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Jessica Yustantio		21/05/2021

Unpacking the 'Bamboo Ceiling' Effect from an Emotions Perspective and Examining Potential Solutions through Mentors and Role Models

JESSICA YUSTANTIO

A thesis in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

School of Management

Faculty of Business

UNSW Sydney

July 2020

Thesis/Dissertation Sheet

Surname/Family Name	:	**Yustantio**
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Abbreviation for degree as give in the University calendar	:	**PhD**
Faculty	:	**Business**
School	:	**Management**
Thesis Title	:	**Unpacking the 'Bamboo Ceiling' Effect from an Emotions Perspective and Examining Potential Solutions through Mentors and Role Models.**

Abstract

The 'bamboo ceiling' is a metaphorical term used to explain the underrepresentation of Asians in leadership positions. This includes the individual, cultural and organisational barriers and challenges that Asians encounter on their way to attaining higher-level positions in Western organisations. The aim of this thesis is to provide a more informed understanding of the bamboo ceiling effect and to shape research questions that are of priority areas for knowledge sharing. Chapter 1 introduces the thesis topic and presents a review of the literature on the bamboo ceiling effect. In examining the literature, I synthesise the major findings in the literature, and subsequently gain further insight into under-examined areas. I pool together a series of research questions to guide the subsequent empirical studies (Chapter 2 and Chapter 3) that help explain the bamboo ceiling effect and its potential solutions. Chapter 2 focuses on the lack of knowledge in explaining the bamboo ceiling effect through an emotions perspective—namely, the mediating effect of perceived ability to manage emotions as a way to understand the differences in the leadership promotability of male and female Asian and Caucasian leaders. Chapter 3 addresses the limitations in the field to investigate potential solutions to eliminate the bamboo ceiling. This chapter presents the effect of race of mentors and role models through a two-wave field study, and applies signaling theory and similarity attraction paradigm to highlight the potential benefits for Asians of having a Caucasian mentor and an Asian role model towards their self-perceived leadership promotability. Chapter 4 presents the thesis' overarching theoretical and practical contributions, alongside limitations and future research proposals.

Originality Statement

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work and to the best of my knowledge it contains no materials previously published or written by another person, or substantial proportions of material which have been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at UNSW or any other educational institution, except where due acknowledgement is made in the thesis. Any contribution made to the research by others, with whom I have worked at UNSW or elsewhere, is explicitly acknowledged in the thesis. I also declare that the intellectual content of this thesis is the product of my own work, except to the extent that assistance from others in the project's design and conception or in style, presentation and linguistic expression is acknowledged.

Signed …….....…….

Date ……17/7/2020…….

Acknowledgements

If success is 10% inspiration and 90% perspiration, I am grateful to have had the following people on my journey, who have both inspired and trained me to work my hardest in completing this dissertation.

Professor Karin Sanders and A/Professor Nick Wang— thank you for tirelessly believing in this research. Your supervision for the past years has continued to push me further intellectually, and I am infinitely grateful for your teachings and guidance. Dr Cai-Hui (Veronica) Lin and Dr Timothy Bednall—thank you for your contribution in reviewing and improving this dissertation.

Professor Chris Jackson, A/Professor Amirali Minbashian, A/Professor Will Felps, Dr Mahreen Kahn, Dr David Shao, Dr Benjamin Walker, Dr Lauren Keating, Dr Roxy Dawidowski, Kelsey Burton, Matt Dallas, Christian Criado-Perez, Fatemeh Jafaralijasbi, Yu (John) Wu — I am humbled to have met and worked with each of you during my candidature.

My eight-month-old Kimberley and her exceptional dad, Kenrick —you are the reasons why I am here today. Thank you for promoting me to motherhood during this PhD candidature. Having a baby and producing a thesis is a challenge worthy to be accepted! My parents, parents-in-law, sister, brothers (in-laws), niece and nephew— thank you for your continuous care for my wellbeing. I am forever thankful for your generosity in looking after Kimberley during these past few months as I complete the dissertation.

Finally, the individuals who have shared their experiences of the bamboo ceiling effect in one form or another— particularly my students, friends and peers. Thank you for sharing the challenges that you faced in your careers. You inspired me to finish this dissertation and to continue finding ways to eliminate this barrier together.

Contents

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List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CI	Confidence Interval
FIML	Full-information Maximum Likelihood
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness
HRM	Human Resources Management
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SRMR	Standardised Root Mean Square Residual
US	United States

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction to the Bamboo Ceiling

'A career book about Asians? Aren't they doing fine?' observed *The Economist* ('The benefits of being bold', 2020) as one of the questions raised upon Jane Hyun (2005) in publication of her book, *Breaking the Bamboo Ceiling: Career Strategies for Asians*. Hyun (2005) coined the term 'bamboo ceiling' as a nod to the glass ceiling metaphor—which scholars describe as a 'powerful vocabulary for women, who after promising starts, found their career progress slowing as they reached higher levels of their organisation' (Kulik & Rae, 2019, p. 12). Similar to women, Asians are not well represented in the leadership ranks in Western organisations, and are worthy of a focus in the literature because the challenges and barriers they face are often masked by the positive observations of their work competence and academic success (Burris, Ayman, Che, & Min, 2013; Lai & Babcock, 2013; Lu, Nisbett, & Morris, 2020; Sy, Tram-Quon, & Leung, 2017).

Asians comprise around 5.6% of the population in the United States (US) (Census Bureau, 2017) and 16.3% in Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016). The US Department of Labour found that, in 2018, 63% of Asians aged 25 and older had graduated college, in contrast to 41% of Caucasians of the same age. However, Asians comprise only 1.7% of S&P 500 companies' senior-level executives in the US (Catalyst, 2019) and 4% of the ASX 200 board members in Australia (PwC, 2018). According to a 2019 study, Caucasian women hold almost one-third of all management positions (32.6%), but the share of Asian women is only 2.4% (Catalyst, 2019). Similar to the glass ceiling, which describes the invisible barriers that women experience as they seek to advance through organisational hierarchies (Kulik & Rae, 2019), the bamboo ceiling is defined as a combination of the individual, cultural and organisational barriers

that systematically prevent Asians from rising to top management (Hyun, 2005, 2012). These barriers are often subtle and require a careful exploration of the underlying assumptions and beliefs to understand them fully (Hyun, 2012).

Historically, the phenomenon described as the bamboo ceiling fell under the umbrella term of ‘glass ceiling’, after the US Department of Labour adopted the ‘glass ceiling’ term to include racial minorities as part of the agenda for anti-discrimination on both gender and race (Kulik & Rae, 2019). The popularity of the glass ceiling metaphor aligned with the direction in the academic literature at that time—moving away from ‘target-centred’ (internal) explanations that attributed the shortage of women in leadership roles to a lack of personal skills and resources towards ‘situation-centred’ (external) explanations that attributed multiple gender-specific stereotypes that discriminate against women in leadership via decision maker attitudes and organisational structures (Heilman & Caleo, 2018; Kulik & Rae, 2019; Riger & Galligan, 1980).

The movement away from being directly termed a ‘glass ceiling’ towards terminology such as ‘bamboo ceiling’ suggests that Asians, as a racial minority, face unique challenges and barriers to attain leadership positions that are different to those experienced by women and other racial minorities (Chung-Herrera & Lankau, 2005; Lu et al., 2020; Zeng, 2011). For example, in comparison with the glass ceiling effect of women (Heilman, 1983; Lyness & Thompson, 1997), Asians face barriers related to race, as opposed to solely gender, which creates a unique form of bias and discrimination against both Asian women and men (Galinsky, Hall, & Cuddy, 2013; Rosette, Koval, Ma, & Livingston, 2016; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010; Schug, Alt, & Klauer, 2015). In comparison with other racial minorities, such as African-American or Hispanic people, although racial minority groups all generally face similar challenges

when compared with the Caucasian majority group (DiTomaso, 2015), Asian minorities face distinct disadvantages. For example, in comparison to other racial groups including Caucasians, African-Americans and Latinos, Asians are the least likely to be promoted into leadership, even within industries and occupations in which they excel in such as technology firms (Gee, Peck, & Wong, 2015).

The existence of the bamboo ceiling shows that, despite the advances in diversity and equality policies within Western organisations, racial diversity in leadership has not been achieved (Cook & Glass, 2015; Daniels, Neale, & Greer, 2017) and equal opportunity and diversity policies are not consistently practised (Kang, DeCelles, Tilcsik, & Jun, 2016; Wilton, Bell, Vahradyan, & Kaiser, 2020). The bamboo ceiling thus poses certain challenges and consequences to individuals, organisations and society, as outlined below.

First, for individuals, the bamboo ceiling has negative consequences for individual employees of an Asian racial background in attaining leadership positions. Attaining leadership positions enacts a heightening in one's careers to be involved in the decision-making process and exert influence on the organisation's strategy to contribute to its bottom line (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Stumpf & London, 1981). Caucasians (particularly male Caucasians), as the dominant racial group, are still disproportionately represented within elite jobs, with the highest incomes and the most training and authority (Keister & Moller, 2000; Stainback & Tomaskovic-Devey, 2012). Thus, the bamboo ceiling is a constraint for individual employees of Asian background, as their career progress is limited in comparison with their Caucasian counterparts (Gee et al., 2015; Landau, 1995).

Second, for organisations, the bamboo ceiling influences the racial diversity of teams and is a barrier towards diversity in leadership teams (Kang et al., 2016). Racially

diverse management teams can enhance a firm's capacity to generate opportunities for new competitive actions through more diversified thinking and experience (Andrevski, Richard, Shaw, & Ferrier, 2014). A number of studies have indicated that, when organisations cultivate racial diversity in leadership teams, this relates to their success in support from stakeholders, organisational reputation for high quality of work life and ethical behaviour (Roberson & Park, 2007), and financial performance (Smulowitz, Becerra, & Mayo, 2019; Richard, 2000). However, a bamboo ceiling diminishes these potential advantages for organisations.

Third, the bamboo ceiling poses challenges of injustice within society. It maintains societal prejudices based on the social categories arising from the historical conception of Asians as immigrants, who are not perceived as leaders, but rather as labourers who are secondary to the majority group (Caucasians) (Eguchi & Starosta, 2012). Despite increased multiculturalism and globalisation, a bamboo ceiling highlights the inequity that Asians continue to encounter in being perceived as outsiders who need to acculturate to fit into Western society (Lee & Fiske, 2006). This contributes to the problem of contemporary racism and discrimination that does not occur overtly, but is more subtle and implicit, deriving from perception bias and favouritism towards dominant in-groups, such as Caucasians (DiTomaso, 2015).

Therefore, both the problematic consequences that the bamboo ceiling effect has on the individual, organisation and society, as well as the current emphasis on developing a growing diverse workforce to attract talent and enhance organisational competitiveness (Sy et al., 2017) is a call for further research to contribute to a better understanding of the bamboo ceiling effect. Furthermore, there is a need to pursue research in Australia due to the existence of the bamboo ceiling effect in the multicultural climate of Australia (Soutphommasane, 2017) and calls from prior

research to examine the bamboo ceiling in other Western countries outside the United States (Lu et al., 2020). This situates the importance of this thesis to examine the bamboo ceiling effect empirically within the geographical boundaries of Australia.

However, it is also important to note that there are a number of studies on leadership in Asia (see Koo & Park, 2018; Liden, 2012; Lee, Scandura & Sharif, 2014; Lam, Huang & Lau, 2012). In particular, based on the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) (House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002) research project, we can identify differences between Asian and Western cultures based on the nine attributes of performance orientation, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation, societal collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance (House et al., 2002). GLOBE researchers grouped together societies with similar cultural characteristics into culture clusters and explored the leadership preferences within these clusters (Gupta, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002). These attributes have critical implications on understanding leadership across cultures, such that cultural traditions, norms and values can inform the preference for certain leadership styles (House, Wright & Aditya, 1997).

For example, Confucian Asia (which consists of the culture cluster in China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Japan, Singapore and South Korea) values power distance, and practices relatively high levels of societal collectivism (Gupta et al., 2002). In contrast, Anglo cultures (which consists of the United Kingdom and the Republic of Ireland, United States, Canada, South Africa, Australia, and New Zealand Anglo cultures) (Gupta et al., 2002) strongly value individualism and thus a preference for individuals to take a more active role in leadership (Ashkanasy, 2002).

Given the differences described above, whilst a view of understanding leadership in Asia is important, this thesis aims to narrow the focus to contextualise Asians living within Western (Anglo) society, and thus adaptation towards the Anglo or Western cultural practices and preference of leadership.

1.2 Overview of Thesis Chapters

This thesis consists of four chapters that presents a series of discrete empirical studies to unpack the bamboo ceiling effect. Chapter 1 introduces the bamboo ceiling effect through a review of the state-of-the-field. The two following separate empirical studies in Chapters 2 and 3 are connected through the review of the state-of-the-field in Chapter 1. Chapter 2 examines a possible explanation, whilst Chapter 3 presents a possible solution to the bamboo ceiling effect. The thesis is concluded through a general discussion and overview of the main findings and its implications in Chapter 4. A more detailed overview of each chapter is provided below.

1.2.1 Chapter 1: Introduction

Chapter 1 introduces the phenomenon of the bamboo ceiling and reviews the current state-of-the-field. Through conducting the review, this chapter develops specific research questions that position the empirical studies to address, specifically in terms of explaining the bamboo ceiling effect through the role of perceived ability to manage emotions and the effect of role models and mentoring as a potential solution.

1.2.2 Chapter 2: Explaining the Bamboo Ceiling Effect through Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

Chapter 2 extends from the research questions posed in Chapter 1 by examining the effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability. This chapter bridges the emotion and attribution theory literature to develop and test a

theory-based model of the bamboo ceiling effect through two experimental studies that examine the mediating mechanism of perceived ability to manage emotions.

In connection with the role of managing emotions as a necessary ability of leaders (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006; Côté, Lopes, Salovey, & Miners, 2010; Lopes et al., 2005), Study 1 and Study 2 of this chapter contribute to the broader literature of emotions by applying its concept to understand bias in leadership promotability among Asians. In adopting an attribution theory perspective (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1985), I link the findings from a stereotype-based understanding of Asians to explain the differences in perceived ability to manage emotions that relate to different leadership evaluations of Asian and Caucasian male and female leaders. In the emotion literature, this adds to the stream of research on the effect of how we perceive the ability to manage emotions differently among leaders when they express empathy or low empathy, and the bias we hold from racial stereotypes.

Chapter 2 implements an experimental vignette methodology that involves presenting participants with vignettes (also called a scenario), and then asking participants to make explicit judgements and express attitudinal and behavioural preferences (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). The experimental vignette methodology is a suitable methodological approach because it allows for experimental control over manipulated antecedents and is useful to understand the nature and determine the direction of causal relationships, which enables greater internal validity (Yang & Dickinson, 2013). This allows the research to include factors that are relevant to the research question, while excluding those that might confound the results (Yang & Dickinson, 2013). Further, by creating a scenario to which respondents can relate, this provides greater realism for respondents that is more likely to elicit true responses, in contrast to the direct and abstract questions used in survey studies (Yang & Dickinson,

2013). It is also an appropriate methodology, given the ethical dilemmas associated with conducting experimental research (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014).

1.2.3 Chapter 3: Breaking the Bamboo Ceiling Effect—A Two-wave Study on the Influence of Employee Mentor and Role Model Race

Chapter 3 contributes theoretically to bridging knowledge on the benefits of mentoring and role models in the careers literature, as a potential solution to be tested under the bamboo ceiling model. It differentiates from the large number of studies on mentoring and role modelling by examining the effect of a mentor's or role model's race through signaling theory and the similarity attraction paradigm. Chapter 3 focuses on the interactional relationship between the race of employees and race of mentors and role models on Asians' self-perceived leadership promotability. In examining self-perceived leadership promotability, this study focuses on the employee's own evaluation of their leadership promotability, which encompasses a form of self-efficacy in their leadership skills (Chemers, Watson, & May, 2000; Paglis & Green, 2002), as opposed to real promotion scores. Research has shown that the greater confidence individuals have in their capabilities, the more vigorous their self-esteem, efforts and persistence (Bandura, 1977), such that self-perceived leadership promotability may be a close indicator of potential leadership success, based on self-report measures of leadership promotability.

Chapter 3 offers theoretical contributions to the field by first applying signaling theory (Connelly, Certo, Ireland, & Reutzel, 2011; Spence, 1973) to examine the effect of the Caucasian race of mentors on Asians' self-perceived leadership promotability. I then apply the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961; Byrne & Wong, 1962) in an empirical test of whether Asians who have an Asian role model have higher self-

perceived leadership promotability than Asians who do not have same race role models in their careers.

Chapter 3 uses a two-wave field survey methodology. I surveyed participants over two time waves, three months apart, to determine within-person differences of self-perceived leadership promotability. A field survey is appropriate for external validity because of its generalisability to the practising organisational field (Lucas, 2003). The two-wave research design contributed to understanding the process of how role models and mentors enhanced the self-perceived leadership promotability of participants over time (Chun, Sosik, & Yun, 2012). The two-wave research design of the study statistically controlled for Time 1 measures of self-perceived leadership promotability, before examining the relationship between the predictor variables and Time 2 measure of self-perceived leadership promotability, thereby accounting for the effects of Time 1 self-perceived leadership promotability. The two-wave design of the study allowed some confidence in the conclusions drawn from the correlations among the variables over time (Bednall, 2013).

1.2.4 Chapter 4: General Discussion and Conclusion

Chapter 4 presents a summary of the main findings and discusses the theoretical contributions, as well as presenting the study's practical implications. The thesis concludes by discussing the limitations of the studies and future research directions.

1.3 Review of State-of-the-Field Bamboo Ceiling Literature

1.3.1 Purpose of Review on Bamboo Ceiling Effect

For more than 15 years, the leadership diversity field has been progressively enhancing understandings of the experiences of racial minorities' career advancement into leadership positions (see Gündemir, Dovidio, Homan, & De Dreu, 2017; McDonald, Keeves, & Westphal, 2018; Roberson, Ryan, & Ragins, 2017;

Soutphommasane, 2017). Specifically, there is a relatively small yet growing body of work that focuses on understanding the experiences of racial minority groups, such as Asians, within the psychology (Sy et al., 2017; Gündemir, Carton, & Homan, 2019), organisational behaviour (Lai & Babcock, 2013), diversity and leadership (Kiang, Cheah, Huynh, Wang, & Yoshikawa, 2016; Lu et al., 2020) literature. In addition to guiding the development of this thesis' research questions, a review of the bamboo ceiling literature is necessary to address the increasing body of work on the bamboo ceiling effect and have a clear picture of the state-of-the-field research.

Traditionally, research on the effect of Asian ethnicity on leadership has received little attention (Bell, Harrison, & McLaughlin, 1997; Cox & Nkomo, 1990; Sue, 1999), and mostly ranged from propositions and opinion pieces to encompass the Asian migration experience and the model minority myth (Cheng, 1997; Kitano, 1981; Oyserman & Sakamoto, 1997). As a result, past reviews have generally focused on areas such as educational experience (Slaughter-Defoe, Nakagawa, Takanishi, & Johnson, 1990; Sun, 1998), health-related behaviours (Leong, 1986; Salant & Lauderdale, 2003) and the acculturation process (LaFromboise, Coleman, & Gerton, 1993). The field currently lacks a thorough review that organises the bamboo ceiling literature to explain vocational and leadership outcomes.

The past decade has seen a timely trend in the broader academic literature that focuses on Asians, including increased empirical studies of Asians and their experience in organisational settings (Berdahl & Min, 2012; Festekjian, Tram, Murray, Sy, & Huynh, 2014; Kang et al., 2016). Given that studies have now been conducted in various streams of the literature, such as psychology, sociology and organisational behaviour, it is beneficial to integrate the knowledge from these various fields to provide a robust overview of current understandings of the bamboo ceiling. This serves

to also reveal the gaps in the literature to guide future research questions that remains within the field.

In the following section, I present the methodology and findings from a review of the current state-of-the-field of the bamboo ceiling literature. Given the similarities in vocational and leadership outcomes, I follow the guideline and framework within the leadership literature on gender bias (see Hogue & Lord, 2007; Lyness & Grotto, 2018) and methodology within the (international) human resources management (HRM) literature (see Bainbridge, Sanders, Cogin, & Lin, 2017; Sanders & De Cieri, *in press*) to manage the scope and organise the review.

1.3.2 Methodology of Review

1.3.2.1 Sample and Procedure

The review followed a three-step process in collecting articles:

1. a search of the Scopus database items, including ‘bamboo ceiling’, ‘Asian’, ‘leaders’, ‘Asian managers’, ‘Asian employees’, ‘East-Asian’ and ‘Asian leadership’
2. a manual scan of leading journals in management and psychology, as studies published in these outlets are widely cited and influential to the field (Judge, Cable, Colbert, & Rynes, 2007)
3. a scan of the reference lists from the articles identified through the first two steps.

To be included in the review, articles were subject to two criteria. First, the topic of the study needed to be Asians and the effect of the Asian race on vocational and leadership outcomes, including career choices and selection decisions for hiring and promoting in a Western organisational context. I excluded articles if they did not directly relate to any vocational or leadership outcomes. For example, an article was

excluded because, although its content related to Asians as a model minority, its dependent variable was student academic performance, as opposed to workplace performance (see Wong, Lai, Nagasawa, & Lin, 1998). Second, the articles included review, conceptual, qualitative and quantitative studies, and excluded short introductions for a special issue (see Chin, 2013), commentaries (see Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010), editorials and book reviews. These selection criteria were designed to capture the academic research that advances contemporary understandings (Snyder, 2019) of the bamboo ceiling.

Of all articles identified, a total of 48 were selected. A second coder—a faculty member in the area of HRM—checked and verified the selection of articles by reviewing the title, abstract and content of each study against the exclusion criteria to determine their suitability for the review. Discrepancies were discussed between the second coder and me. After discussion, seven articles were deleted because they were outside the scope of the review. For example, an article in *Psychology of Men and Masculinity* referred to the gender role conflict experienced by Asian men (Liu & Iwamoto, 2006). Although this study implicitly implied a lack of leadership fit among Asian men, the article did not directly examine this, and thus failed to deal with the subject matter of interest in this review being vocational and leadership outcomes. Altogether, a total of 41 articles (with 69 studies) met the inclusion criteria and formed the basis of this review.

1.3.2.2 Coding Process and Analysis

The contents of the articles were analysed using a system of codes (Scandura & Williams, 2000). First, the key characteristics of each article were coded: year of publication, authors and journal outlet. Second, we coded the research foci and design of each article: method (quantitative versus qualitative), level of analysis (individual,

dyadic, group, organisational or societal), country of data collection, form of race–outcome relationship (direct, mediation, moderation or moderated mediation) and theoretical framework. The articles were coded on these elements because these were useful to detect themes, theoretical perspectives and common issues (Snyder, 2019) to portray the current state-of-the-field of the bamboo ceiling literature.

In examining the methodology, I chose to include the methods of research, level of analysis and country of data collection to clarify how the research produced its findings. With respect to the research content and foci, I examined the theoretical framework and form of the race–outcome relationships to identify the theories and relationships that the studies used to frame and test their hypotheses. In reviewing both the methods and theory within the bamboo ceiling literature, I encompassed a broader and more balanced understanding of both the direction of the bamboo ceiling effect in the literature and the theoretical and methodological gaps that present future research directions.

Finally, relating to the glass ceiling literature examining ‘target-centred’ and ‘situation-centred’ explanations (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Riger & Galligan, 1980), I categorised the locus of vocational and leadership constraints investigated in each article to determine the bamboo ceiling effect as emerging from the self (internal) or from others (external). This aimed to provide a synthesis of the bamboo ceiling effect, such that the content and research-related aspects were examined further to generate the research questions and gaps to inform future studies.

1.3.2.3 Reliability of Coding Process

I first designed a coding taxonomy and set of explanatory notes for each category to code. Consistent with methodological recommendations, the second coder

and I followed a structured process of: (1) coding an initial sample of studies for reliability purposes; (2) checking reliability; (3) making revisions and clarifications to the coding taxonomy; and (4) performing a final independent coding, including reliability checks (Bainbridge et al., 2017; Neuendorf & Kumar, 2016). To reconcile coding disagreements, the second coder and I discussed the relevant categories until there was complete agreement on a judgement (Scandura & Williams, 2000). The agreement between the second coder and me yielded a Cohen's Kappa of .85, indicating high level of inter-coder reliability (Landis & Koch, 1977).

Summary of Findings

Table 1.1 lists the articles included in the review that contribute to understandings of the bamboo ceiling. A summary of the findings and synthesis follows.

