAP, 2013).

This discrepancy becomes even more salient when considering their level of education and their proportions in professional fields. Specifically, 48.4 % of Asian American women who are aged 25 or older hold a bachelor's or higher degree (U.S. Women's Bureau, 2013). Also, 59.1% of Asian American women are in the American workforce and 47.7% of them are employed in highly skilled professions including management, business, sciences and the arts (U.S. Women's Bureau, 2013). Nevertheless, their poor chance of career advancement is staggering. For example, one study (Gee, Peck, & Wong, 2015) revealed that out of 9,254 Asian American women professionals who make up 13.5% of the work force in Silicon Valley, only 36 Asian women were executives (3.1%). Another study found that while the number of women in general increased from 14% to 20% of Bay Area executives from 2008 to 2013, the number of Asian American women executives was nearly unchanged from 1.5% to 1.8% (Gee, Hom, & Anand, 2014). Comparing lower rank versus higher rank positions, Asian American women are five times as likely to be in technical roles as they are to be in management or executive

administration roles, whereas, White women are two times as likely to be in technical roles than in management or executive administrative roles (Gee et al., 2015).

Despite this underrepresentation in leadership positions, Asian American women's leadership experience has received only limited and indirect attention from researchers, influenced by the model minority myth and notion of patriarchal culture (Li, 2014). The model minority myth refers to a belief that Asian Americans are more successful in academic, economic, and social areas than any other racial minority groups because they work hard, value achievement, and believe in social mobility (Yoo, Burrola, & Steger, 2010). This perception is known to mask the Asian American's experiences of ongoing discrimination, explaining the lack of studies on racial discrimination facing those individuals in general. Particularly, this myth assumes that Asian Americans are likely to succeed by quietly remaining in the background and believing the American dream of equality and opportunity for all, rather than reacting to the injustice (Oh, 1992). These beliefs about competent but quiet and docile Asian Americans have contributed to overlooking the underrepresentation of Asian Americans in high ranking executive positions (Leslie, 2009).

In the case of Asian American women, their gender adds one more layer: the stereotype of Asian American women as victims of a patriarchal "traditional" Asian culture has contributed to overlooking the underrepresentation of them in leadership positions (Kawahara, 2007). Most available studies about Asian American women have focused on topics such as familial roles and relationships, cultural values, and mental health outcomes related to body image (Gee et al., 2015; Kawahara, 2007). Those studies address important issues, but we also need to highlight how to facilitate the development of Asian American women in a positive light, beyond the focus on their interpersonal relationship and cultural roles under patriarchy.

Enhancing diversity in leadership is important not only to facilitate career development and social justice for Asian American women, but also to help the entire society benefit from assets of Asian American women's leadership. However, previous leadership studies have not captured Asian American women's leadership development process: they focused on Asian Americans' the lack of leadership self-efficacy and model minority, cultural difference among Asian Americans (Kodama & Dugan, 2019; F. Lee, 2019), or American women's leadership development model, in which the majority of participants identified as white/Caucasian (Baker, Larson, & Surapaneni, 2016; Yeagley, Subich, & Tokar, 2010). Though there have been qualitative studies that revealed the valuable experiences of Asian American women leaders (Kawahara, 2007; Tan, 2008), to my knowledge, there has been no quantitative studies that examined the interplay among cognitive and contextual variables leading to leadership development among Asian American college women. This study aims to fill in the gap by investigating leadership development of Asian American women individuals by using a quantitative approach, utilizing an established career development model and intersectionality approach.

Leadership Intention as a Target Outcome

Career intention has been widely recognized as the precursor of actual career choices and attainments (Lechner, Sortheix, Obschonka, & Salmela-Aro, 2018). Researchers have agreed that career intention is an influential drive in motivating actual career choices and achievements (Ashby & Schoon, 2010; Schoon & Parsons, 2002). When applied to the leadership domain, leadership researchers have defined leadership intention as "motivation to lead" and have shown that it predicts leadership behavior, potential, and performance (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). For example, Stiehl, Felfe, Elprana, and Gatzka (2015)'s longitudinal study showed that individuals

scored higher on leadership intention benefited more from leadership training, which in turn led to developing better leadership behavior and performance after a year.

Notably, leadership intention can be even more important for minorities including Asian American women. Scholars have illuminated the potential role of leadership intention in the underrepresentation of minority groups among leadership positions and in how we can protect leadership intention from contextual barriers such as stereotype threat (Davies, Steele, & Spencer, 2005; Lechner et al., 2018). For example, one experimental study proved that stereotype threat can decrease women's aspirations on a subsequent leadership task, while identity safety can protect their leadership task aspiration from stereotype threat (Davies et al., 2005). Specifically, leadership intention has been salient as a significant factor in Asian American women's leadership development. Qualitative studies with Asian American women leaders identified their wisdom and strategies including their owning leadership intention. Leadership intention was manifested as having a lifetime vision to make a difference as a leader, taking on challenges and struggles, and having the agency to deal with racism as well as acquiring skills such as bicultural competency and certain leadership styles (Kawahara, Esnil, & Hsu, 2007; Liang & Peters-Hawkins, 2017).

This study investigates what drives the develop of leadership intentions in college students who self-identify as Asian American women. Because this study is interested in leadership development rather than leadership performance, examining the shaping process of leadership intention from the life stage before landing a job seems relevant. Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994) have suggested that one's career development to leadership positions may be shaped from an early age. Emerging adulthood is relevant as this is the life stage where individuals are exploring and clarifying their career identity. Similarly, Nauta and Epperson

(2003) found that college women's cognitive representations about leadership in the field of science, math and engineering (SME) were associated with their plans to become a leader in the SME field four years later. Focusing on college students also aligns with the fact that one of outcomes of high education is leadership development (Kodama & Dugan, 2019).

However, most extant leadership literature about Asian American women has been focused on revealing the struggles and learning experiences of Asian American women who have already achieved leadership positions (Kawahara, 2007; Kawahara et al., 2007; Liang & Peters-Hawkins, 2017). To fill the gap, this study will examine what factors predict leadership intention for Asian American female college students.

In this current study, I define leadership intention as the combination of a career intention to pursue a leadership role in their occupation, and a behavioral intention to engage in a certain leadership action or series of "leadership actions" (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Leadership literatures' definition of leadership intention as people's motivation to engage in leading behavior may not fully capture career intention/aspiration to pursue leadership roles in the career path among individuals in their early career development stage, such as college students. To integrate vocational psychology's definition of career intention into leadership intentions' motivation to lead, I will use two scales to measure this variable: (1) a scale for leadership intention (motivation to engage in activities) and (2) a scale for career aspiration for leadership role.

Social Cognitive Career Theory as a Framework

Social cognitive career theory (SCCT; Lent et al., 1994; 2000) provides a rich and useful framework to illuminate the complex interplay of internal factors and external factors in predicting career outcomes like leadership intentions. By proposing that self-efficacy (beliefs

about personal capabilities) and outcome expectations (beliefs about the outcomes of engaging in particular courses of action) are important in developing individuals' career interest and goals, SCCT shows how individuals can assert agency in their own career development. Researchers have shown that self-efficacy and outcome expectation is a good predictor of students' interests, goals, persistence, and performance, especially for college students pursuing engineering and science majors (Lent, Brown, et al., 2005). Further, SCCT posits that contextual supports and barriers will directly influence career-related choices while overriding people's career self-efficacy or interest (Lent et al., 2003) and indirectly by informing cognitive variables (e.g., self-efficacy and outcome expectations) (Lent, Singley, et al., 2005).

The SCCT model is useful in predicting leadership intention through the interplay between contextual and cognitive factors. Researchers have suggested that the key cognitive factors of the SCCT model such as self-efficacy and outcome expectations may shape young women's paths to leadership positions from an early age (Lips, 2001; Nauta & Epperson, 2003). However, a few studies applied SCCT to predict leadership intention. For example, Baker, Larson, and Surapaneni (2016) utilized the SCCT model to elucidate direct and indirect relationships between a personality trait named social potency and leadership intentions through leadership self-efficacy and leadership interest among female college women. Yeagley, Subich, and Tokar (2010) also used SCCT to predict undergraduate women's elite leadership goals by internal factors such as elite leadership self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests. Good model fits from those studies indicate that this framework can be well applied to the present study.

In addition, SCCT provided a way to examine interactions among background contextual affordance, contextual barriers and supports, and individuals' cognitive factors, which are

especially influential for marginalized groups. For example, SCCT was used to test the role of environmental supports and barriers among students at Historically Black universities as compared to predominantly White universities (Lent, Brown, et al., 2005), among transition youth with epilepsy (Sung & Connor, 2017) and among sexual minority populations (Tatum, 2018). More specifically, SCCT has shown a high utility in predicting Asian Americans' career interests and goals, influenced by cultural factors including ethnic identity, living up to parental expectations, parental pressure and support, and internalized stereotypes (Hui & Lent, 2018; Kelly, Gunsalus, & Gunsalus, 2009; Roysircar, Carey, & Koroma, 2010; Y. Shen, Kim, Wang, & Chao, 2014). Here I will use this framework to examine impacts of contextual barriers and supports on Asian American women's cognitive factors toward leadership intention.

Intersectionality as a Framework

To conceptualize contextual barriers and supports experienced by Asian American women in the SCCT model, this study will use an intersectionality approach because of the limitations in the traditional separate analysis of contextual factors. When studying contextual factors that influence Asian American women's career advances, researchers traditionally investigated two separate glass ceiling effects, defined as an invisible barrier that qualified individuals belonging to minoritized groups face when advancing their career beyond a certain level (Upadhyay, 2014) related to gender (women) and racial (Asian American) identities. With a focus on gender, some researchers have shown that women's low representation ratio in higher level leadership still remains amazingly low, despite the fact that women participation in the labor force in general and also in supervisory and middle management leadership roles are increasing dramatically (Yeagley et al., 2010). For example, in 2016, while women were 48% at the first and mid-level officials and managers, they held only 26.5% of executive/senior level

officials and managers, 21.2% of board seats and only 5.2% of CEO in Fortune 500 companies (Catalyst, 2019). Other researchers highlighted race, by addressing a “bamboo ceiling” that refers to a glass ceiling effects specific to Asian American individuals (Li, 2014). For example, while Asian Americans comprise over 10% of graduates of the top 30 law schools, their ratio of associates to partners is 3.70. In contrast, African Americans, Latinos, and Whites showed the ratio of 2.22, 1.92, and 0.86 respectively (Gee & Peck, 2018). Similarly 9.8% of the federal professional workforce was Asian American, but they comprise only 4.4% of the workforce is at the highest federal level (Gee & Peck, 2018).

However, summing the two glass ceiling effects cannot sufficiently tackle the contextual barriers Asian American women face (Li, 2014). Their experiences of combined racism and sexism are unique, calling for the use of the framework of intersectionality. The framework of intersectionality explains how intertwining systems of oppression affect oppressed groups regarding diverse social identities encompassing race, gender, class, sexual orientation, disability, and religion (Crenshaw, 1989). To responsibly use an intersectionality approach as an attempt to dismantle the dynamics of multiple independent forces power and privilege, it is necessary to understand its theoretical roots in work of Black feminist and women of color social justice activists and scholars (Moradi & Grzanka, 2017)

As one of the first scholars to consider this topic, Crenshaw (1989) argued that Black women’s experiences of the unique combination of sexism and racism were marginalized by those tackling racism and sexism as separate matters in U.S. law and in antiracist and feminist activism because single categorical axis limits the topics of investigation to the experiences of otherwise-privileged membership identities. In other words, Black men’s experiences of racism and White women’s experiences of sexism becomes the norms of discrete oppressions, though

they only represent part of the much more complex phenomenon. This failure of considering intersectional identities entailed excluding black women's experiences from conceptualization, identification, and remediation of racism and sexism. That means, the mainstream movement against sexism failed to address Black women's unique experiences of discrimination including sexual violence committed by White men, and Black female-headed households' difficulties. Furthermore, lack of intersectional consideration in the legal system resulted in legal injustice. For example, a suit against General Motors alleging discrimination against Black women was rejected because the company had hired White women previously (Crenshaw, 1989). Parallel with Black women's distinct experience from White women or Black men, Asian American women's experiences are also unique from Asian men or White women which I will discuss further in the next section.

Contextual Supports and Barriers

According to Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2000), contextual supports and barriers may impact individual's career goals during the active process of career decision making. Lent and Brown (2000) posited that the structural discrimination, parents' encouragement of certain occupations, access to role models and mentors. The Initial SCCT conceptualized that contextual supports and barriers directly influence career goals/intentions (Lent et al., 1994). However, based on empirical studies' findings, contextual barriers and supports are currently known to both indirectly and directly give impact on one's career goals/intentions (Sheu et al., 2010).

Contextual Supports: Role Model Influence

I have chosen Asian American female leaders' role model influence as a first contextual support variable which makes both direct and indirect influence on leadership intention by shaping leadership self-efficacy. Access to role models or mentors was conceptualized as one

dimension of contextual support variables along with social support and encouragement from family and friends, instrumental assistance, and financial resources (Lent et al., 2001, 2000).

Based on this theory, I examined the influence of Asian American women identified role model for two reasons.

First, role model influence is an impactful factor in career intention, especially for individuals belonging to minority groups. Overall, positive role model influence is known to inspire and motivate individuals. For example, Hackett and Betz (1981) posited that role models teach individuals how to make career decisions and to enact career behaviors. Beyond teaching, Jung (1986) suggested that role models may inspire individuals to assume certain roles. Of note, role models' effectiveness on individuals' motivation can vary, depending on the extent to which the role model is relevant to the individual so that they can identify with the role model (Collins, 1996). That means, that for minority individuals who may find it hard to identify with leadership role models in general, role models' relevance becomes even more crucial (Buck, Clark, Leslie-Pelecky, Lu, & Cerda-Lizarraga, 2008). This is because successful role models disconfirm the negative stereotypes and suggest that career success for such minority individuals is attainable, which in turn can help protect the individuals from the threatening effects of stereotypes (Marx, Ko, & Friedman, 2009). For example, to women, female career role models are more inspiring because women can identify with them (Lockwood, 2006).

Second, Asian American women identified role model influence fits the framework of intersectionality, as it examines unique impacts of Asian American women role models, as opposed to Asian American role models or women role models, as Asian American women struggle to find role models in leadership domain. In fact, the Ascend Pan-Asian Leaders group indicated that lack of leadership role models, as well as a cultural mismatch between Asian and

western leadership norms, perpetuate the Western stereotypic perception that Asians are poor at leadership (F. Lee, 2019). Given that role model influence can buffer stigmatized individuals' performances from threatening stereotypes in male-dominant work fields (Marx et al., 2009), Asian American women leadership role models can buffer young female Asian American adults from the threatening effect of the negative stereotypes which portray them as not a good match for a leadership roles.

Therefore, in this study, the influence of role models identifying as Asian American women in leadership positions will be examined as one of the contextual support. Based on the SCCT, I hypothesized the role model influence both directly and indirectly impact Asian American college women's leadership intention.

Contextual Supports: Family Support for Leadership

I chose family support for leadership as another contextual support variable for explaining Asian American women's leadership intentions. Researchers have agreed on the crucial role of family support in Asian Americans' career development. Previous studies have shown that family involvement or family support impacts Asian American students' career choices, usually measured by traditionality of occupation choice based on Holland themes (Leong & Serafica, 1995; King, Mendoza, Madera, Hebl, & Knight, 2006, Kayi et al., 2018). In the leadership domain, it is hard to spot quantitative studies that examined family support's influence on leadership intention, but qualitative studies have revealed that family support played an important role in Asian American women participants' narrative about leadership. For example, some participants shared that they grew up seeing their parents taking a leadership role in business or social activism which translated into a belief in family's implicit support for leadership (Lo, 2011; Louie, 2000) and other participants revealed that parents' value of helping

others, believing in women's education, parents' accomplishments, and work ethic have cultivated participants' motivation for pursuing leadership (Louie, 2000).

Therefore, it is reasonable that perceived family support for leadership is likely to positively impact participants' leadership intention as a proximal environmental factor. This could indirectly influence Asian American women's leadership intention through cognitive variables including leadership self-efficacy and outcome expectations, and it could also directly impact participants' leadership intention.

Contextual Barriers: Gendered Racial Microaggressions

Lent and his colleagues (2001) conceptualized perceived contextual barriers to include gender and race discrimination (e.g., receiving unfair treatment due to one's gender) in addition to social influences and financial/instructional barriers. They suggested that during periods of active choice making, those kinds of discrimination may directly influence people's choice options by overriding personal career ambitions (Lent et al, 2001), and, indirectly, by informing self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Lent et al, 2005). I examined gendered racial microaggressions Asian American women uniquely experience based on stereotypes characterized by submissiveness, femininity, and sexualization (Keum et al., 2018), as contextual barriers that both directly and indirectly influence leadership intention.

Gendered racial microaggressions, the interlocking forms of racism and sexism against Asian American women have started to garner attention as a significant predictor of mental health outcomes including striking rates of suicide (McKenzie, Serfaty, & Crawford, 2003; Noh, 2007), suicidal behaviors (Chung, 2004) and eating disorders (Sahi Iyer & Haslam, 2003) among Asian American women. To better tackle the uniquely harmful intersectional oppression that Asian American women face, the Gendered Racial Microaggression Scale was developed,

consisting of four subscales: (a) ascription of submissiveness, (b) assumption of universal appearance, (c) Asian Fetishism, and (d) media invalidation (Keum et al., 2018).

Gendered racial microaggression can be a significant contextual barrier that impacts Asian American women's leadership outcomes both directly and indirectly through deterring self-efficacy. This is supported by several findings about Asian American women's unique experiences of being marginalized from leadership roles. For example, Tinkler, Zhao, Li, and Ridgeway (2019) used an experimental design to examine undergraduate student participants' rating of leadership suitability, agency, likability, and interpersonal ability of hypothetical leadership candidates who differ in behavioral style (dominant vs communal), gender, and race (White vs Asian). The result showed that participants evaluated Asian American women candidates as the least fit for leadership regardless of their behavioral styles, indicating that gendered racial stereotypes influenced participants' judgment, and served as barriers directly impacting Asian American women's leadership, in a way that is not necessarily mediated through their self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Likewise, qualitative studies with Asian American women leaders revealed that they had to struggle with gender, racial-ethnic, and cultural discrimination (Liang & Peters-Hawkins, 2017), and/or blended racism and sexism (Kawahara et al., 2007) at the phase of decision-making and engaging in leadership related behaviors, as a proximal influence.

