ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation:	THE ROLE OF ACCENT ON EAST ASIANS' LEADERSHIP
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Not only do leaders influence followers, but followers also play a vital role in shaping leadership. Through two studies, I examined whether East Asian leaders with a foreign accent would be less respected by their followers than those without an accent. Additionally, I studied whether receiving respect from followers would affect foreign-accented East Asians' leadership. In an experimental study (N = 150), I found that a foreign-accented East Asian leader was perceived as less effective and relatively poor at facilitating followers to cooperate toward a group goal than an East Asian leader without an accent. As a result, a foreign-accented East Asian leader was perceived as having less legitimate power to influence others. In Study 2 (N = 181), I surveyed actual leaders and found that foreign-accented East Asian leaders perceived less respect from followers than non-accented East Asian leaders and White leaders with and without a foreign accent. Moreover, foreign-accented East Asian leaders reported significantly more negative leader outcomes (leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy) than foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders. These findings suggest that difficulties foreign-

accented East Asian leaders face in the workplace may not be illuminated if the focus is only on race.

THE ROLE OF ACCENT ON EAST ASIANS' LEADERSHIP

by

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Chapter 1: Introduction and Theoretical Background

Significance

Leadership is a dynamic process that occurs in the interactions of individuals engaged in leading and following (Lord et al., 1999; Padilla et al., 2007; Shamir, 2012; Uhl-Bien & Ospina, 2012). When followers acknowledge the legitimacy of a leader's leading attempt, the leader may successfully perform their skills and abilities (Carsten et al., 2010; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Hollander, 1993; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Sy, 2010). However, the extent to which leaders are recognized as having the legitimate right to influence others may be affected by the degree to which they are perceived as prototypical leaders. Literature suggests that leaders who are perceived to deviate from the leader prototype are evaluated negatively (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lord & Maher, 1991; Rosette et al., 2008). Followers may be less willing to recognize the legitimacy of non-prototypical leaders.

One characteristic that is considered non-prototypical if possessed by a leader is speaking with a foreign accent. This is an issue for many foreign-born Asians in the United States, as they often speak foreign-accented English. The literature on Asian leadership tends to focus on race, but emphasizing race puts foreign-born Asians in the same category as native-born Asians, who likely speak English without a foreign accent. It is possible that foreign-born Asian leaders are not able to successfully apply their skills and abilities as leaders because their followers perceive them as non-prototypical leaders and, as a result, are less willing to acknowledge the legitimacy of

their leading attempts. However, we know little about how foreign-accented Asian leaders are perceived and treated by their followers.

My dissertation addresses this issue by comparing foreign-accented and non-accented Asian leaders. Focusing on East Asians (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Koreans), I aimed to investigate this research question through two studies. In Study 1, I studied whether a foreign-accented East Asian leader would be perceived as having weaker legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader. As explanatory mechanisms for a foreign-accented East Asian leader's perceived weaker legitimate power, I examined perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals. In Study 2, I investigated whether East Asian leaders with a foreign accent would be treated less respectfully by their followers than those without a foreign accent and White leaders with and without a foreign accent. Moreover, I investigated whether receiving respect from followers affects leaders' leader outcomes, focusing on leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy.

Foreign-Accented East Asians in the Workplace

East Asians in the United States is not a homogenous group. While some East Asians were born and raised in the United States, some were born and raised outside of this country. For example, Do Won and Jin Sook Chang, who founded the giant clothing store chain Forever 21, departed from their homeland South Korea and landed in the United States in their 20s.

According to the United States Immigration and Customs Enforcement data, a significant number of East Asian foreign nationals are working in the United States.

A large number of foreign nationals who graduated from American universities want to have an opportunity to work in the United States, and they participate in the Optional Practical Training (OPT). OPT allows foreign graduates from American universities to work in the United States for up to 12 or 36 months. While 28,497 foreign graduates took part in OPT in 2008, the number increased to 136,617 in 2014 (Ruiz, 2017a). The vast majority of foreign graduates who found jobs through the OPT program are from Asia, and two countries from the top five countries are East Asian countries (China, South Korea). From 2012 to 2015, graduates from India (72,151) and China (68,847) made up more than half (57%). Those from South Korea came third (14,242), followed by Taiwan (7,032) and Nepal (5,309).