Table 1.1

Summary of Studies Examining the Bamboo Ceiling Effect

Author(s)	Year of Publication	Journal	Method	Level of Analysis	Country of Data Collection	Forms of Race–Outcome Relationship	Theoretical Framework	Form of Constraint
Avey, West, and Crossley	2008	*Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*	Quantitative	Dyadic	US	Moderation	Similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992), social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982), self-categorisation theory (Turner, 1982)	Internal
Bell et al.	1997	*Journal of Applied Behavioural Science*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Fishbein and Azjen's (1975) theory of attitude formation	External
Berdahl and Min	2012	*Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes, stereotype content model (Fiske et al., 2002)	External
Burris et al.	2013	*Asian American Journal of Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Implicit leadership and leadership categorisation theories (Brown, Scott, & Lewis, 2004; Fischbein & Lord, 2004; Lord, Foti, & DeVader, 1984)	Internal
Chen and Fouad	2013	*Journal of Career Assessment*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Relative functionalism (Sue & Ozaki, 1990)	Internal

Chen and Fouad	2016	*International Journal of Education Vocational Guidance*	Mixed	Individual	US	N/A	Family-based work motivation (Chen & Fouad, 2013; Leong & Gupta, 2007) and vocational-related acculturation (Leong, 2001)	Internal
Chen et al.	2013	*Asian American Journal of Psychology*	Qualitative	Individual	US	Direct	N/A	Internal
Cheng	1997	*The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*	Qualitative	Individual	US	N/A	Model minority thesis (Petersen, 1966)	External
Chung-Herrera and Lankau	2005	*Journal of Applied Social Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Lack-of-fit model (Heilman, 1983), stereotype fit model (Dipboye, 1985)	Internal
Eguchi and Starosta	2012	*Qualitative Research Reports in Communication*	Qualitative	Individual	US	N/A	Identity negotiation theory (Ting-Toomey, 1986)	External
Festekjian et al.	2014	*Journal of Leadership & Organisational Studies*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Leadership categorisation theory (Lord, 1985; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984), connectionist model of leadership (Lord, Brown, & Harvey, 2001; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001)	External, Internal
Fiske et al.	2002	*Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Stereotype contents (Katz & Braly, 1933), Prejudice (Allport, 1954)	External
Fouad et al.	2008	*Journal of Vocational Behaviour*	Qualitative	Individual	US	Direct	N/A	External, Internal

Friedman and Krackhardt	1997	*Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Social capital (Coleman, 1988)	Internal
Galinsky et al.	2013	*Psychological Science*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Trilogy for analysing stereotype content (Gilbert, 1951; Karlins et al., 1969; Katz & Braly, 1933)	External
Giuliano et al.	2011	*The Journal of Human Resources*	Quantitative	Dyadic	US	Direct	Status and social identity theory (Akerlof & Kranton, 2000; Ridgeway, 2007)	Internal
Gundemir et al.	2019	*Journal of Applied Psychology*	Quantitative	Study 1: organisational; Study 2–4: individual	US	Mediation	Leadership categorisation theory (Lord, 1985; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984)	External
Hall et al.	2015	*Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Leadership categorisation theory (Lord, 1985; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984)	External
Jung and Yammarino	2001	*The Journal of Leadership Studies*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Moderation	Transformational leadership (Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Howell & Avolio, 1993; Yammarino, Spangler, & Bass, 1993)	Internal
Kang et al.	2016	*Administrative Science Quarterly*	Mixed	Individual	US	Direct	Race, stigma and self-presentation (Gofman, 1963)	External
Kantamneni et al.	2018	*Journal of Career Assessment*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Social cognitive career theory (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994)	Internal
Kawahara et al.	2013	*Asian American Journal of Psychology*	Qualitative	Individual	US	N/A	N/A	Internal

Lai and Babcock	2013	*Journal of Organizational Behavior*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Moderated Mediation	Stereotype content model (Fiske et al., 2002), lack-of-fit model (Heilman, 1983), gender roles (Bakan, 1966; Deaux & Major, 1987; Eagly, 1987, 1995), social cognition (Fiske & Taylor, 1991)	External
Landau	1995	*Journal of Organizational Behavior*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Signals of ability (Rosenbaum, 1989)	External
Lee et al.	2015	*Academy of Management Journal*	Quantitative	Individual	United Kingdom, South Korea	Mediation	Stereotype fit (Dipboye,1985; Heilman,1983) and interdependence theory (Deutsch, 1949)	External
Leong	2001	*Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Acculturation (Berry, 1980)	Internal
Leong and Chou	1994	*Journal of Vocational Behaviour*	Qualitative	Individual	US	Direct	Acculturation (Berry, 1980)	Internal
Lu et al.	2020	*Proceedings the National Academy of Sciences*	Quantitative	Study 1: organisational; Study 2–7: individual	US	Mediation	Implicit leadership theory (Lord & Maher, 1991), prejudice (Allport, 1954)	External, Internal
Maddux et al.	2008	*Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Realistic group conflict theory (Sherif, 1966), social comparison theory (Festinger, 1954)	External

Paulhus et al.	2013	*Journal of Applied Social Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Person–situation fit (Hogan, Hogan, & Roberts, 1996; Ng, Ang, & Chan, 2008; Roberts & Hogan, 2001; Tett & Burnett, 2003)	Internal
Rosette et al.	2016	*The Leadership Quarterly*	Quantitative	Individual	US	N/A	Intersectionality framework (Crenshaw, 1989)	External
Rosette et al.	2008	*Journal of Applied Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Leadership categorisation theory (Rosch, 1978)	External
Sy et al.	2010	*Journal of Applied Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Connectionist model of leadership (Lord, Brown, & Harvey, 2001; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001)	External
Tang et al.	1999	*Journal of Vocational Behavior*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Mediation	Career choice and performance (Lent et al, 1994), social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986)	Internal
Tinkler et al.	2019	*Socius: Sociological Research for a Dynamic World*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Intersection of race and gender in social relational contexts (Ridgeway & Kricheli-Katz, 2013)	External
Xin	2004	*The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Impression management (Goffman, 1959)	Internal
Zeng	2011	*Social Science Research*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Workplace authority (Wright et al., 1995)	External
Zeng and Xie	2004	*American Journal of Sociology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Asian-Americans earn less than white people within levels of educational attainment (Hirschman & Wong, 1984)	External

Zhao and Biernat	2017	*Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Moderation	Self-categorisation theory (Turner, 1982), social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982)	External
Zhou and Lee	2017	*Asian American Journal of Psychology*	Qualitative	Individual	US	Direct	Positive selectivity (Feliciano, 2005)	External
Zhu et al.	2016	*Journal of Applied Psychology*	Quantitative	Individual	US	Direct	Stereotype content model (Fiske et al., 2002)	External

1.3.2.4 Method

The majority of articles (78%) used quantitative methods to test their hypotheses. Seventeen per cent of the articles used qualitative methods, including one review study and eight studies using interview methodologies. Five per cent of articles used mixed methods consisting of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

1.3.2.5 Levels of Analysis

From a review of the literature, the majority of articles (95%) were conducted at the individual level of analysis, with racial differences in individuals tested against dependent variables that demonstrated differences in individual leadership outcomes (e.g., Festekjian et al., 2014), career choices (e.g., Chen & Fouad, 2013) and networks (e.g., Friedman & Krackhardt, 1997). At the dyadic level of analysis, only two articles were found that demonstrated a match between supervisor and employee race associated with promotion rates (see Giuliano, Levine, & Leonard, 2011), position and salary (see Avey, West, & Crossley, 2008). At the organisational level, one article used archival data from organisations to show that organisational decline leads to the appointment of an Asian chief executive officer (see Gundemir, Carton, & Homan, 2019). We did not find an article that examined the bamboo ceiling effect at multiple levels of analysis or at societal level.

1.3.2.6 Country of Data Collection

Only one article was found that collected data outside of the US—Lee, Pitesa, Thau, & Pillutla (2015), who collected data from the United Kingdom and South Korea. This alludes to the influence of the cultural context of the US as the primary location where data are collected on the bamboo ceiling effect.

1.3.2.7 Form of Race–Outcome Relationship

All empirical studies in this review had race as an independent variable and/or a moderator variable. The dependent variables in the study ranged from self-efficacy to career choice, earnings, promotion decisions, hirability and leadership perceptions. While 20 articles (49%) examined direct relationships, 12 articles (29%) included tests of indirect relationships with mediators. These included the mediating effect of leadership prototypes, intrapersonal leadership perceptions and social skills. There were three moderation studies. The moderators included race, compensation systems and acculturation ideologies. There was one study of moderated mediation. Five articles did not specify a relationship, as these were exploratory qualitative studies.

1.3.2.8 Theoretical Framework

Leadership, identity and stereotype theories formed the basis of the theoretical framework used in articles of the bamboo ceiling effect. These included implicit leadership theories (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984) and, relatedly, connectionist models of leadership (Lord, Brown, & Harvey, 2001), social identity (Tajfel, 1982), self-categorisation (Turner, 1982), stereotype contents (Katz & Braly, 1933) and stereotype fit model (Dipboye, 1985) theories. Three articles did not specify a theoretical framework; these were qualitative studies that had an exploratory goal, as opposed to hypotheses testing.

1.3.3 Synthesis of Findings: Emergence of the Bamboo Ceiling Effect through Internal and External Constraints for Asians

After reviewing the content of each article, I synthesised the findings through categorising the articles based on whether the bamboo ceiling effect had emerged from an internal or external constraint. In parallel with Lyness and Grotto's (2018) and Hogue and Lord's (2007) assessment of the nature of the glass ceiling effect, a feature of mapping out the bamboo ceiling literature in this manner is that it effectively

connects knowledge from various streams of literature. It also assesses the bamboo ceiling effect based on the constraints that derive from the self (i.e., internal) and constraints that derive from others (i.e., external). Forms of internal constraints include barriers that arise from intrapersonal processes—that is, they derive from oneself and include one's own perceptions, such as the internalisation of racial stereotypes, previous experience and leadership self-schemas (Hogue & Lord, 2007; Lyness & Grotto, 2018). Forms of external constraints include barriers that arise from interpersonal processes—that is, they derive from other people, including others' perceptions of racial stereotypes, incongruence of perceived skills and leadership roles, and others' perception of behaviour (Hogue & Lord, 2007; Lyness & Grotto, 2018).

In this review, the second coder and I identified that 42% of articles examined internal constraints, while 58% of the articles examined external constraints. Specifically, articles that portrayed an internal form of constraint included 12 articles that examined the lack of self-perceived leadership identity, three articles related to a lack of social capital and two articles that examined the impression management tactics used by Asians. While social capital is also determined by situational constraints, these articles shared a common theme of a lack of personal intention, skills and resources to enact leadership behaviour. I further developed these themes as subcategories in this synthesis to provide clarity and illustrate the explanations that the literature has provided on the nature of the bamboo ceiling effect.

Meanwhile, articles on external constraints all shared a common theme of stereotypes and prejudice towards Asians. These articles found that stereotypes held by others led to expectations regarding behaviour and discrimination in leadership attempts. Below is a further synthesis of the literature according to internal and external

constraints to explain the nature of the bamboo ceiling effect.

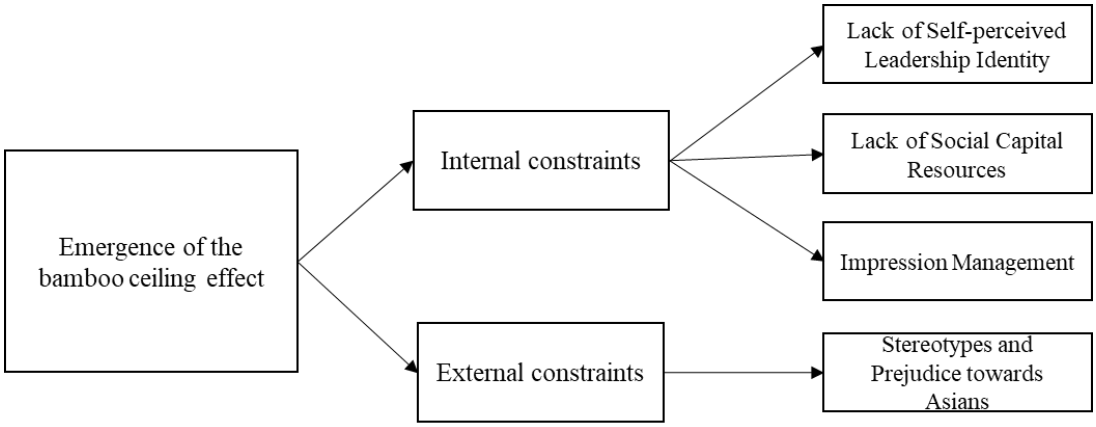

Figure 1.1. Synthesis of the review on the emergence of the bamboo ceiling effect.

1.3.3.1 Internal Constraints

1.3.3.1.1 Lack of Self-perceived Leadership Identity

Twelve articles examined this subcategory. In four articles, the social identity of Asians was influenced by in-group membership to the acculturation and Asian cultural values experience (Tang, Fouad, & Smith, 1999). The traditional cultural values of Asians are transmitted through family, which influences their individual career choice and role played in society (Fouad, Kantamneni, Smothers, Chen, Fitzpatrick, & Terry, 2008). Family expectations include choosing a career, attaining advanced education, or achieving prestige and status due to a desire to act as a representative of the family or community (Fouad et al., 2008; Kawahara, Pal, & Chin, 2013). This social-oriented achievement motivation establishes the meaning system for Asians, within which academic achievement is an obligation above and beyond all other obligations (Leong & Chou, 1994).

In four other articles, the internalisation of these cultural values placed pressure on Asians to enter prestigious careers, which could negatively restrict their career exploration (Kantamneni, Dharmalingam, Orley, & Kanagasingam, 2018). For example, a study by Chen, Rao and Ren (2013) on Asian-American scientists found that only a

handful of scientists sought leadership positions, citing the ceiling and their own self as the main reasons for not seeking leadership careers. Moreover, these Asian-Americans were not recognised as potential leaders, even in fields in which they dominated as the majority. The Asian cultural values of education in this case may lower chances of promotability based on belonging to a social group that is reservedly focused and hardworking, yet socially inept and less capable of having leadership influence within Western society (Chung-Herrera & Lankau, 2005). Thus, the internalisation of the Asian cultural values and ethnic identity may predict self-efficacy and interest in typical jobs that do not require skills of aggression or dominance to succeed (Kantamneni et al., 2018).

Moreover, three articles suggested that Asians tend to endorse the antisocial stereotype of Asian managers (Burris et al., 2013) and that Asians also perceive Caucasian leaders more favourably in terms of leadership and prototypicality (Festekjian et al., 2014). This reduces the capacity through which Asian employees in Western society can assess similarities between them and leadership exemplars in Western society (DiTomaso, 2015; Kawahara et al., 2013; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011).

1.3.3.1.2 Lack of Social Capital Resources

Three articles examined the lack of social capital and beneficial networks amongst Asians. In one article (see Friedman & Krackhardt, 1997), the network position in organisations for Asians indicated that these individuals' high levels of education did not translate to added beneficial social capital, such that their networks did not lead to higher perceived potential, as rated by their supervisors. In two other articles, Asians were found to have lower rates of promotion in comparison with Caucasians, whose

networks encompassed more managers with whom they shared the same race (Avey et al., 2008; Giuliano et al., 2011).

1.3.3.1.3 Impression Management

Two articles examined impression management. Self-presentation styles in the Western context are highly selective, such that Asians' lack of self-promotion and self-praise relative to Caucasians reduces their ability to take advantage of the ingratiation tactics expected in Western society (Paulhus, Westlake, Calvez, & Harms, 2013). Asians are perceived as less narcissistic in interviews and revert to modesty rather than self-promotion in organisations (Paulhus et al., 2013). These behaviours can result in Asians being overlooked for leadership opportunities and receiving lower leadership ratings among their supervisors and peers. In Xin's (2004) study, Asian-American managers reported using more job-focused impression management tactics, but lower levels of self-focused and supervisor-focused impression management tactics compared with European American managers. The study found that job-focused impression tactics used by Asians do not impress supervisors, nor make improvements towards the supervisor–subordinate relationships to affect their upward mobility (Xin, 2004). According to Xin (2004), an impression management gap exists, such that, if upward mobility is enhanced by good supervisor–subordinate relationships, the impression management gap is an explanation of why Asian-American managers do not attain leadership positions (Xin, 2004).

In summary, these articles portray the bamboo ceiling effect as deriving from the self, with the behaviour of Asians and their lack of resources accounting for their own underrepresentation in leadership. The lack of self-perception as leaders, lack of social capital and impression management identify deficiencies in capacity to attain leadership

roles in the organisation. This research also indicates why certain behaviours exhibited by Asians as a group inhibit them from being successful in a competitive market.

1.3.3.2 External Constraints

1.3.3.2.1 Stereotypes and Prejudice towards Asians

Twenty-four articles examined stereotypes and prejudice. Stereotypes are generalised beliefs about characteristics that are possessed by people who belong to certain social groups, and constitute a mechanism by which people interpret and manage the wealth of social stimuli encountered in everyday life (Hilton & von Hippel, 1996). People cognitively represent the defining and stereotypical attributes of groups in the form of stereotypes (Hogg & Terry, 2000). This includes the stereotypes used to inform judgements of leadership and individual roles that are considered suitable for Asians.

Stereotypes include the ‘model minority’ label given by others to Asians, viewing Asians as secondary working-class immigrants who are docile and submissive and will take whatever is offered to them and not complain (Parks & Yoo, 2016). However, the same stereotypes that enhance positive perceptions of Asians’ work competencies and academic performance also reproduce new stereotypes that hinder them as they pursue leadership positions in the workplace (Zeng, 2011; Zhou & Lee, 2017). Asians are associated with social introversion, emotional withdrawal and verbal inhibition (Sy et al., 2010). The salience of their minority status converges to the role or employment classification that they hold within the organisations that derives from the stereotypical expectations and treatment of members of the dominant group (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Asians as ‘model minority’ members are socially perceived as ‘assisting’ Caucasians in the racialised and gendered organisations in Western society, to the extent that they are not placed in positions of power (Eguchi & Starosta, 2012). Hence, they

are only celebrated as long as they perform the model minority image (Eguchi & Starosta, 2012). Parallel to this, as a result of exposure to Caucasian individuals holding prominent leadership positions, Caucasians come to be viewed as the leader prototype in Western society (Chung-Herrera & Lankau, 2005; Liu & Baker, 2014). The associated behaviours stemming from the white leader prototype as being agentic, assertive and dominant are all considered the prototypic behaviour of leaders in Western society (Kang et al., 2016; Rosette, Leonardelli & Phillips, 2008). Thus, Caucasian leaders become more prototypical business leaders relative to racial minorities, such as Asians (Rosette et al., 2008), which exerts a downwards influence on the beliefs and behaviours of individuals in a manner that perpetuates racial bias for Caucasian male leaders, and bias against Asians as potential leaders.

Comparatively, Asians are required to assimilate to the Caucasian majority's culture (Zhao & Biernat, 2017). Studies of the 'Whitening effect', defined as concealing one's racial minority identity and adopting a Caucasian identity (Kang et al., 2016), show that Asians view Whitening (e.g., adopting a white name) as essential to reduce negative stereotypes associated with their Asian racial identity, and to instead be perceived by others to have attained similarity with the white leader prototype, thereby reducing discrimination when they apply for jobs (Kang et al., 2016).

In two other articles, because Asians are perceived as deficient in interpersonal and social skills, they are more likely to be stereotyped to occupy technical roles that demand fewer people or soft skills, and are less likely to be classified in roles that include being assertive and dominant, such as leadership (Lai & Babcock, 2013; Sy et al., 2010). Based on implicit leadership theories, race affects leadership perceptions through the activation of prototypic leadership attributes formed through the culture of one's society (Sy et al., 2010). Sy et al.'s (2010) study found that leadership perceptions

are a function of race–occupation fit, in which Asians hold technical competence, yet fail to have the agentic prototype of leaders. When Asians are compared with Caucasians, Asians are perceived as the less ideal leader and are less likely to be promoted to managerial positions, despite their higher technical competence ratings (Sy et al., 2010).

In three other articles, unlike Caucasian or African-American men in society, Asian men were stereotypically seen as lacking masculinity (Galinsky et al., 2013; Hall et al., 2015; Schug et al., 2015). As a result, Asian men were denied a fit into the prototype of a masculine and dominant leader (Galinsky et al., 2013; Schug et al., 2015), thereby creating prejudice in their ability to lead in Western organisations. However, Berdahl and Min's (2012) study also showed that, even when Asian men display dominance, they are not well liked in comparison with Asians who display non-dominance and Caucasians who display dominance.

The prejudice experienced by Asians is accounted in studies of teams and performance. Perceived competition with Asians can lead to discrimination in selection decisions for Asian employees (Lee et al., 2015), alongside a perceived realistic threat that can lead to negative attitudes of positive stereotypical traits of Asians (Maddux, Galinsky, Cuddy, & Polifroni, 2008). As a team member, Asians are preferred over Caucasians depending on the task at hand (i.e., requiring dominance versus intellectual competence) and whether one is in competition or cooperation with the candidate. Lee et al. (2015) found that, when the task requires dominance and the decision maker is expected to compete with the candidate, the perception of greater dominance of the Caucasian candidate leads to greater preference for the Asian candidate. When the decision maker is expected to cooperate, there is a preference for the Caucasian candidate (Lee et al., 2015). Asians are also only promoted into leadership during

organisational decline because of the belief that they are self-sacrificing and will do what it takes to get the job done (Gundemir et al., 2019).

In summary, Asian stereotypes are multifaceted and have multiple dimensions (e.g., Asians lack social skills; Asians are better at holding technical jobs, as opposed to jobs that require soft skills; and Asian men lack masculinity). There is also evidence that there are a handful of certain circumstances when Asians are selected in certain jobs (e.g., when they have a Whitened identity or during situations of organisational decline). Hence, these various dimensions of Asian stereotypes can hold Asians back in different ways that limit the range and breadth of leadership positions for which Asians are believed to be suited.

1.4 Gaps in the Literature and Research Questions

Following the synthesis of the literature, I identify below some of the relevant conceptual and methodological research gaps that require further attention through empirical research. First, the array of studies demonstrates the prominent role of stereotypes, particularly the stereotype that Asians lack warmth and social skills (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002; Lai & Babcock, 2013). This affects both Asians' perceptions of themselves (Chen et al., 2013; Kawahara et al., 2013) and others' perceptions of Asians as less capable leaders (Festekjian et al., 2014; Sy et al., 2010). However, what remains unclear is the process through which these racial stereotypes affect the leadership promotability of Asians. A gap in understanding is explaining the process of the conditional indirect effects of stereotypes, specifically because racial stereotypes on leadership are likely to be transmitted through various intervening variables (Bauer, Preacher, & Gil, 2006), rather than as a direct effect.

Prior studies examining indirect effects through moderation and mediation effects were limited to examining how the relationship of stereotypes to selection

decisions was moderated by the evaluator's gender (Lai & Babcock, 2013) or that selection preference was mediated by perceptions of instrumentality between the skills that Asians (versus Caucasians) are perceived to hold (Lee et al., 2015; Maddux et al., 2008; Sy et al., 2010). Although these models highlight the importance of perception, what has been less investigated is the underlying process of these perceptual biases. This is important because the underlying process through which stereotypes lead to negative leadership evaluations is often more subtle than explicit in contemporary organisations (DiTomaso, 2015). Therefore, investigation into what transmits perceptions into behaviour and what factors affect this relationship can enhance our understandings of the process and contingency variables that clarify how stereotypes explain the bamboo ceiling effect.

Second, there is an empirical gap in the literature examining potential solutions to the bamboo ceiling effect. The literature identifies internal constraints comprising the lack of self-perceived leadership identity, social capital and behavioural training afforded to Asians (Friedman & Krackhardt, 1997; Landau, 1995). However, what is less known in the field is an understanding of the ways in which Asians can attain training and develop beneficial networks and ties to influential others (Seibert, Kraimer, & Liden, 2001). A means through which this can be further investigated is through mentoring, as an interpersonal exchange between an experienced senior colleague (mentor) or professional and a less experienced junior colleague (mentee), in which the mentor provides the mentee career advancement support by increasing knowledge, expertise and skill development for mentees (Higgins & Kram, 2001; Kram, 1983). This calls for future research to examine the effect of mentoring among Asian employees as a means by which the field can progress to develop a solution, as opposed to findings that examine only the nature of the cause of the bamboo ceiling effect.

Third, another limitation to knowledge on the bamboo ceiling effect is the varying influence on gender. We know that women are underrepresented in comparison with men in leadership (Lyness & Grotto, 2018), which often further leads to disadvantage for racial minority women (Rosette et al., 2016). Researchers suggest that gender differences between racial minorities exist—such as the stereotype of Asian men of having low masculinity, while Asian women are ascribed competence and communal traits (Rosette et al., 2016). However, in comparison with other studies of minority women (Ghavami & Peplau, 2013; Livingston, Rosette, & Washington, 2012), because Asians and gender stereotypes are seldom tested together, a gap in our understanding is the intersectionality of gender with race in the bamboo ceiling effect.

Based on the above gaps in the research field, the overarching research question for this thesis was as follows:

> *What is the underlying process that explains the bamboo ceiling effect for Asian males and females through stereotypes, and what are potential solutions for the bamboo ceiling effect?*

Through mapping the literature based on external and internal constraints to Asians attaining leadership, I developed two specific research questions that aimed to address the overarching research question of the thesis. The two research questions are aimed to firstly form a causal explanation of the bamboo ceiling effect (Research Question 1) and secondly to investigate a potential solution to the bamboo ceiling effect (Research Question 2). Below I further examine the two research questions in detail.

1.4.1 Research Question 1: Explaining the Underlying Process of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions and Empathy on the Bamboo Ceiling Effect

From the review, the studies demonstrated—through theoretical frameworks of implicit leadership theories (Lord et al., 1984)—that perceptions of leadership and the

mismatch of these perceptions with Asian stereotypes is one of the keyways in which we understand the bamboo ceiling effect. Specifically, drawing from the studies that suggest Asians are perceived to be low in warmth and social skills (Fiske et al., 2002; Lai & Babcock, 2013), these stereotypes may relate to perceptions that Asians lack the ability to manage their emotions effectively in leadership situations (van Knippenberg & van Kleef, 2016; Wolff, Pescosolido, & Druskat, 2002). The ability to manage emotions plays an important role in leadership evaluations, and, particularly, research demonstrates how we look up to leaders who can empathise and thus are perceived to be able to manage emotions (Kellet, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006; Lopes, Salovey, Côté, & Beers, 2005).

Given that the stereotype of Asians' lack of sociability and warmth is antithetical of a leader who can empathise, it is plausible to suggest that expressing low empathy would lower evaluations of Asians' perceived ability to manage emotions, and consequently their leadership promotability. Based on examined studies that demonstrate a lower liking of Asians when they display the same dominance expression as Caucasians (Berdahl & Min, 2012)—even when Asians display the same suppression of empathy during leadership situations, it is likely that this will lead to lower their leadership promotability more than their Caucasian counterparts through the mediating mechanism of perceived lower ability to manage emotions. Therefore, the first research question, with an emphasis on explaining the underlying process of the bamboo ceiling effect, is as follows:

> Can leadership promotability be explained through an interaction between empathy and race via perceived ability to manage emotions?

1.4.2 Research Question 2: Mentoring and Role Modelling as Solution to the Bamboo Ceiling Effect

Studies examining internal constraints illustrate key barriers towards Asians' leadership that arise from the self, typically the behaviour of Asians as non-assertive, submissive and conforming (Lin et al., 2005; Lu et al., 2020), which aligns with the Asian cultural values that endorse harmony and humility (Festekjian et al., 2014). Consequently, their self-perceived identity and behaviour can limit their opportunities to attain leadership in Western organisations, as well as their self-efficacy in their leadership capabilities (Festekjian et al., 2014; Sy et al., 2010). A majority of studies identified a match between employee race and supervisor race on supervisor ratings and promotion (Giuliano et al., 2011; Landau, 1995), however, what is less known is the effect of the racial match of mentors and role models.

An empirical gap exists in the examination of the characteristics of a specific mentor's or role model's race that can affect Asians' self-perceived leadership promotability. Although the benefits of mentoring and role models in the broader careers literature have been investigated to a greater extent (Allen, Eby, Poteet, Lentz, & Lima, 2004; Allen, Eby, Chao, & Bauer, 2017; Ragins & Cotton, 1999), the field needs to link these advances with the bamboo ceiling literature. Specifically, even within the field mentoring literature, research is still inconclusive as to whether having same or cross-gender mentor pose greater career benefits to the mentee or role aspirant (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990; Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Eby et al., 2013).

In this manner, findings from the careers' literature on the benefits of mentoring and role models need to be investigated further and extended towards the bamboo ceiling effect. Thus, the second research question, with an emphasis on breaking the bamboo ceiling, is as follows:

> What is the effect of the racial attributes of mentors and role models on the self-perceived leadership promotability of Asians in comparison with Caucasians?

Chapter 2: Explaining the Bamboo Ceiling Effect through Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions[1]

2.1 Abstract

In this chapter, I provide an explanation of the bamboo ceiling effect through two experimental studies. In Study 1 (n = 290), I tested the effect of expressing high versus low levels of empathy on leadership promotability for Asian and Caucasian males, and the mediating mechanism of perceived ability to manage emotions. The results showed that, in the low empathy condition, Asian males were evaluated lower on leadership promotability because of their perceived lower ability to manage emotions. Asian and Caucasian males did not differ on leadership promotability in the high empathy condition. In Study 2 (n = 175), I replicated and extended the model for Asian and Caucasian females. While the results of Study 1 were replicated, I found that the effect of empathy on leadership promotability was different for females: in the low empathy condition, Asian females were evaluated higher on leadership promotability than Caucasian females, and this relationship was not mediated by perceived ability to manage emotions. The theoretical and practical implications of these two studies are discussed.

Keywords: Race, Asian, managing emotions, leadership promotability, bamboo ceiling, stereotype, empathy

2.2 Introduction

From an organisational leadership and human resources perspective, an important question raised by the bamboo ceiling is why organisations continuously overlook Asians for leadership positions and rate their leadership promotability—

[1] An earlier version of this chapter was accepted to the 2019 Academy of Management Annual Meeting in Boston, US.

defined as the ‘favourability of an employee’s advancement prospects’ (Greenhaus, Parasuraman, & Wormley, 1990, p. 69)—lower than that of Caucasians. Based on the review of Chapter 1, studies have shown that the bamboo ceiling can stem from external constraints via the discriminatory effect of stereotypes held towards Asians. For example, studies have shown that Asians are stereotyped as lacking in social skills and warmth, which leads to discrimination in selection decisions (Lai & Babcock, 2013) and lack of perceived fit for leadership positions (Festekjian et al., 2014; Sy et al., 2010).