More specifically, gendered racial microaggression may undermine leadership intention or aspirations of Asian American women through multivariant relationships. A useful concept for explaining the influence mechanism is a stereotype threat which refers to the stigmatized group's risk of being treated in terms of, or being judged by, negative stereotypes, which can evoke a disruptive state among the group (Davies et al., 2005). Stereotypes about Asian

American women that lead to gendered racial microaggressions are the opposite of traditional assumptions about leaders invoking the stereotype of heterosexual White men with elite backgrounds as prototypical leaders (Eagly & Chin, 2010): Attributes of high submissiveness, femininity, and foreignness are incompatible with general expectations of a leader who is assertive, masculine, and dominant (Chen, 1999; Ho & Jackson, 2001). This negative stereotype for Asian American women which does not match the stereotyped image of leadership may threaten Asian American women's motivation to pursue leadership during the decision-making phase of their careers. Thus, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that the gendered racial microaggression will operate as a contextual barrier for young Asian American women to develop a leadership intention both directly or indirectly through self-efficacy and outcome expectations.

Relations Among Contextual Variables

Contextual supports and barriers have consistently been found to be negatively correlated (Lent et al., 2001, 2003; Lent, Brown, et al., 2005). They interpreted the result that supports and barriers are inversely related but distinct concepts, to suggest that certain supports might compensate for certain barriers, or vice versa. Based on this, gendered racial microaggressions as contextual barriers will be negatively correlated with both role model influence and family support for leadership, conceptualized as contextual supports according to Lent and Brown (2000)'s SCCT model.

I will hypothesize that role model influence and family support for leadership will be positively correlated. In Lent et al. (2001), social support and encouragement, a relevant notion with family support for leadership in current study, and access to role models or mentors, which is similar with role model influence, constitute a support scale as distinct conceptual clusters. It

also makes sense to expect a positive relation between family support and role model influence, when considering that family culture might play an important role in shaping learning experiences, including one's exposure to leadership role models.

SCCT Mediator: Leadership Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy can be conceptualized as domain-specific expectations that an individual has about her abilities to complete tasks that are related to a specific goal (Bandura, 1977, 1986). In the SCCT, self-efficacy impacts outcome expectation, which refers to the costs and benefits one perceives for a specific behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986). As a whole, self-efficacy gives both direct and indirect influence via outcome expectations on one's interests and intentions that are related to a specific goal. Longitudinal study supports self-efficacy's precedence over outcome expectations (Lent et al., 2008). Given that self-efficacy is specific to a domain, I will use leadership self-efficacy, which can be conceptualized as an individual's internal beliefs in their knowledge, skills, and abilities to engage in leadership (Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008).

Leadership self-efficacy is crucial not only because it strongly predicts leadership outcomes, but also because Asian American women seem to need it. Leadership self-efficacy has been associated with higher leadership capacities, aspirations, and willingness to lead (Dugan & Komives, 2010). To put this another way, those who have a greater self-belief in their leadership abilities are more likely to enact leadership. Previous studies of Asian Americans have indicated that their low leadership self-efficacy might be the reason for low intention. Studies on Asian American college students consistently showed that leadership self-efficacy and socially responsible leadership capacity are low among Asian Americans (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Kodama & Dugan, 2013a). In comparison with other racial groups, Asian American students

were the least likely to identify themselves as leaders and felt the most marginalized from leadership (Balon, 2004). Even students who were highly actively engaged on campus, whom others would consider “student leaders,” reported low leadership identification (Balon, 2004; Kwon, 2009). In fact, after controlling for leadership self-efficacy, Asian American’s previously measured low levels of socially responsible leadership capacity disappeared, which means leadership self-efficacy and leadership capacity are intertwined but distinct constructs (Kodama & Dugan, 2013a). This is consistent with previous studies in a business field, that Asian American may not have lower leadership capacity, but lower leadership confidence (Akutagawa, 2013). Therefore, leadership self-efficacy seems crucial in predicting Asian American women’s leadership intentions.

Previous studies have lent support to leadership self-efficacy’s role as a mediator in the effects of contextual barriers and supports on the leadership intention, based on the SCCT model. Leadership self-efficacy of ethnic minorities was found to enhance when multiculturalism policy was implemented to make the climate more inclusive (Gündemir, Carton, & Homan, 2019). For college students as well, leadership supports such as leadership training and mentoring, along with successful experiences such as taking part in student organizations, participating in sociocultural conversations, and holding elected leadership positions in college can have positive influences on leadership self-efficacy (Kodama & Dugan, 2019). By combining the findings about contextual support’s effect on leadership self-efficacy (Gündemir, Dovidio, Homan, & De Dreu, 2017; Kodama & Dugan, 2019) and leadership self-efficacy’s effect on leadership outcome (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Paglis, 2010), one can assume that leadership self-efficacy would be a mediator of the relationship between contextual support and leadership intention.

Moreover, leadership self-efficacy may be negatively affected by gendered racial microaggression, as its stereotype of Asian American women as highly submissive and feminine are the opposite of the general stereotype of leaders as masculine and dominant (Chen, 1999; Ho & Jackson, 2001). In fact, previous studies about stereotypes and women leadership have revealed that even women may adopt negative beliefs of female leaders (Dasgupta & Asgari, 2004). Because gendered racial microaggression is based on stereotypes as well as invalidation experienced as Asian American women living in the U.S (Keum et al., 2018), it seems reasonable to hypothesize that gendered racial microaggression will affect leadership self-efficacy through the process of internalizing the negative message. Given the leadership self-efficacy's effect on leadership intention (Dugan & Komives, 2010; Paglis, 2010), leadership self-efficacy may mediate the relationship between gendered racial microaggression and leadership intention.

Because leadership self-efficacy is largely shaped by learning experiences according to the SCCT and Bandura's theory, I will take account of prior leadership experiences as a control variable for self-efficacy. As our study aims to understand the relations between contextual supports and barriers on self-efficacy, it would be important to measure the prior leadership experiences so that we can account for its effect on self-efficacy.

SCCT Mediator: Leadership Outcome Expectation

The leadership outcome expectation is another influential factor according to the SCCT model, as it mediates the relationship between contextual factors and leadership self-efficacy to leadership interest and leadership intention. Specifically for gender, researchers showed that there may be gender differences between the level of outcome expectation. For example, when asked to imagine themselves in a series of leadership roles (e.g., political leader, scientific

researcher, and CEO) and to respond to “what it would be like,” female college students were more likely than male college students to report relationship problems, which were also associated with their lower aspirations (Lips, 2001). The subsequent study assessed outcome expectations of leadership positions in male and female and found that though both expected positive outcomes, men perceived more positive outcomes than did women counterparts in terms of starting and maintaining a close relationship while in a leadership position (Killeen, López-Zafra, & Eagly, 2006). These findings of gender differences indicate that leadership outcome expectations of Asian American women may be affected by the combined stereotype associated with gender and race.

SCCT Mediator: Leadership Interests

In leadership literature, it is clear that leadership interest increases motivation for engagement and persistence in learning, thus preparing individuals to benefit optimally from leadership development (Avolio & Hannah, 2009). Particularly for emerging leaders who would need to take proactive steps to facilitate their leadership development, leadership interest is crucial to long-term success (Steele & Day, 2020). This supports the importance of leadership interest in this study that focuses on Asian American young women’s leadership development.

According to the SCCT model, career interests are hypothesized to be molded by self-efficacy and outcome expectations about particular tasks and they are believed to shape career goals or intentions (Lent et al., 1994). When the SCCT model is applied to the leadership domain, leadership interest can be hypothesized as the third mediator, following leadership self-efficacy and leadership outcome expectation, between contextual factors and leadership intentions. Empirically, there have been mixed findings about the mediating role of leadership interest between leadership self-efficacy and leadership intention among studies using the SCCT

model. Yeagley et al. (2010) found that elite leadership interests significantly and fully mediated the effect of elite leadership self-efficacy on elite leadership goals among female college students. In addition, elite leadership interest partially mediated the effect of outcome expectations on elite leadership goals. Inconsistent with this finding, Baker et al. (2016) showed that leadership interest did not mediate the effect of leadership self-efficacy on leadership intention among female college students. It is notable that both previous studies did not include contextual factors as exogenous variables. This study will take contextual barriers and supports into consideration and clarify the role of leadership interest in the full picture: I will test whether leadership interest mediates the effect of contextual barriers and supports, leadership self-efficacy, and outcome expectation on the leadership intention.

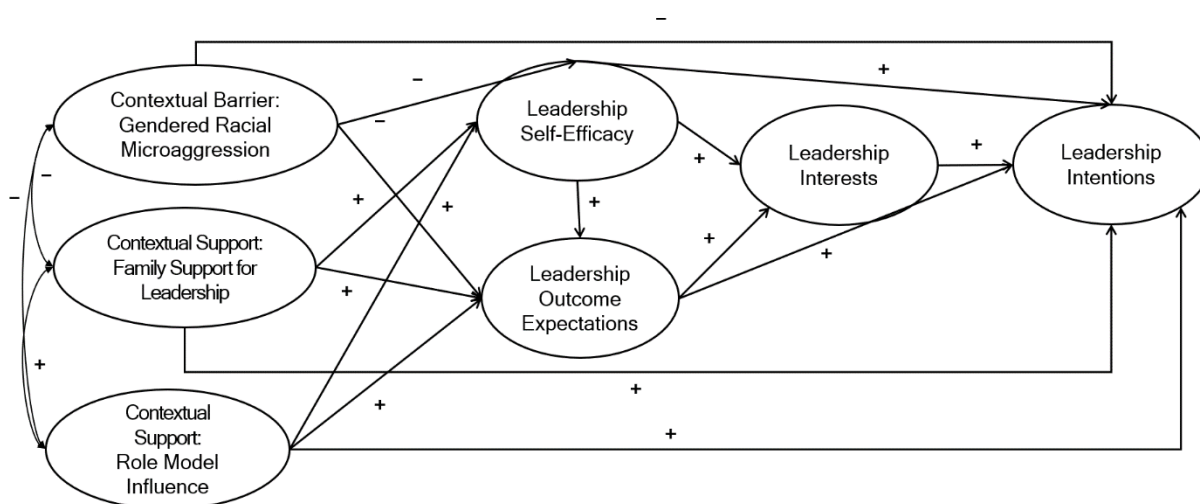
Summary of Hypotheses

Overall, this study aims to examine the interplay among contextual supports and barriers and cognitive variables (leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations, leadership interests) in predicting leadership intentions of Asian American women in college, using the established social cognitive career theory model (SCCT, see Figure 1). I believe the findings will guide future research and intervention for promoting Asian American women's leadership development, in an effort to contribute to social equity by tackling a serious underrepresentation of Asian American women in leadership positions. My hypotheses are as below.

1. Gendered racial microaggression (i.e., contextual barriers) will be negatively associated with leadership intention through direct and indirect paths via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest.

2. Role model influence (i.e., contextual supports) will be positively associated with leadership intention through both direct and indirect paths via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest.
3. Family support for leadership (contextual supports) will be positively associated with leadership intention both direct and indirect paths via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest.
4. Role model influence and family support for leadership will be inversely covaried with and gendered racial microaggressions. Role model influence will be positively covaried with family support for leadership.

Figure 1. A Hypothesized Conceptual Model



Note. Prior leadership experience is controlled for leadership self-efficacy but this is not shown. “+” sign = a positive relation; “-” sign = a negative relation.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a comprehensive literature review of theoretical frameworks and key variables in this study. It begins with a description of the two frameworks: Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) and intersectionality in relation to Asian American women's career issues. Next, I will review empirical studies on each of the key variables including role model influence, family support for leadership, gendered racial microaggressions, leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations, leadership interests, and leadership intentions. In particular, previous studies on young women's leadership intention that utilized SCCT will be highlighted.

Theoretical Framework: SCCT

The current study utilizes SCCT's model of person, contextual and experiential factors affecting career-related interest, and choice proposed by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994; 2000), with a focus on background contextual affordance and contextual barriers and supports as proximal to choice behaviors. SCCT highlights the dynamic interplay among key cognitive-person variables in predicting individuals' career interest and choice, in line with the basic idea of social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986). Notably, career choice goal here is conceptualized as the intention to implement a particular or series of action and/or career paths that one selects, as opposed to performance goal or choice actions. Career choice goals are modeled to promote the choice actions. Because the present study addresses leadership intention as a choice goal, I will

focus my review of the model on the part in which person, context, and cognitive variables affect choice goals, and not include the choice actions.

The model proposes that self-efficacy and outcome expectations jointly shape interests, which in turn give rise to career choice goals. In addition to impacting career choice indirectly through interests, self-efficacy is viewed as affecting the choice indirectly via outcome expectations and exerting a direct effect on choice. Outcome expectations are also proposed to influence the choice directly (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). In this way, the model acknowledges that self-efficacy or outcome expectation may override interest in shaping career choice.

In addition, SCCT models how individuals are asserting their agency in the interaction with their contextual variables (e.g., culture, support systems, barriers) in their process of career development. The original SCCT model (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000) conceptualizes contextual factors in two ways depending on how they influence the career choice-making process: (1) Background Contextual Affordances, and (2) Contextual Influences Proximal to Choice Behavior. Contextual affordances mean distal background environmental factors that shape one's learning experiences growing up, which, in turn, promote career-relevant self-efficacy and outcome expectations, leading to goal intentions (Lent et al 2003). Contextual Influences Proximal to Choice Behavior refers to contextual factors that are influential during the time of career choice making. For example, external barriers (e.g., discrimination) and support systems (e.g., family support, access to role models and mentors, financial support) can be categorized as proximal contextual influences. In the model, they are postulated to directly affect career choice goals, or to moderate interest-goal relation. (Lent et al., 1994, 2000). Between these two groups of contextual influences, proximal contextual influences have garnered more

attention by examining effects of contextual support and barriers, compared to contextual affordances that impact through learning experiences.

While the SCCT model viewed contextual supports and barriers as direct effects on goals, Bandura (2000) posited that contextual supports and barriers may link with choices mediated by self-efficacy. He believes that contextual variables impact self-efficacy beliefs directly during the active stage of making choices, as well as indirectly, which in turn lead to choice goals.

To test how contextual supports and barriers exert effects on career choice, several empirical studies were conducted. For example, Lent et al. (2001) tested the model predicting math-related choice with 111 college students (51% were White) and found that a model hypothesizing barriers and support as related to choice goals indirectly, better fit the data than did a model that portrayed barriers and supports as directly related to choice. Another example is the Lent et al. (2003) study about predicting choice goals and action in engineering major with 328 college students (63% were White). The study also compared model fit of the direct models proposed by SCCT in which contextual variables relate to choice goals directly, with the mediated models proposed by Bandura (1999, 2000) in which contextual variables' relation to goals and actions are mediated by self-efficacy. It revealed that the mediated model offered a better fit to the data, compared with the direct model. However, paths from self-efficacy to action, from outcome expectations to interests, goals, actions, and from supports and barriers to goals were not significant. The researchers concluded that supports and barriers related to choice goals were fully mediated by self-efficacy. It was consistent with Lent et al. (2003)'s study on Italian high school students' occupational consideration.

Later, not only self-efficacy but also outcome expectations were regarded as mediators between contextual support and barriers and career goals. Though the SCCT original model did

not propose that supports and barriers link with outcome expectations, they found that contextual variables can be framed as process expectations and thus associated with outcome expectations (Lent et al., 2000). Swanson, Daniels and Tokar (1995) further argued that the relationship between contextual variables and outcome expectations may be causal. They asserted that because outcome expectations are related to questions such as, “What will happen if I do this?” barriers may directly affect outcome expectations.

To empirically test the SCCT interest choice model with contextual supports and barriers, Sheu and colleagues (2010) synthesized research published from 1981 to 2008 on the SCCT model in predicting choice goals across Holland’s occupational themes (Holland, 1997) and conducted a meta-analytic path analysis. The meta-analyses result generally corroborated the SCCT’s interest-choice model across Holland themes, but it also suggested that the specific role of contextual supports and barriers in relation to career choice goals may differ from original SCCT models. The findings indicate that supports and barriers show both direct paths to choice goals as well as indirect paths via both self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Specifically, direct path coefficients from supports and barriers to goals were small or non-significant, whereas indirect path coefficients from contextual variables to self-efficacy and outcome expectations were significant with small to moderate effect size.

In sum, based on empirical studies on the SCCT choice and interest model, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that contextual supports and barriers produce both direct and indirect effects via self-efficacy and outcome expectation on choice goals. In other words, the present study will utilize the modified model which has additional indirect paths from contextual supports (role model influence, family support for leadership), and barriers (gendered racial microaggressions) to intentions, based on findings of existing empirical studies. In addition, I

will take into account prior leadership experiences as a control variable for self-efficacy.

According to the original SCCT and Bandura's view, learning experiences largely shape self-efficacy. Because our study aims to understand the relations between contextual supports and barriers on self-efficacy, it is important to measure the prior leadership experience so that we can account for its effect on self-efficacy.

Next, I will move on to examine whether SCCT can be validly applied to Asian American women. I will review three empirical studies that integrated SCCT with cultural factors to capture Asian Americans' experience. There has been inconsistency reported in the interest-choice relation for Asian American, especially the role of interests (e.g., Leong & Chou, 1994; Leong & Gupta, 2007; Leong & Serafica, 1995). However, recent studies are generally consistent that SCCT variables including career interest seem to play important roles in Asian Americans' career goals as well .

Kelly, Gunsalus, and Gunsalus (2009) examined the role of ethnic identity, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and career interests in predicting choice intentions for science and nonscience careers among Korean American male and female college students by using hierarchical regression analyses. The results indicated that ethnic identity indirectly influences goal intentions through outcome expectation. Outcome expectations and career interests explained a moderate to large amount of variance both in science and non-science career intention. Self-efficacy's effects on science career goal intentions were mediated by career interests rather than directly explaining career goals. The authors conclude that SCCT can be used for Korean American students' career goal development, when integrated with cultural factors. The limitation of this study is that it used hierarchical regression analyses so it could not

test the SCCT model, and it may not be generalizable to various ethnic groups of Asian Americans other than Korean Americans.

Shen, Liao, Abraham, and Weng (2014) tested the SCCT model to explain the Asian American college students, including both undergraduate and graduate students' interests in stereotypical occupations and the role of culture specific variables (i.e., Living Up to Parental Expectations and Internalized Asian American Stereotyping). Authors reported that living up to parental expectations and internalized stereotyping partially mediated the relations between parental pressure and self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests in stereotypical occupations. Also, living up to parental expectations fully mediated the relations between parental support and self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests. The limitation of this study is that it treated self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests as distinct dependent variables rather than modeling their relationships according to the SCCT model.

Hui and Lent (2018) found that a social cognitive model of career interests and choice with cultural factors accounted for considerable amount of variance of Asian American college students' career consideration in the Holland I theme and S themes, consistent with meta-analysis results of college students across diverse gender and race groups (Sheu et al., 2010). In terms of cultural factors added to the model, family support, one of the culture specific factors, showed a significant relation to Asian American's career choice, mediated by self-efficacy and/or outcome expectations and interests. Interest was the strongest predictor of choice consideration in both themes, regardless of levels of acculturation level. However, adherence to Asian cultural values was not related to career choice goals directly or indirectly. The finding also shows that gender plays a role in Asian American college students' career choices between

domains traditionally considered for men versus women, though effect size was small and only partly mediated by social cognitive pathways.