Many foreign nationals hope to work in the United States for more than 36 months, which is the longest period of time they can work under OPT. These people apply for the H-1B visa, which allows foreigners with specialized knowledge and expertise to work in the United States for up to six years (the United States Citizenship and Immigration Services, 2020). Foreign nationals can transition from OPT to the H-1B visa, but those who were not previously on OPT and those who did not graduate from U.S. universities can also obtain this visa. The United States Citizenship and Immigration Services issues up to 85,000 H-1B visas each year. The application for the H-1B visa must be completed by U.S. employers. They must pay the application fee that ranges from $1,710 and $6,460 for each visa (Ruiz, 2017b). Despite the high cost and hassles associated with the application process, more and more employers sponsor foreign nationals' H-1B visa applications. While the number of applications was 124,000 in 2014, it rose to 236,000 in 2017. The H-1B visa is a

popular pathway for applying for a Green Card, which offers permanent residency in the United States and allows foreign nationals to work in this country permanently.

Similar to OPT, the majority of H-1B visas are given to Asian nationals. From 2001 to 2015, Indian nationals took the largest number of H-1B visas (50.5%), followed by Chinese nationals (9.7%; Ruiz, 2017b). Other foreign nationals that received a large share of visas during this time were from Canada (3.8%), the Philippines (3.0%), and South Korea (2.8%). Among these top 5 countries, two were East Asian countries.

While OPT does not need to be sponsored by the employer, the H-1B visa, which authorizes foreign nationals to work in the United States for a longer period of time, requires considerable money and effort from the employer. This implies two things: (a) foreigners who receive the H-1B visa are highly skilled and competent, and (b) the employers highly value these foreigners' skills and expertise, to the extent they are willing to pay a lot of money and go through burdensome application processes. The foreigners who get the H-1B visa sponsored, as they are highly skilled and the organizations highly value their expertise, may hold leadership positions in the workplace. Given the trend that more and more applications are being filled for the H-1B visa each year, it is reasonable to assume that the number of leaders born and raised outside of the United States may grow in the American workplace.

Individuals raised in a foreign country that does not use English as its common language are likely to speak foreign-accented English, although the extent of their accents may vary by individuals (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Jun & Oh, 2000). What frequently happens when people learn a second language is that the intonational

pattern of their first language affects the way they speak the second language (Jun & Oh, 2000). In other words, they tend to speak a second language in a way that resembles the intonational pattern of their first language. For example, when Korean native speakers speak English as their second language, their English often resembles the intonational pattern of Korean. Thus, their English sounds like they have a foreign accent.

East Asians born and raised in East Asian countries are likely to have foreign accents, although the strength of their accents may vary from person to person. Therefore, when studying East Asians' leadership, it is important to examine the role of foreign accents. However, we know little about how East Asian leaders with foreign accents are perceived and treated in the American workplace. Quite a bit of research has been done on Asian Americans' leadership (e.g., Burris et al., 2013; Gündemir et al., 2018; Neilson & Suyemoto, 2009; Sy et al., 2010; Sy et al., 2017), but these studies tend to focus on race and do not address foreign accents.

A small amount of qualitative research focused on East Asian leaders with foreign accents has illustrated that foreign-accented East Asian leaders have difficulty exerting power at work despite holding leadership positions. Chen et al. (2013) interviewed foreign-born East Asian (referred to as Asian-Born Americans in the paper) scientists who desire to pursue advanced leadership positions in research and development (R&D) organizations. These scientists discussed barriers to their career advancement, such as difficulties in speaking English effectively in high-pressure situations, their nonnative accents, and stereotyping of foreign-born East Asians (e.g., lack leadership skills, have problems communicating). Kim et al. (2014) interviewed

foreign-born East Asian women faculty in counseling and psychology programs and identified the sources of challenges they encountered at work. Some of the difficulties were due to others questioning their expertise and authority (e.g., receiving disrespectful emails from students, being excluded from important decision-making meetings) and limitations with the English language, which negatively influenced their teaching, service, and scholarship activities. To the best of my understanding, there has been no quantitative examination of East Asian leaders with foreign accents.