While the above perspective has been widely circulated (Park, Martinez, Cobb, Park, & Wong, 2015), this chapter aims to investigate the gap found in the review of Chapter 1 in which a further examination of the underlying process through which these racial stereotypes affect the leadership promotability of Asians. Specifically, when we understand leadership as a social process (DeRue & Ashford, 2010), in many challenging leadership situations, leaders must effectively manage the emotions of themselves and others (Dasborough, 2006; Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016; Meinecke & Kauffeld, 2019; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010; Pescosolido, 2002). Indeed, according to the emotional intelligence framework, the ability to manage the emotions of both oneself and others (Brackett et al., 2006; English & John, 2013; Gross & Thompson, 2007; Lopes et al., 2005) is one of the most important factors distinguishing leaders from non-leaders in modern organisations (George, 2000; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2016; Pescosolido, 2010). This is because the ability to manage emotions is associated with a leader’s effectiveness in boosting morale, fostering trust and developing strong relationships with followers (Côté et al., 2010; Dries & Pepermans, 2012; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Lopes et al., 2005; Wolff et al., 2002). Nevertheless, judgement of one’s real emotional abilities is likely to be imperfect (see Elfenbein, Barsade, & Eisenkraft, 2015), in which case the question emerges regarding

how observers evaluate and judge an Asian leader's ability to manage emotions, and whether this judgement can be influenced by stereotypes.

In applying the above knowledge derived from the emotion literature, this chapter re-envisions the process of the bamboo ceiling effect through perceived ability to manage emotions. Through integrating attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1985) with stereotype research (Fiske et al., 2002; Lai & Babcock, 2013; Lin, Kwan, Cheung, & Fiske, 2005), I advance the notion that the stereotype of Asians' low warmth and social skills can systematically influence how observers differently judge a leader's emotional expressions of low (versus high) empathy, depending on the leader's race being Asian or Caucasian. I examine these arguments by proposing that stereotype-consistent behaviour can shape how observers attribute an Asian leader's stereotype-consistent emotion expression in Western society.

In Study 1, the central argument is that observers will more likely perceive a leader to have lower ability to manage emotions and subsequently rate them lower on leadership promotability when they fail to express empathy. I test the proposition that this failure to express empathy for Asian leaders is penalised greater than for Caucasian leaders. In comparison with Caucasians, when an Asian leader expresses low empathy, this is consistent with the Asian racial stereotype of low warmth and low social skills. Thus, this becomes attributed to their internal dispositions of being Asian, which consequently leads to lower leadership promotability via perceived lower ability to manage emotions. While Study 1 focuses on male leaders, Study 2 focuses on leadership promotability outcomes for both male and female leaders.

I contribute to various streams of research in the following ways. First, by focusing on the influence of a widely held Asian stereotype on how observers explain a leader's emotional response, this research helps understand the source of this

widespread belief that is preventing Asians from attaining positions of influence. Through attribution theory (Kelley, 1973; Weiner, 1985), I examine whether observers are more likely to perceive Asians as having lower ability to manage emotions when they fail to express empathy because observers attribute their lack of social skills and warmth to the person (internal attribution). In connecting the emotion literature with attribution theory and research on stereotypes, I contribute to provide a new perspective—from an emotions lens—that clarifies the cause of the bamboo ceiling effect based on the forms of internal and external constraints derived in Chapter 1.

Second, consistent with the stereotype-based arguments, I devote particular attention to the role of gender. In particular, there is evidence that Asian males are less prototypical than Asian females, rendering them more invisible, which coincides with inequalities in the marriage and dating realm (Galinsky et al., 2013; Hall, Galinsky, & Phillips, 2015; Schug et al., 2015). Given that individuals belong to multiple social categories, focusing on one category or viewing them independently constrains our understanding of the meaning and unique experiences of the intersections of various identities (Kulik & Bainbridge, 2006; Roberson et al., 2017). By examining both race and gender, I contribute to identifying the differences that Asian males and females experience in leadership promotability, despite sharing some common stereotypes (Roberson, Galvin, & Charles, 2007; Showunmi, Atewologun, & Bebbington, 2016), which provides a more holistic account of people's experiences by considering one category (e.g., race) without the exclusion of the other (e.g., gender).

2.3 Study 1: Asians' Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

2.3.1 Theoretical Background and Hypotheses

2.3.1.1 Attribution and Stereotype

It has long been understood in the leadership literature that people form long-lasting impressions of leaders based on how leadership actions are interpreted (Behrendt, Matz, & Göritz, 2017; Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). According to attribution theory, a leader's behaviour can be explained by focusing on either internal or external causes of attributions (Heider, 1958; Weiner, 1985). When people make internal attributions of a leader's action, they explain the cause of the leader's behaviour by invoking deep-rooted and often stable sources within the leader, such as the leader's ability, disposition or personality (Heider, 1958; Ross, 1977; Weiner, 1985). In contrast, when people make external attributions, they attribute the cause of a leader's behaviour to external circumstances and situational demands (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973; Ross, 1977).

The locus of causality (internal–external) dimension has been the primary framework for attribution analyses, in conjunction to causal beliefs about stability and control (Weiner, 2019). In parallel, Kelley's (1973) model focus on how individuals use information to form attributions through the characteristics of consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness (Hewett, Shantz, Mundy & Alfes, 2018), such that observers attribute an event or behaviour to a stimulus or entity when distinctiveness, consistency, and consensus are all high (Kelley, 1973).

Kelley's (1973) perspective on the interpretation of causal information is particularly relevant to the development of attributions in the workplace given the role that observation of others' behaviours plays in performance evaluations and other organisational tasks. For example, it can be expected that consensus information compares a particular employee's behaviour with that of others, consistency information determines if a behaviour is displayed consistently or sporadically, and distinctiveness information considers both the typical and atypical circumstances that might all play a

role in determining whether or not a manager sees an employee as particularly promotable towards leadership (see Harvey, Madison, Martinko, Crook & Crook, 2014).

While both types of attributions can explain a leader's behaviour, they lead to widely different consequences in how observers judge and evaluate a leader, specifically when a leader displays stereotype-consistent behaviour according to their race and/or gender (Duncan, 1976; Hilton & von Hippel, 1990). Stereotyping is a form of placing people in categories according to certain easily identifiable characteristics, such as race, and then quickly attributing to them the qualities believed to be typical of members of that racial category (Tajfel, 1969). Stereotypes have the potential to bias a perceiver's impression of another person, as a person 'knows' the world in terms of previously formed categories or concepts and their related experiences (Bruner, 1957). Consequently, people often rely on stereotypes to understand, explain or predict the behaviour of others in social interactions (Devine, 1989; Duncan, 1976; Hilton & von Hippel, 1990; Kunda & Spencer, 2003). In a classic study demonstrating this effect, observers are more likely to judge a person's ambiguous shove as a violent push caused by the person's aggressive disposition when the person is black, rather than white (Duncan, 1976), as associations of crime and violence are frequently applied to black people.

Kelley's (1973) attributional dimension that describes how observations help shape attributions can likely apply to the case of promotion into leadership, however managers often have limited capacity to observe employees, and therefore have incomplete information about employee's behaviours relative to their peers (consensus information), over time (consistency information) and in different contexts (distinctiveness) (Harvey et al., 2014). This incomplete information can promote

inaccurate attributions and counterproductive behaviours towards employees (Harvey et al., 2014). For example, a manager might observe a single case of an employee's anger to assume that it is a common occurrence based on stereotype of the employee. The manager may attribute this towards their internal factors and form a negative impression that influence the decision to not promote them into a leadership position

Subsequent studies have found similar effects (Brescoll, 2016; Hess, Adams, & Kleck, 2005; Warner & Shields, 2009). For example, in Barrett and Bliss-Moreau's (2009) study, people were more likely to make internal attributions when explaining the cause of female's anger (e.g., a woman is angry because she is emotional) as a result of the stereotype that females are more emotional than men. In contrast, people often explain the cause of men's anger by using external sources (e.g., a man is angry because he is having a bad day) (Barrett & Bliss-Moreau, 2009). Observers tend to seek information that they consider supportive of existing beliefs, such as stereotypes, and to interpret ambiguous information in ways that are consistent with these beliefs (Nickerson, 1998). In such cases, there is a tendency to give greater weight to information that supports existing beliefs or opinions than to information that runs counter to them (Nickerson, 1998). Hence, when a leader displays stereotype-consistent behaviour in ambiguous situations, this is likely to confirm the perceiver's existing expectations; thus, the perceiver internally attributes the action as being stable and innate to the person.

Drawing on the above ideas and findings, I theorise how a particular and pervasive stereotype about Asians in Western society (Butler, Lee, & Gross, 2007; Lai & Babcock, 2013; Tsai & Lau, 2013) shapes how observers make attributions about an Asian leader's and Caucasian leader's low empathy expressions towards a team

member, which consequently influences their leadership promotability via perceived ability to manage emotions.

2.3.1.2 Asians' Lack of Warmth and Social Skills

The common perception held in Western society of Asians is that they are capable of technical performance yet lack interpersonal warmth and the ability to interact effectively with others (Fiske et al., 2002; Lai & Babcock, 2013). Studies of Asian stereotypes in Western society suggest that Asians may lack important emotional capabilities to effectively influence and connect with others, which decreases their chance of being liked and being promoted into coveted positions of influence (Lin et al., 2005; Weathers & Truxillo, 2008).

2.3.1.3 Leaders' Empathetic Response

Expressing empathy towards followers in challenging situations is a strong signal of a leader's ability to manage emotions. Empathy is an emotional response that has been found to support leader emergence (Wolff et al., 2002; Humphrey, 2002; Kellet et al., 2006). Expressions of empathy has a positive relationship with leadership promotability because it enables leaders to connect with others by showing that they understand others' emotions (Kellett et al., 2006). This is particularly important for leadership as empathetic leaders can make others feel understood and have their needs met (Clark, Robertson & Young, 2019). Hence, the display of empathy has a positive relationship with leadership promotability as when skills in empathy are high, leaders can better resonate with other's emotions, in order to produce better emotional responses and work behaviours of employees (Wolff et al., 2002).

Expressing empathy contributes to warm social interactions (Lopes et al., 2004), which implies one's ability to manage their emotions and accurately assess and understand another person's perspective – such that a leader can detach oneself and

analyse the perspectives of their employees objectively (Wolff et al., 2002). It is important for a leader to express empathy because even when an employee's emotions and perspectives is in conflict with the leader, having empathy enables leaders to still resonate with their employee's emotions in order to produce better emotional responses and work behaviours (Wolff et al., 2002). Empathy require individuals to change their own emotional state and focus on the distress faced by others (Thiel, Griffith, & Connelly, 2015). Research on leader empathy has found that leaders who express empathy when interacting with followers can produce enhanced emotional responses in others because they can better resonate with others' emotions (Wolff et al., 2002). Therefore, displaying empathy signals that a leader has the ability to effectively manage their own stress and connect with followers.

However, when leaders do not express empathy, it may not necessarily mean that the leader lacks the ability to manage emotions. As noted earlier, there are many external or situational reasons why a leader may not express empathy (Thiel et al., 2015). For example, the leader could be having a bad day (see Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008; Hess, Adams, & Kleck, 2005) or, when the team is facing a crisis, leaders may be inclined to suppress empathy to focus on the task at hand, rather than focusing on empathising and developing relationships with others (Gundemir et al., 2019). This discussion suggests that there is ambiguity surrounding why a leader may not express empathy towards followers. Faced with this ambiguity, I argue that observers are likely to draw on stereotypes to help them explain behaviour (Hilton & Von Hippel, 1990). Specifically, expressing low empathy is consistent with the low warmth and limited social skills that Asians are stereotyped to possess in Western society.

Given that Asians activate the low warmth and social skills stereotype, observers are more likely to evoke internal attributions to understand why an Asian leader is not

empathetic towards a follower. Compared with Caucasians, observers are more likely to infer that the reason an Asian leader does not express empathy is that the Asian leader lacks the ability to feel others' distress and the ability to manage emotions to express socially appropriate emotional responses to followers. In contrast, observers are less likely to attribute a Caucasian leader's lack of empathy to internal causes because, unlike Asians, these leaders are not stereotyped as having low warmth and social skills; thus, the ability to manage emotions is not innate (see Mauss, Butler, Roberts, & Chu, 2010; Tsai & Lau, 2013). In this case, their low empathy expression will likely be attributed to external factors, such as the situation itself (Jackson, Sullivan, & Hodge, 1993).

Further, if the observed behaviour is unambiguous, research suggests that stereotypes would have minimal influence on the judgement of the behaviour (Devine, 1989; Duncan, 1976). For example, a leader who invests great effort to change their feelings to be empathetic towards a distressed follower is unlikely to be seen as lacking in the ability to manage emotions, regardless of whether the person is Asian or Caucasian. Therefore, it can be expected that there will be no difference in how observers judge the perceived ability to manage emotions among Asian and Caucasian leaders when empathy is expressed. Overall, this discussion leads to the first hypothesis:

> *Hypothesis 1:* Race moderates the relationship between empathy and perceived ability to manage emotions, such that Asian leaders are perceived to have lower ability to manage emotions than Caucasian leaders when they do not express empathy. In contrast, there are no differences between the races when leaders express empathy.

2.3.1.4 Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions and Leadership Promotability

Implicit leadership theories suggest that people hold cognitive schemas or prototypes specifying the traits and abilities that characterise leaders from non-leaders (Lord et al., 1984; Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Regardless of the accuracy of these leadership schemas, individuals use their implicit leadership theories persistently as a sensemaking function to help them decide who they should support and follow as leaders (Shondrick & Lord, 2010). Based on the connectionist model of leadership derived from implicit leadership theories (Lord, 1985; Lord et al., 2001), race influences leadership perception through the activation of different leadership prototypes. For example, Sy et al. (2010) found that, because Asian leaders activate technical competence as opposed to the agentic leader attribute, leadership perceptions are formed in which Caucasians are perceived as more prototypic leaders than Asians.

From this perspective, I argue that being seen as having high ability to manage emotions is part of a leadership schema that distinguishes leaders from non-leaders. Thus, individuals who are perceived to have higher ability to manage emotions can be seen as higher in leadership promotability, who are able to better enhance employee commitment, motivation and job satisfaction to achieve organisational goals (Hur, van den Berg, & Wilderom, 2011; Miao et al., 2016). For observers, those who are able to manage emotions are categorised as leaders because individuals with the ability to regulate emotions tends to receive higher peer and supervisor ratings of interpersonal facilitation, stress tolerance and leadership potential than do individuals with lower ability to manage emotions (Brackett, Rivers, & Salovey, 2011; Elfenbein et al., 2015; Little et al., 2016). Hence, it can be predicted that the success of one's perceived ability to manage emotions is highly likely to positively influence one's leadership promotability outcomes:

Hypothesis 2: Perceived ability to manage emotions is positively related to leadership promotability.

Combining Hypotheses 1 and 2, I advance the following mediation hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Perceived ability to manage emotions mediates the moderating effect of race and empathy on leadership promotability, such that Asians have lower leadership promotability than Caucasians when they express low empathy, as a result of their lower perceived ability to manage emotions.

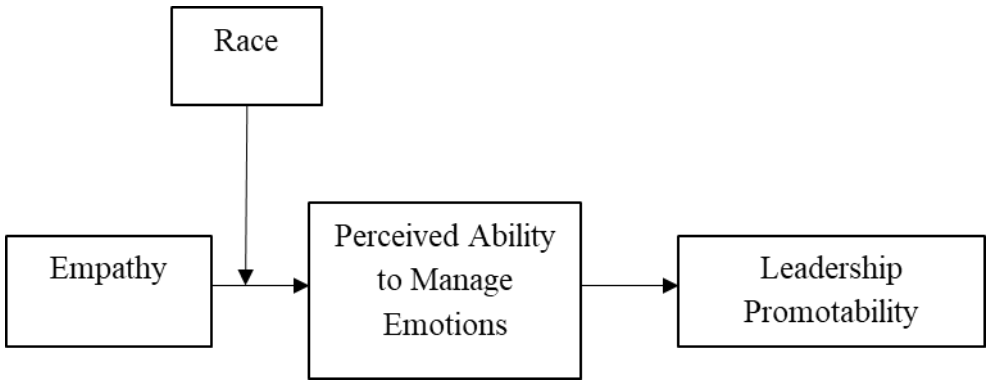

Figure 2.1. Hypothesised model.

2.4 Study 1 Methods

2.4.1 Sample and Design

Four hundred and sixty-four (N = 464) undergraduate students who were enrolled in a first-year management course at a large Australian university exchanged course credit for participation in the study. Given that this study was based on Western society's stereotypes of Asians, to ensure that only respondents who had acculturated into Australian society and shared Western society's stereotypes of Asians were included, 141 participants who did not attend at least high school in Australia were excluded from the analysis. The manipulation check of race revealed 14 participants who answered the race of the leader incorrectly. Additionally, 19 participants failed the attention check questions, which required respondents to answer obvious questions,

such as: ‘For this question, please answer A’ (Oppenheimer, Meyvis, & Davidenko, 2009). The final sample used for the analysis (n = 290) had a mean age of 19 (SD = 2.50) and were 57% female.

2.4.2 Procedure

The participants read a leadership scenario and evaluated the leader based on the information provided in the scenario. The scenario described an email exchange between a project team leader and project member working on a team project for a class. More specifically, while the team faced significant time pressure for the project, the project team member, James, sent an email request to be excused from attending an important team meeting to care for his sick sister. The team leader rejected the request, yet showed either low or high empathy, depending on the experimental conditions. After reading the scenario, participants were asked to answer a series of questions about their impressions of the project team leader, based on the email exchange and some provided demographic information. The background information was as follows:

> James is a second-year university student who majors in management at one of Australia’s leading universities. He is also a member of the faculty of management’s ‘Magic Managers’ group. This prestigious group is made up of the five most distinguished who meet each week during the semester to work on an ongoing project to pitch innovative ideas to large corporate firms. James is a conscientious and diligent team member who is always punctual and actively participates in the group. The group is scheduled to present their project this Friday to a real client—one of the Big 4 consulting firms—in which the reward will be a paid summer internship at the firm for all team members. They are up against seven other groups, also coming from Australia’s leading universities. The group has scheduled to meet for two full days (Wednesday and Thursday)

> prior to presenting on Friday. Today is Tuesday and there is still a lot of work to do before the big presentation. Given that everyone was occupied with their final exams, there was no opportunity to do this work earlier.

2.4.3 Manipulations

2.4.3.1 Manipulation of Leader Race

Following previous experimental studies (Zhao & Biernat, 2017), I manipulated the race of the leader by using either a prototypical Asian name (i.e., Ang-Jing Wong) or a prototypical Caucasian name (i.e., Alan Wood).

2.4.3.2 Manipulation of Leader Empathy

I manipulated empathy through how the project leader responded to the project member's email request. In the low empathy condition, the team leader responded to James's request without displaying any empathy towards James's difficult situation. Specifically, the leader's response did not acknowledge or display concern for James's difficulties ('Not acceptable—I can't accept any excuses. We have a tight schedule and will still need you to come in to participate tomorrow and Thursday'). In the high empathy condition, while the team leader made the same decision, the leader showed that he understood James's situation and expressed a higher level of concern and empathy for James:

> I hope your sister feels better and I understand that this is a difficult time for you. Thanks for keeping in mind that this is also a demanding time for us prior to the client presentation this Friday. I hope you can find someone else to take care of your sister for the coming two days. I really think it is important for you to participate in the group discussion. So, if you can come in tomorrow and Thursday, that'll be much appreciated. Again, I'm sorry for this and please let me know if there's anything I can do to help. Speak soon.

2.4.4 Measures

2.4.4.1 Manipulation Checks

To examine the effectiveness of the race and gender manipulation, participants were asked to identify the race and gender of the team leader. Items included: 'What do you think is the racial background of the team leader' (1 = Asian, 0 = Caucasian) and 'What do you think is the gender of the team leader' (1 = male, 0 = female). To examine the empathy manipulation, participants were asked to respond on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = not at all, 7 = very characteristic) to indicate the extent to which they agreed with the five empathy descriptions from Kellett et al. (2006). Items included: 'Feels emotions that other people experience' and 'Makes others feel understood' (Cronbach's $\alpha = .94$).

2.4.4.2 Leadership Promotability

Three items from Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999) were used to assess leadership promotability. Items included: 'I believe this team leader has what it takes to be promoted to a higher-level leadership position in his career', 'I believe the team leader will probably not be promoted to a higher-level position in his career' and 'I believe it would be best for the future organisation that the team leader will work for if he was not promoted to senior leadership roles'. Participants responded on a seven-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) (Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$).

2.4.4.3 Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

The eight-item subscale of managing emotions by Brackett et al. (2006) was used and adapted into an observer-reported scale by replacing the 'I' with 'team leader' (Elfenbein et al., 2015). These items pertain to the ability to reduce, enhance or modify an emotional response in both oneself and others, and the ability to experience a range of emotions while making decisions about the appropriateness or usefulness of the

emotion in a given situation (Brackett et al., 2006). Items included: 'This team leader can handle stressful situations without getting too nervous'. Items were answered on a five-point Likert scale (1 = very inaccurate, 5 = very accurate) (Cronbach's α = .84).

2.4.4.4 Controls

Based on the recommendations of Bernerth, Cole, Taylor, and Walker (2018), participants' demographic data were collected, including gender (0 = female, 1 = male) and race (0 = non-Asian, 1 = Asian). Following Lai and Babcock's (2013) study, which found that female evaluators rated the warmth and sociability of Asians differently to male evaluators, I controlled for the gender of the participant. In previous research on Asian subjects, the race of the participants has been found to generate different perceptions of leadership (see Jung & Yammarino, 2001). Previous research has also claimed that participants' race can confound the results of the study because racial similarity can influence liking and thus affect responses of leadership evaluation (Berdahl & Min, 2012). This also aligns with empirical studies on the bamboo ceiling that have used race and gender as a control (see Festekjian et al., 2014; Sy et al., 2010).[2]

2.4.5 Analyses

To test Hypothesis 1, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to test the two-way interaction effect of empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions. To test Hypothesis 2, I ran a regression analysis on leadership promotability. To test Hypothesis 3, I first used an ANOVA to test the two-way interaction effect of empathy and race on leadership promotability. To examine the mediation effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on the two-way interaction of race and empathy

[2] Comparable with Sy et al. (2010) and Festekjian et al. (2014), beyond participants' gender (b = .02, n.s.) and race (b = -.15, n.s.) as control variables (R^2 = .00), the effect of race and empathy explained significant variance in leadership promotability ($R^2\Delta$ = .42). Removing the controls did not alter the pattern of results for the two-way interaction on leadership promotability ($F(1,286) = 6.47$, $p < .05$) or perceived managing of emotions ($F(1,286) = 3.42$, $p < .10$).

on leadership promotability, I used the four-step approach from Muller, Judd, and Yzerbyt (2005) and Hayes's (2018) 'Process' macro (Model 8) for SPSS.

2.5 Study 1 Results

2.5.1 Manipulation Checks

After reading the scenarios, participants were asked to identify the race and gender of the target team leader. As noted earlier, 14 participants answered this question incorrectly and were removed from further analysis. The numbers of participants in each condition were as follows:

- low empathy, Caucasian: $n = 65$
- low empathy, Asian: $n = 74$
- high empathy, Caucasian: $n = 67$
- high empathy, Asian: $n = 84$.

The manipulation check for empathy showed a significant effect of the team leader's empathy expression depending on their condition ($F(1, 288) = 79.30$, $p < .01$). Participants perceived the team leader to express more empathy in the high empathy condition ($M = 4.66$, $SD = 1.21$) than in the low empathy condition ($M = 3.07$, $SD = 1.79$).

2.5.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 2.1 presents the means, standard deviations and correlations between the study variables. Empathy was positively associated with perceived ability to manage emotions ($r = .68$, $p < .01$) and leadership promotability ($r = .64$, $p < .01$). Perceived ability to manage emotions was also positively associated with leadership promotability ($r = .66$, $p < .01$).

Table 2.1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Study Variables (Study 1)

Variable	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender participant	.43	.49						
2. Race participant	.51	.50	-.03					
3. Empathy	.52	.50	.01	-.06				
4. Race	.54	.50	-.01	-.02	.02			
5. Perceived ability to manage emotions	2.74	.69	-.02	-.02	.68**	.01		
6. Leadership promotability	4.36	1.38	.01	-.08	.64**	-.01	.66**	

***p* < .01, **p* < .05. Gender participant 0 = female, 1 = male; Race participant 0 = non-Asian, 1 = Asian

2.5.3 Test of Hypothesis 1: Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

A 2 (low empathy × high empathy) × 2 (Asian × Caucasian) ANOVA on perceived ability to manage emotions revealed a significant main effect of empathy ($F(1, 284) = 239.93$, $p < .01$), such that perceived ability to manage emotions was higher in the high empathy condition ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .58$) than in the low empathy condition ($M = 2.25$, $SD = .42$). The main effect of race was not significant ($F(1,284) = .11$, *n.s.*). The results showed a significant interaction between empathy and race ($F(1,284) = 4.18$, $p < .05$) on perceived ability to manage emotions . The interaction effect is shown in Figure 2.1. Asians leaders were rated significantly lower in perceived ability to manage emotions ($M = 2.19$, $SD = .40$) than were Caucasian leaders ($M = 2.32$, $SD = .44$; $t(137) = -1.86$, $p < .10$) in the low empathy condition. There was no significant difference between the Asian and Caucasian leaders in the high empathy condition ($M = 3.23$, $SD = .57$; $M = 3.14$, $SD = .60$; $t(149) = .96$, *n.s.*). This result supported Hypothesis 1.

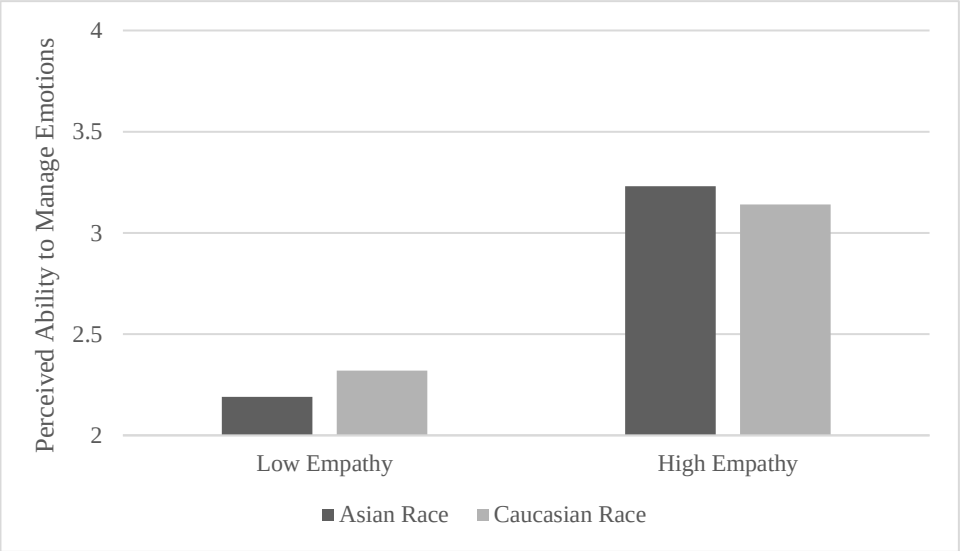

Figure 2.2. Interaction effect of empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions (Study 1).

2.5.4 Test of Hypotheses 2 and 3: Leadership Promotability and Mediation of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

A regression analysis was conducted in which perceived ability to manage emotions was positively related to leadership promotability ($b = 1.32$, $p < .01$, $R^2 = .44$). This supported Hypothesis 2.