The existing studies indicate that SCCT can be a valid framework for examining Asian American's career goal development when integrated with cultural factors, though there are mixed findings about specific interactions among cognitive variables. Building on the implications of these previous studies, the present study will utilize the SCCT model with cultural factors for Asian American women incorporated. I will also expand the scope of the career outcome variable beyond career choice in stereotypical/non-stereotypical occupations by investigating leadership intention, which is an important variable for career advancement after initial career choices.

Theoretical Framework: Intersectionality

Intersectionality refers to analytic approaches that regard the meaning and consequences of multiple categories of social group membership (i.e., race, gender, class, sexual identities, disability status, etc.) simultaneously (Cole, 2009). The history of the concept of intersectionality has deep roots in Black feminist scholar-activists' endeavors from as early as the 19th Century. For example, Black male leaders were urged to incorporate sex oppression to their race-based agenda and DuBois exhorted the U.S. community party to incorporate race oppression to the class-based agenda (Cole, 2009). Among other scholars who criticized isolating race or gender as the primary category, Crenshaw originated the term intersectionality, arguing that "because the intersectional experience is greater than the sum of racism and sexism, any analysis that does not take intersectionality into account cannot sufficiently address the particular matter in which Black women are subordinated." (Crenshaw, 1989, p. 140).

As intersectionality has been increasingly utilized recently, Cole (2015) and Moradi and Grzanka (2017) pointed out that in responsible stewardship it is essential to utilize intersectional approaches to address social inequalities and oppressions and to reflect the social justice values. Cole (2015) posed three questions to guide in incorporating intersectionality into research as follows: “Who is included within this category? What role does inequality play? Where are their similarities (Cole, 2009, p. 176)?” Borrowing Cole’s framing of responsible stewardship, Moradi and Grzanka (2017) also proposed guidelines along three major conceptualizations of intersectionality as a field of study, as an analytic strategy, and as critical praxis. The authors emphasized that those who use the concept of intersectionality should acknowledge its interdisciplinary roots in Black feminist activism and contemporary feminist thought, while focusing their analysis on power dynamic/social structure with the aim fomenting activism toward social justice. Specifically, the authors call for naming a focus on people’s experiences of power (oppression and privilege) associated with multiple social memberships jointly, rather than using “intersecting identities.” In terms of research method, the authors advocate for using a measure that operationalizes unique experiences of discriminations shaped by intersections of multiple power axes associated with social group memberships. Lastly, authors argue that research based on intersectionality should envision scholarship as movements for social change during the research process and as a result of it.

Following Cole (2015) and Moradi and Grzanka (2017)’s guidelines, the present study tries to manifest an intersectional approach in three ways. First, this study looks at Asian American women’s experience of intersections of racism and sexism. The foundation for understanding of the population is borrowed from the contribution of Black feminist/activists’

work on unique oppression associated with the intersection of race and gender that Black women face.

Furthermore, this study endeavors to utilize measures that were originally developed from the intersectionality lens and it harnesses existing measures to capture the experiences of individuals beyond single-axis constructs. For example, the Gendered Racial Microaggression Scale for Asian American Women Asian is a scale that conceptualizes unique experiences of the combination of sexism against women and racism against Asians. As to the other measures which were developed and validated based on dominant groups' participants (e.g., White), I modified the items to capture the unique experiences of Asian American women as needed. When that was not possible, I cautiously acknowledge concerns about the limitations of the measures' validity for the study of Asian Women. See the chapter on Methods.

Finally, in line with envisioning scholarship as social change, the current study intentionally aims to contribute to empowering Asian American women, by focusing on the leadership intention of a marginalized population as an outcome variable. Existing studies on Asian American women tend to address concerns such as eating disorders, depression, or stereotyped career decisions. Although those studies are meaningful by narrowing the health inequity, it is worthwhile to look at measures of agency and resiliency, such as leadership, that will drive social change on their own. I believe it is especially timely and relevant as we are facing Anti-Asian hatred during the Covid 19 pandemic.

Intersectionality and Leadership

In this section, I will review how intersectionality impacts Asian American women's leadership experiences. Given the scarcity of quantitative studies on intersectionality and

leadership, many of the relevant studies I will review are qualitative studies and perspective papers that provide valuable insights.

Chin and Sanchez-Hucles (2007) raised the issue of the importance of attending to diversity in leadership research. They warn that defining and portraying leadership based on the majority White males who hold leadership positions now may result in incomplete and biased understanding of leadership, which in turn burdens woman and minorities in two ways: forcing them to adapt characteristics of mainstream leadership norms and at the same time expecting them to show behaviors consistent with stereotypes based on their social membership.

Likewise, Ayman and Korabik (2010) argued that the joint effects of gender and culture should be considered as important in the understanding of leadership. In their literature review, they show that leadership varies as a function of either gender or culture, rather than being a universal construct. They conclude that both gender and culture influence three levels of processes: intrapsychic, social structural, and interpersonal. They say that gender and culture operate in a symbiotic relationship and also have parallel dynamics. For example, both gender and culture can be moderators in the relationship between leadership behaviors and outcomes. They call for embracing the intersectionality of gender and race in order to understand the leadership process. Furthermore, they say that implicit and explicit stereotyping and discrimination against both sex and culture should be studied as an important impact on leadership.

In fact, qualitative and quantitative studies corroborated the impacts of interlocking power and oppression associated with gender and race in leadership development. For example, Chin (2013a)'s survey study investigated the endorsement of leadership dimensions and the influence of gender and racial/ethnicity on the leadership practices of leaders from five different

racial/ethnic and gender groups. It was found that women leaders perceive that their gender influenced their leadership exercise more than men did. Interaction between gender identity and racial identity in the exercise of leadership were found significant, indicating that the intersectionality of gender and race needs to be included in understanding the leadership experiences. Interestingly, intersecting minority membership statuses associated with lived experiences were perceived not only as challenges but also as strengths.

Specifically for Asian American women, Kawahara, Esnil, and Hsu (2007) questioned the perpetuated portrayal of Asian American women “as feminine, passive, apologetic, exotic, submissive, apolitical, or victims of a patriarchal traditional Asian culture. (p.18)” while the Asian American population is growing and advocacy and activism among Asian American Women leaders is becoming increasingly visible. They interviewed Asian American leaders and high achievers and found that in examining only one identity dimension (e.g., Asian) at a time, separate from gender, it is impossible to capture the complexity and specificity of Asian American women’s experiences, as these are intertwined with one another along with individual’s unique life experiences. Interestingly, despite the combination of racism and sexism they faced, Asian American women didn’t perceive their identities as a detriment or problematic, but held a “can-do” attitude. Participants shared that their bicultural values and behaviors between Asian culture and the dominant American culture as well as their feminist identity development influenced their leadership styles. For example, they used collectivistic views, and prioritized group learning and growth over individuals. They also learned communication skills, conflict management, and organizational dynamics to interact with members of the dominant culture. Participants also identified their motivation as the sense of responsibility to the community and pursuing social justice.

In other words, existing studies do not only point to the challenges facing Asian American women in relation to leadership due to the intersecting systemic oppression associated with race and gender on leadership. Previous studies agree that Asian American women can contribute to society using own strengths and assets as leaders. Despite these challenges and opportunities for Asian American women in leadership, unfortunately, support systems and leadership models are currently lacking.

Louie (2000) claims that future leadership development is necessary to promote social advocacy among Asian American women in the younger generation. However, the research shows that participants feel that Asian American role models or leadership training for the future generation is lacking. They noted that potential role models or mentors seems so busy and burdened with the demands on them as Asian American women that they cannot offer support or mentoring. Also, they lamented lack of organized support and leadership development for cultivating activities and roles. The researcher calls for further research to answer to her question: “What specific models or strategies that combine the feminist perspectives of support and connectedness and the psychosocial perspectives of women of color will facilitate in orienting Asian American women toward social advocacy?” (Louie, 2000, p. 23).

Thus, it is integral to develop models for diversity leadership by using an affirmative paradigm as opposed to reflecting stereotypical White Males leadership (Chin, 2013b). In other words, diversity leadership can be developed to draw on the strengths and resiliency of culture and cultural values, including “their potential to see things in novel ways, their flexibility for new perspectives, and their adaptability for success in an environment that does not expect them to alter their core sense of authenticity.” (Chin, 2013b, p. 238). In applying this approach to the current study, I investigate the role of family support for leadership, centering around cultural

values of Asian American families. The social cognitive variables such as role model influences, leadership self-efficacy, outcome expectation, leadership interest, and leadership intention will be viewed from strengths focused approaches, which aim to understand how Asian American women take agency in oppressive and supportive environments.

Role Model Influence

As mentioned above, Lent, Brown, and Hackett (2000) portrayed the exposure to role models as a primary example of contextual factor that affect one's career intention through learning experiences, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations. In this section, I review the studies that investigated the importance of role model influence in leadership development.

Exposure to female leaders who can provide counter-stereotypic role models has been one approach to tackle the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles by counteracting negative stereotypes against women in leadership domains, which is one of the factors contributing to gender inequity in leadership (Dasgupta & Asgari, 2004; Rios, Stewart, & Winter, 2010). In particular, the leadership literature has claimed that exposure to role models can have positive effects on women's self-perceptions and thus, the leadership aspiration/intention among women (Hoyt & Simon, 2010).

As a mechanism of role models' effectiveness on increasing women's leadership inspiration, researchers point out two sorts of influence. First, researchers posit that role models can help decrease automatic stereotyping. For example, Dasgupta and Asgari (2004) conducted an experiment and found that the participants who were exposed to counter-stereotypic female leaders showed a decrease in stereotypical associations between gender and leadership at the automatic and unconscious level. Another recent survey study examined global professional women leaders' work satisfaction and found that workplace role models indirectly predicted

greater work satisfaction mediated by decreased concerns about stereotype threats (Cortland & Kinias, 2019).

Second, social comparison processes, a process known to be especially crucial for disadvantaged and underrepresented individuals (Hoyt & Simon, 2010), provide an explanation of how role models can be helpful for inspiring women to pursue leadership. Wood (1998) proposes that people have a motivation to compare themselves to successful role models in order to find hope and inspiration. In fact, Lockwood and Kunda (1997) conducted an experiment study and demonstrated that exceptional graduating students inspired first-year students and successful teachers and accountants inspired soon-to-be teachers and accountants.

Note that is not the case that all the female leaders can serve as positive role models to female perceivers. Rather, some extremely successful female leaders' influence may cause self-deflating effects. Researchers have identified the characteristic of role models needed to be helpful, especially for individuals who are working in a domain with a negative stereotype, such as in leadership roles as follows.

First, individuals should be able to identify with role models in order to benefit from them. When individuals focus on similarities with the successful other, they can feel empowered as a result of the self-enhancing effect (Sealy & Singh, 2008) which in turn can lead to greater performance on stereotype related tasks such as math tests (Marx, Stapel, & Muller, 2005). In terms of leadership, Lockwood (2006) suggests that women are more empowered by women role models, as opposed to men, as they show that women can achieve career success despite gender barriers. In support of this, a recent empirical study found that observing female leaders, rather than male leaders, speaking up was associated with women's developing stronger voice self-efficacy and thus speaking up more (Yan, Tangirala, Vadera, & Ekkirala, 2021).

Second, the achievements of role models should be perceived as attainable. Lockwood and Kunda (1997) found that superstars that with whom participants identified can have a positive impact on people's aspirations only when their success is perceived as attainable. If their success is perceived unattainable, exposure to extremely successful role models can result in rather self-deflating effects on participants. Consistently, Hoyt and Simon (2010) examined the impact of attainability of outcomes and the gender of leaders on female participants' leadership related self-concept and leadership aspirations. The result showed that non-elite female leaders, whose achievement is seen as attainable and with whom participants can identify, had positive impacts on female participants' self-concept and leadership aspiration by disconfirming negative stereotypes, whereas elite female leaders, whose achievement is seen as unattainable had negative impacts on self-concept and leadership aspiration.

In summary, extant studies show that role model influence can directly and indirectly (i.e., mediated by enhancing self-concepts and/or counteracting negative stereotypes) impact leadership aspiration for females, especially when perceivers can identify with the role models and their achievement seems attainable. There are two limitations to these studies. First, studies have mostly focused on gender and its associated stereotype/discrimination, which calls our attention to examining the intersectionality of gender and other minority memberships such as ethnicity or race. Another future direction for future exploration is that role model influence can be incorporated into more an extensive model for explaining career development. In fact, examining role model influence on leadership self-efficacy is obviously consistent with Banduras' proposition that self-efficacy can emerge as individuals observe a role model who performs well in a specific domain (Bandura, Freeman, & Lightsey, 1999). Thus, I chose the topic of the influence of role models with whom Asian American women can identify and role

models whose accomplishments are relatable in terms of attainability, as one of predictors in SCCT.

Family Support for Leadership

Researchers have shown that family involvement plays a role in Asian Americans' career development. Traditionally, researchers have discussed whether Asian American make career decisions based on the whole family's mission rather than their own career interests or intentions, as the younger generation feels responsibility to carry on family tradition (Leong, 1993). Hence, most studies have chosen to see the career choice of traditionally overrepresented domain (i.e., occupations in physical, biological, and medical sciences) or underrepresented domain (i.e., social, verbal, and persuasive occupations) as outcome variables, given that Asian Americans' career interests and intentions have been segregated and stereotyped into science and technology fields (King, Mendoza, Madera, Hebl, & Knight, 2006; Leong & Serafica, 1995). For example, Tang, Fouad, and Smith (1999) adapted SCCT framework with an emphasis on contextual variables and applied it to study Asian Americans' career choices. The study found that family involvement was significantly associated with the traditionality of college students' career choice aspirations (i.e., Investigative and Realistic occupations), though it was not significantly associated with career self-efficacy nor career interest. Although this study illuminates the cultural importance of family involvement in career choices of stereotypical/non stereotypical occupations, it still does not distinguish the effects of family social support from family pressure/expectations.

Qualitative studies have clarified family support's role in Asian American students' career choice, separately from family expectations. In a qualitative study (Loo, 2005) conducted with six Asian American women, participants described their perceived parental support as

parents help in doing cost benefit analyses of various career choices, encouragement to engage in various activities for career exploration, and encouraging them to make their own career decision based on their own interests, as opposed to imposing expectations for certain occupations. In another qualitative study, Fouad et al., (2008) revealed that Asian individuals' family of origin and current family influence the participants' career decision making along with how they place meaning and value on their work. Specifically, family support, both financial and emotional, was a theme emerged as influential on participants career decision making as participants expressed their longing to fulfill parents' wishes, followed by their recognition of parental support in specific academic and career pursuits. Participants' stories also made it clear that family support's influence was distinct from parental pressure on their occupational choice.

Other researchers conducted quantitative research to examine the influence of family support, separately from family expectation, on ethnically diverse Asian American's self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests in stereotypical occupations (Shen et al., 2014). In this study, family support was defined as perceived support from parents in one's academic and career decisions. The results suggest that parental support was indirectly associated with self-efficacy, outcome expectation, and interests in stereotypical occupations, mediated by living up to parental expectations, without direct associations, implying that when Asian American students perceive their parents' support in their career choices, they are more inclined to try to live up to parental expectations, which leads to their greater self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests in overrepresented occupations.

Hui and Lent (2018) also utilized the SCCT to clarify the roles of family and cultural factors in the Asian Americans' career choices (i.e. Holland (1997)'s Investigative (I) and Social (S) themes). Family support was defined as perception of ones' parents' wishes for and approval

of one's career intentions. Researchers hypothesized that family support will play a pivotal proximal influence on career decision making both directly and indirectly, through self-efficacy and outcome expectation in each Investigative and Social choices domains. The study found, in both I- and S-theme career domains, significant relations between family support and choice goals mediated by self-efficacy and outcome expectation. Interestingly, in the S-theme career domain, family support was also directly linked to participants' choice intention, suggesting that family support may be especially helpful when Asian American emerging adults consider less stereotypical careers, which are likely to conflict with cultural group norms.

When it comes to examining family support's role in leadership intention rather than stereotypical career choice among Asian American, it is hard to locate quantitative research. Instead, qualitative research informs us of the contribution of perceived family support in leadership development. Lo (2011)'s participants shared that their family did not explicitly talk about leadership, but when their parents took leadership roles, participants also felt comfortable about assuming leadership roles. Louie (2000)'s qualitative research shows the importance of family support in developing leadership for Asian American women who are active in social advocacy. For example, one participant mentioned that growing up with parents who were engaged with nonprofit organizations impacted her value toward leadership for social change. Other respondents shared that parents' emphasis on the value of helping others and value in women's education had shaped their views on serving in leadership roles for social justice. Many respondents mentioned that their families empowered or allowed them to be independent women who pursue social justice. In addition, authors discovered that strong motivation for accomplishment and determination that are typical among Asian families is likely to support Asian Americans' motivation (Louie, 2000).

In short, career studies that examine the parent supports' role have been focused on Asian American participants' stereotypical/non-stereotypical occupation choices. The studies reveal that when Asian Americans make non-stereotypical career choices, family support is linked with career outcome variables (Hui & Lent, 2018). Even though leadership intention is different from the non-stereotypical occupation focus which is Social area in the extant studies, these studies could imply that family support may have a similar role in leadership intention, which is also opposed to stereotypes against Asian American women.

I will review the literature in the leadership field which examine family variables and leadership outcomes (e.g., Oliver et al., 2011). Researchers have agreed that leadership development is developmental process that should be considered from the life span development perspective, and this implies that the parents' role is crucial. Researchers have posited that supportive family environments contribute to higher numbers of leadership behaviors from a developmental model. For example, business founders' perceptions of authoritative parenting during adolescence were related to early entrepreneurial competence, which led to entrepreneurial success (Obschonka, Silbereisen, & Schmitt-Rodermund, 2011). Likewise, family functioning and a stimulating and supportive environment were related to transformational leadership qualities, mediated by more positive general self-concept (Oliver et al., 2011). Though self-concept is distinct from self-efficacy, these concepts have a commonality in that they are self-related cognitive variables that lead to behavioral outcomes. This indicates that family support may indirectly and directly be linked to leadership intention via SCCT cognitive variables.

The difference here is that leadership studies measured family support using general variables such as supportive family environment, secure attachment, and authoritative parenting,

rather than directly measuring perceived family support in the specific leadership domain (Obschonka et al., 2011; Oliver et al., 2011). According to SCCT's conceptualization of contextual variables as distal and proximal, leadership literature for mainstream America views family influences as distal contextual affordances rather than proximal contextual supports. Given the importance of family's role in career decision making for Asian Americans (Hui et al., 2013; Louie, 2000), this study will formulate family support for leadership as proximal contextual support for developing Asian American women's leadership intentions.

Gendered Racial Microaggressions

In this section, I will discuss the definitions of gendered racial microaggression and review the study that utilized the notion in general and in specific ways to illuminate the circumstances of Asian American women.