Foreign-accented East Asian leaders may experience difficulties that non-accented East Asian leaders do not experience. Unique challenges foreign-accented East Asian leaders face in the workplace are not likely to be illuminated if the focus is only on race. To distinguish bias due to race from bias due to race and accent, a quantitative examination of foreign-accented and non-accented East Asian leaders is necessary. By examining whether foreign-accented and non-accented East Asian leaders are perceived and treated differently, I hope to address a gap in the Asian leadership literature and contribute to creating a more respectful workplace culture.

Legitimate Power

Raven (French & Raven, 1959; Raven, 1965, 1993, 2008) proposed six different types of social power, which they defined as the exertion of influence. This theoretical framework of social power involves a dyadic relationship between two agents: one who exerts influence (O) and the other agent who receives this influence (P). The theory, which is formulated in terms of P, examines what determines the reactions of P. The bases of social power include reward, coercive, legitimate,

referent, expert, and informational power. My dissertation focused on legitimate power.

Legitimate power is a type of social power based on P's perception that O has the authority to prescribe behavior for P (French & Raven, 1959). In other words, legitimate power stems from P's perception that O has the legitimate right to influence P, and that P should accept this influence. It is important for a leader to have legitimate power because if one does not have this power, one's leading attempt can arouse resistance. French and Raven pointed out three bases for legitimate power: acceptance of the social structure, designation by a legitimizing agent, and cultural values.

Acceptance of the social structure is one base for legitimate power. If P accepts the social structure of the organization or society that involves a hierarchy of authority, P will legitimize the authority of O who holds a superior position in the hierarchy. For example, India's caste system divides Hindus (i.e., followers of Hinduism) into four hierarchical groups: Brahmins, Kshatriyas, Vaishyas, and Shudras (Sana, 1993). At the top of the system are Brahmins, and at the bottom of the hierarchy are Shudras. If people who are categorized as Shudras accept this system, they will accept Brahmins' attempts to exert influence on them because Brahmins hold a superior position in the hierarchy.

Designation by a legitimizing agent also constitutes whether P perceives O as having the legitimate right to influence them. If O was bestowed the power to influence P by a legitimizing agent whom P accepts, P might legitimize the authority of O. For example, an employee P may perceive that the manager O is legitimate

because O has been appointed by the vice president of the company, whom O accepts as a legitimizing agent.

Cultural values are another basis for legitimate power (French & Raven, 1959). Suppose O has characteristics considered as giving them the right to prescribe behavior for P (e.g., age, intelligence). In that case, P may perceive that O has the legitimate right to influence them. For example, in some cultures (e.g., Confucian Asia culture, which includes countries such as South Korea and China), the elderly are perceived as having the legitimate right to influence and prescribe behavior for younger people (Sung, 2001).

Followers may perceive foreign-accented East Asian leaders as not having much legitimate right to influence them. Three bases for legitimate power are cultural values, acceptance of the social structure, and designation by a legitimizing agent (French & Raven, 1959). Acceptance of the social structure and designation by a legitimizing agent may not fully explain foreign-accented East Asian leaders' perceived weaker legitimate power. If followers accept the social structure of the organization that involves a hierarchy of authority (i.e., acceptance of the social structure), they will legitimize the authority of a foreign-accented East Asian leader who holds a superior position in the hierarchy. Organizations usually involve a hierarchy of authority, although the strength of the hierarchy may differ. Employees who work in an organization that involves a hierarchy of authority are likely to be aware of the hierarchy and accept it to some extent. Thus, they may perceive a person who holds a superior position in the hierarchy as having the legitimate right to influence them. Moreover, if a foreign-accented individual was granted the authority

to influence followers by a legitimizing agent (i.e., designation by a legitimizing agent), followers are expected to perceive the individual as having the legitimate power to influence them. In most organizations, when a person holds a supervisorial position, it is because they have been appointed by a higher authority figure in the organization.