2.5.4.1 Two-way Interaction

To test the two-way interaction between empathy and race on leadership promotability, a 2 (low empathy versus high empathy) × 2 (Asian versus Caucasian) ANOVA on leadership promotability revealed a significant main effect of empathy ($F(1, 284) = 190.94$, $p < .01$), such that participants perceived the leader to be more promotable in the high empathy condition ($M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.02$) than in the low empathy condition ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.11$). There was a non-significant main effect of race ($F(1,284) = .45$, *n.s.*), but the results showed a significant interaction between

empathy and race ($F(1,284) = 6.13$, $p < .05$) on leadership promotability. The interaction effect is shown in Figure 2.2. Asians leaders were rated significantly lower ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.12$) than Caucasian leaders ($M = 3.66$, $SD = 1.07$; $t(137) = -2.14$, $p < .05$) in the low empathy condition. There was no significant difference between the Asian and Caucasian leaders in the high empathy condition ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.02$; $M = 5.07$, $SD = 1.00$; $t(149) = 1.41$, *n.s.*).

2.5.4.2 Mediation of Two-way Interaction

To test the mediation hypothesis, the four-step moderated mediation approach from Muller et al. (2005) was used as follows. First, it demonstrated that the interaction between the independent variable (empathy) and moderator (race) was significantly related to the mediator (perceived ability to manage emotions). Second, after controlling for other predictors, the interaction was also significantly related to the dependent variable (leadership promotability). Third, after controlling for the mediator × moderator terms and other predictors, the mediator remained significantly related to the dependent variable. Fourth, after controlling for the mediator, the effect of the interaction between the independent variable and moderator on the dependent variable became non-significant.

Supporting Hypothesis 3, the results in Table 2.2 show the following. First, the two-way interaction effect between empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions was significant ($b = .06$, $p < .05$, Model 1). Second, there was a significant interaction effect between empathy and race on leadership promotability ($b = .16$, $p < .05$, Model 1). Third, after controlling for the mediator × moderator terms and other predictors, there was a significant effect between perceived ability to manage emotions and leadership promotability ($b = .83$, $p < .01$, Model 2). Fourth, when controlling for the significant relationship between perceived ability to manage emotions and

leadership promotability (b = .83, p < .01), the previously reported significant interaction between empathy and race was no longer significant (b = .11, *n.s.*, Model 2).

Finally, a parametric bootstrapping procedure was used to test the significance of the indirect effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Using Hayes's (2018) 'Process' macro (Model 8) for SPSS, the bootstrap test for our moderated mediation model with 5,000 iterations yielded a 95% bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap confidence interval from .01 to .41. These results indicated that the mediated moderation effect was significant (p < .05) (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002), such that perceived ability to manage emotions mediated the two-way interaction of empathy and race on leadership promotability.

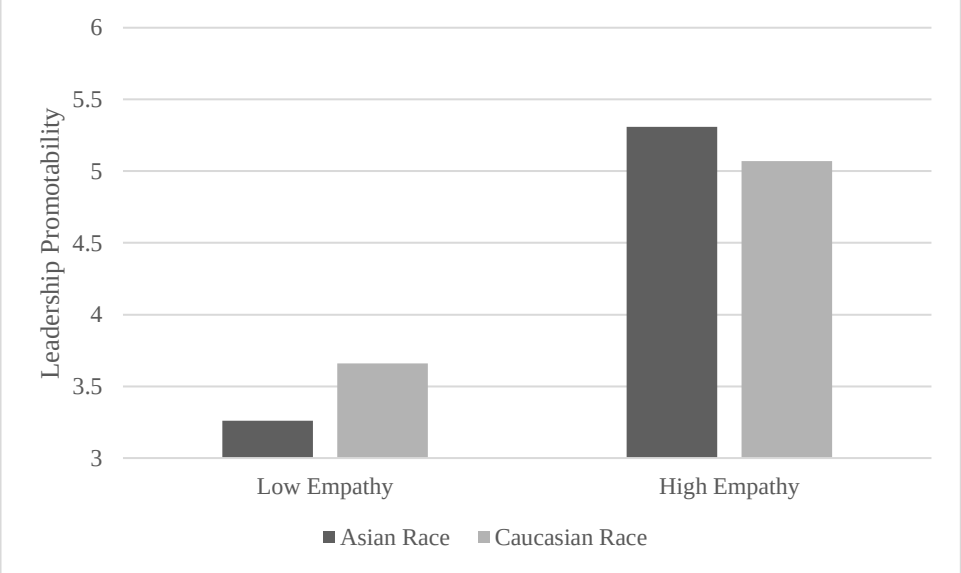

Figure 2.3. Interaction effect of empathy and race on leadership promotability (Study 1).

Table 2.2

Mediation of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions (Study 1)

	Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions	Leadership Promotability	
	Model 1	Model 1	Model 2
Constant	2.61(.06)**	4.31(.12)**	2.15(.21)**
Control gender participant	.14(.06)	.02(.13)	-.09(.12)
Control race participant	.09(.06)	.01(.13)	-.06(.12)
Empathy	.47(.03)**	.87(.06)**	.48(.08)**
Race	-.01(.03)	-.04(.06)	-.03(.06)
Empathy × race	.06(.03)*	.16(.06)*	.11(.06)
Perceived ability to manage emotions			.83(.11)**
	$R^2\Delta = .47$	$R^2\Delta = .42$	$R^2\Delta = .09$
	$F(5,284) = 51.25$**	$F(5,284) = 41.28$**	$F(6,283) = 49.54$**

Unstandardised regression coefficient and standard errors (in parentheses) are presented. **$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

2.6 Study 1 Discussion

Through the process of stereotype activation and application (Devine, 1989; Duncan, 1976; Kunda & Spencer, 2003), it was expected that race would moderate the relationship between empathy and perceived ability to manage emotions, such that Asian leaders would be perceived to have lower ability to manage emotions than Caucasian leaders when they did not express empathy. The results of Study 1 showed that the interaction of race and empathy on leadership promotability was mediated by perceived ability to manage emotions. Thus, in comparison with Caucasian leaders, when Asian leaders expressed low empathy, they were perceived as lower in ability to manage emotions, which subsequently lowered their leadership promotability. In the high empathy condition, there was no difference in leadership promotability between Asian and Caucasian leaders. This highlights a novel understanding that perception of an individual's ability to manage emotions can significantly undermine the chances of Asians emerging as effective leaders in comparison with Caucasians.

In Study 1, I focused only on male leaders. To provide a more comprehensive account of the effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on the interaction effect of race and empathy on leadership promotability, in Study 2, I tested the effect for female leaders together with male leaders.

2.7 Study 2: Replication and Extension—Examining the Gender Effect

Alongside race, stereotypes about emotional abilities also differ widely across gender (Brescoll, 2016; Livingston et al., 2012; Rosette et al., 2016; Rosette, de Leon, Koval, & Harrison, 2018; Sanchez-Hucles & Davis, 2010). For example, the gender literature highlights that females are stereotyped to be communal, relationship-oriented and nurturing, while males are perceived to be more assertive, task-oriented and bold (Heilman & Caleo, 2018). Thus, in various leadership situations, females are more relationship-driven, supportive and caring (Cook & Glass, 2014; Tinkler, Zhao, Li, & Ridgeway, 2019). It is possible that expressing empathy could reflect the female gender stereotype of being warm and nurturing, as opposed to the male stereotype of aggression and dominance. These stereotype-based expectations about females can influence the ways that individuals perceive the behaviour of female or male Asian or Caucasian employees (Heilman & Caleo, 2018).

Specifically, compared with Asian males, the Asian female stereotype is found in the literature to be more feminine and submissive (Rosette et al., 2016; Rosette et al., 2018; Schug et al., 2015). In this case, for Asian females, expressing low empathy would be counter to their gender stereotype of a nurturing and warm female leader, such that their lack of empathetic behaviour may be externally attributed (Jackson et al., 1993; Weiner, 1985). The stereotype of Asian females as generally warm and able to control their emotions would attribute their low empathy expression to the situation, as opposed to their internal disposition. Arguably, this concept applies to Asian females, as

opposed to Asian males. The effect of the gender stereotype that females are warm and nurturing may weaken the effect of the race and empathy interaction. Therefore, while it can be expected that the two-way interaction for males can be replicated, the interaction between race and empathy on perceived ability to manage emotions would be weaker for females:

> *Hypothesis 4:* There is a three-way interaction between gender, race and empathy on perceived ability to manage emotions, such that the difference between Asian and Caucasian leaders is weaker for females than males when they express low empathy, while there will be no differences in the high empathy condition.

In line with Study 1, it was expected that perceived ability to manage emotions would enhance leadership promotability for both males and females. Parallel to Asian and Caucasian males, when Asian and Caucasian females express low empathy, they are likely to be seen as less capable of succeeding in a leadership role that requires the ability to manage emotions effectively. Failure to respond to and manage one's own and others' emotions can be perceived as lacking in the ability to successfully navigate and manage complex people issues, where the perceived lower ability to manage emotions will further decrease leadership promotion opportunities (Humphrey, 2002; Lewis, 2000; Lindebaum & Fielden, 2011). However, when displaying empathy, this should enhance one's perceived ability to manage emotions, demonstrating that one is able to build strong relationships through understanding and managing followers' emotions (Rubin, Munz, & Bommer, 2005). Therefore:

> *Hypothesis 5:* Perceived ability to manage emotions mediates the three-way interaction of race, gender and empathy on leadership promotability, such that Asian males and females have lower leadership promotability than Caucasian

males and females when they express low empathy because of the lower perceived ability to manage emotions.

2.8 Study 2 Methods

2.8.1 Sample and Design

Three-hundred and eighty-four students (N = 384) at a large Australian university participated in the study. Consistent with Study 1, only responses from students who had attended high school in Australia were included in the analysis (173 respondents were removed). The manipulation check of race revealed 12 participants who answered the race of the leader incorrectly, and the manipulation check of gender revealed eight participants who answered the gender of the leader incorrectly. Sixteen participants also failed the attention check questions (Oppenheimer et al., 2009). The final sample used for the analysis (n = 175) had a mean age of 19 (SD = 2.3) and were 56% female.

2.8.2 Procedure and Manipulations

The same procedures and manipulations were used as per Study 1. A different set of names for the race and gender manipulations was chosen based on the most popular female/male Chinese and English names in the current decade (i.e., Steve Smith/Chang Huang Wang 王昌煌, or Claire Smith/Mei Chen Wang 王美辰) (Milkman, Akinola, & Chugh, 2015; Steiner, Atzmüller, & Su, 2017).

2.8.3 Measures

2.8.3.1 Manipulation Check

The same items in Study 1 were used to check manipulation for race and empathy (Kellett et al., 2006) (Cronbach's α = .96). To examine the gender manipulation, participants were asked to identify the gender of the team leader: 'What do you think is the gender of the team leader' (1 = male, 0 = female). Moreover,

leadership promotability (Wayne et al., 1999) (Cronbach's α = .75) and *perceived ability to manage emotions* (Brackett et al., 2006) (Cronbach's α = .83) were measured using the same scales as per Study 1. In addition to these questions, an open-text measure for participants to justify their responses on *leadership promotability* was used: 'Please justify your response below'.

2.8.3.2 Controls

As in Study 1, participants' gender (0 = female, 1 = male) and race (0 = non-Asian, 1 = Asian) were used as a control. Removing the controls did not alter the patterns of results in either study.[3]

2.8.4 Analyses

To test Hypothesis 4, an ANOVA was conducted to examine the three-way interaction effect of empathy, race and gender on perceived ability to manage emotions. To further examine the three-way interaction effects, I conducted two-way ANOVAs for each of the male and female conditions. I then conducted a means differences and simple slopes analysis to test for differences between race for females and males within the low and high empathy conditions (Dawson & Richter, 2006).

To test Hypothesis 5, I first used an ANOVA to test the three-way interaction effect of empathy, race and gender on leadership promotability. I then conducted a regression analyses using the four-step approach from Muller et al. (2005) and Hayes's (2013) 'Process' macro (Model 12) for SPSS to test the mediation effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on the three-way interaction of race, gender and empathy on leadership promotability. To further examine the mediation effect, I conducted a

[3] Comparable with Sy et al. (2010) and Festekjian et al. (2014), beyond participants' gender (b = .07, *n.s.*) and race (b = -.19, *n.s.*) as control variables (R^2 = .01), the effect of race, empathy and gender explained significant variance in leadership promotability ($R^2\Delta$ = .29). Removing the controls did not alter the pattern of results for the three-way interaction on leadership promotability ($F(1,166) = 11.61$, $p < .01$) or perceived ability to manage emotions ($F(1,166) = 11.40$, $p < .01$).

separate regression analyses of the effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on the two-way interaction of race and empathy on leadership promotability for each of the two gender conditions. The four-step approach from Muller et al. (2005) and Hayes's (2013) 'Process' macro (Model 8) for SPSS were used to examine this effect for each respective gender condition.

2.9 Study 2 Results

2.9.1 Manipulation Checks

After reading the scenarios, participants were asked to identify the race of the target team leader. As mentioned above, the manipulation check of race revealed 12 participants who answered the race of the leader incorrectly. The manipulation check of gender revealed eight participants who answered the gender of the leader incorrectly. As per Study 1, these participants were removed from further analysis. The numbers of participants in each condition were as follows:

- low empathy, Caucasian, female: $n = 20$
- low empathy, Caucasian, male: $n = 18$
- low empathy, Asian, female: $n = 26$
- low empathy, Asian, male: $n = 21$
- high empathy, Caucasian, female: $n = 22$
- high empathy, Caucasian, male: $n = 23$
- high empathy, Asian, female: $n = 22$
- high empathy, Asian, male: $n = 22$.

The manipulation check for empathy yielded a main effect for the team leader's empathy expression ($F(1,161) = 21.01$, $p < .01$), such that participants in the high empathy condition reported the team leader as significantly more empathetic ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 1.34$) than in the low empathy condition ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 1.87$).

2.9.2 Descriptive Statistics

Table 2.3 presents the means, standard deviations and correlations between the study variables. Consistent with Study 1, empathy was positively associated with perceived ability to manage emotions (r = .56, p < .01) and leadership promotability (r = .52, p < .01). Perceived ability to manage emotions was also positively associated with leadership promotability (r = .59, p < .01).

Table 2.3

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Study Variables (Study 2)

Variable	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender participant	.43	.50						
2. Race participant	.42	.49	-.12					
3. Empathy	.58	.50	-.08	.06				
4. Race	.59	.49	-.08	.09	-.06			
5. Gender	.47	.50	-.03	-.07	.19*	-.05		
6. Perceived ability to manage emotions	2.77	.57	-.07	.07	.56**	-.02	-.03	
7. Leadership promotability	4.55	1.28	.05	-.09	.52**	-.03	.12	.59**

*p < .05, **p < .01. Gender participant 0 = female, 1 = male; Race participant 0 = non-Asian, 1 = Asian

2.9.3 Test of Hypothesis 4: Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

2.9.3.1 Three-way Interaction

A 2 (low empathy × high empathy) × 2 (Asian × Caucasian) × 2 (male × female) ANOVA on perceived ability to manage emotions revealed a main effect for empathy on perceived ability to manage emotions (F(1,161) = 70.38, p < .01), such that perceived ability to manage emotions was higher in the high empathy condition (M = 3.04, SD = .54) than in the low empathy condition (M = 2.39, SD = .37). The main effect for race was not significant (F(1,161) = .92, *n.s.*), nor was gender (F(1,161) = .69, *n.s.*). There was a significant three-way interaction between race, empathy and gender (F(1,161) = 12.16, p < .01). To further examine the three-way interaction effect, separate two-way ANOVAs were conducted for the male and female condition. A

means differences test and simple slopes analysis were then used to test the effect of gender.

2.9.3.2 Male Leader

A 2 (low empathy × high empathy) × 2 (Asian × Caucasian) ANOVA on perceived managing emotions revealed a significant main effect of empathy ($F(1, 75) = 21.22$, $p < .01$), such that perceived ability to manage emotions was higher in the high empathy condition ($M = 2.98$, $SD = .57$) than in the low empathy condition ($M = 2.26$, $SD = .47$). The main effect of race was not significant ($F(1,75) = .91$, *n.s.*). A significant interaction between empathy and race was shown ($F(1,75) = 7.11$, $p < .01$).

A further probe of the interaction (Figure 2.3a) showed that Asian male leaders were rated significantly lower in perceived ability to manage emotions ($M = 2.10$, $SD = .33$) than were Caucasian male leaders ($M = 2.57$, $SD = .43$; $t(25) = -3.13$, $p < .05$) in the low empathy condition. There was no significant difference between the Asian and Caucasian male leaders in the high empathy condition ($M = 3.08$, $SD = .53$; $M = 2.85$, $SD = .70$; $t(54) = 1.40$, *n.s.*). These results supported Hypothesis 1 for males.

2.9.3.3 Female Leader

A 2 (low empathy × high empathy) × 2 (Asian × Caucasian) ANOVA on perceived ability to manage emotions revealed a significant main effect of empathy ($F(1, 84) = 63.80$, $p < .01$), such that perceived ability to manage emotions was higher in the high empathy condition ($M = 3.12$, $SD = .41$) than in the low empathy condition ($M = 2.48$, $SD = .33$). The main effect of race was not significant ($F(1,84) = .05$, *n.s.*). There was a significant interaction between empathy and race ($F(1,84) = 4.34$, $p < .05$).

A further probe of the interaction (Figure 2.3b) suggested that Asian female leaders were rated higher in perceived ability to manage emotions ($M = 2.53$, $SD = .33$) than were Caucasian female leaders ($M = 2.39$, $SD = .30$; $t(45) = 1.48$, *n.s.*) in the low

empathy condition, though this failed to reach significance. There was no significant difference between the Asian and Caucasian female leaders in the high empathy condition (M = 3.04, SD = .42; M = 3.21, SD = .39; $t(42)$ = -1.37, *n.s.*). Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not replicated for females.

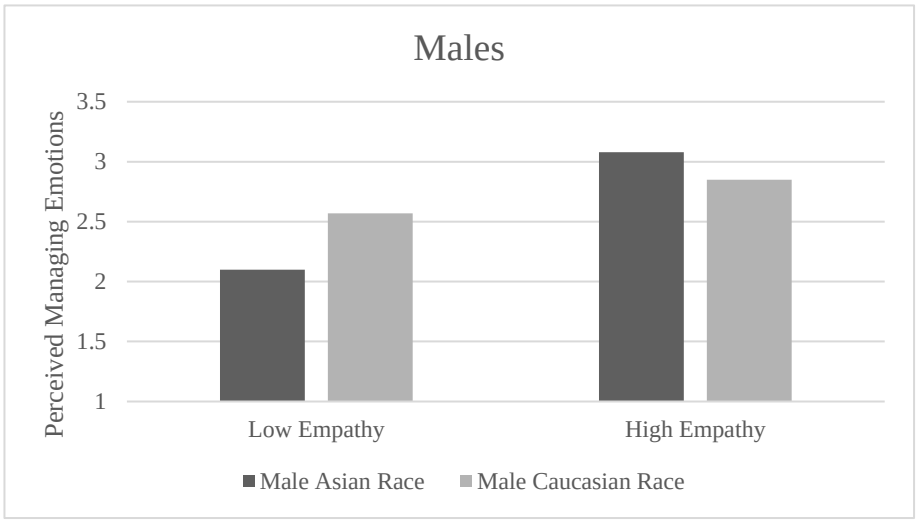

Figure 2.4a. Interaction effect of empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions for males (Study 2).

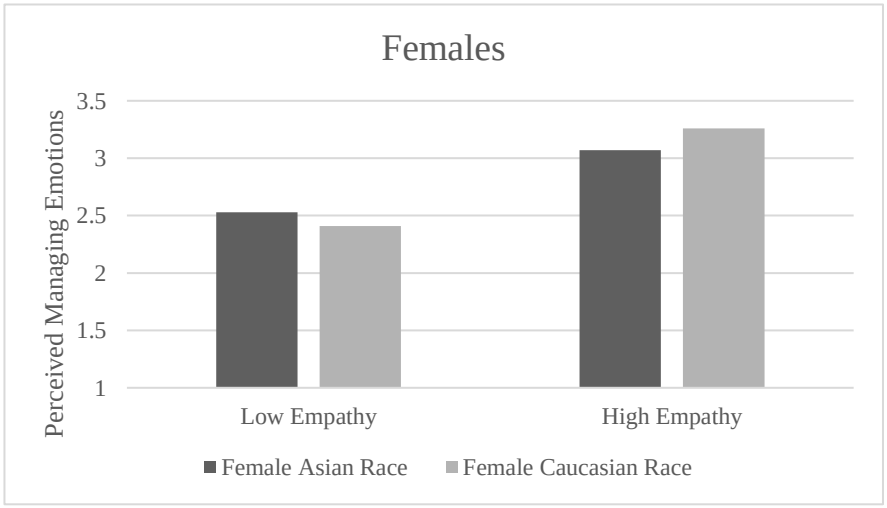

Figure 2.4b. Interaction effect of empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions for females (Study 2).

An independent t-test was run on the data with a 95% confidence interval (CI) for the mean differences between females and males in the low and high empathy condition. In the low empathy condition, the mean differences for female Asian and Caucasian leaders were .14 (95% CI, -.05 to .34), whilst the mean differences for male Asian and Caucasian leaders were -.46 (95% CI, -.77 to -.16). In the high empathy condition, the mean differences for female Asian and Caucasian leaders were -.17 (95% CI, -.42 to .08), whilst the mean differences for male Asian and Caucasian leaders were .23 (95% CI, -.10 to .56).

To further examine the three-way interaction, I used a method developed by Dawson and Richter (2006) to test whether the pairs of individual slopes differed from each other. This method calculates whether the ratio of the differences between a pair of slopes and its standard error differs from zero. The simple slopes and slope difference tests are shown in Figure 2.3c and comparison tests are presented in Table 2.4. The analysis of simple slope difference indicated that the interaction between empathy and race was significant with males (Slopes 1 and 3; $t = 3.17$; $p < .01$). However, the interaction between empathy and race was smaller and not significant with females (Slopes 2 and 4; $t = -1.66$; *n.s.*).

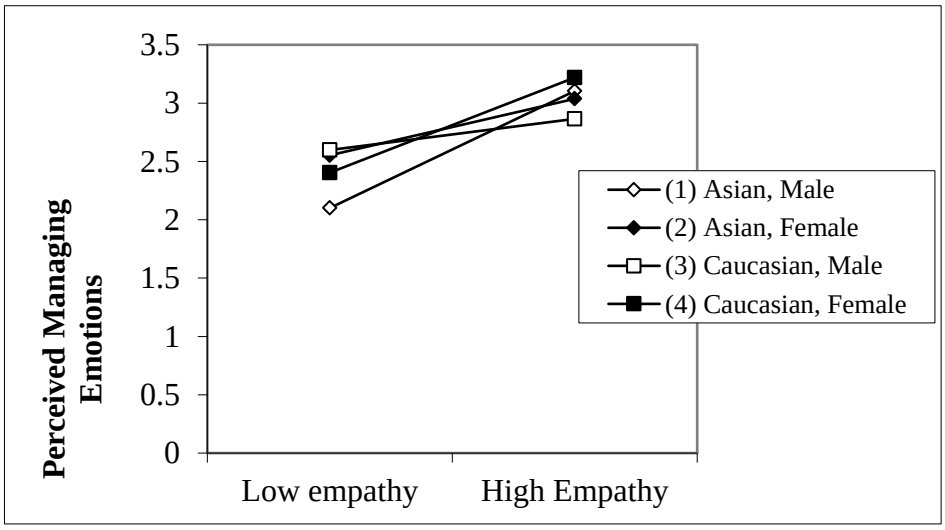

Figure 2.4c. Three-way interaction effect of empathy, race and gender on perceived management of emotions (Study 2).

Table 2.4

Simple Slopes Comparisons for Three-way Interaction (Study 2)

Pairs of Comparisons	Perceived Management of Emotions	
	Slope	*t*
1 (Asian, male)	1.00	7.28**
2 (Asian, female)	0.48	3.71**
3 (Caucasian, male)	0.27	1.47
4 (Caucasian, female)	0.82	5.37**
Slope difference		
1 and 2		2.66*
1 and 3		3.17**
1 and 4		0.90
2 and 3		0.97
2 and 4		-1.66
3 and 4		-2.32*

Notes: Pair numbers correspond to the numbers listed in Figure 2.3c. Slope difference tests were based on Dawson and Richter (2006). *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

To advance further interpretations, I plotted the interaction effects for the two conditions of low and high empathy to test whether the difference for females was weaker. I performed a simple slope analysis for each regression line to test whether the slope was significantly different from zero. Figures 2.3d and 2.3e show that the relationship between race and perceived ability to manage emotions in the low empathy condition was stronger and more significant for males (simple slope = -.46, t = -3.40, $p < .01$) than for females (simple slope = .14, t = 1.45, *n.s.*). In the high empathy condition, the relationship between race and perceived ability to manage emotions was the same, and not significant for either males (simple slope = .23, t = 1.50, *n.s.*) or females (simple slope = -.19, t = -1.15, *n.s.*). This supported Hypothesis 4.

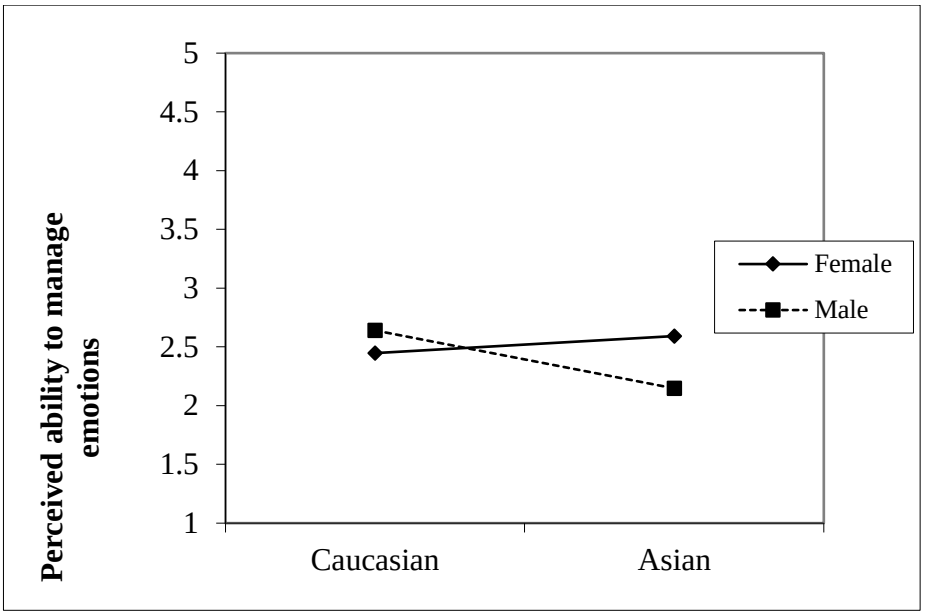

Figure 2.4d. Interaction of race and gender differences in low empathy condition.

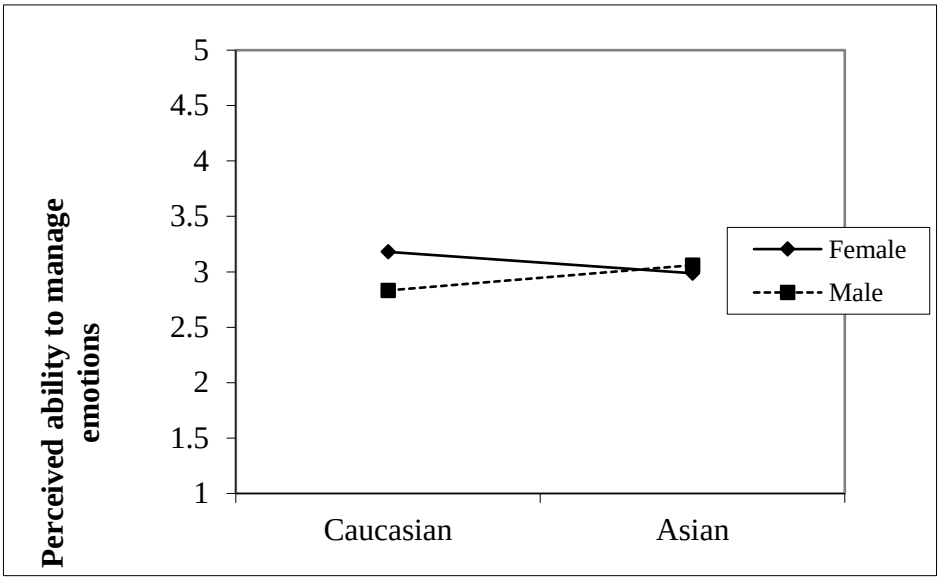

Figure 2.4e. Interaction of race and gender differences in high empathy condition.