The term "gendered racism" was originally coined by Essed (1991) to refer to intertwined and combined racism and sexism in certain circumstances, trying to capture the uniqueness and complexity of oppression facing Black women, derived from racist perception of gender. In her qualitative study on everyday racism experienced by Black women living in the US and in the Netherlands, Essed (1991) clarified that it is difficult to separate the specific impact of gender oppression and racial oppression from the personal experiences of Black women.

Next, the term "racial microaggression" was first used by Black psychiatrist Chester Pierce and colleagues (1977). It was expanded by Sue and colleagues (2007) to refer to brief, everyday verbal, behavioral, or environmental exchanges that communicate derogatory slights or hostile messages to people of color, whether intentionally or unintentionally (Sue et al, 2007). Specifically Racial microaggressions for Asian American included (a) being identified as Alien in their own land, (b)Ascription of intelligence, (c) exoticization of Asian American women, (d)

invalidation of interethnic differences, (e) denial of racial reality, (f) pathologizing cultural values or communication styles, (g) second class citizenship, and (h) invisibility (Sue et al., 2007).

Based on the Sue (2007)'s notion of racial microaggression and Essed (1991)'s concept of gendered racism, Lewis, Mendenhall, Harwood, and Hunt (2013) coined the term gendered racial microaggression to refer to "subtle and everyday verbal, behavioral and environmental expressions based upon the intersections of one's race and gender" (p. 54) in the qualitative study on experiences of Black women college students. It is noteworthy that researchers shed light on the coping skills and resilience of the targeted individuals with gendered racial microaggression, moving beyond examining the negative impacts facial of microaggressions. For example, the researchers identified "two resistance coping strategies (i.e., Using One's Voice as Power and Resisting Eurocentric Standards of Beauty), one collective coping strategy (i.e., Leaning on One's Support Network), and two self-protective coping strategies (i.e., Becoming a Black Superwoman, Becoming Desensitized and Escaping) (Lewis et al., 2013, pp. 59-60). In line with the resistance coping strategy, a recent qualitative study (Cyr, Weiner, & Burton, 2021) shows how black women principals are encountering gendered racial microaggression on daily basis in leadership role and how she copes with them, showing unique leadership components. Of course, paying attention to mechanisms for coping with microaggressions does not imply that the targets of microaggressions should be forced to carry the burden of coping alone and the roles of colleagues and allies in dominant social groups in dismantling microaggressions should be emphasized (Sue et al., 2019). However, it is meaningful to highlight the resilience and coping successes, as opposed to portraying the targets of gendered racial microaggression as passive victims. This also aligns with the present study which focuses on Asian American

women's cognitive variables in coping with gendered racial microaggression as a contextual barrier.

When gendered racial microaggressions were applied to Asian American women, specific unique stereotypes were discussed. For example, according to Espiritu (1999), submissiveness can be understood in the racial hierarchy's constraint on gender roles, dating back to the history of "mail-order brides" from Asian countries. This image of submissive, obedient, passive "oriental women" (Uchida, 1998) is consistent with observations from a qualitative study (Pyke & Johnson, 2003) that revealed Asian American women are often ascribed to be quiet, shy, timid, passive, and compliant. Mukkamala and Suyemoto (2018) conducted a thematic content analysis study with 94 Asian American women from various ethnic groups and CQR analysis with 13 women. In addition to types of discrimination experienced as Asian Americans and women (e.g., tokenization as Asian American, ethnicity mislabeled, foreigner, model minority myth) they also reported that they were stereotyped as submissive and passive, petite and cute, not a leader, and service worker (Mukkamala & Suyemoto, 2018).

This passivity and submissiveness stereotype can negatively affect Asian American women's academic and career advances (Keum et al., 2018) in many ways. Stereotypes about Asian American women that constitute gendered racial microaggressions are the opposite of traditional assumptions of leaders based on heterosexual White men with elite background prototype (Eagly & Chin, 2010). In other words, attributes of high submissiveness, femininity, and foreignness are incompatible with general expectations of a leader who is assertive, masculine, and dominant (Chen, 1999; Ho & Jackson, 2001). This impacts the perceptions of people toward Asian American women leaders. For example, in Tinkler, Zhao, Li, and Ridgeway (2019)'s experimental research that examined undergraduate student participants' ratings on

leadership suitability, agency, likability, and interpersonal ability of hypothetical leadership candidates who differed in behavioral style (dominant vs communal), gender and race (White vs Asian), Asian American women candidates were rated as the least fit for leadership regardless, of their behavioral styles, indicating that gendered racial stereotypes influenced participants' judgment.

Furthermore, this negative stereotype of Asian American women which does not match stereotyped leadership may threaten the motivation of Asian American women themselves to pursue leadership. In order to look more deeply at the impact of young women's internalization of mainstream assumptions about leaders' traits, Hasan (2011) examined whether female college students' conformity to traditional masculine norms is positively associated with their leadership attitudes or intentions. However, the author did not find any significant relation between conforming to male norm and positive leadership expectations and intentions.

Building on the rich findings of qualitative studies, Keum and colleagues (2018) developed a scale of gendered racial microaggression for Asian American women (GRMSAAW) to quantitatively assess gendered racial microaggressions uniquely experienced by Asian American women in the United States. Their final sample included 564 participants who identified Asian American women from various ethnic groups. As a result of factor analysis, the four factors were labeled as Ascribed Submissiveness, Asian Fetishism, Assumption of Universal Appearance, and Media Invalidation. The scale established good initial construct validity that is differentiated from racial microaggressions, sexism, and internalized racism, which implies that the scale reflects the unique and intersectional nature of gendered racial discrimination experienced by Asian American women.

Despite the utility, reliability, and validity of the GRMSAAW, studies that have used this intersectional measure to examine gendered racial microaggression's influence have been rather few. One recent example is Le, Kuo, and Yamasaki (2020)'s research that examined the influence of gendered racial microaggression on eating disorders experienced by Asian American women. The result showed that as participants reported more frequent experiences of gendered racial microaggression, they were more likely to report higher eating disorder symptoms. Interestingly, the frequency of racial discriminations and the frequency of sexist events in isolation they experienced did not significantly predict Asian American women's eating disorder, supporting that using the intersectionality framework to assess the microaggressions specific to Asian American women may be helpful for comprehensive understanding of their lived experiences in their daily lives (Le, Kuo, & Yamasaki, 2020).

Considering these results, it seems reasonable to hypothesize that gendered racial microaggressions will operate as a contextual barrier for young Asian American women to develop leadership intentions. This is also consistent with what leadership literature suggests: negative stereotypes and discrimination against women in their leadership roles contribute to women's under-representation in leadership domains (Eagly & Carli, 2018). By using GRMSAAW, an intersectional measure, I expect to test the comprehensive SCCT model that explains how unique contextual barriers interplay with other contextual and cognitive factors in leading leadership intention.

Leadership Self-Efficacy

Leadership self-efficacy can be denoted by individuals' internal confidence and judgement of their knowledge, skills, and abilities to engage in leadership (Anderson, Krajewski, Goffin, & Jackson, 2008; Hannah, Avolio, Luthans, & Harms, 2008; Kodama & Dugan, 2019;

Paglis, 2010). Leadership self-efficacy has been known to play a crucial role in the development of leadership agency and performance both at the individual and collective level (Hannah et al., 2008). It is of note, there have been challenges in reaching a consensus in defining leadership self-efficacy as a construct, given that leadership itself can refer to a range of behavioral domains depending on the contexts each study is targeting (Paglis, 2010). For example, leadership self-efficacy can mean a leader's confidence to engage in an extensive range of management behaviors when leaders' overall performance in a organizational setting is the focus (Anderson et al., 2008), whereas leadership self-efficacy can also refer to confidence in general behaviors in taking agency and in leading a group (e.g., Kodama & Dugan, 2018) when the research focus is college students' leadership aspiration. In the current study, I define leadership self-efficacy as individual's internal confidence in leadership skills including motivating and leading others. This definition can be used for college students whether they are in leadership roles or not. To give a general overview of the construct, I will also draw from studies of leadership self-efficacy in business and organizational fields.

Researchers have shown that greater leadership self-efficacy is associated with leader performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), leader effectiveness among military leaders (Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008), in capability for leading change (Paglis & Green, 2002), and higher ratings of performance from peers and superiors (Luthans & Peterson, 2002). Anderson and colleagues (2008) also developed multidimensional measures of leadership self-efficacy and found that in most areas there emerged significant and highly interpretable relations between the taxonomic structures of leadership self-efficacy and leadership effectiveness. Furthermore, greater leadership self-efficacy is known to positively impact the greater performances for groups and organizations. For example, higher subjective leadership self-efficacy scores were linked with

overall group performance in an experimental setting (Hendricks & Payne, 2007), with organizational commitment (Paglis & Green, 2002) and with organizational performance (Wood & Bandura, 1989).

In terms of leadership development, leadership self-efficacy was positively associated with leaders' potential and motivation to lead military recruits (Chan & Drasgow, 2001) and attempts to lead (McCormick, Tanguma, & López-Forment, 2002). Among female college athletic administrators, leadership self-efficacy was positively linked to leadership career ascendance (Machida-Kosuga, Schaubroeck, & Feltz, 2016). Similarly, Murphy and Johnson (2016) asserted "that beliefs about her ability to change and develop her current leadership skills (p. 73)" influence female college students' commitment toward their leadership development, highlighting the pivotal role of leadership self-efficacy in developing leadership intention.

Then what leads to developing leadership self-efficacy? Previous findings suggest leadership self-efficacy is a stable construct over time, thus shorter intervention may not be enough to have developmental effects on leadership self-efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008). As an alternative to shorter intervention, Hannah and her colleagues (2008) listed constructs that might help developing leadership self-efficacy in the long-term, based on Bandura's theory (Bandura, 2000): role modeling/vicarious learning, verbal persuasion, emotional arousal, and raising the perceived utility and salience of leadership means. Similarly, challenges, feedback, and support have been discussed as main developmental experiences that impact students' self-efficacy according to McCauley, DeRue, Yost, and Taylor (2013).

Next I will review studies that examined leadership self-efficacy among Asian Americans and women separately, since there are limited existing studies on leadership self-efficacy among Asian American women.

For both Asian American male and female college students, lower levels of leadership self-efficacy have been observed compared to other racial groups. Lo (2011) discussed that Asian American students often do not identify themselves as leaders. In support of this statement, a survey study found Asian Pacific American college students to report the lower scores of leadership self-efficacy and socially responsible leadership capacity, compared to Black, White, Latino, and multiracial students (Kodama & Dugan, 2013). Interestingly, when leadership self-efficacy was controlled, the lower score effects of Asian American's socially responsible leadership capacity disappeared, suggesting that lower leadership self-efficacy may cause Asian American students to underestimate their leadership capacity. In the later study, Kodama and Dugan (2019) found that resilience was significantly and directly associated with higher leadership self-efficacy among Asian American students. The authors think this outcome may mean that resilience might play an important role as in leadership capacity as it buffers people from negative social stereotypes against Asian Americans. The study also showed that a non-discriminatory campus climate, identity-based experiences, and collective racial esteem were indirectly linked with leadership self-efficacy mediated by resilience.

For women across races but mainly from the White group, leadership efficacy was positively associated with leadership aspirations among the females identified as middle managers (Singer, 1991). Hoyt (2005) conducted an experiment in which female university students were manipulated with different levels of stereotype threats regarding women and leadership. They subsequently reported their level of leadership self-efficacy and leadership identification. It turned out that when negative stereotypes were activated, higher levels of leadership self-efficacy were associated with higher levels of leadership identification. The consistent result was found in Dickerson and Taylor (2000)'s laboratory study on the influence

of task-specific leadership self-efficacy on college women's avoidance of specific leadership tasks. Their results indicated that college women with higher levels of self-efficacy, specific to each leadership task (i.e., coordinating group activities, directing other people) showed higher tendency to participate and show more interest in a leadership-related tasks rather than follower tasks. Conversely, college women with lower self-efficacy for each leadership task were more likely to avoid participating in a leadership-related task. Scholarship on athletic coaching also shows that women had less chances to face challenges compared with their male counterparts, and in turn, women reported lower levels of leadership self-efficacy and career intentions for pursuing coaching leadership (Machida et al., 2016).

Based on the observations about, the lower level of leadership self-efficacy and its impact on leadership development both for Asian American males and females, and females across all races, this study addresses leadership self-efficacy as a crucial construct for Asian American female college students' leadership intention. Though some Asian American women may seem less motivated to pursue leadership and participate in the relevant opportunities, this needs to be understood in the context of their having fewer extra resources and less support, as well as less exposure to opportunities for developing leadership self-efficacy (See Machida et al, 2016). It is of note that self-efficacy is affected by prior learning experience, which is not the variable of interest in the current study. Thus, prior leadership experiences of participants are added as a control variable in the model so that the effects of prior leadership experiences can be extracted on leadership self-efficacy.

Leadership Outcome Expectations

Outcome expectations can be denoted by the benefits and costs that one perceives for a specific behavior (Bandura, 1977, 1986). According to Bandura, outcome expectations originate

from one's learning experiences drawn from symbolic thinking, vicarious learning (i.e., a result of witnessing role models or other individuals engage in the specific behavior and facing positive or negative results) and/or one's evaluation of incentives (Fouad & Guillen, 2006). In this sense, family support, role model influence, and gendered racial microaggressions may be relevant to young women's outcome expectations about leadership positions.

Due to a dearth of intersectional research of outcome expectations for Asian American women, I will draw on previous research on women's leadership outcome expectations. A body of research argued that females' expectations about the leader roles may negatively affect their aspiration (Van Vianen & Fischer, 2002), and it can be a contributor to the women's interests and goals for pursuing careers that don't fit the women's career stereotype (Nauta & Epperson, 2003). To delve into the difference between women and men's leadership outcome expectation, Lips (2000) investigated the level of anticipated relationship problems that both men and women expected are expected after assuming leadership roles. The results indicated that women reported greater level of expectation of relationship problems associated with leadership positions, which may imply that woman may experience difficulties with leadership aspiration due to relationship concerns (Yeagley et al, 2010). Taking this further, Lips (2001) asked men and women in Virginia and Puerto Rico to imagine themselves in a set of leadership roles, describe what they imagined, and to rate each position's positivity and possibility. Women in both cultures reported anticipation of relationship problems more than their male counterparts did. In Virginia women reported that anticipated relationship problems were associated with the lower rate of the possibility that they could become leaders, indicating that negative outcome expectation can be linked with leadership outcomes. Similarly, Killeen, López-Zafra, and Eagly (2006) asked women and men in Spain and the US to imagine themselves in an elite leadership role and rate

the positivity and possibility of each roles. The authors found no difference in rating of positivity across genders but see gender differences in that female students perceived leadership roles as less likely to come about and less helpful with close relationships.

As explained above, leadership outcome expectation has its own importance in explaining females' leadership intention, distinct from leadership self-efficacy. Building on the previous findings about female college students' experiences, Yeagley and colleagues (2010) created a measure of leadership outcome expectations encompassing both positive and negative aspects and utilized the SCCT model to predict elite leadership goals for female college students. The authors found that leadership outcome expectations were directly related with leadership goals, as well as indirectly via interests. Given that Asian American women's perception might overlap to some degree with those of other women, probably mainly those who identify as White, the current study will modify the elite leadership outcome expectation measure to capture outcome expectations about more general leadership positions.

Leadership Interests and Intentions

In this section reviews career interest and intention in leadership domains, because career interest and intention in general have been reviewed earlier in this chapter.

Leadership interest is known to be crucial for emerging leaders to take proactive steps to promote their leadership development (Steele & Day, 2020) by giving rise to leadership intention. Leadership intention refers to the intention or aspiration to implement a specific "leadership" action or series of "leadership actions" (Baker et al., 2016). According to Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994)'s SCCT model, leadership intentions predict choices to execute leadership actions and, therefore, it can be an appropriate outcome variable for young adults. However, there are only a few studies that specifically paid attention to leadership interest and

leadership intention. Some of the studies utilized the SCCT model and others did not. Of note, in terms of leadership intention, I will review literature on leadership aspirations as well, because intentions and aspirations are considered as essentially goal mechanisms in their presumed role in motivating specific behaviors (Lent et al., 1994)

First, Yeagley and colleagues (2010) utilized SCCT to examine the perceptions of elite leadership goals of college women, of whom 80% were white. The results showed that elite leadership interest partially mediated the link between elite leadership self-efficacy and elite leadership outcome expectations and elite leadership goals. 47% of the variance in elite leadership interest was explained by college women's self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Elite leadership interests partially mediated the link between elite leadership outcome expectation and goals. One of the implications of this research is that the SCCT model can be effectively used to model women's leadership goal development. However, it is limited in that it doesn't consider contextual factors, and elite leadership goals are only described as willingness to pursue a list of elite leadership positions (e.g., CEO, President, General Manager).

Baker and colleagues also utilized SCCT to test if Social Potency would directly and indirectly contribute to leadership intentions via leadership self-efficacy, leadership interest, and leadership intentions (Baker et al., 2016) for 152 female college students of whom 87.1% identified as European American. The results showed that social potency was directly linked with leadership self-efficacy, leadership interest, and leadership intentions. Social potency also indirectly predicted leadership intentions mediated by leadership self-efficacy. However, they found that leadership interest did not mediate the relation between leadership self-efficacy and leadership intentions nor was leadership interest directly linked with leadership intentions. This study implies that the original SCCT model can partially explain female college students'

leadership intentions, but not the insignificant paths from leadership interest to leadership intentions. This points to the need to clarify the role of leadership interest in promoting leadership intentions. In addition, this study's model does not examine contextual factors' influence nor leadership outcome expectations' roles in developing career intentions.

I would like to discuss the two studies of leadership intentions that do not use SCCT. Savelle and O'Brien (2016) examined instrumentality (e.g., ambition, assertiveness, and risk taking), anticipated work–family conflict, willingness to compromise career for family, traditionality of career choice, leadership aspirations, and occupational engagement. Participants were recruited from a university, and 72% were identified as White while 16% were as Asian/Asian American. Among the results, it seems important that a positive relationship was found between greater levels of anticipation that family would interrupt work and stronger leadership aspirations, indicating individuals with stronger leadership aspirations may have more realistic expectation outcomes about family and work conflict. Although this study did not utilize the SCCT model but conducted Hierarchical Regression Analysis, it indicates that the relations between outcome expectations and leadership intention may be complicated.

In a study narrowing down to Asian American women's experiences, additional significance of the role of leadership interest comes into the play. For example, Kawahara, Pal, and Chin (2013) revealed that Asian American women leaders' stories about leadership development. Interestingly, many of the participants recalled that they were asked to take a leadership role when the need arose, following their hard work, rather than their choosing to pursue the leadership role, due to their interest in leadership. Some of the participants shared that they were interested in serving the group's interest rather than their personal interest. This urges us to examine whether leadership interest, conceptualized as an individual interest rather than as

consideration for community good, would be linked with leadership intention for Asian American women as hypothesized in SCCT.