Literature suggests that foreign-accented East Asian leaders may be perceived as lacking the legitimate right to influence others because of they possess several characteristics devalued in American culture. For instance, research on international teaching assistants and instructors in American universities has found that many American undergraduate students object to being taught and graded by them, beyond simply evaluating them negatively (Fitch & Morgan, 2003; Li et al., 2011; Manohar & Appiah, 2016). Many American undergraduate students argue that the university should not have hired these teaching assistants and instructors, instead of respecting the university's decision. When East Asian leaders speak with a foreign accent, which is a devalued trait in American society, followers may be less willing to recognize the legitimacy of their leading attempts.

East Asians are Perceived as Culturally Foreign

Literature suggests that East Asians are regarded as culturally foreign. For example, one major theme of racial microaggressions East Asians experience in the United States is "alien in own land," which reflects the assumption that East Asians are foreign-born (Sue et al., 2007). Even when they are born and raised in the United States, East Asians often receive questions or comments such as "Where were you born?" and "You speak good English." East Asians in the United States experience

this type of microaggressions more commonly than other types of microaggressions (Ong et al., 2013).

The type of microaggressions East Asians most commonly experience illustrates the perpetual foreigner stereotype, which describes that Asian Americans are perceived as foreigners and do not belong in America to the same degree as other Americans (Cheryan & Monin, 2005; Liang et al., 2004). The perpetual foreigner stereotype is one primary form of marginalizing East Asians. Kim's (1999) Field of Racial Positions proposes that Asians' racialization in the United States is manifested through the model minority stereotype and the perpetual foreigner stereotype. The theory posits that Asians are racialized in relation to Whites and Blacks via the processes of relative valorization and civic ostracism. White individuals valorize Asian individuals relative to Black individuals (i.e., relative valorization) by endorsing the model minority stereotype (i.e., Asian Americans achieve universal academic and occupational success; Museus & Kiang, 2009). At the same time, via the construction of the perpetual foreigner stereotype, Whites characterize Asians as foreign and ostracize them from mainstream society (i.e., civic ostracism). These interrelated processes result in placing Asians in a vulnerable racial position, causing tensions with other minority groups and being excluded from the White majority.

According to the Racial Position Model (Zou & Cheryan, 2017), which examines the racial positioning of the four largest racial groups in the United States (i.e., Whites, Blacks, Latinos, Asians) based on their perceived inferiority-superiority and perceived cultural foreignness-Americanness, Asians are perceived as relatively superior and culturally foreign. A dimension of perceived cultural foreignness refers

to a group's perceived distance away from the American prototype and toward the prototype of a foreign category. If a group is perceived as having the prototypical features of the American superordinate category, the group is perceived as American. If not, the group is perceived as culturally foreign. Because the prototypical features of a superordinate category resemble the features of the dominant group within that category, the American prototype resembles Whites' features. Among the American prototype, sharing Anglo-Saxon cultural heritage is the component that has the greatest influence on determining which groups are perceived as more or less American. Racial minority groups differ in the extent to which they are perceived to deviate from the American prototype. Asians are perceived to strongly deviate from the American prototype, to the extent that they are closer to a foreign prototype. Research shows that Asians often experience incidents in which they are associated with the cultural practices of their foreign countries of origin (Cheryan & Monin, 2005; Sue et al., 2007), suggesting that Asians are strongly perceived as culturally foreign. They are viewed as the model minority, but at the same time, perceived as Others who possess foreign and disparate values.