2.9.4 Test of Hypothesis 5: Mediation of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions

2.9.4.1 Three-way Interaction

A 2 (low empathy × high empathy) × 2 (Asian × Caucasian) × 2 (male × female) ANOVA on leadership promotability revealed a main effect for empathy on leadership promotability ($F(1,161) = 67.61$, $p < .01$), such that participants perceived the leader to be more promotable in the high empathy condition ($M = 5.12$, $SD = 1.04$) than in the

low empathy condition (M = 3.77, SD = 1.16). The main effect for race (F(1,161) = .32, *n.s.*) and gender (F(1,161) = .36, *n.s.*) was not significant. There was a significant three-way interaction between race, empathy and gender (F(1,161) = 11.57, p < .01).

2.9.4.2 Mediation of Three-way Interaction

Hypothesis 5 tested whether perceived ability to manage emotions mediated the three-way interaction of gender, race and empathy on leadership promotability. Consistent with Study 1, to test the mediated moderation hypothesis, the four-step approach from Muller et al. (2005) was used. First, a regression analysis (Table 2.4a) showed a significant interaction effect between empathy, race and gender on perceived ability to manage emotions (b = -.65, p < .05, Model 1). Second, there was a significant interaction effect between empathy, race and gender on leadership promotability (b = .3.04, p < .01, Model 1). Third, after controlling for the mediator × moderator terms and other predictors, there was a significant effect between perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability (b = .89, p < .01, Model 2). Fourth, when controlling for the significant relationship between perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability, the previously reported significant interaction at p < .01 between empathy and race was reduced in significance (b = 1.47, p < .05, Model 2).

Table 2.4a

Mediation of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions on Three-way Interaction (Study 2)

	Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions	Leadership Promotability	
	Model 1	Model 1	Model 2
Constant	2.44**(.12)	3.46**(.26)	1.22*(.46)
Control gender participant	-.07(.08)	.15(.16)	.16(.16)
Control race participant	-.04(.07)	-.30(.16)	-.39*(.15)
Empathy	.82**(.15)	2.11**(.32)	1.35**(.34)
Race	.15(.14)	.89**(.30)	.74*(.29)
Gender	.20(.19)	1.15**(.34)	.84*(.39)
Empathy × race	-.33(.20)	-1.4**(.44)	1.09*(.41)
Empathy × gender	-.56*(.24)	-1.67**(.45)	-.78(.43)
Race × gender	-.65*(.24)	-2.05**(.46)	-1.18*(.50)
Empathy × race × gender	1.08**(.31)	3.04**(.63)	1.47*(.65)
Perceived ability to manage emotions			.89**(.16)
	$R^2\Delta = .05$	$R^2\Delta = .09$	$R^2\Delta = .02$
	$F(1,161) = 12.37$**	$F(1,161) = 23.19$**	$F(1,160) = 5.08$*

Unstandardised regression coefficients and standard errors (in parentheses) are presented. **$p < .01$, *$p < .05$.

Following this, I ran a separate regression analyses for each gender condition to test for the mediation effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on the two-way interaction of race and empathy on leadership promotability.

2.9.4.3 Male Leader

The results in Table 2.4b show the following. First, the two-way interaction effect between empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions was significant ($b = .19$, $p < .01$, Model 1). Second, there was a significant interaction effect between empathy and race on leadership promotability ($b = .29$, $p < .05$, Model 1). Third, after controlling for the mediator × moderator terms and other predictors, there was a significant effect between perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability ($b = 1.05$, $p < .01$, Model 2). Fourth, when controlling for the significant

relationship between perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability (b = 1.05, p < .01), the previously reported significant interaction between empathy and race was no longer significant (b = .10, *n.s.*, Model 2).

To test the effect of gender on the moderated mediation effect of empathy, race and perceived managing emotions, Hayes's (2018) 'Process' macro (Model 8) for SPSS was used. For the male condition, the bootstrap test for the moderated mediation model with 5,000 iterations yielded a 95% bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap CI from .25 to 1.46. Thus, the findings of Hypothesis 3 in Study 1 were replicated, such that perceived ability to manage emotions mediated the interaction effect of race and empathy on leadership promotability for males.

2.9.4.4 Female Leader

The results in Table 2.4c indicated the following. First, the two-way interaction effect between empathy and race on perceived ability to manage emotions was significant (b = -.08, p < .05, Model 1). Second, there was a significant interaction effect between empathy and race on leadership promotability (b = -.33, p < .05, Model 1). Third, after controlling for the mediator × moderator terms and other predictors, there was a significant effect between perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability (b = .63, p < .05, Model 2). Fourth, when controlling for the significant relationship between perceived ability to manage emotions on leadership promotability (b = .63, p < .05), the previously reported interaction between empathy and race was still significant (b = -.28, p < .05, Model 2).

For the female condition, the bootstrap test for the moderated mediation model with 5,000 iterations yielded a 95% bias-corrected and accelerated bootstrap CI from -.57 to .02 (i.e., including zero). For females, perceived ability to manage emotions did not mediate the interaction effect of race and empathy on leadership promotability.

Table 2.4b

Mediation of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions for Males (Study 2)

	Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions	Leadership Promotability	
	Model 1	Model 1	Model 2
Constant	2.45(.19)**	4.82(.24)**	2.00(.53)**
Control gender participant	-.09(.14)	-.07(.26)	.02(.22)
Control race participant	-.00(.13)	-.51(.25)*	-.51(.20)*
Empathy	.63(.14)**	.66(.13)**	.33(.12)**
Race	-.14(.14)	-.22(.13)	-.15(.11)
Empathy × race	.19(.07)**	.29(.13)*	.10(.12)
Perceived ability to manage emotions			1.05(.18)**
	$R^2\Delta$ = .34	$R^2\Delta$ = .38	$R^2\Delta$ = .20
	$F(5,75)$ = 7.68**	$F(5,75)$ = 9.23**	$F(6,74)$ = 16.62**

Unstandardised regression coefficient and standard errors (in parentheses) are presented. **p < .05, **p < .01.

Table 2.4c

Mediation of Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions for Females (Study 2)

	Perceived Ability to Manage Emotions	Leadership Promotability	
	Model 1	Model 1	Model 2
Constant	2.78(.07)**	.44(.21)**	2.60(.87)**
Control gender participant	-.04(.08)	.24(.23)	.26(.22)
Control race participant	.05(.08)	-.12(.23)	-.14(.23)
Empathy	.33(.04)**	.69(.12)**	.48(.15)**
Race	.01(.04)	.09(.11)	.10(.11)
Empathy × race	-.08(.04)*	-.33(.11)*	-.28(.11)*
Perceived ability to manage emotions			.63(.30)*
	$R^2\Delta$ = .46	$R^2\Delta$ = .33	$R^2\Delta$ = .03
	$F(5,84)$ = 14.28**	$F(5,84)$ = 8.14**	$F(6,83)$ = 7.77**

Unstandardised regression coefficient and standard errors (in parentheses) are presented. **p < .05, **p < .01.

2.9.5 Exploratory Qualitative Analysis

To understand the unexpected difference in the low empathy condition between Asian and Caucasian female leaders, I analysed the responses in the open-text section of the study, where participants were asked to justify the ratings they gave for the leader's leadership promotability. Based on the open-text responses in the low empathy condition, it was found that the Asian female leader was perceived to be task-oriented and that promotion into leadership occurred because of her perceived competence and dedication to achieving the team's goal. Specifically, participants acknowledged that, because of the deadline, the Asian female leader needed to behave with more discipline and less warmth. They seemed to argue that the person's intention was to help. In other words, her lack of empathy was seen as a means to protect her team. To illustrate, below are some sample responses of why people rated the Asian female leader in the low empathy condition as having high leadership promotability:

> *"I believe she has values of a project team leader however her lack of sympathy may prove difficult for a team to want to work with her or want her to be a team leader. A company may benefit from her objective skills as a person of a higher position in her career, however her subjective people skills may not be enough. Furthermore, not having her in the organisation may not be the best option as she still has skills the company can utilise."*
>
> *"The team leader is able to organise the team well and understands the importance of deadlines. However, with more experience, she will be able to identify better approaches to situations such as James' in order to still be able to meet objectives and complete tasks."*

In contrast, responses about the Caucasian female leader focused more on lack of ability. These responses showed that, for Caucasian females in the low empathy

condition, there was greater emphasis on evaluating them in terms of a lack of ability to express empathy and, in particular, their effectiveness in handling interpersonally stressful situations. Sample responses to justify this leader's low leadership promotability evaluations were as follows:

> *"The team leader's lack of interpersonal skills and dismissive nature can be seen as a detriment to the people that may work under them. It seems that this team leader values the task at hand more than the feelings of the people, so this may be seen as a benefit to the company and they still may be promoted to senior leadership positions based on the efficiency of the work rather than morale of the workforce."*
>
> *"At a first glance she doesn't seem to be able to handle the stress of managing the group herself. It would be a probability that she wouldn't be able to handle more senior managerial roles at a later stage in her life. However, she may still just be young and an easily stressed person, so perhaps she will be able to develop her managerial skills later on as she progresses in her job."*

As a result of perceived fit, Asian female leaders may be able to compensate for displaying low empathy because of their perceived task-oriented leadership behaviour and competence in a difficult situation to accomplish the task. The effect is different for Caucasian female leaders, who are subject to being perceived as emotional and incapable of handling situations when they do not display empathy. Based on these findings, participant responses seemed to be affected by the current situation or context. When referring to the deadline and team performance, the qualitative responses in Study 2 showed a preference for leader behaviour that was task oriented to fit the situation that required achievement of time-bound goals.

2.10 Study 2 Discussion

Study 2 replicated the results of Study 1 in confirming that Asian male leaders were rated as lower in perceived ability to manage emotions, in comparison with Caucasian male leaders, when they expressed low empathy, and that there were no differences between race in the high empathy condition. Consistent with Study 1, the results showed that perceived ability to manage emotions mediated the interaction effect of empathy and race on leadership promotability for male leaders.

For female leaders, Study 2 showed that Asian female leaders were not rated lower in perceived ability to manage emotions, in comparison with Caucasian female leaders, when they expressed low empathy. Hence, the difference in perceived ability to manage emotions for Asian and Caucasian females was weaker than for Asian and Caucasian males. However, Study 2 found that Asian female leaders were rated higher in leadership promotability when they expressed low empathy, in comparison with the Caucasian female leader. Further, the mediating effect of perceived ability to manage emotions on the relationship between empathy and race on leadership promotability was not found for females, which calls for a different explanation of the differences in leadership promotability scores between Asian and Caucasian females when they expressed low empathy.

Based on the qualitative analyses, expressing low empathy among Asian females did not reduce their leadership promotability to a greater extent than for Caucasian females. This suggests that including the variable of gender is more complex than initially hypothesised. The findings suggest an alternative to examining females specifically in reference to situational-oriented leadership studies in which perceptions of good leadership are dependent on contextual factors related to the situation (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Cook & Glass, 2014; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ryan & Haslam, 2007). This

suggestion arose because the participants referred to the leadership situation in the experiment was perceived to be time urgent and could lead to a potential threat to the team performance. The participants' responses showed that, because the situation required the team to meet the performance deadline, the leader had some legitimacy in behaving with low empathy, as the circumstance was necessary to achieve the team goal.

It can be argued that participants made greater reference to the Asian female leaders' competence and task-related skills, which is consistent with the stereotype of the technical competence of Asians, as opposed to their gender stereotype of being a warm and nurturing female leader. This supports contingency theories, in which task leaders are better at being assertive, consistent and less concerned about the quality of social relationships in the workplace (Fiedler, 1978). This makes expressing communality through empathy a significantly lower priority because a task leader is being sought to directly influence performance, rather than specifically for managing relationships between employees and teams (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002; Kulich, Iacoviello, & Lorenzi-Cioldi, 2018; Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011).

Therefore, a natural extension to this study would be to examine task-oriented leadership styles for Asian and Caucasian females in times of weak versus strong performance. Asian females may be more likely to be perceived as suitable for leadership when they behave in a task-oriented manner in weak performance situations (Tinkler et al., 2019), as opposed to relational-oriented behaviour. This is because being task-oriented aligns with their stereotype of being technically competent to accomplish the required tasks as part of the situation. Given that task-oriented leadership is associated more with the female Asian stereotype of competence and diligence (Rosette

et al., 2018), these perceptions are attributed internally to Asian females, which is likely to have a greater positive effect on their leadership promotability in weak performance situations, in comparison with Caucasian female leaders.

2.11 General Discussion

2.11.1 Theoretical Contributions

The two experimental studies contribute theoretically in the following ways. First, previous studies on the bamboo ceiling effect identified that Asians are less likely to be promoted to leadership positions as a result of the various stereotypes they encounter, including their lack of social skills, which is contrary to the ideal prototype of leaders in Western organisations (Chung-Herrera & Lankau, 2005; Fiske et al., 2002; Lai & Babcock, 2013; Zhang, 2010). However, in unpacking these stereotypes, this chapter demonstrates that the underlying process through which these stereotypes affect leadership promotability is related to perceptions of ability to manage emotions. Although the majority of studies demonstrated that our understanding of the causal nature of the bamboo ceiling effect is comprised predominantly of the perspectives that others hold of Asians' capabilities and fit to perform leadership duties, the underlying process of these perspective differences is still underdeveloped. In other words, one of the ambiguities lies in the process through which the stereotyping of an Asian's emotional management capabilities can be met with perceptual biases of leadership ability. In this way, this study contributes to theory by clarifying our understanding of how Asian males have lower leadership promotability evaluations in comparison with Caucasian males, based on internal attributions of stereotype-consistent behaviour.

Second, this study contributes to bridging our knowledge of attribution theory and stereotypes to explain the bamboo ceiling effect. Through attribution theory, this study further extends our knowledge that, in comparison with Caucasian males, the

stereotype that Asian males lack social skills can translate into attributing expressions of low empathy to these innate, stable personality traits. This finding contributes to applying what is known from the differences in stereotype attribution between black and white people (Duncan, 1976) to Asians and Caucasians (Sagar & Schofield, 1980).

Third, in examining gender, this study contributes to theory by demonstrating how stereotypes apply differently for males and females (Kulik & Bainbridge, 2006; Roberson et al., 2017). While Asians generally suffer from the stereotype of lacking in warmth and social skills, this study shows that, unlike Asian males, Asian females are rated higher in leadership promotability when they show low empathy in comparison with their Caucasian female counterparts. This finding is unique, as most studies argue that women experience more adverse effects in relation to emotional displays of negative emotions—particularly ethnic minority women (Rosette et al., 2016). Hence, this study highlights the importance of examining gender differences between racial minority groups and promotes future research directions examining situational leadership and performance contexts for female leaders.

2.11.2 Practical Implications

The findings of this study have important practical implications for both individuals and organisations in the management of stereotypes and biases. First, organisations can provide training for employees who are on leadership selection committee boards to recognise the racial bias associated with perceived ability to manage emotions. Training one's perception can be beneficial to removing the stereotypes we hold of certain individuals based on their race, before making decisions about social skills and emotion capabilities that affect leadership promotability decisions (Jackson, Joshi, & Erhardt, 2003). For example, employees can be informed of how we judge low empathy expression differently based on the race of the target

employee or potential leader—particularly the difference we hold between Asians and Caucasians. In understanding that we are prone to certain attribution errors, such knowledge training can help organisations elect leaders in a more equitable manner that eliminates the bias often associated with impaired judgements in leadership promotion decisions (Martinko, Harvey, & Douglas, 2007). Likewise, Asian employees need to be made aware of the bias that is projected when they suppress empathy and to work on understanding how they can individually overcome the negative effects of the emotion bias.

Second, given that both Asian and Caucasian leaders benefit their leadership promotability by expressing empathy, providing training in empathetic communication skills could be particularly useful to help generate greater perceived ability to manage emotions. Therefore, management development programs and executive coaching can be used to improve interpersonal skills, such as empathy (Mahsud, Prussia, & Yukl, 2010). This can also help expose Asian males to leadership opportunities outside their technical leadership realms (Sy et al., 2010), such as leadership that focuses on employee relationships within organisations, which in turn may enable others to recognise their leadership ability in connecting and empathising with others (Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2002).

2.11.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

The student sample could have biased the findings to the extent that students are not representative of the population or the phenomenon being studied manifests differently in students (Shen et al., 2011). For example, the student sample at an Australian university could potentially have a bias against the sub-stereotype of Asian immigrants. Future studies could conduct the same study for subjects with a non-

Chinese name, or a Whitened Asian name (Kang et al., 2016). Students usually also have limited experiences of leadership in the workplace (Hu, Thomas, & Lance, 2008). However, student samples can still be considered applicable (Lance, 2011) because 'it is rare in applied behavioural science for the nature of the sample to be an important consideration for generalisability' (Highhouse & Gillespie, 2008, p. 250). I contextualised the experiment in relation to a team project context, so that the student participants were more familiar with the scenarios and could provide a more reliable evaluation of the team leader within the context of the situation. Furthermore, participants who did not attend high school in Australia could be further examined as a comparison towards the current study's sample of domestic students. This may provide insights into the differences towards stereotypes held across Asian and Western cultures and thus differences in their leadership attributes (Gupta et al., 2002; Ashkanasy, 2002).

These studies also used vignettes to determine leadership promotability and perceived ability to manage emotions. Although vignettes are suitable for controlling manipulated antecedents, a shortcoming of vignette methodology is its lack of external validity (Yang & Dickinson, 2013). The extent to which the results of the experiment can be applied across different people, settings and times is questionable. The scenario in the study may also not translate into actual behaviour, particularly when there is social desirability bias (Hyman & Steiner, 1996). To enhance the external validity of the study findings, future research can attempt to replicate these findings by conducting a field experimental study, using current working managers as research participants who routinely make leadership promotion decisions.

Given that all three studies were based on the team leader's interaction with a male team member (i.e., James), future studies could include a female team member (e.g., Jane instead of James). Incorporating another dimension of gender may influence

how perceivers rate the interaction between the team member and team leader, and, consequently, their leadership promotability evaluations for the team leader. Comparable with the dimension that women are perceived to be more communal than men (Ryan et al., 2011), having a team member who is female and requesting to be excused from a meeting because she is required to care for family matters may lead others to perceive that this is more reasonable than when it is being requested by a male. Such comparisons may lead to novel findings in how we then perceive the team leader's low or high empathy expression, particularly for women leaders, who are likely to be discriminated against if they display low empathy towards another woman.

Finally, given the unexpected finding of Study 2 for females, a future direction is to conduct a follow-up study that focuses on examining the unexpected finding. Future studies may use contingency theories of leadership (Fiedler, 1978) to empirically justify why Asian females were rated higher in leadership promotability than Caucasian females. Performance context may interact with leadership style for Asian females, such that adopting a task-oriented leadership style in the weak performance condition is seen as more effective for Asian females than for Caucasian females.

2.12 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter has contributed to explaining the differences in the leadership promotability of Asians and Caucasians by examining perceived ability to manage emotions. This study integrated attribution and stereotype theory with emotion to examine the interaction effect of empathy, race and gender on leadership promotability. The findings highlighted that different attributions of low empathy expression inform an individual's perceived ability to manage emotions, such that Asian males experience a bias in leadership promotability whereby expressing low empathy leads to lowering of their leadership promotability via a perceived lower ability to

manage emotions than that of Caucasian males. The same effect was not found for Asian and Caucasian females, with Asian females' leadership promotability rated higher in comparison with Caucasian females when they expressed low empathy.

Chapter 3: Breaking the Bamboo Ceiling Effect—A Two-wave Study on the Influence of Employee Mentor and Role Model Race

3.1 Abstract

In the journey to leadership positions, mentors and role models can be an important source of influence. In this study, I investigated the influence of mentors and role models related to a potential solution to the bamboo ceiling effect (i.e., the underrepresentation of Asians in leadership positions). Using a sample of 382 respondents in Australia, I adopted a two-wave study to examine the self-perceived leadership promotability of employees over a three-month period. In terms of mentors, the results indicated that having a Caucasian mentor was more beneficial for Asian mentees than for Caucasian mentees with respect to their self-perceived leadership promotability. Conversely, in terms of role models, the results showed that a same-race role model leads to greater self-perceived leadership promotability for Asians and Caucasians. I discuss these two findings in relation to signaling theory and similarity attraction frameworks, respectively.

Keywords: Race, Asian, leadership promotability, bamboo ceiling, mentors, role models, signaling theory, similarity attraction

3.2 Introduction

After an analysis of the antecedents of the bamboo ceiling in the literature review of Chapter 1, as well as having examined one of the causal process of the bamboo ceiling effect through perceived ability to manage emotions in Chapter 2, this current chapter sets to contribute to a potential solution that can be used to strive for an elimination towards the bamboo ceiling effect. Mentors and role models are a necessary

intervention to examine given the importance of social capital (or lack of) in one's career, and the growing success of mentor programs within organisations (Seibert, 1999; Seibert et al., 2001). In this way, this chapter provides both a contribution towards the mentor and role model literature, as well as a contribution of a practical solution to the bamboo ceiling effect.

Mentor relationships have demonstrated a positive effect on the careers of individuals (Allen et al., 2004; Higgins & Kram, 2001). Mentoring is an interpersonal exchange between an experienced colleague or professional (mentor) and a less experienced colleague (mentee), in which the mentor provides the mentee with career functions related to career advancement, and psychological functions related to personal development (Kram, 1983). The benefits of entering into mentoring relationships can include increased motivation to attain higher roles, as well as opportunities for promotions through career sponsorships and developmental networks (Hezlett & Gibson, 2007; Higgins & Kram, 2001). Compared with non-mentored employees, employees with mentors also express greater career satisfaction (Allen et al., 2004), higher organisational commitment and lower turnover intentions (Eby et al., 2013).

Related to mentors, role models have been defined as individuals who provide an example of the kind of success one may achieve and a template of the behaviours that are needed to achieve such success (Lockwood, 2006). The essential quality of a role model is that she or he possesses skills and displays techniques that the role aspirant can be inspired to attain (Gibson, 2004). Unlike mentors, role models do not need to have direct physical interaction with the individual, but rather provide a function of their 'possible selves' (Ibarra, 1999). Possible selves represent what one can become despite setbacks or challenges (Gibson, 2004; Ibarra, 1999). In their function as representations of possible selves, role models can change the way that external barriers

are perceived, thereby increasing an individual's self-efficacy, motivation and performance (Bandura, 1977; Morgenroth, Ryan, & Peters, 2015).

The effectiveness of mentors and role models have been attributed to factors including the degree to which mentors and mentees can relate to and feel comfortable with each other (Ensher, Grant-Vallone & Marelich, 2002), which can synonymously be affected by their demographic similarity (Ragins, 1997). Gender similarity in mentoring relationships has been an interest amongst scholars (Turban, Dougherty & Lee, 2002) and earlier research saw that cross-gender mentor relationships could potentially have problems associated with sexual harassment and innuendo from others (Hurley & Fagenson-Eland, 1996). However, evidence also suggest how female mentees could likewise benefit from cross-gender mentor relationships, based on the professional development attained through their more experienced male mentors (Dreher & Cox, 1996; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). These studies suggest that gender can make a difference in mentoring relationships because mentors belong to different groups who possess differing degrees of power and social capital within organisations (Ragins, 1997; Ragins & Cotton, 1999).

Despite research showing the positive effects that mentors and role models have on women's careers, the empirical support of racial homogeneity in senior leadership positions in organisations highlights that there remains a gap in our understanding on how mentors and role models influence the ability to attain leadership positions for individuals from a minority racial background. Prior studies on racial minorities' mentoring experience have also been linked to challenges of access to mentors (Murrell, Blake-Beard, Porter, & Perkins-Williamson, 2008) and the lack of role models to which racial minorities can relate in their careers (Aish, Asare & Miskioglu, 2018). Unlike gender, there is limited research in the context of race that directly examines how

mentors and role models affect self-perceived leadership promotability—defined as one's evaluation of the favourability of one's advancement prospects (Greenhaus et al., 1990). This is a particularly serious shortcoming among Asian employees, who experience a bamboo ceiling effect in their careers (Sy et al., 2017), with little insight into the possible solutions to eliminate the bamboo ceiling from mentoring and role models.

The bamboo ceiling effect is not only problematic for Asians (in terms of discrimination and placing limitations on their careers), but is also problematic for organisations and society, as the bamboo ceiling effect inhibits an organisation's full capacity to use the diversity of its talent pool (Roberson et al., 2017). Globalisation also requires people from different cultures to routinely engage in long-term cooperative activities (Chen & Van Velsor, 1996). As a result, a greater awareness and contemplation of diversity and addressing barriers, such as the bamboo ceiling effect, can help people of all ethnicities to enhance their career potential and collaborate to develop a more accepting and equal workplace culture and society.

As previously described in Chapter 1, although we have some knowledge on the causes and consequence of the bamboo ceiling effect (Festekjian et al., 2014; Liu & Baker, 2014), studies on its potential solutions are limited. Qualitative studies of the bamboo ceiling effect have indicated the importance of having a mentor and role model for successful Asians who have overcome the bamboo ceiling effect in their careers (Fouad et al., 2008; Kawahara et al., 2013). These studies showed that Asians are capable of being effective leaders when they have a mentor and role model for support and advice (Kawahara et al., 2013). In their interviews, Kawahara et al. (2013) found that mentorship can help with actual skills, such as assertiveness, public speaking and interpersonal fluency, where, through the encouragement and support of mentors and

role models, individuals can translate these skills into performance. Likewise, Fouad et al.'s (2008) paper addressed the function of role models in the careers of Asian-Americans—particularly the characteristics of role models, including the participant's family members and prominent Asians.

Although an advantage of prior qualitative studies is that they investigate a deep understanding of the processes, their findings cannot be generalised to other individuals or larger populations (Fouad et al., 2008). Further research is needed to elucidate which particular attitudes, characteristics and behaviours may be specific to Asian leaders (Kawahara et al., 2013). Thus, this study attempts to extend what was learnt through the qualitative studies of the effect of role models and mentors on Asians, and apply statistical hypothesis testing to gain a better understanding by comparing the effect of the race of the mentor and role models for Asians with their Caucasian counterparts. In this manner, this study also sought to bridge the knowledge of the positive career-related benefits of mentors and role models (Gibson, 2004; Seibert, 1999), such that both Caucasians and Asians were included to empirically examine the extent to which race interacted with mentors and role models to influence the individual's self-perceived leadership promotability.

This study contributes to the literature on careers and the bamboo ceiling effect in four important ways. First, this study advances the mentor and role model literature by examining differences in the race (Caucasians versus Asian) of mentors and role models for Caucasian and Asian employees. Most mentor and role model relationships have examined the effect on gender (Ragins & Cotton, 1999; Ramaswami, Dreher, Bretz, & Wiethoff, 2010; Turban et al., 2002) and African-Americans (Marx, Ko, & Friedman, 2009; Thomas, 1993; Tsui & O'reilly, 1989), but no study has specifically determined the effect of having a Caucasian or Asian mentor or role model for Asians

and Caucasians. Using the bamboo ceiling effect as a key issue in organisational leadership, this study contributes to addressing the importance of examining mentoring and role model effects for Asians, who are one of the fastest growing racial groups that comprise a majority of professionals in various sectors (Pew Research Centre, 2020).