In sum, leadership interest and intentions have been studied as outcome variables, both in the SCCT framework and outside of it. In Yeagly et al. (2010) and Baker et al. (2016)'s studies, participants were mostly identified as White (over 80%), so it is difficult to generalize their results to Asian American women, and neither of them examined contextual support and barriers. Other studies call for the need to examine the complicated nature of the role of leadership interests and leadership outcome expectations in predicting leadership intentions. Thus, to fill the gap, I aim to test the full SCCT model which hypothesizes the dynamic interplay among both distal and proximal contextual variables (family support, gendered racial microaggressions, role model influences) and cognitive variables (leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations, leadership interests) in developing leadership intentions, for Asian American college women.

Summary

In summary, I have identified three gaps in the current literature across the leadership field and vocational psychology field on the Asian American women's leadership development.

First, previous studies on Asian American's leadership have examined the model minority myth, the lack of self-efficacy, the lack of role models and mentors, and cultural difference, but the gender related contextual barriers experienced by Asian American women and/or the interplay between contextual variables and cognitive variables have not been examined.

Second, previous studies have shown that the SCCT model can be used to predict college women's leadership intention, but most of the participants were white students, so it might not be generalizable to Asian American college women.

Third, there are qualitative studies on Asian American women's leadership development, but the interviewees in those study were already holding a leadership position, thus vulnerable to a survivor bias. Furthermore, the themes revealed in those qualitative studies will need to be translated to a quantitative study so that it can be more generalizable.

To fill those gaps, the current study aims to examine the interplay among contextual supports (i.e., role model influence and family support for leadership) and barriers (i.e., gendered racial microaggressions) and cognitive variables (leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations, leadership interests) in predicting leadership intentions of Asian American women in college, utilizing the intersectionality framework and the SCCT framework. Based on Sheu et al. (2010)'s meta-analyses results of both direct and indirect impacts from contextual barriers and supports to career goals, my hypotheses are as below.

1. Gendered racial microaggression (i.e., contextual barriers) will be negatively associated with leadership intention through direct and indirect paths via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest.
2. Role model influence (i.e., contextual supports) will be positively associated with leadership intention through both direct and indirect paths via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest.
3. Family support for leadership (contextual supports) will be positively associated with leadership intention both direct and indirect paths via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest.

4. Role model influence and family support for leadership will be inversely covaried with and gendered racial microaggressions. Role model influence will be positively covaried with family support for leadership.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

This study utilized structural equation modeling to test whether the SCCT model can explain Asian American young adult women's leadership intention development. I received approval from the IRB at Loyola University Chicago before starting data collection.

Participants and Procedure

Participants were 290 college students who identified as Asian, Asian descendent, or Asian American females residing in the United States. Their age ranged from 18 to 55 with a mean age of 26.35 (SD = 7.44). When asked about ethnic identity, 98 identified as Asian American (33.79%) without indicating their specific ethnicity, 57 identified as Chinese (29.66%), 31 identified as Indian (10.67%), 27 identified as Korean (9.31%), 20 identified as Filipino (6.9%), 19 identified as Japanese (6.55%), 14 identified as Vietnamese (4.82%), eight identified as multi-ethnicity (2.76%), and 16 identified as other (29.66%) specifying as Cambodian, Hmong, Malaylali, Taiwanese, Thai, and Pakistani. In terms of sexual orientation, 224 identified as heterosexual/straight (77.2%), 56 identified as bisexual (19.3%), four identified as Lesbian (1.4%), three identified as asexual (1%), and two identified as other (i.e. questioning, pansexual). 217 identified as born in the U.S (75.1%) and 72 reported they were born outside the US (24.9%). Of 289 respondents who reported their year in college, 14 were 1st year college students (4.83%), 56 were 2nd year (19.31%), 78 were 3rd year (26.9%), 113 were 4th year (39.1%), 15 were 5th year (5.17%), and 13 were 6th year. In terms of first-generation college student status,

134 reported that they are first generation college students in their family (46.2%). As for their household income, of 288 respondents, 40 reported household income of less than \$39,999 (13.9%), 127 reported between \$40,000 and \$79,999 (43.8%), 96 reported between \$80,000 and \$119,999 (33.1%), and 25 reported \$120,000 to above (8.6%). In terms of social class, 33 identified as lower or lower middle class (11.4%), 198 identified as middle class (68.3%), and 58 identified as upper or upper middle class (20%). When it comes to their prior leadership experience, the average months spent holding elected office in High School were 10.75 months (SD = 12 months), months spent holding elected office in college was 11.31 months (SD = 18.7 months), months spent assuming leadership roles in clubs or committees were 8.43 months (SD = 8.93 months), and the months spent managing other workers in job/volunteer work was 8.96 months (SD = 11.09 months). Eight participants didn't report their months of leadership experience.

Recruitment was done via internet message boards (e.g., Amazon MTurk, etc.), academic and/or special interest online LISTSERVs (e.g., Asian American Psychological Association Listserv), student organizations, cultural centers on campus, community centers, and/or personal email requests to the families and friends of research team members.

Participants were directed to a designated Qualtrics survey link to complete the survey. After giving their informed consent, the participants were asked to complete their demographic information, prior leadership experiences, the Modified scale of Leadership Role Model Influences, Family Support for Leadership, Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale, The Leadership Basic Confidence Subscale, a modified version of Outcome Expectations for Elite Leadership Questionnaire, Leadership Subscale from the Oregon Vocational Interest Scale, Leadership Intentions Scale, Achievement Aspirations Subscale of Career Aspiration Scale, and

four open-ended questions asking about their cultural experiences of leadership. It took approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the survey.

At the completion of the survey, Mechanical Turk workers were compensated \$1 (within 3 days) if they meet the inclusion criteria (Asian American college women within the United States) and correctly answered all built-in validity-check questions. Non-Amazon Mechanical Turk participants were given the opportunity to enter a raffle to win one of four \$25 Amazon electronic gift cards for their voluntary participation.

Measures

Predictors

Leadership Role Model. Participants' perception of leadership role models was assessed by using a slightly modified version of the Inspiration/Modeling subscale of the Influences of Others on Academic and Career Decision Scale (IOACDS; Nauta & Kokaly, 2001). This subscale consists of 7 items, which were originally developed to assess the degree of role model influence on students' academic and vocational decisions. Other studies have slightly modified and used this scale to answer different research questions. For example, it was used to assess women engineers' role model influence (H.-S. Lee & Flores, 2019). In this study, I modified the items to measure Asian American women participants' perceived influence of role models, specifically in relation to leadership (e.g., "there are Asian American women leaders I am trying to be like in my career pursuits;" "In leadership, there is no Asian American woman, who inspires me (reverse scored)"). Participants indicated their level of having role model leaders who identify as Asian American women. Participants responded on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). After reversed items were recorded accordingly, higher scores indicated that participants have more often felt inspired from Asian

American women leadership role models. The original IOACDS Inspiration/Modeling subscale showed convergent validity, supported by its significant association with both the occupational information subscale and the vocational identity subscale of My Vocational Situation, and with the career decision certainty subscale of Career Decision Scale (Nauta & Kokaly, 2001). Its 10 months test-retest reliability within a sample of college students was reported to be .78, and its Cronbach's alphas were .87 and .91 for two samples of college students at a large midwestern university (Nauta & Kokaly, 2001). The modified version of this scale for a women engineer population yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .92 (H.-S. Lee & Flores, 2019). A Cronbach's alpha in the current study was .78.

Gendered Racial Microaggressions. Participants' gendered racial microaggression was assessed by using the Gendered Racial Microaggressions Scale (Keum et al., 2018). This measure consists of 22 items in total, with four subscales including ascribed submissiveness (e.g., "others expect me to be submissive"), Asian fetishism (e.g., "Others have treated me as if I am always open to sexual advances."), media invalidation (e.g., "I rarely see Asian American women in the media."), and assumption of universal appearance (e.g., "Others have suggested that all Asian American women look alike"). Participants reported how often they generally experienced each item throughout their lifetime on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (never) to 5 (always). Higher scores indicate the more frequent experience of gendered racial microaggression. A factor structure analysis found that a bifactor model fits the data the best, which indicates that the total score scale can be used as well as subscale scores. In terms of construct validity, convergent validity was initially established in that it was moderately associated with racial microaggressions, racism, and internalized racism (Keum et al., 2018). Predictive validity was supported by its significant prediction of depressive symptoms measured

with Patient Health Questionnaire (Keum et al., 2018). The researchers calculated the estimated internal consistency indices using omega hierarchical and omega hierarchical subscales to examine the utility of the total and subscale scores. Omega hierarchical for a total score was .80 for frequency. Omega hierarchical for subscales ranged from .24 to .50 (Keum et al., 2018). Coefficient alpha for the four subscale scores in the present study ranged from .78 to .87.

Family Support for Leadership. Participants' perception of family support for leadership was assessed with the Family Support for Leadership Scale, which modified Hui and Lent (2018)'s Family Support Scale so that it could specifically measure aspects related to leadership. The original 6-item Family Support Scale was adapted from a measure of contextual support and barriers for career choice (Lent et al., 2003) and Family Expectation Subscale of Family Influence Scale (Fouad et al., 2010). One item that measures financial support was excluded. Five items were used to assess how much support the participants perceive from their parents and family with respect to developing leadership skills and promoting leadership intentions (e.g., "They would support my decision to pursue a leadership role;" "They expect people from our culture to pursue a leadership role.>"). Participants responded on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Higher scores indicated that participants have more often felt supported by family to pursue leadership. A Cronbach's alpha for the original family support scale was .86 among Asian American college students (Hui & Lent, 2018). A Cronbach's alpha observed in the current study was .85.

Mediators

Leadership Self-Efficacy. Participants' leadership self-efficacy was assessed with The Leadership Basic Confidence Subscale (BCS) of the Expanded Skills Confidence Inventory (ESCI; Betz et al., 2003). This measure consists of 10 items (e.g., "inspire others through my

leadership;” “motivate others to follow your vision”). Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (no confidence at all) to 5 (complete confidence). Higher scores indicated higher levels of leadership self-efficacy. In terms of convergent validity, leadership self-efficacy has been found to be moderately associated with extroversion (Hartman & Betz, 2007), enterprising interests, and enterprising self-efficacy (Betz et al., 2003). This scale indicated a Cronbach’s alpha of .91 for college students (Betz et al., 2003) and .89 for women college students (Baker et al., 2016). The current study yielded a Cronbach’s alpha of .88.

Leadership Outcome Expectation. Participants’ leadership outcome expectation was assessed by using a slightly modified version of Outcome Expectations for Elite Leadership Questionnaire (Yeagley, Suibch, & Tokar, 2010). This measure was developed to assess physical outcome expectations, social reaction outcome expectations, and self-evaluative outcome expectations. Based on the findings about women’s leadership, the items reflect the negative effects of tokenism in male-dominated environments and of prejudice due to negative female stereotypes. Because the original measure was intended to measure elite leadership, the wording of the items was modified to cover general leadership outcome expectation. This measure consists of 22 positive (e.g., “If I am in an elite leadership position, my family would be proud of me.”) and 16 reversed coded (e.g., “if I am in a leadership position, my family would disapprove.”) items for leadership outcome expectation. Responses for 22 positive items were used for analysis. Participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not very much) to 5 (very much). Higher scores indicated more positive outcome expectations about assuming leader’s roles. The original measure yielded a Cronbach’s alpha of .93 for female college students (Yeagley et al., 2010). No additional validity or reliability information is available in the existing literature. In the current study, a Cronbach’s alpha for 22 items was .90.

Leadership Interest. Participants' leadership interest was assessed by using the Leadership Subscale from the Oregon Vocational Interest Scale (ORVIS; Pozzebon, Visser, Ashton, Lee, & Goldberg, 2010). This scale consists of 12 items that describe interest in various leadership activities (e.g., "lead other people"; "make decisions that affect a lot of people"). Participants reported their level of interest on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly dislike) to 5 (strongly like). Higher scores indicated that the participants are more interested in leadership. The scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .86 for a sample of college students (Pozzebon et al., 2010) and .87 for a sample of female college students (Baker et al., 2016). Convergent validity was supported in that the scale was strongly correlated with other scales related to leadership interest including the Influencing subscale of Campbell Interest and Skill Survey and Holland's Enterprising subscale (Pozzebon et al., 2010). The current study indicated a Cronbach's alpha of .87.

Outcome

Leadership Intentions. As aforementioned, in the current study, participants' leadership intention was conceptually operationalized as the combination of a career intention to pursue a leadership role in their occupation, and a behavioral intention to engage in a certain leadership action or series of "leadership actions" (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). To integrate vocational psychology's definition of career intention into leadership study's motivation to lead they were accordingly assessed with the two scales: Leadership Intentions Scale (Davies, Spencer, & Steele, 2005) which measures their behavioral intention to engage in leadership roles and activities, and Leadership and Achievement Aspirations Subscale of Career Aspiration Scale (O'Brien, 1996) which assesses participants career intention to pursue a leadership role in their occupation.

The Leadership Intentions Scale consists of 6 items which describe taking leadership opportunities, including (a) requesting more information about leadership positions, (b) attending a leadership development workshop, (c) applying for a leadership role on their own, (d) applying for a leadership position if notified about it, (e) applying for a leadership position if specifically nominated, and (f) accepting a leadership role if it were offered. Participants reported their likelihood of participating in each opportunity on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (very unlikely) to 6 (very likely), with higher scores representing stronger intention to pursue these leadership opportunities. This scale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .91 for female college students (Baker et al., 2016). In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha was .86.

The Career Aspiration Scale consists of 6 items which describe career aspiration related to pursuing a leadership role (e.g., "I hope to become a leader in my career field." and "I hope to move up through any organization or business"). Participants reported how accurately each statement describes them on a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 (Not at all true of me) to 4 (Very true of me). Higher scores will represent stronger aspiration to pursue a leadership role. The Leadership and Achievement Aspirations Scale yielded a test-retest reliability over a two-week period of .84 and internal consistency of .78 (Gray & O'Brien, 2007) from samples of adolescent, college, and post college, comprised predominantly of White women. The current study utilized the four items, excluding the two reverse items which decreased internal consistency significantly. In the current study, the four-item scale indicated a Cronbach Alpha of .73.

Control Variable

Prior Leadership Experiences. The current study assessed prior leadership experiences as a control variable for leadership self-efficacy. According to the original SCCT (Lent et al.,

1994) and Bandura (Bandura, 1999), learning experiences play a crucial role in shaping cognitive variables such as self-efficacy. To highlight the influence of the contextual variables directly and indirectly through cognitive variables it seems reasonable to measure prior leadership experience and take account of its impact, so that it does not confound the links among variables of interest in this study.

To take prior learning experiences into account, information about the past leadership experiences was obtained with a 6-item past leadership questionnaire developed by Murphy (1992). This questionnaire asks participants to recall the months of leadership experiences in particular situations (e.g., high school, college, part time job) as well as their own perception of their overall leadership ability in comparison with others their age.

Demographic variables

Basic demographic information was obtained including age, ethnicity, gender identity, sexual orientation, year in college, immigrant status, academic major, perceived SES, and income.

Open-ended Questions

The current study exploratively included four open-ended questions to understand participants' nuanced experiences that could be used to help explain the quantitative results if needed.

Participants were asked to describe how cultural backgrounds, experiences, relationships, and other factors have influenced their view on leadership and leadership intention. In addition, participants reported three adjectives that came to their minds that are associated with leadership and also any reactions to or thoughts on the survey questions. Of note, this is not a mixed method study, so the responses were used to help interpret quantitative findings if needed, rather than as a part of analysis and results.

Analysis Strategies

In this section I will outline the analysis process in general, from the data screening and missing data analysis to the measurement model analysis and structural path analysis.

Confirmatory factor analysis and latent variable path modeling was used to test the measurement and structural models that were hypothesized. Fit indices including chi-square, Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit index (CFI), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were used to test if the hypothesized model fit the data. Good model fit was indicated by CFI $>.95$, RMSEA $<.06$, and SRMR $<.08$ (Hu & Bentler, 1998), while acceptable model fit was indicated by CFI $>.09$, RMSEA $<.08$, and SRMR $<.10$ (Loehlin, 1998).

Initially, 449 participants completed the survey. Based on the selection criteria, I deleted 138 cases who didn't identify as Asian/Asian American female (e.g., male, White identified). I additionally deleted 21 cases as they indicated that the participants were graduate students. After the data cleaning, a total of 290 cases were left for analysis.

Next, I examined the missing rates and patterns. I conducted missing data analysis at an item level. The percentage of missing items ranged from 0% (e.g., items for leadership intention) to 2.9% (months spent assuming a leadership role in committee or clubs). Overall, 69.7% of cases did not have any missing item, 20.7% of cases had one missing item, and 5.2% of cases had 2 missing items. Parent (2013) suggested researchers should describe the level of missingness separately at the item level and the scale level. He also recommended that when the missing level is low, researchers should consider using Available Case Analysis (ACA) as opposed to using mean substitution or multiple imputation. Based on those suggestions, I used ACA. At the scale level, I conducted Little (1988)'s test to investigate the missing pattern. The

result indicated that the current data were Missing Completely at Random (MCAR), $\chi^2 (27, N=290) = 22.3, p = .72$. I used Full Information Maximum Likelihood (FIML) which can estimate accurate standard errors and confidence intervals (Schlomer, Bauman, & Card, 2010).

Next, I examined the current dataset's normality and multicollinearity. For most variables, skewness and kurtosis values were between 1 and -1, except for leadership self-efficacy for which kurtosis was 1.13. Based on the guidelines (skewness > 2, kurtosis > 7) suggested by Curran, West, and Finch (1996), I determined that this dataset met the normal distribution assumption. In terms of multicollinearity, I examined tolerance values and VIF values. For all the variables, tolerance values were below .10 and VIF values were below 5 (the greatest VIF value was 3.03), I concluded that the current data set does not have a multicollinearity issue. Thus, the final dataset included 290 cases in total.

Before starting the structural equation modeling analysis, a preliminary analysis was conducted using SPSS 25 to calculate means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, Cronbach's alphas, and bivariate correlations for the study variables of gendered racial microaggression, leadership role model influence, family support, leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, leadership interest, and leadership intention. I also examined the potential effect of common method bias by running Harman's single factor test, because the current study used only self-report and there was no time delay between measuring each variable (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). According to the guidelines, common method bias is determined to exist if the total variance extracted by single factor is greater than 50%. The result with the current data indicated that the highest total variance extracted by one factor was 20.72%. Thus, I determined that there is no significant problem with common method bias in this dataset.