Speaking with a Foreign Accent is a Devalued Characteristic

Literature suggests that foreign-accented East Asian leaders possess less culturally valued characteristics than other leaders (e.g., non-accented East Asian and White leaders). Speaking with a foreign accent is a highly devalued characteristic. People have different attitudes toward contrasting styles of one language (Ryan et al., 1982). Language attitudes refer to a "broad, flexible sense as any affective, cognitive or behavioral index of evaluative reactions toward different language varieties or their

speakers" (Ryan et al., 1982, p. 7). Accents are the source of many inferences regarding the speaker; people often use accent as a cue to make certain judgments about the speaker's characteristics (Kalin, 1982). Non-verbal aspects of speech such as accents are relatively difficult to control for the purpose of impression management, and they have profound effects on the perception of and reaction to speakers (Kalin, 1982).

According to a linguistic theory named markedness theory (Waugh, 1982), in a binary pair, the unmarked term is treated as normal or neutral, whereas the marked term is treated as atypical. For example, in the binary pair actor-actress, the former term is unmarked, implying neutrality. The latter term is marked, suggesting that it is not the default. I use the terms "non-accented" and "foreign-accented" in this dissertation, but in reality, non-accented English is considered as the standard speech style and commonly referred to as "standard American English." On the other hand, foreign-accented English is regarded as a nonstandard speech style. Applying markedness theory to the binary pair standard-nonstandard speech style, speaking standard American English is considered typical in the United States. In contrast, a nonstandard speech style such as speaking with a foreign accent is considered atypical.

Markedness theory proposes that the binary pairs are hierarchically related rather than semantically equivalent: the marked term is associated with less power and status. The pair actor-actress, for example, demonstrates a hierarchical social order between men and women. The term that refers to men (actor) is unmarked, while the term related to women (actress) is marked, reflecting the reality in which

men possess more power than women. Similarly, the pair standard-nonstandard speech style reveals a hierarchical social order. Speaking nonstandard speech style is likely to be associated with less status and power than speaking standard speech style.

Foreign accents are beyond simply being socially devalued; it is stigmatized (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). Stigma is defined as any characteristic of an individual that is socially denigrated and causes the individual to be perceived as deviant (Goffman, 1963). Foreign accents signal foreignness to listeners (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). Listeners who detect foreignness may engage in avoidance or accommodation in response. Listeners may avoid interacting with the foreign-accented speaker, assuming that communicating with this person will be difficult. Another possible response is overaccommodation to the speaker's speech by engaging in "foreigner talk." Listeners may assume that the foreign-accented speaker will have difficulty understanding their language and intend to help the speaker by using a simplified version of their language, accompanied by exaggerated intonation and loud volume. Both avoidance and overaccommodation are likely to have detrimental consequences to foreign-accented speakers.

Not all foreign accents are stigmatized to the same extent. Accents differ in their prestige (Giles, 1970; Giles & Powesland, 1975; Lindemann, 2005; Mugler, 2002). Literature suggests that foreign accents linked to skin that is not White elicit negative reactions (Lindemann, 2005; Lippi-Green, 1997). The differential power of social groups is reflected in attitudes toward different language varieties (Ryan et al., 1982). Accents associated with dominant social groups are considered more prestigious and thus evaluated more favorably than those associated with less

powerful groups. For example, Giles (1970) studied British's evaluations of various accents in England and found that the Received Pronunciation – an accent associated with the most socially powerful group in England – was evaluated as more prestigious than other British regional accents considered to be associated with working-class individuals. In addition to the British regional accents, Giles also examined the prestige of different ethnic accents in England. He found that Indian-accented English was considered less prestigious than French-accented, German-accented, and North American English. As this research suggests, accents that are thought to be associated with less socially powerful groups are less valued in society.