Second, on an explorative base, I also examine the effect of employee gender, as previous studies have shown that there are differences in the bamboo ceiling effect for women and men (Galinsky et al., 2013; Schug et al., 2015). I explore whether the interaction effect of race and race of mentor and role model on self-perceived leadership promotability is replicated across genders. By considering both the race and gender of employees, I extend previous gender studies on how gender in mentoring relationships and role modelling may affect certain racial groups differently (Dougherty, Dreher, Arunachalam, & Wilbanks, 2013; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997;Ragins, 1997).

Third, studies of mentor and role models often do not clearly distinguish the difference between mentors and role models. For example, some studies use the terms interchangeably by identifying the mentors as having role modelling functions (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) and that the traditional idea of a role model is a person of influential role position, such as a teacher or mentor (Gibson, 2004). However, research has presented a different view of role models as active cognitive constructions devised by individuals to construct their own ideal or possible selves based on their developing needs and goals (Gibson, 2004; Ibarra, 1999). In this empirical study, the distinction between a mentor and role model was clarified to contribute to an enhanced conceptualisation of and insight into the mechanisms of the two related yet distinct constructs in the career literature.

Fourth, using signaling theory (Connelly et al., 2011; Spence, 1973), this study contributes to theoretically and empirically establishing how relationships with

Caucasian mentors can signal an Asian employee's training in soft skills that are applicable in the working culture of Western organisations. I tested the proposition of how, Caucasian mentors may enhance Asian mentee's self-perceived leadership promotability to overcome the barriers of the bamboo ceiling effect. I further applied the perspective of the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961) to establish how having a same-race role model can attract and empower individuals to similar others that strengthen their ability and perceived likelihood of achieving such success. Thus, I examined the possibility that the presence of Asian role models can elevate an Asian employee's self-perceived leadership promotability through the social comparison process with their same-race role models who they find more commonality and thus attraction through demographic similarity (Morgenroth et al., 2015).

Finally, studies examining the gender and race of role models and mentors have been limited to cross-sectional data (Dougherty et al., 2013; James, 2000). In examining the data across two waves (see Bednall, Sanders, & Runhaar 2014; Bednall & Sanders, 2017), this study empirically controlled for the variance associated with an employee's baseline of self-perceived leadership promotability in Wave 1, as well as time-invariant covariates (race and gender) to determine the long-term effect of mentors and role models in Wave 2.

3.3 Theoretical Background

3.3.1 Mentors

Mentoring is considered essential to career development to support increasing knowledge, expertise and skills for mentees (Humberd & Rouse, 2016; Kram, 1985). Mentors serve as the coaches of behaviour for their mentees and provide mentees with the rules that govern effective behaviour in the organisation (Bolton, 1980; Zagumny, 1993). Through counselling, mentors can help their mentees develop the sense of

professional competence and self-esteem needed to achieve career success (Kram, 1985). For employees seeking to attain leadership positions, having a mentor can be exceptionally valuable. Based on the perspectives of social exchange (Baranik, Roling, & Eby, 2010) and social networking, mentors help mentees develop beneficial networks and ties to influential others (Seibert et al., 2001; Tenenbaum, Crosby, & Gliner, 2001). In particular, the range of their networks—which refers to the diversity of group affiliations—provides both useful information and bargaining opportunities (Burt, 1997; Granovetter, 1973; Ibarra, 1995; Lin, Ensel, & Vaughn, 1981).

A pluralist perspective suggests that, for racial minorities, a critical task is developing a positive sense of racial identity while simultaneously adopting those aspects of the dominant culture necessary to be effective (Thomas, 1993). As such, by being introduced to a wider range of networks, mentees—particularly racial minority mentees—can benefit from attaining more social capital in the workplace via their mentors to advantage their access to knowledge on promotions and job offers (James, 2000), as well as training to adopt to the dominant culture.

Importantly, supervisors of an organisation make decisions about an employee's promotion based on their positive perception of the employee (Breaugh, 2011). Given that leadership promotability is based on imperfect information (Wayne & Liden, 1995; Wayne et al., 1999), the supervisor will rely on information or signals received to determine the employee's leadership potential. Drawing on signaling theory, two parties (the signaller and receiver) aim to reduce information asymmetry between each other (Connelly et al., 2011; Spence, 1973). The signaller (the employee) needs to undertake actions to signal their underlying qualities and motivation to the receiver of their signal (the supervisor). As such, information asymmetry is reduced to enable the receiver of

the signal to process the signal and make decisions based on the signal (Connelly et al., 2011).

Based on the perspective of signaling theory, a potential signal through which employees might demonstrate their leadership potential is the affiliation with their mentor, who provides them access to social networks and career-related training, including repositories of knowledge not available through formal communication channels (Dreher & Ash, 1990). In particular, for minorities in the workplace, the composition of networks is critical for career advancement. A study by Ibarra (1995) on the informal networks of racial minority managers showed that career advancement for these managers was related to the configuration of their networks, such that networks of high-potential minorities comprised a balance of same-race and cross-race relationships, while networks of low-potential minorities tended to be dominated by same-race relationships. Thus, it can be argued that the race of a mentor is a vital signal for a mentee to benefit from the mentoring relationship as a means by which the mentee can signal their leadership promotability. Extending the work by Ramaswami et al. (2010), I further use the related dimensions of 'signal strength' and 'signal visibility' to explain how the attributes of a mentor's race can have consequences for a mentee's leadership career.

'Signal strength' refers to the extent to which a mentor is powerful and determines *who* (or what type of mentor) can have greater influence on a mentee's career (Ramaswami et al., 2010). Caucasian mentors can be levers of power in comparison with Asian mentors, embedded in networks to which Asian mentees may not have access to, as Caucasians generally occupy more influential, powerful positions in organisations, such as leadership (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; Ensher & Murphy, 1997). This situation not only benefits the mentee via the signaling effect that they are

associated with the Caucasian leadership network, but can also signal that the mentee is motivated to fit within the Western culture and thus attain a bicultural identity. A bicultural identity can help Asian employees reduce the perception that they have the Asian stereotype that is less fitting for leadership positions, and associate them further with the ability to develop relationships—particularly cross-race relationships—that fit the prototype of leadership in Western organisations (Friedman, Liu, Chi, Hong, & Sung, 2012).

'Signal visibility' is the extent to which a mentor's attention will be noteworthy or salient in a given context (Ramaswami et al., 2010), such that signal visibility determines where or when a mentor will be a strong, influential signal. Caucasian mentors can act as a more visible signal to supervisors in the organisation that the Asian mentee has the mentor's powerful sponsorship, backing and resources (Kanter, 1977). It can be predicted that this will in turn deflect the potential negative effects of the Asian stereotype that impedes the mentee from being recognised as a potential leader in the organisation.

In having a Caucasian mentor, Asian mentees, as the signaller, can benefit from signaling that their relationship with a Caucasian mentor embeds them within the Caucasian network in the organisation. This signal can influence outcomes regarding whether the receiver of the signal (the supervisor) will decide to promote or hire the Asian mentee based on the perceived leadership skills and training that the Asian mentee has received from associating with the Caucasian mentor and their access to social networks. Asians are stereotypically perceived to lack sociability; thus, having a Caucasian mentor may signal that the Asian mentee has received training in soft skills, such as managing emotions, that are associated with the leadership prototype in Western organisations (Sy et al., 2010). Therefore, being associated with a Caucasian mentor can

provide greater ‘signal strength’ and ‘signal visibility’ that the employee sends to supervisors, including the Asian mentee’s perceived ability to network, manage emotions and display leadership behaviours of agency and assertiveness.

However, while Caucasian mentors can be great levers of power and social capital for both Asian and Caucasian mentees, when compared with Asian mentees, Caucasian mentees already belong to the same race as their Caucasian mentors (James, 2000). This means that access to similar powerful others and beneficial ties for Caucasian mentees may already exist without further intervention from mentoring relationships (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). In other words, given that Caucasians are not underrepresented in top management positions, it can be inferred that Caucasians will already have more human capital resources in comparison with racial minority group individuals, such as Asians (James, 2000). Consequently, because it is common for Caucasian mentors to interact with a Caucasian mentee, Caucasian mentors may serve as strong signals, yet not as visible signals for Caucasian mentees as they do for Asian mentees.

Further, the benefit of having an Asian mentor can be expected to be lower for both Asian and Caucasian mentees, as their racial minority status may render them as less influential. Specifically, in comparison with Caucasian mentors, Asian mentors may lack a beneficial network and thus lack access to resources to sponsor their mentees (Ragins, 1997). Despite their capacity to train and develop mentees, Asian mentors may not be perceived as possessing power similar to that of Caucasian mentors, and, as such, may provide less additional benefit to both Caucasian and Asian mentees that require backing, exposure and sponsorship through their mentoring relationships. This led to the first hypothesis:

H1: There is an interaction effect between the race of mentee and race of mentor, such that having a Caucasian mentor in comparison with an Asian mentor is more positively related to self-perceived leadership promotability for an Asian mentee than for a Caucasian mentee.

3.3.2 Role Models

In addition to mentors, having a role model is also helpful for employees seeking leadership promotability. Role models are 'people who provide an example of the kind of success an employee may achieve and can often provide a template of the behaviours that are needed to achieve such success' (Lockwood, 2006, p. 36). Role models are a way of motivating individuals to perform novel behaviours and inspire them to set ambitious goals (Morgenroth et al., 2015), such as attaining leadership promotability. Importantly, role models help employees develop their own 'possible selves' (Ibarra, 1999)—that is, what an individual can become despite setbacks or challenges (Gibson, 2004; Ibarra, 1999). As representations of the possible, role models contribute to reinforcing and motivating the role aspirant's goals (Morgenroth et al., 2015). Without the presence of role models, role aspirants may not have a clear idea of how to behave or of the strategies and actions that need to be taken to attain their leadership goals.

Unlike mentors, who form an interactive relationship with the mentee, role models do not need to be acquainted or physically interact with the role aspirant to have an influence, and thus may be distant to the role aspirant (Gibson, 2003; Sealy & Singh, 2010). Individuals select their own role models and choose how deeply or intentionally they will emulate these role models (Gibson, 2003). Under certain circumstances, simply observing a role model achieve a particular goal may be sufficient to motivate role aspirants to believe that they too can reach that goal (Morgenroth et al., 2015).

Role model studies draw on two prominent theoretical constructs (Gibson, 2004). The first is the concept of role identification theories (Foote, 1951), which emphasises the notion that individuals are attracted to people with whom they perceive some similarity and are motivated to enhance that similarity through observation and emulation (Gibson, 2004). Second, according to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), individuals attend to role models because they can be helpful in learning new tasks, skills and norms (Brown & Treviño, 2014; Gibson, 2004). Through demonstrating the behaviours associated with a given role or job, those individuals who the role aspirant can identify as career role models aid the processes of visualisation—the ability to form a mental image of future events or behaviours (Ibarra, 1999).

Role models can be seen as a case of upwards social comparison (Collins, 1996; Morgenroth et al., 2015), in which individuals observe and compare themselves with superior others to self-evaluate or self-enhance (Gibson, 2004; Lockwood & Kunda, 1997). Based on the similarity attraction paradigm, those who are considered similar in characteristics (e.g., gender and race) are likely to hold greater perceived interpersonal similarities, which in turn leads to increased attraction (Byrne, 1961). Drawing on this perspective, it can be proposed that individuals seek role models who are similar to them in some easily identifiable way, such as race (Bandura, 1977; Karunanayake & Nauta, 2004). The creation of possible selves through same-race role models can exemplify to the employee that others with similar attributes can succeed, which can enhance their perceived capacity to continue developing their professional style despite certain setbacks, and ultimately facilitate motivation for higher achievement and self-evaluation (Gibson, 2004; Ibarra, 1999).

Therefore, role models can be especially relevant for individuals who are underrepresented in certain domains, such as women or racial minorities in elite

leadership positions, who may be underrepresented partly because of negative stereotypes (Hoyt & Burnette, 2012). For Asians, seeing leadership figures around them that are of the majority Caucasian race with whom they do not identify (Ibarra, 1999) can reduce their motivation to lead because of lower self-efficacy and expectation to succeed (Morgenroth et al., 2015). Given that Asians find little to no similarities between themselves and the Caucasians who attain leadership positions, their self-perceived leadership promotability can be expected to be lowered. However, when Asians can identify with people who attain leadership positions (i.e., their role models) through perceived similarity, there is a greater effect of self-perceived leadership promotability through inflated self-efficacy and expectation to succeed (Guillén, Mayo, & Korotov, 2015). Therefore:

> *H2:* There is an interaction effect between race of the employee and role model on self-perceived leadership promotability, such that the effect of having a same race role model is stronger for Asian employees than for Caucasian employees.

On an explorative base, I investigated the mentee gender's effect on the interaction between employee race and the race of the mentor and role models. Previous studies have shown that female and male employees can have different experiences and developmental needs (Dougherty et al., 2013; Ragins & Cotton, 1999). However, what is less known is whether the mentor and role model race can influence male and female employees differently. I sought to explore these differences by examining separately the interaction effect of race and the race of mentor and role model on the self-perceived leadership promotability of male and female employees.

3.4 Methods

3.4.1 Participants and Procedure

The study participants were full-time employees in Australia, recruited from a market research agency, Dynata, from a research pool based in Australia. The majority of participants (67%) were females, and the ages of the participants ranged from 20 to 35 years (M = 27, SD = 2.87). The average length of tenure was 2.9 years (SD = 2.53). Fifty-five per cent had a Caucasian background, and 45% were of Asian background. With regard to educational background, 79% reported having received a bachelor's degree, 17.6% a master's degree, 1.5% a doctorate degree and 1.9% a vocational education degree. Participants were told that the goal of the study was to understand the features of an employee's career within Australia. The three-month timeframe was chosen following previous longitudinal studies conducted on career (Gegenfurtner, 2013; Jawahar & Ferris, 2011), as well as a means to reduce common method variance (Melwani, Mueller, & Overbeck, 2012; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). The participants completed the questionnaires twice. Each wave consisted of the same questions. This study was part of a larger study on graduate careers, which contained measures of the perceived career developmental role of mentors and role models, motivation to lead, managing emotions and extraversion of graduates in Australia.

Four hundred and twenty respondents were surveyed in Wave 1, while 235 respondents were surveyed in Wave 2 (56% overlap with Wave 1). In total, there were 382 employees with complete data used in the analysis, who had both a role model and mentor. The total numbers of mentors and role models were as follows:

- Asian mentor: n = 191
- Caucasian mentor: n = 191

- Asian role model: n = 81
- Caucasian role model: n = 301.

All available data were analysed using Mplus 8.3 (Muthén & Muthén, 2017) and SPSS software, with the full-information maximum likelihood (FIML) procedure used to deal with missing data (Bednall & Sanders, 2017; Newman, 2003). FIML uses all available data to directly estimate parameters and standard errors by selecting estimates that maximise the probability of the observed data (Bednall & Sanders, 2017). Compared with listwise and pairwise deletion and single-imputation methods, FIML has been found to be unbiased and more efficient for data that are missing at random (Bednall & Sanders, 2017; Enders, 2013).

3.4.2 Measures

Race of employee and *race of mentor/role model* (0 = Asian, 1 = Caucasian). Participants were asked to indicate their own race and the race of their role model. Asians comprised of South-East Asian and North-East Asian ethnicity, and Caucasians comprised of European ethnicity.

Gender of employee and *gender of mentor/role model* (0 = female, 1 = male). Participants were then asked to indicate the gender of themselves and their mentor/role model.

Self-perceived Leadership Promotability. This study used three items from Wayne, Liden, Kraimer, and Graf (1999) to assess self-perceived leadership promotability. Items included: ‘I will probably not be promoted to a higher-level position at this company’, ‘It would be best for this company if I was not promoted from my current level during the next five years’ and ‘I believe I have what it takes to be promoted to a higher-level position’. One item from Greenhaus et al. (1990) was used: ‘What is the likelihood that you will be promoted to a higher leadership position

sometime during your career with the company?' (1 = no likelihood, 7 = high likelihood). Additional leadership promotability questions were included: 'To what extent do you agree with the below statements?' (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree): 'I have good career prospects within this company' and 'I anticipate that I will reach the highest levels of leadership within this company'. Cronbach's alpha scores are presented in the diagonal of Table 3.1.

3.4.3 Analyses

Time-invariant variables in this study referred to measures that did not change across time, including the gender and race of employees, mentors and role models over the three-month period. It was not expected that the presence of role models or mentors would systematically increase or decrease self-perceived leadership promotability over the course of the study, such that the assumption was for each individual to have a typical or baseline level of self-perceived leadership promotability that would vary across individuals, yet remain consistent overtime (Bednall & Sanders, 2017).

A conditional change model (Finkel, 1995) was used, in which Wave 2 measures of self-perceived leadership promotability were regressed on the Wave 1 counterparts (Bednall et al., 2014). This change score model was examined through a hierarchical regression, in which no model variables or parameters depicted systematic increase or decrease over time (Bednall, 2013). In these analyses, self-perceived leadership promotability (measured at Wave 2) was used as the dependent variable. The race of employee, role models and mentors was used as a predictor of self-perceived leadership promotability in Wave 2. Interaction terms of the race of employee with the race of mentor and role model were created to determine the significance and direction in which the effect of race of mentor and role model affected the self-perceived leadership promotability of these employees.

I tested two models for self-perceived leadership promotability. In the first step, I included the control variables and measures of self-perceived leadership promotability at Wave 1 (Model 1). In the second step, I included the main effects as additional predictors (Model 2). In the final step, I included the interaction terms to represent the effect of the race of mentor and role model with race of employee on self-perceived leadership promotability (Model 3). To test Hypotheses 1 and 2, I further examined the interaction effects by simple slopes to find the differences between the means of the variables and self-perceived leadership promotability at Wave 2.

3.5 Results

3.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 3.1 presents the descriptive statistics, including means, standard deviations and correlations among the variables. The relationship revealed a significant correlation with self-perceived leadership promotability in Waves 1 and 2 (r = .95, p < .01). The relationships revealed that race was significantly and positively related to self-perceived leadership promotability in Wave 1 (r = .24, p < .01) and Wave 2 (r = .28, p <.01), in such a way that being Asian was associated with lower self-perceived leadership promotability than being Caucasian.

Table 3.1

Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations of Focal Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Controls									
1. Tenure									
2. Gender mentee	.11*								
3. Mentor gender	.09	.35**							
4. Role model gender	.14**	.58**	.38**						
Time-invariant variables									
5. Race mentee	-.13*	.08	-.02	.00					
6. Mentor race	.01	-.02	.12*	.04	-.50**				
7. Role model race	.07	-.18**	-.05	-.16**	-.29**	.02			
Wave 1									
8. Self-perceived leadership promotability	.01	.01	.06	.01	.24**	.01	.46**	(.94)	
Wave 2									
9. Self-perceived leadership promotability	.04	-.11	.03	-.06	.28**	.15*	.33**	.95**	(.84)
Means	2.61	.33	.23	.37	.55	.49	.80	4.47	4.43
SDs	2.56	.47	.42	.50	.50	.50	.40	1.13	1.40

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient is presented across the diagonal. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$.

3.5.2 Measurement Model

All analyses were performed using the maximum likelihood robust estimator. For each analysis, model fit was indicated by a non-significant chi-square (χ^2), a comparative fit index (CFI) greater than .90, a root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) less than .06, and a standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) equal to or less than .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2005). I first conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to test the hypothesised factor structure. Items were removed if the standardised factor loading was low (less than .40). The items were identical across the two waves; thus, I allowed the error terms of corresponding items to co-vary.

I tested a configural (unconstrained) invariance model, which comprised the same sets of latent variables and indicators over the two waves. This model yielded the

following fit statistics: χ^2 (29) = 103.21, $p < .01$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .03. Although the indices of approximate fit suggested that the model had a close fit to the data, the chi-square statistic was significant ($p < .01$). To diagnose misspecifications of the model, I inspected the residual covariance matrices and modification indices. While a small number of residual covariances and modification indices were observed, these were uniformly small and appeared unsystematic. With no strong theoretical grounds to re-specify the model, I opted to retain the original measurement model.

I subsequently tested a metric (weak) invariance model, in which the factor loadings for corresponding indicators were constrained to equality across time. This was undertaken to test whether the respective indicators represented the same underlying constructs over time, across the three waves (Little, Preacher, Selig, & Card, 2007). This model yielded the following fit statistics: χ^2 (33) = 107.25, $p < .01$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .08, SRMR = .04. Following a chi-square difference test that yielded a non-significant p-value ($\Delta\chi_{(4)} = 4.04$, $p = .40$), this result indicated that introducing the constraints did not significantly worsen the model fit, and suggested that the assumption of measurement invariance had been met (Chen, 2007).

3.5.3 Test of Hypotheses

The results of the hierarchical regression analysis are presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2

Hierarchical Regression of Self-perceived Leadership Promotability

	Self-perceived Leadership Promotability (Wave 2)		
	Model 1 Control Variables	Model 2 Control Variables and Main Effects	Model 3 Control Variables, Main Effects and Interaction
Control variables			
Self-perceived leadership promotability (Wave 1)	.89**(.02)	.90**(.06)	.65**(.06)
Gender	-.02(.07)	-.02(.07)	.03(.07)
Tenure	-.00(.01)	-.00(.01)	-.01(.01)
Mentor gender	-.01(.07)	-.01(.07)	.00(.07)
Role model gender	.02(.07)	.02(.07)	.02(.06)
Main effects			
Race mentee		-.02(.03)	-.05(.04)
Mentor race		.01(.03)	.15*(.05)
Role model race		-.02(.04)	-.01(.05)
Interaction effects			
Race × mentor race			-.19**(.06)
Race × role model race			.21**(.05)
R^2	.79	.79	.81

n = 382 individuals. Standardised regression coefficients and standard errors (in parentheses) are presented. 0 = Asian, 1 = Caucasian. 0 = female, 1 = male. *p < .05, **p < .01.

Based on Model 1, I found that self-perceived leadership promotability was strongly correlated with leadership promotability measured in the previous wave (all *ps* < .01). The control variables failed to predict self-perceived leadership promotability (all *ps* > .10). From Model 2, the race of the employee, mentor and role model also failed to predict self-perceived leadership promotability (all *ps* > .10). Model 3 revealed that the main effect of mentor race was found (β = .15, p < .05), meaning that a Caucasian mentor enhanced the self-perceived leadership promotability of both Asian and Caucasian employees. There was a significant interaction effect between the race of

the mentee and mentor (β = -.19, p < .01) and race of the employee and role model (β = .21, p < .01).

3.5.3.1 Hypothesis 1

A simple slopes test was conducted to examine the differences in the effect of an Asian mentor and Caucasian mentor for Asian and Caucasian mentees (Figure 3.1). The simple slopes tests revealed that the difference between having a Caucasian mentor was significant for Asian mentees (simple slope = 2.7; t = 20.13, p < .01), while, for Caucasians, there was also a significant difference between having an Asian mentor for Caucasian mentees (simple slope = -.77; t = -6.51, p < .01). This supported Hypothesis 1, such that having a Caucasian mentor, rather than an Asian mentor, was more positively related to self-perceived leadership promotability for Asian mentees.

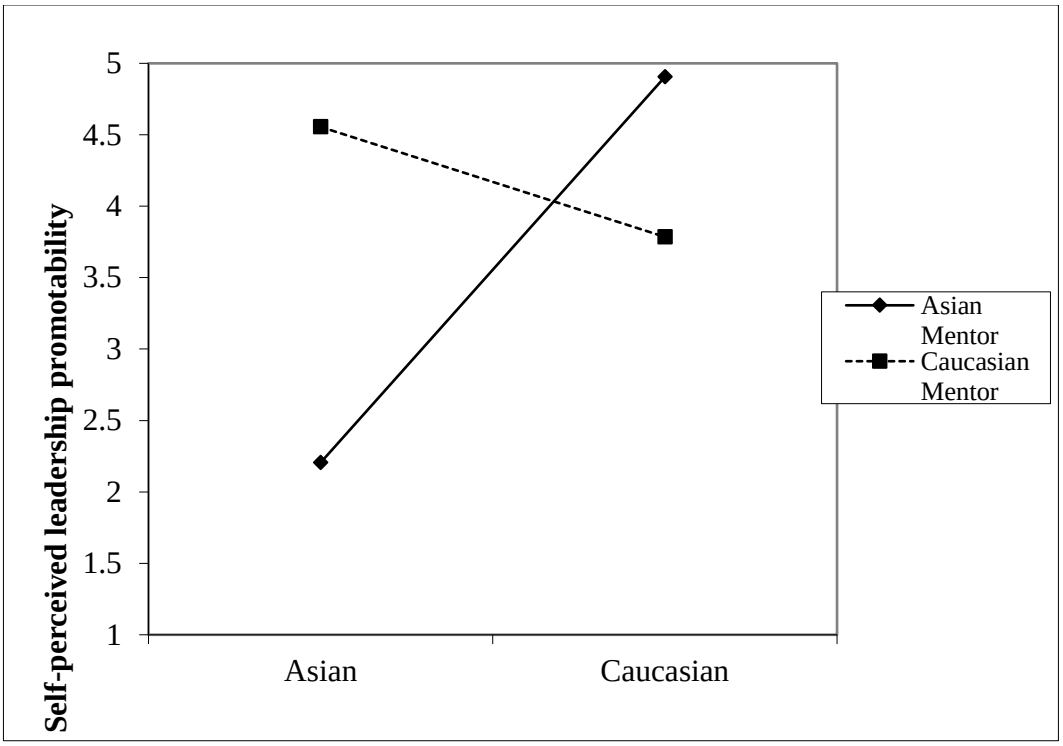

Figure 3.1. Simple slopes analysis of race and mentor on self-perceived leadership promotability.

3.5.3.2 Hypothesis 2

A simple slopes test was conducted to examine the differences in the effect of having an Asian role model and Caucasian role model for Asian and Caucasian employees (Figure 3.2). The simple slopes tests revealed that the difference between having a Caucasian role model and Asian role model was significant for Caucasian employees (simple slope = 1.66; $t = 11.22$, $p < .01$). In contrast, although the difference between having a Caucasian role model and Asian role model for Asians was significant, it was not stronger than that for Caucasian employees (simple slope = -.06; $t = -2.46$, $p < .05$). Hence, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

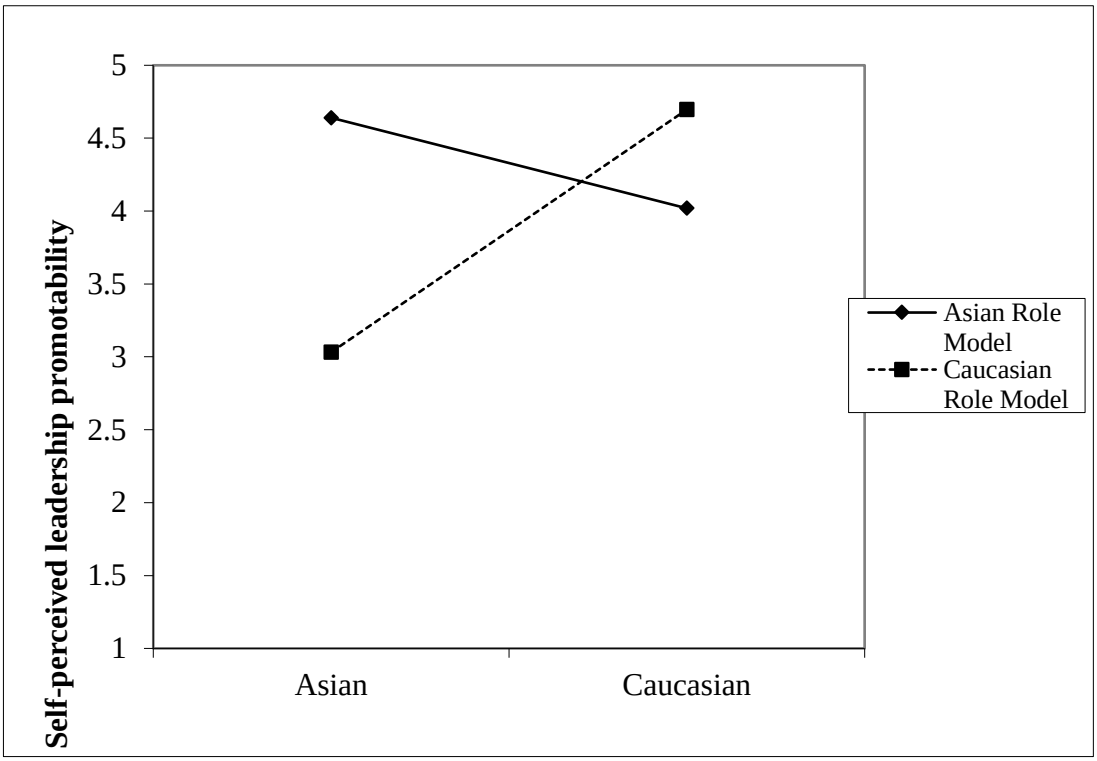

Figure 3.2. Simple slopes analysis of effect of race and role model on self-perceived leadership promotability.