Then I tested the measurement model fit by examining fit indices mentioned earlier, a variance accounted for the observed indicators, and significance of parameter estimates, using Mplus version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017). When loading observed indicators to latent variables, I used item parceling methods to reduce the number of estimated model parameters, thus, reducing sample size requirements for the hypothesized model analysis. I used two different methods to create item parcels. First, I used the domain representative item parceling approach for the three variables: gendered racial microaggressions, leadership intention, and prior leadership experience. For the gendered racial microaggressions variable measured with a multidimensional scale, the four factors measured by each different subscale (ascribed submissiveness, Asian fetishism, media invalidation, and assumption of universal appearance) were used as observed indicators. For the leadership intention, the two measured variables, leadership intention and leadership aspiration were used as observed indicators, as I conceptualized the leadership intention as career aspiration for pursuing leadership combined with behavioral intention to engage in activities to promote leadership development. Prior leadership experience, a control variable for leadership self-efficacy, consisted of three observed indicators including months spent assuming elected leadership positions, months spent assuming non-elected leadership roles, and perceived amount of leadership experience compared to one's peers.

For the rest of the variables measured with unidimensional scales (i.e. leadership role model influence, leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, leadership interest, and leadership intention) I used a random assignment or a factorial algorithm depending on whether item loadings are equal or varied (Matsunaga, 2008). To do this, I screened data using maximum likelihood exploratory factor analysis (EFA), following the guidelines of Little,

Cunningham, Shahar, and Widaman (2002). I learned whether each unidimensional scale had a single factor structure by referring to the scree plots, eigenvalues, and factor loadings. Based on the factor loadings variance for each variable, I decided whether to use random assignment or a factorial algorithm to create 3-4 parcels for each latent variable. In other words, for the scales of which each item has approximately equal magnitude of loadings, I used random assignment. For example, for Leadership self-efficacy, I used random assignment to make 3 parcels as the item loading ranged from .55 to .70. For scales on which items have varied loadings, I used a factorial algorithm based on the magnitude of loadings by balancing loadings across item parcels (Matsunaga, 2008). For example, because leadership interests' item loadings were varied ranging from .302 to .739. I ordered those items from the largest loadings to smallest loading and then created each parcel consisting of items with high loading, mid loading, and low loading, to balance the loadings based on Matsunaga (2008)'s suggestion. Three parcels were created for family support of leadership, role model influence, leadership self-efficacy, and leadership interest, and four parcels were created for leadership outcome expectations.

For the next step, I conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to examine if all the latent variables in the model were adequately measured, using Mplus version 8 (Muthén & Muthén, 1998-2017). I used full information maximum likelihood estimation (FIML) because it is robust to both missing at random (MAR) and missing at completely random (MACR) data and maintain good statistical power (Schlomer, Bauman, & Card, 2010). Fit indices including chi-square, Root Mean Square Error Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were used to assess whether the measurement model fit the data. Good model fit is indicated by CFI $>.95$, RMSEA $<.06$, and SRMR $<.08$ (Hu & Bentler, 1998), while acceptable model fit is indicated by CFI $>.09$, RMSEA $<.08$, and SRMR $<.10$

(Loehlin, 1998). One factor loading for each latent variable was fixed to 1, while all the other loadings were freely estimated.

Lastly, as the measurement model fit the data well, I conducted a path analysis to test the hypothesized model. To examine the significance of indirect effects, I used a bias-corrected bootstrapping method with 95% confidence intervals. This method resampled 5,000 random samples using the Mplus version 8. I followed Cheung and Lau (2008)'s suggestion if the 95% confidence interval does not contain zero, the mediation effect would be concluded as significant at the alpha level of .05.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This chapter shows the data analysis results of the current study. I will present the results of the preliminary analysis, including correlations and descriptive information about the study variables reported by the current sample of Asian/Asian American women college students. I will also present the results of confirmatory factor analysis of the measurement model and of the structural path model.

Preliminary Analysis

Before starting the structural equation modeling analysis, a preliminary analysis was conducted using SPSS 25 to calculate means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, Cronbach's alphas, and bivariate correlations calculated for the study variables of family support of leadership, gendered racial microaggression, leadership role model influence, leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, leadership interest, and leadership intention and aspiration. Prior leadership experience was also included in the analysis as a control variable for leadership self-efficacy, according to the SCCT that posited prior learning experience as the main source that shapes self-efficacy.

Table 1 presents the means, standard deviations, skewness, kurtosis, Cronbach alphas, and bivariate correlations for all the study variables.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations, Skewness, Kurtosis, Cronbach's alpha, and Correlations

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. PEOL	—											
2. FSL	.23**	—										
3. RMI	.17**	.33**	—									
4. GRMSAS	.23**	.13*	.10	—								
5. GRMSAF	.26**	.07	-.05	.63**	—							
6. GRMSMI	.23**	.10	-.05	.56**	.55**	—						
7. GRMSAU	.18**	.31**	.14*	.53**	.40**	.67**	—					
8. LSE	.46**	.48**	.37**	.19**	.21**	.14*	.25**	—				
9. LOE	.35**	.60**	.43**	.18**	.15*	.06	.20**	.71**	—			
10. LINTRS	.41**	.48**	.45**	.31**	.26**	.13*	.22**	.70**	.75**	—		
11. LINTNT	.42**	.61**	.37**	.23**	.21**	.20**	.29**	.73**	.72**	.71**	—	
12. LASP	.33**	.48**	.40**	.22**	.17**	.12*	.26**	.65**	.63**	.62**	.72**	—
M	3.59	5.43	3.29	3.79	3.64	3.76	3.89	3.58	3.66	3.59	4.50	3.71
SD	1.10	1.03	.76	.89	1.03	.93	.97	.71	.57	.71	.96	.78
Skewness	-.49	-.44	-.08	-.43	-.30	-.03	-.10	-.68	.06	-.36	-.66	-.37
Kurtosis	-.17	.04	.87	.69	.17	-.17	-.03	1.13	-.32	.10	.73	.37
Cronbach's α	N/A	.85	.78	.87	.81	.79	.78	.88	.90	.87	.86	.73

Note. * = $p < .05$ level; ** = $p < .01$ level; PEOL = prior experience of leadership; FSL = family support of leadership; RMI = role model influence; GRMSAS = gendered racial microaggressions ascribed submissiveness; GRMSAF = gendered racial microaggressions Asian fetishism; GRMSMI = gendered racial microaggressions media invalidation; GRMSAU = gendered racial microaggressions assumption of universal appearance; LSE = leadership self-efficacy; LOE = leadership outcome expectations; LINTRS = leadership interest; LINTNT = leadership intent; LASP = leadership aspiration.

It is noteworthy that all the four gendered racial microaggression variables (ascribed submissiveness, Asian fetishism, media invalidation, and assumption of universal appearance) were positively correlated with leadership variables including leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations, leadership interest, and leadership intent and aspiration at significant level, contrary to expectations.

Primary Analysis

Measurement Model

Table 2 shows the fit indices for the measurement model. Based on the fit indices criteria that were above mentioned, as seen by the values of CFI (.92), RMSEA (.064), and SRMR (.055), the current measurement model produced a good fit to the current data.

Table 2. Goodness-of-Fit Indicators for Measurement and Structural Models

Model	χ^2	df	CFI	RMSEA		SRMR
				Estimate	90% C.I.	
Measurement Model	543.35	247	.92	.064	[.057, .071]	.055
Structural Model	621.30	253	.919	.071	[.064, .078]	.058

Note. CFI = comparative fit index; RMSEA = root-mean-squared error approximation; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

Table 3 shows the means and standard deviations of measured variables and their factor loadings to latent variables. Factor loading values were generally high and equivalent across indicators except for measured variables for prior leadership experience for which factor loadings were .32 and .41.

Table 3. Means and Standard Deviations of Measured Variables

Variable	M	SD	Factor Loading
Prior Leadership Experience			
Months Spent Assuming Elected Leadership Positions	11.02	13.05	.32
Months Spent Assuming Non-Elected Leadership Roles	8.69	8.48	.41
Perceived Amount of Leadership Experience	3.59	1.10	.74
Family Support for Leadership			
Indicator 1	5.45	1.22	.73
Indicator 2	5.46	1.18	.82
Indicator 3	5.40	1.15	.82
Role Model Influence			
Indicator 1	3.36	0.88	.86
Indicator 2	3.11	0.89	.76
Indicator 3	3.36	0.84	.76
Gendered Racial Microaggressions			
Ascribed Submissiveness	3.80	0.89	.76
Asian Fetishism	3.65	1.03	.70
Media Invalidation	3.77	0.93	.80
Assumption of Universal Appearance	3.89	0.97	.73
Leadership Self Efficacy			
Indicator 1	3.54	0.79	.85
Indicator 2	3.53	0.82	.83
Indicator 3	3.66	0.74	.91
Leadership Outcome Expectations			
Indicator 1	3.65	0.67	.87
Indicator 2	3.60	0.65	.87
Indicator 3	3.81	0.65	.76
Indicator 4	3.61	0.64	.81
Leadership Interest			
Indicator 1	3.64	0.76	.84
Indicator 2	3.59	0.80	.86
Indicator 3	3.57	0.79	.85
Leadership Intent			
Leadership Intent Subscale	4.51	0.96	.91
Leadership Aspiration	3.71	0.77	.79

Note. All factor loadings are statistically significant at the $p < .001$ level .

According to Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, and Tatham (2006, p. 218), factor loading of 0.35 can be identified as significant when sample size is 250. Thus, I determined that factor loadings for prior leadership experience are statistically adequate.

SCCT Structural Model

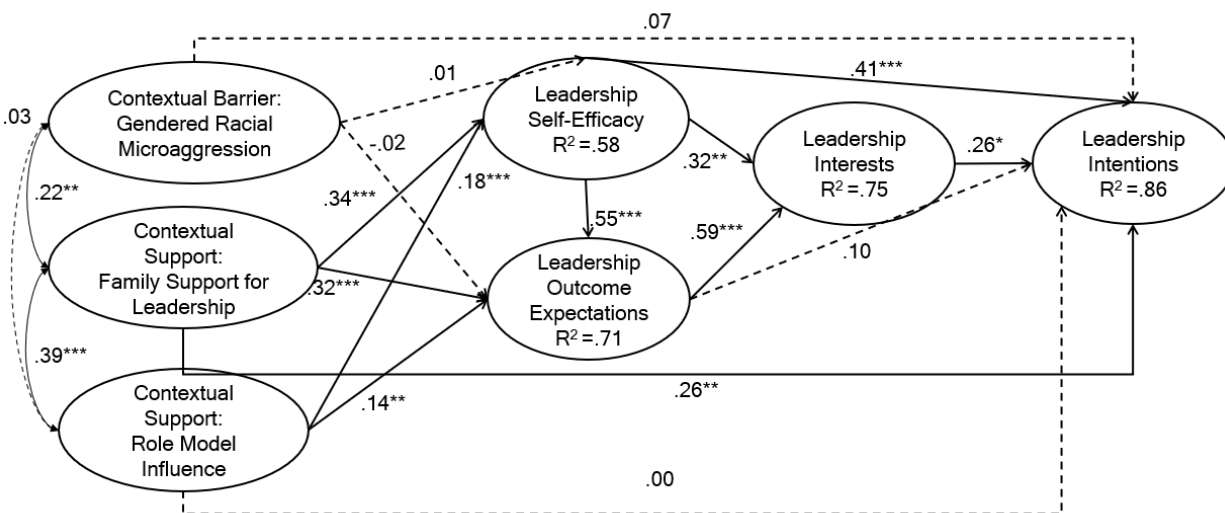
As the measurement model fit the current data adequately, I proceeded to conduct latent variable path analysis to test the SCCT hypothesized model. As seen by the values of CFI (.92), RMSEA (.071), and SRMR (.058) in Table 2, the model fit was acceptable, indicating that the hypothesized SCCT model for predicting leadership intention adequately explains the current data. The coefficient of determination (R^2) indicated that the hypothesized model explained significant proportions of endogenous variables' variance. For example, 85.9% of leadership intention, 74.6% of leadership interest, 71.4% of leadership self-efficacy were explained by the SCCT model.

An examination of the parameter estimates revealed that the general SCCT framework adequately explained the social cognitive development of leadership intention among Asian American female college students. Leadership self-efficacy was positively associated with leadership intention, directly ($B = .41, SE = .07, p = .00$) and indirectly mediated by leadership outcome expectation and leadership interest, as seen by Figure 2.

In support of the study's hypothesis about contextual support variables' positive influence on leadership intention, the family support for leadership was both directly ($B = .26, SE = .06, p = .001$) and indirectly linked to leadership intentions mediated by leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, and leadership interest at a significance level ($p < .05$). Role model influence, another contextual variable, was only indirectly linked with leadership

intention, mediated by leadership self-efficacy and leadership outcome expectation. A direct path from role model influence to leadership intentions was not significant, different from the hypothesis.

Figure 2. Testing the Hypothesized Structural Model



Note. All values are standardized. Prior leadership experiences are controlled for leadership self-efficacy ($B = .49$, $SE = .08$, $p = .00$) but not shown.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$.

Contrary to my expectation, none of the indirect or direct path from gendered racial microaggression to leadership intentions were significant. Neither were they significant to leadership self-efficacy, nor leadership outcome expectations. This also was not directly linked with leadership intention at a significant level.

Table 4 reports the results of significant indirect effects. The indirect effects from family support for leadership to leadership intentions via leadership self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests were significant ($B = .03$, $SE = .02$, $p < .05$). Likewise, an indirect effect from family support to leadership intention, mediated by leadership outcome expectation (not via leadership self-efficacy) and interest ($B = .05$, SE

= .03, $p < .05$), and family support to leadership intention mediated by leadership self-efficacy alone ($B = .14$, $SE = .05$, $p < .05$) were also significant. This supported the study's hypothesis about the impact of family support on leadership intention via SCCT variables. Similarly, a path from role model influence to leadership intention via leadership self-efficacy was significant ($B = .09$, $SE = .04$, $p < .05$) as hypothesized.

Table 4. Summary of Indirect Effects

Significant Indirect Effects				
Path	β	B	Std.error B	95% CI for β
				Lower Upper
FSL → LSE → LOE → INTRS → INTNT	0.03	0.03	0.02	[.01, .07]
FSL → LOE → INTRS → INTNT	0.05	0.05	0.03	[.01, .10]
FSL → LSE → INTNT	0.14	0.14	0.05	[.08, .23]
RMI → LSE → INTNT	0.08	0.09	0.04	[.02, .16]

Note. Bootstrap estimates are based on 5,000 bootstrap samples. FSL = family support of leadership; RMI = role model influence; LSE = leadership self-efficacy; LOE = leadership outcome expectation; INTRS = leadership interest; INTNT = leadership intention

However, contrary to my hypothesis, gendered racial microaggressions revealed no direct or indirect effects on leadership intentions at a significance level ($p < .05$). There were no significantly negative relations between gendered racial microaggressions and leadership self-efficacy, outcome expectations, or leadership intentions at a significance level ($p < .05$).

In terms of relations among the contextual variables, role model influence and family support for leadership were positively covaried as hypothesized. Unexpectedly, family support for leadership was positively covaried with gendered racial microaggression ($B = .22$, $SE = .07$, $p < .05$) while role model influence was not significantly covaried with gendered racial microaggression.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Overview of Findings

This study examined the interplay among cultural-specific contextual variables and cognitive variables for Asian American female college students' leadership intention, through full SEM. The study utilized the SCCT framework along with intersectionality to investigate how the contextual supports (i.e., family support of leadership, Asian American women identified role model influence) and barriers (i.e., gendered racial microaggression) may lead to Asian American female young adults' leadership development. We also explored participants' qualitative perceptions of cultural influence on leadership intention by asking open-ended questions.

The current findings indicate that the intersectionality informed model of interest and choice for Asian American female college students is tenable. The hypothesized model fit the data adequately, according to the fit indices and a significant amount of the variance accounted for in cognitive variables in leadership domains, though there was a varying level of variance among leadership self-efficacy (58%), outcome expectation (71.4%), leadership interest (74.6%), and leadership intention (85.9%). The hypothesized paths from contextual factors to the leadership intention were mostly significant, except for the paths from gendered racial microaggressions' influence. These results are largely in line with the previous findings on the utility of the SCCT for experiences of Asian American students' career outcomes (Tang et al.,

1999, Kelly et al, 2009; Hui & Lent, 2018). More specifically, there have been mixed findings of the role of career interest, an important variable for the SCCT interest choice model, among the Asian American population. The current study found that the most robust variable explaining leadership intention was leadership self-efficacy while leadership interest was moderately linked with leadership intention, similarly to family support's relation to intention. It is in line with Kelly et al. (2009) which found that career interest was one of the significant predictors of goal intentions of the science domain for both men and women. It also partly supports Tang et al. (1999)'s findings that self-efficacy and family involvement were more predictive of Asian American students' career choice than interest was. It indicates that leadership self-efficacy is a key variable to understanding leadership intentions among Asian American college women, while both family support and interest also play important roles.

In terms of career domains, current findings suggest that this culture-specific SCCT can extend to explain the leadership intention development, consistent with previous studies that tested the SCCT model to examine leadership intention of American female college students (Baker, Larson, & Surapaneni, 2016; Yeagley, Subich, & Tokar, 2010). It indicates that this intersectionality informed SCCT may be expanded to study broader career domains, going beyond the traditionality of career choices represented by I-theme fields versus S-theme fields across Holland themes.

Looking at specific relations, the links among leadership-related cognitive variables and leadership intention were generally consistent with Sheu et al. (2010)'s meta-analysis of SCCT testing of Holland themes of career choice among college students aggregated across race and gender. The differences between the findings of Sheu et al. (2010) and the current study were found in two paths: (1) a direct path from self-efficacy to intention, and (2) a direct path from

outcome expectation to intention. The current samples' direct relation from self-efficacy to intention was stronger than most previous SCCT studies' findings on occupation choice (e.g., Sheu, 2010; Hui & Lent, 2018) and on leadership intentions (Yeagley et al., 2010), but was consistent with Baker et al. (2016)'s findings on college women's leadership intention. It indicates that higher leadership self-efficacy can directly lead participants to develop leadership intentions, even without promoting leadership outcome expectation and interests. It is also interesting that the current study found that Asian American college women's direct path from outcome expectation to leadership intention was not significant, which was inconsistent with previous findings (Hui & Lent, 2018; Sheu et al., 2010; Yeagley et al., 2010). This might indicate that for the current sample of Asian American women, their leadership outcome expectation can positively lead to leadership intention, only when it sparks their leadership interest.

In terms of contextual variables' links to leadership intention, only paths from role model influence and family support for leadership (i.e., contextual supports) supported my hypothesis while paths from contextual barriers did not. Specifically, Asian American women identified role model's influence was found to indirectly relate to leadership intention, mostly mediated by leadership self-efficacy. These findings support the theoretical explanation of Lent and Brown's SCCT (1994; 2000) and Bandura's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), which postulated that role model influence would shape self-efficacy as a learning experience, especially through vicarious learning. It is especially meaningful that for Asian American college women, Asian women-identified leaders can help develop leadership intention by cultivating students' leadership self-efficacy. However, the direct path from role model influence to leadership intentions was not significant, indicating that access to role model cannot override Asian American college

women's level of career self-efficacy or career interest. Thus, role model related intervention would need to be provided as part of shaping learning experiences, ideally before the active phase of decision making.