Numerous studies suggest that Asian accents are stigmatized in the United States (e.g., Cargile, 2000; Goto et al., 2002; Hosoda et al., 2007; Hosoda & Stone-Romero, 2010); Yan & Berliner, 2013). Ryan et al. (1982) provided a theoretical framework that may help explain the stigmatization of Asian accents in the United States. They described the two-dimensional model of the socio-structural factors affecting language attitudes. This model illustrates two primary socio-structural factors affecting language attitudes: standardization and vitality. One distinction among language varieties is based on the extent to which they have been standardized. A language variety is said to be standardized if a set of norms defining correct usage has been codified and accepted within a speech community (Fishman, 1971). The adoption of the codified form of a language variety is promoted by powerful people in society and validated via social institutions such as government, schools, and the mass media. The dominant social group promotes its language

variety as the model required for social advancement. Using a less prestigious language variety reduces opportunities for success in society.

Another critical socio-structural factor affecting language attitudes is vitality. Vitality concerns the degree to which a language variety has visible vitality. If the language variety serves the more numerous and more important functions for the higher number of people, its vitality is greater. Some aspects related to the vitality of a language variety are status, demographic strength, and institutional support (Giles et al., 1977; Giles & Johnson, 1981). Firstly, status refers to the economic, social, political, and sociohistorical power exerted by the speakers of the language variety. Secondly, the vitality of a language variety depends on the number and distribution of its speakers within the speech community. Lastly, if a language variety is used in society-wide or ingroup business transactions, publications, and radio/television (i.e., institutional support), the language variety is considered high in vitality.

This two-dimensional model provides a socio-structural explanation for why Asian accents are stigmatized in the United States. Due to the differential power of Whites and Asians in the United States (Kim, 1999), Asian-accented speech style is not recognized as the standard speech style in the United States. While the speech style primarily associated with Whites is recognized as the standard language variety in the United States and beneficial for social advancement, speaking with an Asian accent promotes biased evaluations and reduces the speakers' opportunities for success in the society. In addition, the Asian-accented speech style does not have visible vitality in the United States. For instance, Asians make up only 5.9% of the United States population, according to the 2021 census data. Moreover, the Asian-

accented speech style is neither primarily used by socially powerful individuals nor employed in influential social events.

According to Ryan et al. (1982), people evaluate language varieties primarily based on the dimensions of status and solidarity (Brown & Gilman 1960; Fishman, 1971; Ryan, 1979). The status dimension comprises intelligence, education, and social class, whereas the solidarity dimension includes friendliness, trustworthiness, and kindness. These evaluative dimensions are related to the two primary socio-structural factors affecting language attitudes described earlier. Standardization, one primary socio-structural factor, is related to status. The distinction of standard-nonstandard primarily reflects the relative social status or power of the groups of speakers. Moreover, factors contributing to vitality – status, demographic strength, and institutional support – also contribute to solidarity.

Several classic linguistic studies (e.g., Cargile et al., 1994; Giles & Powesland, 1975; Giles & Ryan, 1982; Stewart et al., 1985) suggest that the dominant group's language variety (LV1; e.g., standard American English) is evaluated more favorably than the subordinate group's language variety (LV2; e.g., Asian-accented English) in terms of traits related to status, whereas LV2 is evaluated more favorably in terms of traits related to solidarity. However, one relatively recent study (Cavallaro & Chin, 2009) suggests that LV1 may not only be evaluated more positively than LV2 in terms of the status dimension but also in terms of the solidarity dimension. Cavallaro and Chin found that Singaporeans evaluated Singapore Standard English (LV1 in Singapore) as more favorably than Singapore Colloquial English (LV2) both in terms of the status (e.g., intelligent, confident, ambitious) and solidarity (e.g., kind,

friendly) dimensions. Some studies, although they did not examine language attitudes based on the dimensions of status and solidarity, showed that Japanese and Chinese individuals studying English evaluate standard American English as more positively than Japanese-accented and Chinese-accented speech styles (Chiba et al., 1995; Fang, 2016).

Research suggests that people tend to evaluate LV1 more favorably than LV2, at least on status-related characteristics. Therefore, in the United States, both individuals who speak Asian-accented English and those who use different speech styles may evaluate Asian-accented English as less positively than standard American English (which is recognized as the standard language variety) in terms of status-related traits.

As explanatory mechanisms that may explain foreign-accented East Asian leaders' perceived weaker legitimate power, I examined perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals.