3.5.4 Exploratory Analysis

I further explored the effect of gender by conducting separate t-tests for female and male mentees. For Caucasian female mentees, self-perceived leadership

promotability was higher when they had an Asian mentor (*M* = 4.58, *SD* = .69) rather than a Caucasian mentor (*M* = 3.92, *SD* = 1.19; *t*(123) = -3.91, *p* < 01). This was the same for Caucasian male mentees, as having an Asian mentor was associated with a higher self-perceived leadership promotability (*M* = 4.34, *SD* = .77) in comparison with a Caucasian mentor (*M* = 3.35, *SD* = 1.10; *t*(26.96) = -3.81, *p* < .01).

For Asian female mentees, there was a significant effect of mentor race, such that self-perceived leadership promotability was higher for Asian female mentees with a Caucasian mentor (*M* = 4.87, *SD* = .65) than an Asian mentor (*M* = 2.17, *SD* = .59; *t*(119) = 21.26, *p* < .01). For Asian male mentees, the same significant effect of mentor race was replicated, such that self-perceived leadership promotability was higher for Asian male mentees with a Caucasian mentor (*M* = 4.78 *SD* = .53) than an Asian mentor (*M* = 2.20, *SD* = .54; *t*(52)= 13.79, *p* < .01). The differences between the means are presented by gender in Figures 3.3a and 3.3b.

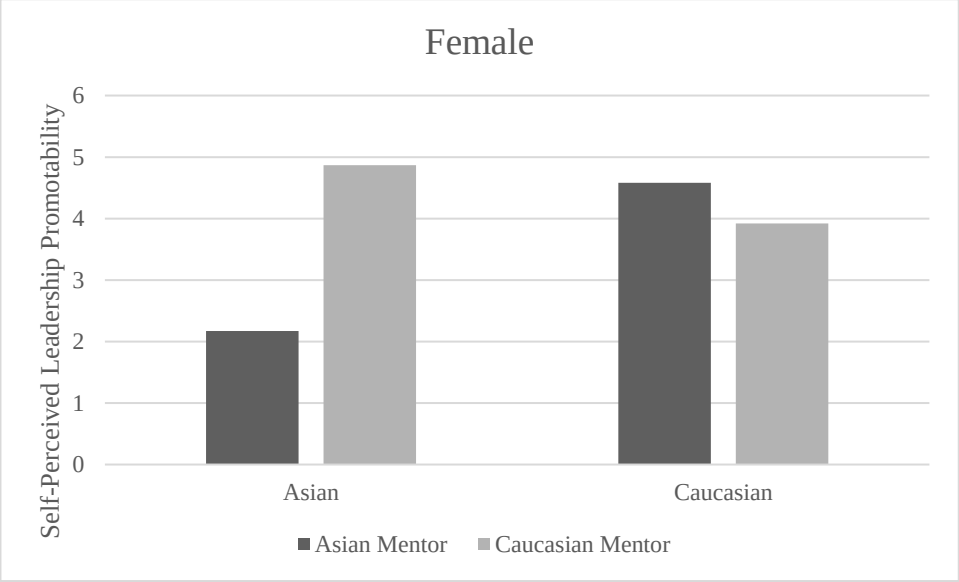

Figure 3.3a. Means differences for effect of race and mentor race on self-perceived leadership promotability (females).

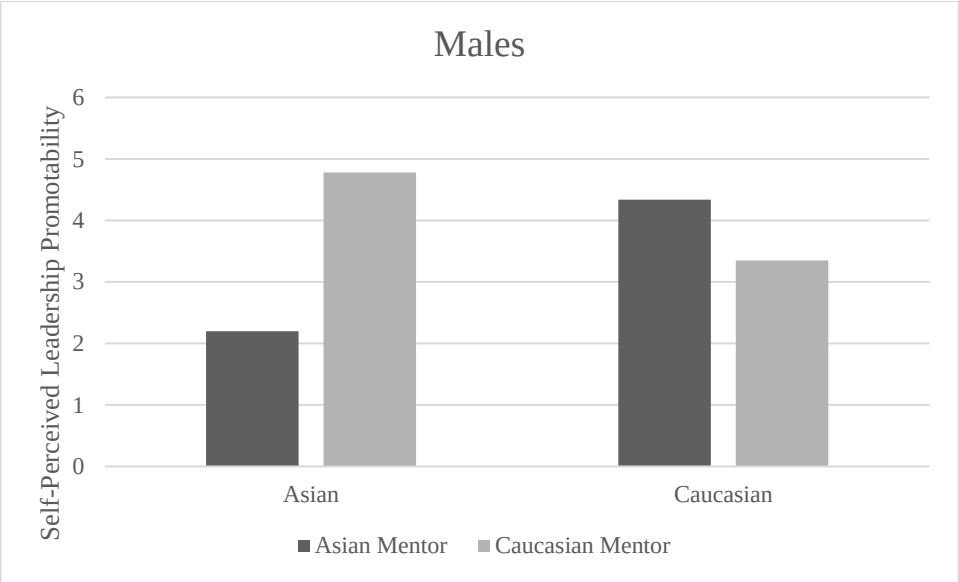

Figure 3.3b. Means differences for effect of race and mentor race on self-perceived leadership promotability (males).

In terms of role models, for Caucasian female employees, having a Caucasian role model was associated with a higher self-perceived leadership promotability (*M* = 4.76, *SD* = .54) than having an Asian role model (*M* = 3.10, *SD* = .76; *t*(38.73) = 11.13, *p* < 01). This was the same for Caucasian male mentees, in that having a Caucasian role model was associated with a higher self-perceived leadership promotability (*M* = 4.73, *SD* = .43) than having an Asian role model (*M* = 3.19, *SD* = .76; *t*(80) = 11.63, *p* < .01). For Asian female employees, having an Asian role model was stronger (*M* = 5.07, *SD* = .94) for their self-perceived leadership promotability than having a Caucasian role model (*M* = 3.98, *SD* = 1.39; *t*(16.88) = -3.60, *p* < .01). For Asian male employees, the effect was the opposite—although it failed to reach significance, self-perceived leadership promotability was higher when Asian male employees had a Caucasian role model (*M* = 4.36, *SD* = 1.09) rather than an Asian role model (*M* = 3.80, *SD* = 1.66; *t*(4.36) = .74, *n.s.*). The differences between the means are presented by gender in Figures 3.4a and 3.4b.

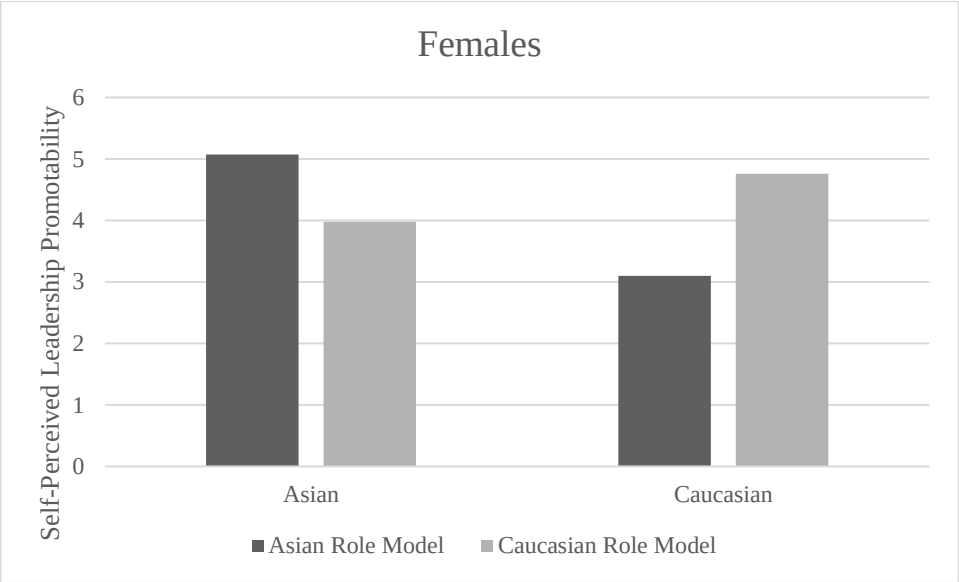

Figure 3.4a. Means differences for effect of race and role model race on self-perceived leadership promotability (females).

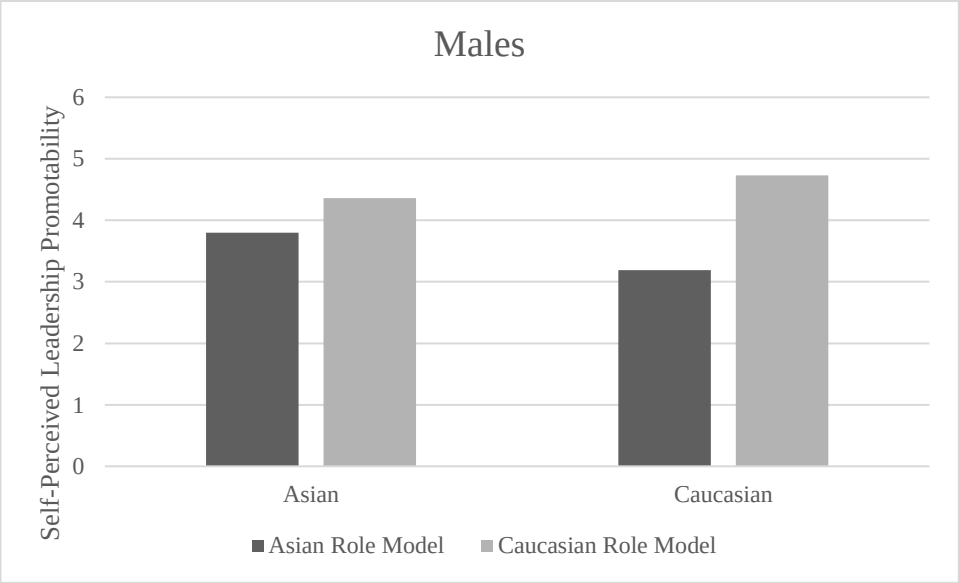

Figure 3.4b. Means differences for effect of race and role model race on self-perceived leadership promotability (males).

3.6 Discussion

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of race on self-perceived leadership promotability based on the race of the employee's mentor and role model. In support of the first hypothesis comparing Asian and Caucasian mentees, this study

found that Asian mentees had a higher self-perceived leadership promotability with a Caucasian mentor, rather than with an Asian mentor. However, this study also found that Caucasian mentees with an Asian mentor had a higher self-perceived leadership promotability than did Caucasian mentees with a Caucasian mentor. This finding was unexpected and called for an alternative explanation.

Similar to the way in which a Caucasian mentor can signal that an Asian mentee has received training in soft skills and attained beneficial network ties (Ibarra, 1995), an Asian mentor to a Caucasian mentee could, in parallel, signal skills such as competence. The stereotype of Asian mentors as being hardworking and competent in completing tasks (see Festekjian et al., 2014; Sy et al., 2010) may serve as a more visible signal for Caucasian mentees, such that, through an Asian mentor, Caucasian mentees may have attained technical skills associated with higher performance. At the same time, because of their Caucasian identity, Caucasian mentees are likely to be viewed to have the capacity to develop the beneficial network ties and social capital in the organisation already afforded to Caucasians (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000). In this manner, the signaling effect that an Asian mentor provides for a Caucasian mentee becomes stronger for Caucasian mentees.

Although the second hypothesis was not supported, I found that an Asian role model affected the self-perceived leadership promotability of Asians more than a Caucasian role model. The same was the case for Caucasians, as having a Caucasian role model affected the self-perceived leadership promotability of Caucasians more than having an Asian role model. By identifying with same-race role models, this study showed that these individuals can become inspired to pursue similar achievements, such as leadership positions (Lockwood, 2006). Therefore, the setback to being identified as a racial minority may be reduced through the existence of same-race role models, where

individuals can identify their possible selves to develop a stronger leadership identity (Ibarra, 1999). An Asian employee's self-perceived leader identity is likely to increase if they can see their possible selves among their leadership role models who share a common identity.

In the exploratory study, I further tested the effect of the two-way interaction across gender groups. I found that the two-way interaction of mentor race and mentee race was replicated across both male and female mentees. However, the two-way interaction of role model race and race of employee was only replicated for females and Caucasian males. With Asian males, the effect of having an Asian role model was not associated with higher self-perceived leadership promotability. One of the reasons that Asian role models may not affect the higher self-perceived leadership promotability of Asian males could be the lack of masculinity associated with Asian males (Liu & Iwamoto, 2006), which is the counter-prototype of leadership. Given that role models are perceived as individuals who possess and display techniques that a role aspirant is inspired to attain (Morgenroth et al., 2015), the portrayal of Asians in society may not generate the same positive effect towards self-perceived leadership promotability for Asian males as it does for Asian females.

3.6.1 Theoretical Contributions

This two-wave study identified several theoretical implications for research on the bamboo ceiling and the literature's understanding of interactions across different racial groups. First, although it is recognised that mentoring relationships benefit the career advancement of mentees (Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008) and that role models are important to motivate employees (Gibson, 2004), there remains limited investigation of the characteristics of mentors and role models that could explain the effect of employees' self-perceived leadership promotability (Hu, Thomas, & Lance,

2008; Ragins, 1997). Existing studies examining mentor and role model demographics either focused solely on gender (Ragins & Cotton, 1999) or minority races exclusive to African-Americans (Marx et al., 2009; Thomas, 1993; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Many of these studies did not draw a clear conclusion regarding the effect of race (Allen et al., 2017; Eby et al., 2013). In conducting this empirical study on Asians, this chapter theoretically contributes to bridging research on the bamboo ceiling effect with literature on mentoring and role modelling. In this way, this chapter highlights the effect of the characteristics of mentors and role models on the self-perceived leadership promotability of Asians.

Second, using signaling theory, this study found that Caucasian mentors can act as more visible signals for Asian mentees, so that, in associating with their mentor, Asian mentees benefit by attaining their powerful sponsorship, backing and resources to overcome the potential negative effects of the Asian stereotype in the organisation. The associated networks and behavioural training that the Caucasian mentor can provide are more critical for Asian mentees than Caucasian mentees. This research further improves our understanding of mentoring relationship as not only a means of training for career advancement via the perspectives of social exchange (Baranik et al., 2010) and social networking (Higgins & Kram, 2001), but also as a perceptual advantage for employees in minority groups (Ragins, Erhardt, Lyness, Murphy, & Capman, 2017), such as Asians, as a form of enhancing their perceived ability and motivation to fit within the Western culture and prototype of leadership.

This study provides further evidence of the importance of a mentor's signal visibility and strength (Ramaswami et al., 2010). Mentors need to provide career development support, such as sponsorship and exposing mentees, which requires mentors to exert their influence on behalf of the mentee (Chun et al., 2012; Wanberg,

Welsh, & Hezlett, 2003). Unlike Asian mentors, Caucasian mentors for Asian mentees are associated with providing a stronger signal because of their powerful resources in the organisation and access to social capital, which Asian mentors are less likely to be able to provide. Caucasian mentors also act as more visible signals for Asian mentees, given that Western organisations are dominated by leadership of the Caucasian majority. A Caucasian mentor with an Asian mentee is more salient, and thus more visible, because, in such settings, establishing a mentoring relationship with a Caucasian mentor should enhance perceptions among supervisors that the Asian mentee is a legitimate contender for leadership positions, based on the mentor relationship, which signals that the Asian mentee has received their powerful sponsorship and behavioural training.

In addition, the unexpected result of this study was that a Caucasian mentee's self-perceived leadership promotability was more positively related to Asian mentors than to Caucasian mentors. An explanation of this finding is that having an Asian mentor for Caucasian mentees can enhance the perception that the Caucasian mentee is trained in technical skills that complement their perceived ability to develop beneficial relationships and other behavioural prototypes of a Caucasian leader. In addition, because minority mentors, such as Asian mentors, face more barriers to advancement than do majority mentors, such as Caucasian mentors, they need to have developed special strategies to overcome organisational and interpersonal barriers to advancement (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). These strategies may have been passed down to their Caucasian mentees through the mentor relationship, such that, alongside the qualities of being hard working and competent in completing tasks, having an Asian mentor becomes a stronger signal for Caucasian mentees that enhances their self-perceived leadership promotability to a greater extent. If Caucasian mentees are paired with an

Asian mentor, the argument that they are bicultural and thus can better relate to others (Friedman & Liu, 2009) can indeed provide a signal to the organisation that they have learnt qualities from their mentor that can support their bicultural learning.

Third, building on the literature of the importance of role models in careers (Lockwood, 2006), this study highlights the importance of racial similarity of role models for role aspirants. Although social comparison research has identified that there are different conditions in which the individual may feel inspired or less worthy by comparison with superior others (Collins, 1996), there is still limited knowledge in field studies examining this directly through observing the role model's race. Previous studies have found mixed results in the effects of racial demographics of role models (Hoyt & Burnette, 2012; Marx & Ko, 2012; Marx et al., 2009; Taylor, Lord, McIntyre, & Paulson, 2011) and this study contributes to resolving the uncertainty of the effect of same-race role models on career advancement.

Based on the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961), I hypothesised that having same-race role models could exemplify to role aspirants that they could achieve their possible selves through seeing someone like them succeed, with the same characteristics and associated setbacks. This study contributes to extending the similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961) to the study of role models. This study offers a related conceptual justification for having a same-race role model, as individuals are posited to be attracted to people with similar characteristics and attitudes, which subsequently influences their motivation and performance outcomes (Morgenroth et al., 2015). Although Hypothesis 2 was not supported, as the difference for Asians with a same-race role model was no greater than for Caucasians, this study contributes to the motivational theory of same-race role models as a positive self-to-exemplar comparison for both Asians and Caucasians.

Fourth, based on the exploratory study of gender, this study contributes to further understandings of the effect of mentor and role model race by gender. This study found that the effect was the same for both male and female Asian and Caucasian mentees. This contributes to mentoring relationship studies by demonstrating that the Caucasian mentor's stronger effect on the self-perceived leadership promotability of Asian mentees applied to both male and female Asian mentees. This also contributes to broadening our understanding of the effects of the gender composition of mentoring relationships (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

In contrast, the effect of a same race role model on self-perceived leadership promotability did not apply for Asian male employees. Unlike Asian women, who are associated with competence more often that Caucasian women (Rosette et al., 2016), Asian men are often described as quiet, shy and lacking in masculinity (Ghavami & Peplau, 2013). The perception of Asian men's lower prototypicality and masculinity coincides with the effect of the presence in the media that renders Asian men culturally invisible (Schug et al., 2017). Being more invisible than their Asian women counterparts makes it difficult for Asian men to look up to an Asian role model for leadership promotability, particularly because their association with femininity (Galisnky et al., 2013) does not characterise the prototype of leadership. Therefore, the invisibility of Asian men could explain the finding that the effect of an Asian role model for Asian men was not positively associated with self-perceived leadership promotability.

3.6.2 Practical Implications

This two-wave study offers several important practical implications for organisations. First, based on the results of the study whereby Asian mentees with Caucasian mentors showed higher leadership promotability than did Asian mentees with

Asian mentors and Caucasian mentees with Caucasian mentors, organisations can work towards providing platforms for more cross-racial mentoring relationships. The benefits of cross-race mentoring found in this study highlight the importance for organisations of working towards pairing employees with mentors of a different race—namely, Asian employees with Caucasian mentors and vice-versa (Baranik et al., 2010; Hu et al., 2008). Mentoring relationships enable mentees to benefit from career advancement; thus, Asian employees who have been mentored by Caucasians can better signal to the organisation their knowledge, expertise and skills from affiliation with their mentor. However, organisations need to work to enable enhanced access to mentors, as access to mentoring is driven by the types of relationships and social networks that people have within the organisation and society (Milkman et al., 2015; Murrell et al., 2008). Organisations should take a proactive role in levelling the playing field of mentoring, so that Asian mentees are not excluded from attaining Caucasian mentors who are part of the majority group (Sealy & Singh, 2010). For example, formal mentoring programs can be offered that help mentors recognise the importance of diversified mentoring, so that Asian mentees can access Caucasian mentors and vice-versa.

Second, organisations can also benefit from implementing strategies to support the recognition of Asian mentors. This study showed that Asian mentors can have a beneficial effect on the leadership promotability of Caucasian employees; however, perhaps because of their minority group status, despite having equivalent resources for power, they still face stereotypes that limit perceptions of their power and attributions about sources of influence (Ragins, 1997). To support Asian mentors, organisations can reinforce the development of mentoring relationships by recognising these relationships in performance appraisals and salary decisions. Organisations can highlight that the performance of the mentee is a direct reflection of the mentor’s judgement and

competency, which affects the mentor's status, reputation and credibility in the organisation (Kram, 1985; Ragins, 1997). This is particularly important for Asian mentors, who are less likely to obtain the recognition associated with being a mentor.

Third, in relation to the point above, although organisations face challenges to develop Asian leaders (Sy et al., 2017), organisations should continue efforts to do so, so that they have more Asian role models with whom employees can identify. The current racial homogeneity of leaders in society reduces the capacity of Asian employees in Western society to assess similarities among leader role models (Ayman & Korabik, 2010; DiTomaso, 2015; Koenig et al., 2011). Thus, organisations should focus on enhancing the opportunities for individuals to increase their set and quality of role models. Organisations can implement policies that promote the hiring or admission of racial minorities, such as Asians, in organisations. Organisational policies that create opportunities for individuals belonging to the racial minority to come together can help individuals see similar high-achieving others, and thus see that domains such as leadership are attainable. In this way, organisations can provide a better experience to help Asian employees develop their careers through witnessing more same-race role models (Gibson, 2004).

In the recruitment and promotion process within organisations, managers and supervisors should also be made aware of any bias that constrains the selection process—namely, the stereotypes associated with Asians in comparison with Caucasians—to eliminate the discrimination that reinforces the bamboo ceiling. This can be achieved by removing information that can imply the candidate's race from an application to minimise racial bias in selection decisions (Lai & Babcock, 2013). Additionally, awareness training of racial bias and stereotypes for supervisors and managers can be a practical way to enable a fairer promotion system (Lai & Babcock,

2013). Including more Asians in the upper echelons of leadership can help reduce the stereotypes associated with Asians' lack of fit for leadership positions in Western organisations and boost the number of Asian role models for future generations.

3.6.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There are several limitations that scholars should consider when interpreting the findings of this study. First, the self-report nature of the study was a limitation to the hypothesised model. I managed to overcome this limitation in part through collecting data across two waves and establishing measurement equivalence at each time point. In using repeated-measures data, I was also able to overcome methodological artefacts arising from different interpretations of the questionnaire items between respondents. Nonetheless, the conclusions of this study could be strengthened by including objective indicators of performance appraisals to determine leadership promotability that eliminates any potential common method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). As a result of time and resource constraints, I was unable to obtain objective data of leadership promotability; however, future research could use objective data as a dependent variable to help eliminate the self-report bias that tends to lead to under-reporting of behaviours deemed inappropriate by researchers or other observers and over-reporting of behaviours viewed as appropriate (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002).

Second, given the limited resources, I obtained data from employees within Australia; thus, responses could have been largely influenced by the current Australian demographic context and working culture. To enhance the generalisability of findings, an extension to this study would be to conduct the same study across other Western societies, such as the United Kingdom, Netherlands or US, and implement a multilevel analysis. For example, in the US in 2019, the Asian-American Democratic presidential candidate Andrew Yang (Lu et al., 2020) could have been a significant influence for

Asian male employees as a same-race role model. Other role models include news anchor Julie Chen and author Amy Tan. Further, although cultural dimensions, such as individualism and low power distance (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004), may be shared by most Western societies, there are differing degrees of leadership prototypes across cultures (Lord & Maher, 1991). For example, the cross-cultural study by Den Hartog et al. (1999) found some culturally contingent attributes of charismatic leadership. In Australia, leaders must balance the competing demands of egalitarianism and above-average achievement, while Dutch leaders must balance vision and participation without 'becoming a hero' (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Thus, examining the study's hypotheses across cultures would be worthwhile to account for cultural differences that could provide insights of the effect of national cultural values.

Third, although I controlled for demographics, including gender, future studies could incorporate other demographics of the mentor or role model, such as the mentor or role model's position within the firm, as well as the characteristics of the organisation of the employee. To broaden the findings' applicability, future research studies could also examine the process through which mentoring relationships develop within an organisation. Previous research has found that racial minorities experience difficulties in relation to accessing social capital and, importantly, mentors who are demographically different (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990). Specifically, future studies could examine whether employees in the organisation have been involuntarily paired with their mentors or whether they seek mentors on their own who are demographically similar or different to themselves in terms of race, and the reasons why. This further examination may yield interesting findings in regard to whether organisations support cross-racial mentoring, and the motivation of Asian employees to seek mentors based on their race.

From a methodological standpoint, with further information on the process of how the mentoring relationship is formed, future studies could test causal mediation models (Pearl, 2014) that consider how the race of the mentor mediates the effect of race on leadership promotability. This can also include variables such as perceived career developmental role of mentors (Ragins & McFarlin, 1990) to examine its effects on self-perceived leadership promotability of mentees. In this manner, a causal mediation model could imply that the race of the mentor is mediated by the mentee's perceived career developmental role of mentors. This would better eliminate any confounding variables that may influence the relationship between race and self-perceived leadership promotability. This would better eliminate any confounding variables that may influence the relationship between race and self-perceived leadership promotability.

Finally, this study did not include measures for signal visibility or signal strength (Ramaswami et al., 2010). Signaling theory highlights the role of the receiver in the signaling process (Connelly et al., 2011; Wang, Kim, Rafferty & Sanders, 2020) such that its application would be stronger for measures that examined other's perceptions of an employee's leadership promotability, as opposed to the current study's self-perceived leadership promotability. Future studies could potentially have hiring committees as research participants to examine the signaling effect of a mentor's race on a mentee's leadership promotability via inclusion of a mentor's name on the mentee's CV. This could further empirically develop our understanding of signaling theory's application towards a mentor's race and the mentee's leadership promotability.

3.7 Conclusion

A consequence of the growing effect of diversity within organisations is that firms need to address how to support and enable relationships among people of different

cultures, backgrounds and perspectives. This study offers a new view on understanding career development support through mentoring relationships and role models that may overcome the discrimination in leadership promotability via the bamboo ceiling effect. The internal barriers that Asians experience in the workplace include the lack of networks and self-perceived ability in attaining leadership in Western organisations. By integrating signaling theory in the study of mentors, the results of this study provide insight regarding the value of mentoring relationships that may overcome the bamboo ceiling effect. For Asian mentees, Caucasian mentors could provide greater signal strength and visibility to enable Asian mentees' self-perceived leadership promotability. The findings of this study also extend our understanding of the characteristics of role models, such that self-perceived leadership promotability can be influenced by the similarity of employees' race with that of their role models' race. Thus, this research highlights that individuals and organisations can work better to overcome the bamboo ceiling effect by developing cross-race mentoring relationships for Asians, as well as creating a platform through which Asian employees can become leaders and aspiring role models for future generations of Asian employees.