Family support of leadership was found to play an important role in leadership intention among Asian American college women in the current sample both directly and indirectly, mediated via leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations and/or leadership interests. The importance of family support aligns with previous quantitative findings (Tang et al., 1999; Hui & Lent, 2018) and qualitative findings (Fouad et al., 2008) about Asian Americans' career choice in general. It also supports previous qualitative findings about Asian Americans' leadership intention in specific (Lo, 2011; Louie, 2000). The strongest indirect path from family support to intention mediated only by leadership self-efficacy suggests that perceived family support of leadership can mold internal beliefs about self-confidence in leadership, for example, by providing positive feedback, emotional support, and/or resources. In turn, this leadership self-efficacy can motivate Asian American women to participate in leadership-related activities or to pursue leadership related career opportunities, sometimes even without having positive outcome experiences or interests.

Based on another significant indirect path from family support to intention mediated by outcome expectations and interests, perceived family support may directly shape positive outcome expectation of leadership which may kindle students' leadership interest and then intention. This especially makes sense, given the fact this study's leadership outcome expectations include the relationship aspect of outcomes when they become leaders. In addition, current findings of a significant direct link from family support to leadership intention indicate that families may directly encourage Asian American college women to pursue leadership roles

or to engage in leadership activities. This aligns with Hui and Lent (2018)'s findings about family support's direct role in Asian American students' choice of non-traditional careers. In other words, since leadership goes against social norms for Asian American women and it may conflict with families' traditional expectations, leadership intention may be directly influenced by family support.

Contrary to my hypothesis, gendered racial microaggressions were not significantly related to self-efficacy, outcome expectations, or leadership intentions in current sample. I will discuss the possible explanations of this unexpected outcome later. To make sense of the findings, I will draw on the short qualitative responses about perceived cultural influence on their attitudes toward leadership, that some of the participants provided at the time of the survey.

It appears that for Asian American women, family influence/culture is more predictive of leadership intention than perceived gendered racial microaggressions. In fact, when they were asked about cultural influence, most participants stated that their Asian family culture, including parents implicit/explicit messages, has shaped their attitude toward leadership. There were fewer participants who identified gendered racial microaggression experienced by people as an influential factor. When greater family support lead to leadership intention, it is notable that the support did need have to explicitly emphasize on leadership (e.g. "My family wants me to be successful and leadership tends to be a sign of success."). Family misogyny, favoritism toward brothers, or parental expectation of participants to be stereotypical Asian American women, were called out frequently. Often there were responses that family support for leadership has overridden the negative influence of gendered racial microaggressions ("My cultural background has taught me that Asian women are supposed to be quiet, submissive and subservient. We are not supposed to be leaders and take on a more supportive role. However, my own family has taught me that I

can do anything I set my mind to.”) These responses were consistent with Lent et al. (2001)’s observations that people may experience discouragement from their surroundings but can look to see other persons for encouragement. However, it does not explain why the current study yielded positive correlations between gendered racial microaggressions and family support.

Another possible explanation is that to some of the participants, a higher level of perceived gendered racial microaggression might be actually linked with a higher level of leadership intention and other leadership-related cognitive variables. This is supported by significantly positive bivariate correlation among subscales of gendered racial microaggressions and leadership-related cognitive variables (see Table 1). If that is the case, there are at least two potential ways to explain these seemingly counterintuitive findings.

First, given the fact that this study used a cross-sectional design and the data for all the independent/dependent variables were collected at a single point of time, it is possible that for some participants that the relationship might be in the opposite causal direction: the more Asian American college women engage in leadership activity, the more frequently they may encounter the gendered racial microaggression as a backlash to their assertiveness, which does not fit in stereotypes against submissive Asian women. This is supported by a wealth (plenty is too colloquial) of literature focused on gender bias experienced by women identified as leaders in general (Tinkler, Zhao, Li, & Ridgeway, 2019; Williams & Tiedens, 2016). The similar themes emerged in some participants’ short answers (e.g., “Whenever I tried to lead a group they wouldn’t listen to me and it ruined my confidence.”) The link between gendered racial microaggressions and leadership intention may have not been statistically significant, because these subgroup of participants who experienced microaggressions in process of pursuing

leadership was mixed with another subgroup who experienced microaggressions as barriers in developing intentions.

Second, it might be that when individuals experience microaggression based on gender and race, some of them might cope by asserting themselves verbally and pursuing leadership, to prove that Asian women are not passive and demure. Drawing on studies of black women college students' coping with gendered racial microaggressions, Lewis et al. (2013) found that their coping strategies included two resistance coping strategies (i.e., Resisting Eurocentric Standards, Using One's Voice as Power). If this applies to Asian American college women, using their voice as power and resisting the Eurocentric view of Asian women as submissive might be translated into developing leadership intentions. Some of the participants' short answers are consistent with this hypothesis: "My colleague, a white girl . . . said often Asian women do not fit into the leadership position. . . I would like to break her belief. So, I was participated in the leadership position in my college." "As an Asian American, I want to show people that our culture is not submissive."

If it is true that there are subgroups of participants who cope in different ways in the face of gendered racial microaggressions, it is highly likely that there might be a moderator which influences individuals' responses to gendered racial microaggressions in terms of leadership. Resilience (Kodama & Dugan, 2019), contextual factors (e.g., the power of the target in the situation) (Lewis et al, 2013), collective racial esteem (Dugan et al., 2012), and social potency (Baker et al, 2016) might affect the strength or even the direction of the relationship between the experiences of microaggressions and leadership intentions. For example, resilience has been described to help leaders pursue leadership despite contextual challenges and deconstruct power (Kodama & Dugan, 2019). Further, resilience was found to be a protective factor for people of

color so that they could overcome barriers including racial discrimination (Clauss-Ehlers, 2008). Thus, it may be likely that individuals with a greater level of resilience can cope with gendered racial microaggressions by choosing to engage in leadership, whereas individuals with a lower level of resilience may avoid becoming leaders in the face of gendered racial microaggressions. It could also be the case that contextual factors, including the power relationship between the target and perpetrator of microaggressions, may influence Asian American college women's decisions about how to cope with gendered racial microaggressions, similar to Black college women's experiences (Lewis et al. 2013). In other words, Asian American college women may cope with gendered racial microaggressions with different intensity and directions of copings, depending on their level of resilience (Kodama & Dugan, 2019), collective racial esteem (Dugan et al., 2012), and social potency (Baker et al, 2016) or perceived contextual factors (e.g., the power of the target in the situation) (Lewis et al, 2013).

Theoretical Implications

The current study has four theoretical implications.

First, this study supported and extended the utility of the SCCT framework for Asian American female's leadership intentions. Current findings showed that the full SCCT model proposing the dynamic interactions among contextual supports and barriers, cognitive variables, and career goal/intentions adequately fits the Asian American college women sample.

Considering that there have been mixed findings on the role of career interest in predicting Asian Americans' career intentions (e.g., Leong & Gupta, 2007; Shen et al., 2014), this research corroborates that career interest plays an important role in Asian American women's career decisions, along with cultural factors such as family support. This study's findings also highlight

the importance of self-efficacy, a key variable of SCCT, in Asian American college women's career goal and intention development.

Second, the present study utilized the intersectionality approach in three ways: this study looked at Asian American women's experience of the intersections of racism and sexism, borrowing from what Black feminist and activists have passed on to us. In terms of measurement, this study utilized the scale (i.e., Gendered Racial Microaggression Scale for Asian American Women) that was originally developed from an intersectionality lens. When it was not possible to find an existing measure with an established validity for the population, I modified other measures to capture the unique experiences of Asian American women as needed or acknowledged the limitation of the measure in terms of validity for Asian Women in a method section. Further, following the principle of pursuing social change through research (Moradi & Grzanka, 2017), the current study has contributed to extending career theory that explains how to facilitate the positive development of Asian American women leaders, who will serve the good of communities and organizations across the profit and non-profit sectors.

Third, the present study extended the applicability of the SCCT model to examine the development of leadership intentions. Most of the previous studies utilized the SCCT to predict students' choice of occupations based on Holland's themes. Only a few studies have tested the SCCT model to investigate leadership intentions (Yeagley et al., 2010; Baker et al., 2016), and none of them examined the full SCCT interest choice model by including contextual supports and barriers and all the cognitive variables (i.e., self-efficacy, outcome expectations, interest, and intention). This study showed the potential utility of SCCT for examining broader career intentions beyond occupation choice.

Fourth, this study contributed to the literature by clarifying the different mechanisms of how role model influence and family support for leadership influence the leadership intentions among Asian American college women. Previous SCCT studies on contextual supports used one contextual support variable comprised of different clusters of supports including social support, access to role models and mentors, instrumental assistance, and financial supports (e.g., Lent et al., 2001), thus could not tease apart the impact of each type of supports. This study included family support for leadership and role model influence as distinct contextual support variables and found that family support may directly and indirectly impact leadership intentions while role model influence only indirectly influence leadership intentions through learning experience and cognitive variables.

Practical Implications

This study showed that leadership self-efficacy is the biggest contributor to developing leadership intention among Asian American college women. Given that self-efficacy is a modifiable variable (Duffy & Lent, 2009; Lent & Brown, 2006) it is crucial to provide education/interventions targeting building self-efficacy in order to promote Asian American college women's intention to engage in leadership activities and pursue leadership roles in career paths. This is consistent with Anderson et al. (2008)'s research which suggested the starting point for leadership development efforts should be self-focusing on self-efficacy, separate from leadership capacity and effectiveness. Educators and mental-health professionals may take advantage of the existing theory of Bandura's self-efficacy (Bandura, 2000), translating the four sources of self-efficacy (i.e., mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states) to specific interventions to promote leadership, tailoring them to unique needs of Asian American college women.

To do this, the current findings of contextual support variables suggest two ways to support the development of self-efficacy, taking into consideration the unique cultural contexts of Asian American college women. First, providing Asian women identified leadership role models with a positive learning experience would be helpful, given that role model influence was indirectly linked with leadership intention through learning experiences. For example, educators could intentionally expose Asian American female students to the story of Asian American women leaders in diverse fields. It would be also helpful to facilitate mentorship by coupling Asian American college women with peer or faculty mentors who are actively making their voices heard. In career counseling, counselors can help students explore role model figures in their lives, including family members, people they know personally, or someone they learn about through media, to whom they feel they can relate.

Moreover, it will be important to integrate family support for leadership in planning career counseling or education programs. Because the current findings indicated that family support for leadership both directly and indirectly facilitates leadership intentions, perceived family support can be leveraged, regardless of the students' level of leadership self-efficacy, outcome expectation, or leadership interests. For example, educators or counselors may explore each individual's perception of family support of leadership to understand students' needs. Practitioners could also consider providing community outreach to Asian families so that families could support their daughters' leadership intentions. Specifically, it is worth noting that perceived family support of leadership could be more expansive and may look different across each family, not be limited to parents' explicit and direct encouragement for leadership. For example, current participants' short responses indicate that parents' cultural values of hard work, excellence, and success could be interpreted as support for leadership.

Limitations and Future Directions

The present research has several limitations as follows.

First, this research used a cross-sectional design, collecting data for all independent and dependent variables at the same time. Thus, any causal relationship or temporal predominance cannot be assumed from the result.

Second, the current study relied on self-report to an online survey. Thus the current findings might be affected by common method bias. Even though I tried to address that issue by using Harman's single factor analysis that alone is not enough, according to recent literature (Podsakoff, Mackenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012). I also collected short responses to utilize as an aid in interpreting the quantitative self-report survey data, but the short responses could not be analyzed in a systemic way as mixed-method design, because of the variability both in the response rate and quality of the data.

Third, the sampling method and the current sample have limitations. I tried to recruit participants from different resources including email listserve, campus associations, community partners, and Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTurk), but it turned out the majority of participants engaged in this research through the MTurk platform which has both advantages and disadvantages. Though MTurk allowed the current study to recruit participants nationwide, Mturkers may pay less attention and have less reliability in terms of their identity, compared to a sample recruited by community centers or organizations. I utilized screening questions so that I could eliminate participants who do not meet the selection criteria (e.g., White male) and who failed the attention checks. Still, I cannot guarantee that all participants actually meet the selection criteria. Furthermore, the current sample's average age was older than the general

demographics of US college students, so it cannot be generalized to the US population identified as Asian American female college students.

Fourth, the definition and measurement from the intersectionality framework were limited. The current study focused on the intersectionality of race and gender to address gendered racial oppression because the measures for intersectional oppressions associated with gender and race were more readily available. In addition, some of the measures were developed for aggregated Americans, and thus their validity was not proven for Asian American women population.

Fifth, the current study applied the SCCT and the notion of leadership conceptualized based on Western cultural values, to examine Asian American women's leadership development process. Though SCCT has been utilized to investigate the career development process of diverse groups including Asian populations both living in the U.S and outside the US (Kantamneni, Dharmalingam, Orley, & Kanagasingam, 2018), it is still questionable if the basic assumption of SCCT captures Asian American women's career development process. Asian Americans are known to have collectivistic values which manifest as commitment to family and a desire to serve the community (Leong & Gupta, 2007). Specifically in the leadership domain, it aligns with the previous qualitative study's findings of Asian American women leaders who pursued leadership to serve the community good (Kawahara et al., 2013). However, SCCT variables (i.e., leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectations, and leadership interest) do not sufficiently reflect the importance of interdependent and collectivistic values, as it is based on the assumption that individuals' cognition of their own ability, expectation, and interests count in decision making of goals. Similarly, leadership in the United States is shaped by the cultural values of individualism, independence, competition, and personal responsibility (Sue & Sue,

2013). Based on the conceptualization of leadership, scales used for each variable assessed individuals' confidence in their ability to accomplish each leadership task, expectation about their leadership behavior, and their interests in pursuing leadership. Though this study tried to take into account the role of collectivistic value by including family support for leadership as a contextual support variable, and by asking participants' expectation in the relationship domain as part of outcome expectation, it is still limited in examining the leadership development process from the perspective of Asian cultural value.

Lastly, the current study included prior leadership experience as a control variable as opposed to a study variable because its conceptualization and its measure do not match the definition of learning experience in the original SCCT. This study defined prior leadership experience as the amount of their engaging in leadership related activities and asked participants to report the months of serving leadership roles and perceived amount of leadership experiences. On the other hand, the learning experience in the original model refers to broader experiences that are comprised of repeated activity engagement, modeling, and feedback from significant others (Lent et al., 1994), which tap into four sources of self-efficacy including mastery experiences, vicarious learning, physiological and affective states, and verbal persuasion (Bandura, 2017). In other words, the amount of leadership experience assessed in this study does not capture the subjective aspect of learning, thus was included as a control variable rather than a study variable as part of full SCCT model.

Given the current study's limitations, I would like to suggest future directions for research as follows. First, intervention studies or experimental studies that include key variables in the SCCT model (e.g., gendered racial microaggression, contextual support, leadership self-efficacy) would help in clarifying a causal relationship of SCCT leading to leadership intentions

among Asian female college students. Leadership intentions could be measured by behavioral engagement, including participants' willingness to apply for leadership positions or to sign up for leadership workshops, following previous experimental studies (Gündemir, Dovidio, Homan, & De Dreu, 2017; Scott DeRue, Nahrgang, Hollenbeck, & Workman, 2012).

Second, the influence of gendered racial microaggression's on cognitive variables and leadership career goals would need to be further illuminated by future researchers. For example, if there are differences across Asian college women in their ways of coping with gendered racial microaggression, there might be moderators that influence intensity or directions of individuals' reactions: whether they avoid leadership or pursue leadership. For example, researchers could examine the role of internalized oppression, resilience (Kodama & Dugan, 2019), collective racial esteem (Dugan et al., 2012), environmental support of diversity (Lewis, Mendenhall, Harwood, & Hunt, 2013), or social potency (Baker et al, 2016). The findings would be greatly helpful for creating interventions.

Third, I would recommend that future researchers expand and strengthen the intersectionality framework in two ways. They could test the current study's model by investigating leadership development of other marginalized populations with an intersection of systemic powers associated with sexuality, socioeconomic class, ability, religion, immigration status, and body size. For example, future researchers could study the development of leadership intention of Asian American queers, by incorporating their perceived family support, sense of belongingness to communities (e.g., queer communities, Asian American communities, or both), and internalized racism and queerphobia. Another way to make a positive impact through research (Moradi & Grzanka, 2017) would be to develop a leadership training program for Asian American women based on the SCCT and current findings (e.g., the importance of family

support for leadership and role model influence), deliver the training to the Asian American college women, and evaluate the effect of the program by using multiple methods. Given the relationship between leadership, advocacy, and civic engagement (Kodama & Dugan, 2013), that future research would empower the community to voice their needs.

Fourth, future researchers could examine the role of the leadership learning experiences as a part of the full SCCT interest and choice model. According to SCCT, learning experiences are important as that influence career goal and behavior mediated by self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and interests. In this context, learning experience refers to encompass vicarious learning, mastery experiences, affective states, and feedback in the leadership domain, beyond the amount of engaging in certain activities. I would suggest that future studies conceptualize prior leadership learning experiences to include those subjective aspects of learning and used a valid measure to assess them accordingly.

Fifth, the notion of leadership and the leadership development process on the basis of SCCT would need to be better conceptualized from the perspective of Asian culture which includes an emphasis on community values and interdependence. Based on that conceptualization, measures would need to be developed to validly assess leadership variables based on their cultural value. One of the alternative ways to conceptualize leadership that is close to Asian cultural value is transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is characterized by its emphasis on cultivating inspiration and dedication to an organization's mission (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000). Moreover, it is characterized by motivating associates, colleagues, and followers to pursue the community good beyond their individual self-interests (Avolio & Bass, 2002). There have been studies that linked transformational leadership to Asian cultural values. For example, Varghese et al (2017) discussed how Indian values of duty, selfless

service, and nonviolence could guide the development of transformational leadership. Future researchers could benefit from notions and scales of transformational leadership to define variables and develop the measures in a way that increases cultural validity. Furthermore, the cultural difference calls for deeper examination at a theoretical level on whether SCCT is a truly valid theory for explaining Asian women population's career development, going beyond testing the model fit.