Explanatory Mechanisms

Perceived Leadership Prototypicality

According to Rosch's (1978) categorization theory, developing a category prototype involves being familiar with which attributes are widely shared among members of a category and which attributes are uncommon among members of a category. Leadership categorization theory (Lord et al., 1982; Lord et al., 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991) was developed based on categorization theory. Leadership

categorization theory proposes that a person implicitly compares how well a target matches one's cognitive summary of the most common features of the category leader (i.e., leader prototype). This comparison process can lead to a match or mismatch between the target's characteristics and the characteristics common to the person's leader prototype. When a match occurs, the target is categorized as a leader. With a mismatch, the target is not categorized as a leader.

Within a given culture, people tend to generally agree on what are the most common characteristics of the category leader (Lord et al., 1982; Lord et al., 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991). In other words, they will have similar leader prototypes. For instance, a central attribute of the leader prototype in the United States is being White (Rosette et al., 2008). Because leadership positions in the United States, both in business and politics, are primarily held by White individuals (see Rosette et al., 2008), many people in this society are familiar with seeing White individuals as leaders and relatively less familiar with seeing people of color as leaders. Because a prototype represents a central characteristic of the members of a category (Rosch, 1978; Smith & Medin, 1981), Rosette and colleagues (2008) explored whether being White was a major attribute of leadership. They specifically examined the business leader prototype and found that being White was central to the business leader category, to the extent that White individuals were perceived as more prototypical leaders than people of color regardless of the type of industry. While a significant number of people of color hold leadership positions in the social services industries compared to the financial services industries, White individuals were more likely to be viewed as leaders in both social services and financial services industries.

East Asians (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, Koreans) deviate from the leader prototype in the United States in that they are not White (Rosette et al., 2008). When East Asians do not use a speech style that is recognized as the standard in the United States and instead speak with a stigmatized foreign accent, they may be perceived as further deviating from the leader prototype than non-accented East Asians. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders may be perceived as having less legitimate right to influence others than other leaders (e.g., non-accented East Asian and White leaders) because they align less closely with the leader prototype that is widely shared within American culture.

Perceived Leader Effectiveness

East Asians may be described as intelligent and hardworking, but they are not viewed as successful leaders. The stereotypes about East Asians are complicated; they are seen as intelligent but lacking traits considered crucial for effective leadership (Mouton et al., 2020). For example, East Asians are viewed as not having sociability (Burris et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2005; Zhang, 2015) and communication skills (Zhang, 2015), which are characteristics considered essential for leaders (Mouton et al., 2020). Although East Asians are often associated with "positive" stereotypes, they are also associated with negative stereotypes that are considered undesirable if possessed by leaders.

Research suggests that foreign-accented individuals may be perceived as professionally incompetent. Subtirelu (2015) examined students' evaluations of foreign-accented Asian instructors on the website named Rate My Professors. Many students used exaggerated expressions when evaluating these instructors (e.g., "She

cannot speak English," "Did not understand a single word he said"; p. 52). Foreign-accented Asian instructors' competence was denied, although they held professional leadership positions such as college professors. In addition, foreign-accented individuals may be perceived as having less political skills than individuals without foreign accents. Political skill refers to the ability to effectively understand other people and to use this information to influence them to accomplish their own or an organization's goals (Ferris et al., 2005), and it is regarded as a vital characteristic for a leader to possess to be effective in the United States (e.g., Gentry et al., 2012; Piven, 2008; Semadar et al., 2006). Huang et al. (2013) compared native and nonnative speakers and found that nonnative speakers were evaluated as less suitable for managerial positions than native speakers due to their perceived lack of political skills. This bias was not explained by race or communication skill. There is a strong correlation between being a nonnative speaker and speaking with a foreign accent (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Jun & Oh, 2000). Therefore, foreign-accented individuals may be perceived as having poorer political skills than non-accented individuals.