Chapter 4: General Discussion and Conclusion

This thesis aimed to address the overarching research question, which focused on two key areas: (i) explanation of the underlying process of the bamboo ceiling effect and (ii) potential solutions to this effect. Examination of the problem and explaining its process and potential solution provides the comprehensive foundation for an advancement to our prior understanding of the bamboo ceiling effect. Consistent with these aims, Chapter 1 presented the research topic and the current state-of-the-field research. Based on the first research question posed in Chapter 1, Chapter 2 investigated the causal nature of the bamboo ceiling effect through an emotions lens. Based on the second research question posed in Chapter 1, Chapter 3 addressed a potential solution for the bamboo ceiling through mentors and role models. This thesis thus formed a bridge across various fields of study including emotions, leadership, diversity and careers to address the bamboo ceiling effect.

Below, I first summarise the main findings of the chapters, and then elaborate on the theoretical and practical implications of the findings. To conclude this thesis, I discuss the limitations and future research directions.

4.1 Main Findings

4.1.1 Chapter 1

The bamboo ceiling effect has been sporadically discussed in diverse topics within management, psychology, and sociology journals. Through reviewing multiple disciplines, Chapter 1 provided added value to the research field by clearly identifying the main findings, theoretical frameworks and methodologies used in the literature. Based on this review and synthesis, I identified two key research gaps in relation to the themes found in the external and internal constraints. The first research gap related to the lack of clarity of the underlying process through which stereotypes explain the lower

leadership promotability of Asians. Although a majority of studies of the bamboo ceiling effect identified that a lack of warmth and social skills stereotypes were a barrier for Asians to attain leadership positions based on the perceptions of others, the process through which this occurs remains unclear in regard to the leadership promotability of Asians compared with Caucasians. The second research gap relates to the limited empirical examination of potential solutions to the bamboo ceiling effect.

To address the first research gap, I developed the first research question to examine whether the bamboo ceiling effect can be explained by the interaction of empathy and race on leadership promotability through perceived ability to manage emotions. I then developed the second research question, which related to the second research gap and examined the racial attributes of mentors and role models as potential solutions to eliminate the bamboo ceiling effect in Chapter 3.

4.1.2 Chapter 2

To address the first research question, I examined the relationship between race (Asian and Caucasian) and leadership promotability to achieve a better understanding of the bamboo ceiling phenomenon through two experimental studies. In Study 1 (n = 290), I examined the different effect of empathy on leadership promotability for Asian and Caucasian men, and the mediating effect of perceived ability to manage emotions. I found that, in the low empathy condition, Asians were evaluated lower in leadership promotability than were Caucasians because of their perceived lack of managing emotions ability, yet Asians and Caucasians did not differ in leadership promotability in the high empathy condition.

In Study 2 (n = 175), I replicated the findings and found a different pattern for the effect for males and females. In particular, the results showed that the effect of empathy on leadership promotability was the opposite for females than for males: in the

low empathy condition, Asian females were evaluated as higher in leadership promotability.

4.1.3 Chapter 3

Chapter 3 presented a two-wave study (n = 382) to investigate a solution to the bamboo ceiling effect through Caucasian mentors. Building on signaling theory (Connelly et al., 2011; Spence, 1973), the results of the study demonstrated that having a Caucasian mentor in comparison with an Asian mentor was more positively related to self-perceived leadership promotability for an Asian mentee in comparison with a Caucasian mentee. In applying the similarity attraction framework (Byrne, 1961), the results also showed that a same-race role model influenced the self-perceived leadership promotability of Asian and Caucasian employees positively.

4.2 Theoretical Contributions

Research on the bamboo ceiling effect is a relatively small yet growing field, and, as highlighted in Chapter 1, its consequences for the individual, organisation and society demonstrate the importance of the issue, and thus necessitate a more rigorous examination of its causal nature and potential solutions that can inform and advance the conceptual underpinnings of the bamboo ceiling effect in research. A key theoretical contribution of this thesis—through the review in Chapter 1 in particular—is its integration of various findings on the bamboo ceiling effect. Prior to this review, the body of knowledge was fragmented and dispersed across multiple schools of thought, and a synthesis of this broad literature was needed to map the themes and research approaches to conceptualise the studies in the different disciplines and identify the knowledge gaps to direct future research (Snyder, 2019). The focus on contextualising the bamboo ceiling effect, as based on internal and external constraints, furthers understandings of the bamboo ceiling effect by demonstrating that the bamboo ceiling is

derived from a mix of constraints from the self, the situation and others. This contributes to a unique conceptual understanding of the bamboo ceiling effect that is not solely derived from individual, organisational or societal constraints.

In specifically examining the vocational and leadership outcomes, I identified a boundary condition that clarified what the bamboo ceiling is and is not. The bamboo ceiling is related to vocational and leadership outcomes and is not specifically the racial attributes that relate to work or academic performance. In this manner, future scholars can have a better starting point to assess the bamboo ceiling effect and determine which areas require further examination, while integrating the phenomenon across multiple schools of thoughts, theoretical frameworks, and perspectives.

The empirical studies in this thesis (Chapters 2 and 3) took a more complex view of the bamboo ceiling effect in relation to explaining its causal nature and its potential solutions. Chapter 2 addressed the research question posed in Chapter 1 by explaining the bamboo ceiling effect through an emotions perspective. This emotions lens is a novel perspective to account for the possibility that racial stereotypes may inform a leader's perceived ability to manage emotions. Previous studies understood the bamboo ceiling effect as arising from racial stereotypes, yet did not examine the stereotype process more closely and did not consider whether the manner in which people discriminate against Asian leaders is based on an interaction of attributing their emotions to their internal dispositions.

The conversation of how the bamboo ceiling effect occurs (Festekjian et al., 2014; Lai & Babcock, 2013; Sy et al., 2010) has changed by explaining the bamboo ceiling effect through an emotions perspective via attribution theory (Weiner, 1985). In this thesis, I contribute to explaining the process through which Asians are found to be perceived lower in leadership promotability through drawing on the internal attributions

that observers make of these individuals' perceived lack of ability to manage emotions. This furthers the conceptual understanding that stereotypes are not just a direct form of discrimination, but highlights the complexity of the bamboo ceiling effect. Thus, this study furthers an understanding of the subtle way that racism occurs and its effect in the current context of Western organisations (DiTomaso, 2015).

By applying the implicit leadership theories framework (Lord et al., 1984), the results of Chapter 2 demonstrated that leaders who are empathetic are rated higher in leadership promotability because of their perceived ability to manage emotions. This finding further supports the notion that we expect our leaders to be capable of managing the emotions of themselves and others (Brackett et al., 2011). Chapter 2 theoretically furthered the understanding that perceived ability to manage emotion is related to evaluations of leadership promotability, and thus implicit leadership theories may need to include an emotions dimension.

Based on the scholarly interest in a perception-based view of leadership, in which leaders are elected from their *perceived* ability to manage emotions (Lopes et al., 2005), Chapter 2 further extended the literature on a leader's emotional capabilities and related it to the leader's race. Specifically, this thesis advances the prior literature's implicit leadership theories of our leadership schemas, such that, even if our leadership schemas inform our perception that leaders should be empathetic and have the ability to manage their own emotions and the emotions of others (Kellett et al., 2006; Kellett et al., 2002), our attributions of emotions differ based on racial stereotypes. This differently influences our leadership promotability evaluations of Asian and Caucasians, which demonstrates how we may view more Caucasians in positions of leadership, in comparison with Asians.

Furthermore, over the years, research into the benefits of mentoring has been wide-ranging; however, mentoring relationships are not always found to be effective and can range in quality (Humberd & Rouse, 2016; Ragins, Cotton, & Miller, 2000). In line with the recommendations by Humberd and Rouse (2016), Chapter 3 contributed to examining mentoring relationships over a period of time. Mentoring and characteristics of mentor relationships are often focused on identifying perceived similarities between mentors and mentees (Eby et al., 2013). However, Chapter 3 provided a different angle on the effects of mentor relationships through theorising that a different race of the mentor may benefit the mentee from signaling effects. Chapter 3 applied signaling theory (Connelly et al., 2011; Spence, 1973) based on the 'signal strength' and 'signal visibility' (Ramaswami et al., 2010) of Caucasian mentors to Asian mentees. From this perspective, the results of Study 3 seek to explain one form in which Caucasian mentors may offset the negative effect that hold Asian mentees back from attaining leadership promotability. The results of Chapter 3 contributed to showing that Asian mentees have higher self-perceived leadership promotability with Caucasian mentors. This highlights an additional added value of connecting the literature of the benefits of mentors (Allen et al., 2014; Ragins et al., 2017) to the phenomenon of the bamboo ceiling effect through signaling theory.

In parallel with mentor relationships, this study contributed theoretically to examining the concept of role modelling from a similarity attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1961). Despite the overwhelming evidence that individuals are attracted to others who are similar to themselves, the explanation of this similarity effect has been subject to much debate (Montoya & Horton, 2013). I utilised how representations of the possible, such that potential future similarity of same-race role models for Asians can motivate and influence Asians to become like their Asian role models. By empirically

demonstrating that same-race role models positively affect self-perceived leadership promotability, this study further clarified that the perceived attainability of a goal, as pursued by a role model of the same race, is a means through which Asians can be motivated and thus promoted to leadership positions. Thus, Chapter 3 addressed Research Question 2 to understand the effect of the racial attributes of mentors and role models, as a potential solution to the bamboo ceiling effect (Fouad et al., 2008; Kawahara et al., 2013; Sy et al., 2017).

This thesis contributes theoretically to the scholarship on intersectionality between gender and race. Both Chapters 2 and 3 addressed the lack of studies on the bamboo ceiling effect that pay attention to gender. Shields (2002) noted that, when gender is included as a variable in research on emotion, it is only examined in terms of gender differences. Further, Brescoll (2016) found that it remains unclear whether people's beliefs about gender and emotion also apply to ethnic minority women, particularly Asian women. By examining both males and females in tandem, Chapter 2 found that gender effected the interaction of race and empathy on perceived ability to manage emotions.

Contrary to previous literature, where Asian women were considered more feminine than Caucasian women and were the least likely group to be selected for masculine leadership positions (Berdahl & Min, 2012; Galinsky et al., 2013), the results of Chapter 2 showcased how Asian women are perceived as higher in leadership promotability, which theoretically casts some doubts on the way we understand the bamboo ceiling effect. The findings of this study challenge prior conceptions of the intersection of gender with race as a double jeopardy to Asian females, because Asian females were found to be higher in leadership promotability than Caucasian females when they expressed low empathy.

In addition, the race similarity of role models failed to apply to Asian male employees. This finding sparks a new theoretical insight to understandings of gender among racial minorities, whereby Asian males may encounter different needs in comparison to Asian females, as Asian males and females are subject to different stereotypes (Chapter 2). The two empirical chapters thus bridged the bamboo ceiling effect with the glass ceiling effect, and challenged prior assumptions that racial minority women face more struggles than do racial minority men (Rosette et al., 2016). Supporting Schug et al. (2015), whereby Asian males were perceived as more invisible in society, this thesis contributes theoretically to re-envisioning how we perceive Asian males in leadership, and calls for further examination of the discrimination that Asian males encounter, despite belonging to the more dominant gender.

4.3 Practical Implications

In addition to the theoretical contributions, this thesis offers several practical implications based on the internal and external constraints found in the literature. First, to eliminate the internal constraints to attaining leadership promotability, Asian mentees can be educated and trained to maintain a good mentoring relationship. Given that, from internal constraints, many Asians encounter barriers of being submissive and shy (Burris et al., 2013), mentoring program modules can help educate Asian mentees in better communication during mentoring sessions, so that they are able to work in training with their Caucasian mentors. This may help eliminate problems regarding lack of perceived similarity with mentors (Ensher & Murphy, 1997) and lack of access to cross-race mentoring relationships (Ibarra, 1999).

Second, given that Asian mentees benefit the most from Caucasian mentors, organisations can consider enhancing the career development of Asian mentees through pairing them with Caucasian mentors (Ragins et al., 2017). This can help alleviate

issues regarding the lack of accessible mentors that Asians encounter. Organisations can develop and deliver training modules that address critical issues towards attaining success in cross-race mentoring relationships (Thomas, 1993). These modules may be helpful for mentors to understand the unique barriers that Asians encounter, and thus may help mentors focus on teaching mentees how to be more culturally aware and to develop leadership skills that are applicable and valued in Western organisations.

Third, this study showed that organisations still need to be sensitive towards the biases held regarding Asian employees (Sy et al., 2010) and work together to eliminate the bamboo ceiling effect. Through focusing on Asians, this thesis showed that this racial minority group requires further attention in the diversity practices that organisations hold today. Organisations can develop practices and policies that target Asians who still experience prejudice in being labelled the model minority, and their competence or academic success should not disguise the discrimination they face in leadership promotion decisions (Sy et al., 2017). Diversity management practices that target women or African-Americans may prove to be effective; however, a blanket approach cannot be applied to all minority groups. This thesis shows that Asians have differing needs that should be considered (Cheng & Thatchenkery, 1997; Sy et al., 2010), including addressing their internalisation of the model minority stereotype and expanding their careers to outside the boundaries of the stereotypical Asian occupation. In this manner, Asian junior employees in future generations can have more Asian role models from whom they can gain inspiration.

4.4 Limitations and Future Directions

The studies in this thesis have some limitations that must be considered when interpreting its findings. First, empirical limitations existed in both the experimental and field survey study conducted. The experimental studies of Chapter 2 conducted in a

controlled laboratory setting were beneficial to determine the causal nature of relationships (internal validity) yet could be subject to lower external validity (Yang & Dickinson, 2013). Further, the subjects of the studies were students, so their varying experiences with team leaders could have generated a bias in their responses or may not translate to the organisational field. Future studies may consider replicating the experimental studies in Chapter 2 in a field setting using working adult samples. This may be useful to complement the findings of the current experimental studies.

Second, the two-wave field study of Chapter 3 sought to remove problems encountered with cross-sectional data, including reverse causality; however, the three-month study time interval may have been insufficient to determine causation. Nevertheless, a longer time interval would entail higher costs and attrition rates (Bednall et al., 2014). Future research may choose to use a combination of methods, such as triangulation, to provide more rigour to this two-wave study. This could include designing an intervention study within organisations, whereby a cross-race mentoring program is implemented.

Third, this experimental study chose to focus on the emotion of empathy. Future studies may choose to replicate tests to determine whether the ideas in Chapter 2 can be generalised to examining another emotion expression, such as anger (Adam & Shirako, 2013; Tiedens, 2001; Wang, Northcraft, & Van Kleef, 2012). Anger is an emotion associated with dominance and leadership that is punished more severely among women than men (Livingston et al., 2012). Thus, experimenting with anger could prove useful and relate to other studies indicating how negative emotions, such as anger, may be interpreted differently for Asians and Caucasians in a leadership context (Adam & Shirako, 2013). In other words, future research could answer the question of whether

people would punish anger expressed by Asian leaders more than anger expressed by Caucasian leaders?

Fourth, the terminology of the bamboo ceiling and 'Asian' definition in the field requires attention and clarity. The existing studies have not clearly differentiated between Asian groups (such as East Asians versus South Asians); thus, the current thesis was also limited in its ability to make this clear distinction. Subcultures are inherently different and individuals who are identified as 'Asian' have numerous different characteristics, depending on with which Asian region they culturally identify (Kitano, 1981). For example, only recently did a study clearly distinguish between East Asians and South Asians (see Lu et al., 2020) in terms of their assertiveness and leadership representation. The field lacks clarity regarding which groups are the target of the bamboo ceiling effect, since the term 'Asians' (or 'Asian-Americans') is commonly used to discuss the targets of the bamboo ceiling effect. It is worthy of future research to make this distinction and to consider different terminology than the 'bamboo ceiling' effect that is a more accurate metaphor for the barriers specifically faced by different Asian groups.

Finally, given that the bamboo ceiling is about leadership, concepts such as leadership bridge people, units and levels and thus it cannot be understood by studying one level by itself (Rousseau & House, 1994; Yammarino & Jung, 1998). The findings at one level of analysis do not generalise to other levels of analysis (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000). Relationships that hold at one level of analysis may be stronger or weaker at a different level of analysis, or even in the reverse direction (Ostroff, 1993).

The bamboo ceiling effect may have a theoretical foundation in the cognition, affect, behaviour and characteristics of individuals, which—through social interaction, exchange and amplification—have emergent properties that manifest at higher levels.

Interactive effects can be observed which involves cross-level effects of internal and external constraints that are both top/down and bottom/up (Rousseau & House, 1994). This multilevel framework has been used in many leadership studies (Hogue & Lord, 2007), however, because a majority of the study examines the bamboo ceiling effect at an individual level, the field is also limited in capacity to provide a multilevel framework based on the current literature. A direction for future research is to map out existing and future studies on a multilevel framework that specifies an interaction of macro-micro-meso level paradigms (Rousseau & House, 1994). Future studies on the bamboo ceiling that include these multilevel processes would provide a more intricate understanding of this leadership phenomenon (Kozlowski & Klein, 2000).

4.5 Conclusion

This thesis aimed to unpack the bamboo ceiling effect—a phenomenon that is prevalent in organisations and holds growing importance in the literature. Given that the area of research is a broad topic that has been conceptualised and studied within different disciplines, the synthesis of the review in Chapter 1 provided an effective way for future studies to uncover areas that require further research within the domains of organisational behaviour and management. By connecting various concepts from the emotions, stereotypes, mentoring and role model literature, Chapters 2 and 3 sought to explain the underlying process through which the bamboo ceiling occurs, and to provide a possible solution to eliminate the bamboo ceiling. This thesis found that racial stereotypes are one form through which we perceive ability to manage emotions differently. This bias, as explained through attribution theory, can affect the leadership evaluations for Asians, in comparison with Caucasians. Moreover, this study found that gender is another component to consider when studying the bamboo ceiling effect. As a means to provide a solution to the bamboo ceiling, the influence of mentor and role

model race shows that it is beneficial for Asians to have Caucasian mentors and Asian role models to progress in their leadership careers. In summary, this thesis contributes to examining the bamboo ceiling effect through a more comprehensive lens that provides an explanation of the cause of the bamboo ceiling through an emotions perspective, as well as a potential solution through mentor relationships and role models to eliminate the ceiling.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Experiment Material Chapter 2 Study 1

Background Material

James is a second-year university student who majors in Management at one of Australia's leading universities. He is also a member of the faculty of management's "Magic Managers" group. This prestigious group is made up of the five most distinguished who meet each week during the semester to work on an ongoing project to pitch innovative ideas to large corporate firms.

James is a conscientious and diligent team member who is always punctual and actively participates in the group. The group is scheduled to present their project this Friday to a real client – one of the big four consulting firms – in which the reward will be a paid summer internship at the firm for all team members. They are up against seven other groups, also coming from Australia's leading universities.

The group has scheduled to meet for two full days (Wednesday and Thursday) prior to presenting on Friday. Today is Tuesday and there are still lots of work to do before the big presentation. As everyone was occupied with their final exams, there was no opportunity to do this work earlier.

The team leader of the group is a post-graduate student and Management tutor, Ang-Jing Wong (Alan Woods).

James sent the following email to Ang-Jing (Alan Woods) on Tuesday evening:
Subject: Working from home today
Time: Tuesday 7th December 2016, 06:30pm

Dear Ang-Jing (Alan),
Apologies for the short notice, but my younger sister is currently unwell, and I will have to stay home to take care of her as my parents are both currently overseas. I understand the tight schedule we have prior to the presentation this Friday, in which case I will stay online, working-from–home on the project tomorrow.
I appreciate your understanding on this.
James

Ang-Jing (Alan) replied shortly after.

Low empathy condition
Reply email from Ang-Jing Wong (Alan Woods)
Subject: Re: Working from home today
Time: Tuesday 7th December 2016, 07:50pm
Not acceptable – I can't accept any excuses. We have a tight schedule and will need you to come in to participate tomorrow and Thursday.
Ang-Jing Wong (Alan Woods)
Graduate Student Chair
Student Tennis Club (Male Division)

High empathy condition
Reply email from Ang-Jing Wong (Alan Woods)
Subject: Re: Working from home today
Time: Tuesday 7th December 2016, 07:50pm
Dear James,
I hope your sister feels better and I understand that this is a difficult time for you.
Thanks for keeping in mind that this is also a demanding time for us prior to the client presentation this Friday. I hope you can find someone else to take care of your sister for the

coming two days. I really think it is important for you to participate in the group discussion. So if you can come in tomorrow and Thursday, that'll be much appreciated.
Again, I'm sorry for this and please let me know if there's anything I can do to help. Speak soon.
Regards,
Ang-Jing Wong (Alan Woods)
Graduate Student Chair
Student Tennis Club (Male Division)

Appendix B: Experiment Material Chapter 2 Study 2

Background Material

James is a second-year university student who majors in Management at one of Australia's leading universities. He is also a member of the faculty of management's "Magic Managers" group. This prestigious group is made up of the five most distinguished who meet each week during the semester to work on an ongoing project to pitch innovative ideas to large corporate firms.

James is a conscientious and diligent team member who is always punctual and actively participates in the group. The group is scheduled to present their project this Friday to a real client – one of the big four consulting firms – in which the reward will be a paid summer internship at the firm for all team members. They are up against seven other groups, also coming from Australia's leading universities.

The group has scheduled to meet for two full days (Wednesday and Thursday) prior to presenting on Friday. Today is Tuesday and there are still lots of work to do before the big presentation. As everyone was occupied with their final exams, there was no opportunity to do this work earlier.

The team leader of the group is a post-graduate student and Management tutor, Mei Chen Wang (Chang Huang Wang) (Claire Smith) (Steven Smith) .

James sent the following email to her (him) on Tuesday evening:

Subject: Working from home today
Time: Tuesday 7th December 2016, 06:30pm

Dear Mei Chen (Chang Huang) (Claire) (Steven),
Apologies for the short notice, but my younger sister is currently unwell, and I will have to stay home to take care of her as my parents are both currently overseas. I understand the tight schedule we have prior to the presentation this Friday, in which case I will stay online, working-from–home on the project tomorrow.
I appreciate your understanding on this.
James

Mei Chen (Chang Huang) (Claire) (Steven) replied shortly after.

Low empathy condition
Reply email from Mei Chen Wang (Chang Huang Wang) (Claire Smith) (Steven Smith)
Subject: Re: Working from home today
Time: Tuesday 7th December 2016, 07:50pm
Not acceptable – I can't accept any excuses. We have a tight schedule and will need you to come in to participate tomorrow and Thursday.
Mei Chen Wang (Chang Huang Wang) (Claire Smith) (Steven Smith)
王美辰(王昌煌)
Graduate Student Chair
Women (Men) in Business Association

High empathy condition
Reply email from Mei Chen Wang (Chang Huang Wang) (Claire Smith) (Steven Smith)
Subject: Re: Working from home today
Time: Tuesday 7th December 2016, 07:50pm
Dear James,
I hope your sister feels better and I understand that this is a difficult time for you.
Thanks for keeping in mind that this is also a demanding time for us prior to the client presentation this Friday. I hope you can find someone else to take care of your sister for the

coming two days. I really think it is important for you to participate in the group discussion. So if you can come in tomorrow and Thursday, that'll be much appreciated.
Again, I'm sorry for this and please let me know if there's anything I can do to help. Speak soon.
Regards,
Mei Chen Wang (Chang Huang Wang) (Claire Smith) (Steven Smith)
王美辰(王昌煌)
Graduate Student Chair
Women (Men) in Business Association

Appendix C: Questionnaire Items Chapter 3

Part A

In the following section, we would like to ask some questions about your role models and/or mentors.

There are no right or wrong answers.

Role models

Please take a moment to think about a person who has been a role model for you in your career. This person may be someone who has inspired you because this person excelled in an area that you cared about, and this made you hopeful that you could do well at that activity; as a result, you became motivated to achieve excellence yourself. This person may be someone you actually know, or someone you have never met.

1. Do you have a role model in your career? (Y/N)

>If Yes

1. Please indicate the gender of this role model (female /male / Indeterminate, Intersex, Unspecified)
2. Please indicate the ethnicity of this role model:

- European (e.g. Dutch, French, Spanish)
- South-East Asian (e.g. Indonesian, Malaysian, Singaporean)
- North-East Asian (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean)
- Southern, Western and Central Asian (e.g. Indian, Sri Lankan)
- African and/or Middle Eastern (e.g. Iranian, Turkish, Egyptian, Kenyan)
- People of the Americas (e.g. Argentinean, Chilean)
- Oceanian (e.g. Papua New Guinean, Fijian, Tongan)
- Other: _____

Mentors

A mentor is an individual with advanced experience and knowledge who is committed to providing support and mobility to their mentee's careers.

1. Do you currently have a mentor? (Y/N)

>If Yes

1. Please indicate the gender of this mentor (female/male/Indeterminate, Intersex, Unspecified)
2. Please indicate the ethnicity of this mentor:

- European (e.g. Dutch, French, Spanish)
- South-East Asian (e.g. Indonesian, Malaysian, Singaporean)
- North-East Asian (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean)
- Southern, Western and Central Asian (e.g. Indian, Sri Lankan)
- African and Middle Eastern (e.g. Iranian, Turkish, Egyptian, Kenyan)
- People of the Americas (e.g. Argentinean, Chilean)
- Oceanian (e.g. Papua New Guinean, Fijian, Tongan)
- Other: _____

PART B

In the following section, we would like to ask some questions about you.

1. What is the likelihood that you will be promoted to a higher leadership position (e.g. Senior Manager) sometime during your career with the current company (1 = no likelihood, 7 = high likelihood)
2. I will probably not be promoted to a higher-level position (e.g. Senior Manager) at this company (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
3. It would be best for this company if I was not promoted from my current level during the next five years (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
4. I believe I have what it takes to be promoted to a higher-level position (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
5. I have good career prospects within this company (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
6. I anticipate that I will reach the highest levels of leadership within this company (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)
7. Please explain your answer (open text/max 300 characters)

In this section, please enter your demographic details

1. Please indicate your gender
- Male
- Female
- Indeterminate, Intersex, Unspecified

2. Ethnicity
- European (e.g. Dutch, French, Spanish)
- South-East Asian (e.g. Indonesian, Malaysian, Singaporean)
- North-East Asian (e.g. Chinese, Japanese, Korean)
- Southern, Western and Central Asian (e.g. Indian, Sri Lankan)
- African and/or Middle Eastern (e.g. Iranian, Turkish, Egyptian, Kenyan)
- People of the Americas (e.g. Argentinean, Chilean)
- Oceanian (e.g. Papua New Guinean, Fijian, Tongan)
- Other: _____

3. Did you attend high school in Australia?
- Yes
- No

4. Highest degree or level of education completed?
- High school graduate, diploma or equivalent
- Trade, technical or vocational training
- Bachelor’s degree
- Master’s degree
- Doctorate degree

5. Are you an Australian citizen?
- Yes
- No

>If Yes,

6. Are you?

- First Generation Australian (i.e. born outside of Australia, with one or both parents born overseas)
- Second Generation Australian (i.e. born in Australia, with one or both parents born overseas)
- Third Generation Australian (i.e. born in Australia, with both parents born in Australia, and one or both grandparents born overseas)
- Fourth Generation Australian and beyond (i.e. born in Australia, with both parents and grandparents born in Australia)

>If No,

7. Are you an Australian Permanent Resident?

- Yes
- No