Conclusion

The recent spike in Anti-Asian hate crimes since the beginning of the pandemic, including murder of six Asian women in Atlanta, has brought to the surface the deep-rooted racial and gendered macro and microaggressions toward Asian American women. This calls for researchers and practitioners to promote leadership development for Asian American women, so that they can make their voices heard and lead a decision-making process to create a more safe and equitable society where they can flourish personally and professionally. The current study utilized the intersectionality framework and the SCCT interest choice model to explain the dynamic interplay of unique contextual supports for and barriers to Asian American college women and also their cognitive variables which lead to leadership intention. This study revealed that the SCCT model adequately fit the current sample of Asian American college women's leadership intention well, and it showed that leadership self-efficacy was the most robust variable in explaining leadership intention. In terms of contextual supports, role model influence was indirectly associated with greater leadership intention through cognitive variables including self-efficacy, whereas family support for leadership was both directly and indirectly linked with higher leadership intentions. However, the variable of gendered racial microaggressions was not significantly related to other variables and leadership intentions. Despite several limitations, the

current study contributes to the literature by expanding the utility of SCCT for Asian American college women and leadership variables. It also informs educators and practitioners of programming interventions for promoting leadership intention tailored to Asian American women.

APPENDIX A

RECRUITMENT ANNOUNCEMENT FOR AMAZON MECHANICAL TURK

**Research Study: Predicting Asian American College Women's Leadership Intention
Using Social Cognitive Career Theory**

Dear Participant,

I am a doctoral candidate in the Counseling Psychology Program at Loyola University Chicago. I am currently recruiting participants for **dissertation examining the interplay of contextual factors and cognitive factors that leads to Asian/Asian American college women's leadership intention**. I need your help in the completion of this important task. We would like to extend an invitation to anyone who meets the required criteria. We are looking for participants who:

1. Identify as Asian/Asian American women
2. Are age 18 or older
3. Are college students
4. Are currently residing in U.S.

Completing this study will take approximately 15 – 20 minutes. At the completion of the survey, you will be compensated \$1 (within 3 days) if you meet the inclusion criteria (Asian/Asian American college woman within the United States) and correctly answer all built-in validity-check questions.

You may choose not to answer some questions, and you may also choose to stop participating at any time once you have begun. Your responses will not be linked to identifying information such as your IP address.

If you are interested in this research, please click the link below.

.....
For questions and concerns pertaining to the present study, you may contact the following individuals:

Jeong-Eun Suh, M.A.
Graduate Student/Principal Investigator
jsuh2@luc.edu

Hui Xu, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor/Dissertation Chair
hXu2@luc.edu

Your help is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,
Jeong-Eun Suh, MA.
Doctoral Candidate
Counseling Psychology, Loyola University Chicago

APPENDIX B

RECRUITMENT ANNOUNCEMENT FOR PARTICIPANTS OUTSIDE OF AMAZON

MECHANICAL TURK

**Research Study: Predicting Asian American College Women's Leadership Intention
Using Social Cognitive Career Theory**

Dear Participant,

I am a doctoral candidate in the Counseling Psychology Program at Loyola University Chicago. I am currently recruiting participants for my **dissertation examining the interplay of contextual factors and cognitive factors that leads to Asian/Asian American college women's leadership intention**. I need your help in the completion of this important task. We would like to extend an invitation to anyone who meets the required criteria. We are looking for participants who:

1. Identify as Asian/Asian American women
2. Are age 18 or older
3. Are college students
4. Are currently residing in U.S.

Completing this study will take approximately 15 – 20 minutes. At the completion of the survey, you will be entered into a raffle to win one of four \$25 Amazon e-gift cards for your voluntary participation.

You may choose not to answer some questions, and you may also choose to stop participating at any time once you have begun. Your responses will not be linked to identifying information such as your IP address.

If you are interested in this research, please click the link below.

.....

For questions and concerns pertaining to the present study, you may contact the following individuals:

Jeong-Eun Suh, M.A.
Graduate Student/Principal Investigator
jsuh2@luc.edu

Hui Xu, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor/Dissertation Chair
hxu2@luc.edu

Your help is greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,
Jeong-Eun Suh, MA.
Doctoral Candidate
Counseling Psychology, Loyola University Chicago

APPENDIX C

APPROVED CONSENT FORM FOR AMAZON MECHANICAL TURK

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Project Title: Predicting Asian American College Women's Leadership Intention Using Social Cognitive Career Theory

Researcher(s): Jeong-Eun Suh, M.A., and Hui Xu, Ph.D.

You are being asked to take part in a research study being conducted by Jeong-Eun Suh, a doctoral candidate in Counseling Psychology at Loyola University Chicago as part of a dissertation project. The study is being overseen by Dr. Hui Xu's supervision.

You are being asked to participate because we would like to understand how the environmental supports and barriers influence Asian/Asian American college women's leadership self-efficacy, expectation, interest, and intention. If you identify yourself as Asian/Asian American college woman residing in the United States and are 18 years old or above, you may participate in this study. Approximately 300-400 individuals will be asked to participate in this study. Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before deciding whether to participate in the study.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine the interplay of contextual factors and cognitive factors that leads to Asian American college women's leadership intention.

Procedures: If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to answer a set of questionnaires about your demographic information, prior leadership experiences, gendered racial microaggression, family support, role model influence, leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, leadership interest, leadership intention, and four open-ended questions. It should take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the survey.

Risks/Benefits: There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. There are no direct benefits to you from participation, but you may gain a greater understanding about your experiences as Asian/Asian American woman in the U.S. and their impact on your leadership development. You will also be helping counseling/psychology professionals in their work with Asian American college woman populations.

Compensation: At the completion of the survey, you will be given the opportunity to enter a raffle to win one of four \$25 Amazon e-gift cards for your voluntary participation.

Confidentiality: Information obtained as a result of this survey will be kept confidential. There is no way a participant can be identified in this study. Worker IDs are kept in confidential and secure, are not lined back to survey data, and are deleted after use.

Voluntary Participation: Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in this study, you may simply disregard this invitation. Even if you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

Contacts and Questions: If you have questions about this research study, please contact Jeong-Eun Suh at (773) 704-8948 or jsuh2@luc.edu or my research supervisor Dr. Hui Xu at (312) 915-3702 or hxu2@luc.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

Statement of Consent: By completing the survey, you are agreeing to participate in the research. Your completion of the survey will indicate consent for an informed participation. If you decide not to participate in this study, you may simply disregard this survey. Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Sincerely,
Jeong-Eun Suh, MA. Hui Xu, PhD

APPENDIX D

APPROVED CONSENT FORM FOR PARTICIPANTS OUTSIDE OF AMAZON

MECHANICAL TURK

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Project Title: Predicting Asian American College Women's Leadership Intention Using Social Cognitive Career Theory

Researcher(s): Jeong-Eun Suh, M.A., and Hui Xu, Ph.D.

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You are being asked to participate because we would like to understand how the environmental supports and barriers influence Asian/Asian American college women's leadership self-efficacy, expectation, interest, and intention. If you identify yourself as Asian/Asian American college woman residing in the United States and are 18 years old or above, you may participate in this study. Approximately 300-400 individuals will be asked to participate in this study. Please read this form carefully and ask any questions you may have before deciding whether to participate in the study.

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine the interplay of contextual factors and cognitive factors that leads to Asian American college women's leadership intention.

Procedures: If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to answer a set of questionnaires about your demographic information, prior leadership experiences, gendered racial microaggression, family support, role model influence, leadership self-efficacy, leadership outcome expectation, leadership interest, leadership intention, and four open-ended questions. It should take you approximately 15-20 minutes to complete the survey.

Risks/Benefits: There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research beyond those experienced in everyday life. There are no direct benefits to you from participation, but you may gain a greater understanding about your experiences as Asian/Asian American woman in the U.S. and their impact on your leadership development. You will also be helping counseling/psychology professionals in their work with Asian American college woman populations.

Compensation: At the completion of the survey, you will be given the opportunity to enter a raffle to win one of four \$25 Amazon e-gift cards for your voluntary participation.

Confidentiality: Information obtained as a result of this survey will be kept confidential. There is no way a participant can be identified in this study. Worker IDs are kept in confidential and secure, are not lined back to survey data, and are deleted after use.

Voluntary Participation: Participation in this study is voluntary. If you do not want to be in this study, you may simply disregard this invitation. Even if you decide to participate, you are free not to answer any question or to withdraw from participation at any time without penalty.

Contacts and Questions: If you have questions about this research study, please contact Jeong-Eun Suh at (773) 704-8948 or jsuh2@luc.edu or my research supervisor Dr. Hui Xu at (312) 915-3702 or hxu2@luc.edu. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the Loyola University Office of Research Services at (773) 508-2689.

Statement of Consent: By completing the survey, you are agreeing to participate in the research. Your completion of the survey will indicate consent for an informed participation. If you decide not to participate in this study, you may simply disregard this survey. Thank you very much for your time and effort.

Sincerely,

Jeong-Eun Suh, MA. & Hui Xu, PhD

APPENDIX E
SURVEY PACKET

Demographics

1. Age _____

2. Gender _____ Male _____ Female _____ Trans male/trans man _____ Trans female/trans woman _____ Genderqueer/gender non-conforming _____ Different identity (please state)

3. Ethnicity (e.g., Cambodian, Chinese, Filipino, Hmong, Indian, Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese, Vietnamese, Chinese and White, Filipino and Japanese, etc.)

4. What is your sexual orientation?
 ___ Bisexual ___ Gay or Lesbian ___ Heterosexual ___ Questioning ___ Not listed (please state)

5. Length of Time in College
 _____ 1st year _____ 2nd year _____ 3rd year
 _____ 4th year _____ 5th year _____ 6th year
 _____ Beyond 6th year (please specify) _____ Not in college

6. Please indicate your current (or intended) academic major

7. Generation in the U.S. (check most applicable one)
 _____ I was born outside the U.S. (e.g., China) and moved to the U.S.
 _____ I was born in the U.S. but both parent(s) immigrated.
 _____ One parent and I were born in the U.S. (other parent immigrated).

- _____ Both parents and I were born in the U.S.
_____ Grandparents, parents, and I were born in the U.S.
_____ Great-grandparents and beyond were born in the U.S.

8. Are you the first one in your family to attend college? _____
9. What percentage is Asian/Asian American in your college? _____
10. If you were born outside the U.S. (e.g., India) and moved to the U.S., how old were you when you moved to the U.S.? _____

11. How would you describe your family of origin's social class?

- _____ lower class
_____ lower-middle class
_____ middle class
_____ upper-middle class
_____ upper class

12. What is your family of origin's approximate household income before taxes?

- _____ Under \$ 20,000
_____ \$20,000 to less than \$40,000
_____ \$40,000 to less than \$60,000
_____ \$60,000 to less than \$80,000
_____ \$80,000 to less than \$100,000
_____ \$100,000 to less than \$120,000
_____ \$120,000 to less than \$140,000
_____ \$140,000 to less than \$160,000
_____ \$160,000 to less than \$180,000

_____ \$180,000 to less than \$200,000

_____ \$200,000 or more

Survey Questionnaires

****Please read each question carefully and fill in the blanks or choose the response that most closely resembles your answer.**

1. For how many months during high school or college did you hold an elected office in either school government or organized clubs?

Number of Months in High School _____

Number of Months in College _____

2. For how many months that you spent involved in clubs or committees did you assume a leadership role? This question does not refer to elected leadership positions but situations in which you volunteered to lead.

3. Number of Months in Leadership Role _____

4. For how many months that you spent working either as a paid worker or volunteer did you manage other workers? _____

5. For group situations during classroom activities, what percentage of the time would you say that you assume the leadership role?

0.....1.....2.....3.....4.....5

None 1-20% 21-40% 41-60% 61-80% 81-100%

6. In general, how much leadership experience do you have compared to others your age? 0.....1.....2.....3.....4.....5

None	More than 20% of the people my age	More than 40% of the people my age	More than 60% of the people my age	More than 80% of the people my age	More than 99% of the people my age
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****How do you believe your parents/family members would feel about you pursuing a leadership role (e.g., developing leadership skills, applying for a leadership position, taking initiative to improve something)? Using the 1-7 scale below, please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with the statements.**

	Strongly Disagree			Strongly Agree			
1. They would support my decision to pursue a leadership role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. They would probably be happy if I went into career that involves leadership.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. They expect people from our culture to pursue a leadership role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. They would be proud of me for pursuing a leadership role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. They would encourage me to continue to pursue a leadership role.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

**** Below are statements that you may agree or disagree with. Using the 1 - 5 scale below, indicate your agreement with each item by placing the appropriate number on the line preceding that item. Please be open and honest in your responding.**

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree

At the present time, I ...

1. There is an Asian American woman mentor who tells or shows me general strategies for a successful life.
2. There is an Asian American woman leader I am trying to be like.
3. There is no Asian American woman leader particularly inspirational to me
4. There is an Asian American woman leader I admire.
5. There is no Asian American woman leader I am trying to be like.
6. I have a mentor who identify as an Asian American woman.
7. I know of Asian American woman in a leadership role who has a career I would like to pursue.
8. There is no Asian American woman leader who inspires me.

**** Please think about your experiences as an Asian/Asian American woman. Please read each item and think of how often each event has happened to you in your lifetime. In addition, please rate how stressful each experience was for you. Stressful can include feeling upset, bothered, offended, or annoyed by the event.**

Frequency

0	1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very Frequently	Always

Stress

0	1	2	3	4	5
Not at all Stressful	Slightly Stressful	Somewhat Stressful	Moderately Stressful	Very Stressful	Extremely Stressful

1. Others expect me to be submissive.
2. Others have been surprised when I disagree with them. .
3. Others take my silence as a sign of compliance.
4. Others have been surprised when I do things independent of my family.
5. Others have implied that Asian American women seem content for being a subordinate.
6. Others treat me as if I will always comply with their requests.
7. Others expect me to sacrifice my own needs to take care of others (e.g., family, partner) because I am an Asian American women.
8. Others have hinted that Asian American women are not assertive enough to be leaders.
9. Others have hinted that Asian American women seem to have no desire for leadership.

10. Others express sexual interest in me because of my Asian appearance.
11. Others take sexual interest in Asian American women to fulfill their fantasy.
12. Others take romantic interest in Asian American women just because they never had sex with an Asian American women before.
13. Others have treated me as if I am always open to sexual advances.
14. I see non-Asian women being casted to play female Asian characters. I rarely see Asian American women playing the lead role in the media.
15. I rarely see Asian American women playing the lead role in the media.
16. I rarely see Asian American women in the media.
17. I see Asian American women playing the same type of characters (e.g., Kung Fu woman, sidekick, mistress, tiger mom) in the media.
18. I see Asian American women characters being portrayed as emotionally distant (e.g., cold-hearted, lack of empathy) in the media.
19. Others have talked about Asian American women as if they all have the same facial features (e.g., eye shape, skin tone).
20. Others have suggested that all Asian American women look alike.
21. Others have talked about Asian American women as if they all have the same body type (e.g., petite, tiny, small-chested).
22. Others have pointed out physical traits in Asian American women that do not look "Asian."

**** For each item below indicate your degree of confidence in your ability to accomplish each task or activity. Use the following scale to indicate your confidence:**

1	2	3	4	5
No Confidence at All	Very Little Confidence	Moderate Confidence	Much Confidence	Complete Confidence

1. Inspire others through your leadership.
2. Lead a scout or church group for kids.
3. Persuade busy people to take on important volunteer tasks.
4. Bring people with different viewpoints together to cooperate on a project.
5. Motivate others to follow your vision.
6. Motivate others to tackle challenging assignments.
7. Lead other people.
8. Serve as a group facilitator.
9. Be elected to an office in an organization.
10. Public Speaking

****Please choose the number that indicates how much you agree or disagree with the following statements using the sentence stem: **If I held a leadership position...****

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. ...I would be emotionally stable.
2. ...my relationship with family members would suffer.
3. ...I would feel out of place or like I didn't belong.
4. ...I would be less healthy than I am now.
5. ...my ideas would be valued.
6. ...I would have to work harder than my male-colleagues to be successful.
7. ...I would be evaluated unfairly by my coworkers.

8. ...I would not have enough time to spend with family members.
9. ...the men I lead would respect me.
10. ...I would be happy with my salary.
11. ...I would have time for other activities that I enjoy.
12. ...I would feel good about my relationships with family members.
13. ...The women I lead would respect me.
14. ...I would not be paid as much as my male coworkers.
15. ...I would be able to have the family life that I desire.
16. ...I would feel successful.
17. ...my family would be proud of me.
18. ...my colleagues would expect me to be good at my job.
19. ...overall, I would be satisfied with my life.
20. ...I would be evaluated fairly by my coworkers.
21. ...I would be paid as much as my male colleagues.
22. ...I would have to work harder than men in the same position.
23. ...other leaders would listen to me.
24. ...I would experience less physical stress than I do now.
25. ...I would be healthier than I am now.
26. ...I would have energy for activities other than work.
27. ...the people who I lead would not respect me.
28. ...I would be emotionally unstable.
29. ...I would feel good about myself.
30. ...overall, I would be dissatisfied with my life.
31. ...my family would disapprove.
32. ...I would not have time for other activities that I enjoy.
33. ...I would experience discrimination because I am a woman.
34. ...I would experience a lot of physical stress.
35. ...other leaders would not listen to me.

36....I would have more opportunities to help others.

37. ...I would be able to have and raise children.

38. ...I would be able to get married.

**** **** Read each question carefully and decide how you would feel about doing each type of work. Try NOT to think about if you have enough education or training to do the work. Just think about if you would like or dislike doing the work.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Dislike	Dislike	Neither Like Nor Dislike	Like	Strongly Like

1. Make important things happen
2. Lead other people
3. Be a sales or marketing director
4. Be the chief executive of a large company
5. Organize a political campaign
6. Be the master of ceremonies at a meeting
7. Plan an advertising campaign
8. Debate topics in a public meeting
9. Persuade others to change their views
10. Be a state governor or senator
11. Run for political office
12. Make decisions that affect a lot of people

** Please indicate how likely would you participate in the following leadership opportunities using the 0 to 5 below.

0	1	2	3	4	5
Not at all likely	Unlikely	Slightly Unlikely	Slightly Likely	Likely	Very likely

1. request more information about leadership positions.
2. attend a leadership development workshop.
3. apply for a leadership role on their own.
4. apply for a leadership position if notified about it.
5. apply for a leadership position if specifically nominated.
6. accept a leadership role if it were offered.

** In the space next to the statements below please choose a number from 0 (not at all true of me) to 4 (very true of me). If the statement does not apply, choose 0. Please be completely honest. Your answers are entirely confidential and will be useful only if they accurately describe you.

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all True of Me	Slightly True of Me	Moderately True of Me	Quite a Bit True of Me	Very True of Me

1. I hope to become a leader in my career field.
2. When I am established in my career, I would like to manage other employees.
3. I do not plan to devote energy to getting promoted in the organization or business I am working in.
4. When I am established in my career, I would like to train others.
5. I hope to move up through any organization or business I work in.
6. Attaining leadership status in my career is not that important to me.

****Please answer the following questions.**

1. Please share how your cultural background has influenced your view on leadership, if any.
2. What three adjectives come to your mind when you think of leadership?
3. What have shaped your attitude toward leadership? Please describe any relevant experiences, relationships, and/or other factors.
4. Please share any reaction or thoughts on the survey questions.

****Thank you very much again for your time and effort!**

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