According to Shuck (2006), stereotypical traits are ascribed to native and nonnative English speakers. Native speakers tend to be described as typical, perfectly comprehensible, and not responsible for communicating effectively with nonnative speakers. Nonnative speakers, in contrast, are often described as atypical, incomprehensible, and entirely responsible for any failure in communication with native speakers. A foreign accent is distinct from language competence (i.e., how well one knows the language), but foreign-accented speakers are frequently assumed as nonnative speakers and be evaluated based on stereotypical traits associated with

nonnative speakers (Derwing & Munro, 1997). Thus, foreign-accented East Asian leaders may be evaluated as less effective leaders who lack capabilities necessary for successful leadership.

Because foreign-accented East Asian leaders are associated with multiple characteristics that are negatively related to leader effectiveness, they may be viewed as not having much legitimate power to lead others.

Perceived Assertiveness

Assertiveness, which refers to the "tendency to actively defend, pursue, and speak out for his or her own interests" (Ames & Flynn, 2007, p. 1), is one characteristic that is considered vital for a leader to possess in American culture (Rosette et al., 2008; Sy et al., 2010). Lu et al. (2020) compared East Asians and South Asians (e.g., Bangladeshis, Indians, Pakistanis), the two largest Asian subgroups in the United States, and demonstrated that they differ in the degree to which they are viewed as leaders. They found that East Asians were evaluated as less suitable for leadership positions than South Asians due to their perceived lower assertiveness. In other words, East Asians were rated as less appropriate for leadership positions because they were perceived as less assertive.

This finding suggests that East Asians with a foreign accent may perceived as even less assertive than East Asians without a foreign accent. Foreign-accented East Asians' accents may magnify the negative perceptions inferred from their race. Assertiveness refers to the tendency to stand up and speak out for one's interests and concerns when appropriate. Speaking with a foreign accent is commonly perceived as language inadequacy, although it is differentiated from language competence

(Derwing & Munro, 1997; Fitch & Morgan, 2003). Thus, foreign-accented East Asians may be perceived as not speaking English fluently, affecting their perceived assertiveness. As a result of lacking a trait regarded as an essential trait for a leader to have, foreign-accented East Asian leaders may be perceived as lacking the legitimate power to influence others compared to other leaders.

Perceived Fostering Acceptance of Group Goals

Another characteristic that is considered essential for a leader to possess is the ability to foster followers to cooperate toward a group goal (i.e., fostering acceptance of group goals). Fostering acceptance of group goals is one dimension of transformational leadership (Podsakoff et al., 1990; Yukl, 1999), defined as "behavior on the part of the leader aimed at promoting cooperation among employees and getting them to work together toward a common goal" (Podsakoff et al., 1990, p. 112). This leader behavior, encouraging followers to cooperate as a group and helping them achieve a collective goal, is considered crucial for successful leadership (Callow et al., 2009; Pillai & Williams, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 1997). Among multiple dimensions of transformational leader behavior, I focus on the dimension of fostering acceptance of group goals, as it contrasts with assertiveness, which involves speaking out for one's interests and concerns.

Research suggests that foreign-accented individuals may be rated as having poorer political skills compared to non-accented individuals (Huang et al., 2013). Political skills and transformational leader behavior are related (Ewen et al., 2013), which imply that foreign-accented East Asian leaders may be seen as relatively poor at encouraging employees to cooperate for a group goal. If foreign-accented East

Asian leaders are evaluated as lacking this trait, they may be evaluated as not having much legitimate power to lead others.

Legitimate Power and Leader Outcomes

Literature on followership suggests that when followers view a leader as not having legitimate power, the leader may have difficulty constructing leadership. Without followers, there is no leader (Carsten et al., 2010; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Two major approaches to study followership – role-based and constructionist approaches (Uhl-Bien et al., 2014) – both propose that leadership is hardly constructed when followers do not recognize the legitimacy of a leader's leading attempt. Role-based views of followership, which examine followers in a hierarchical context (e.g., "subordinate" in a manager-subordinate relationship), describe followers as those who influence leader attitudes, behaviors, and outcomes (Collinson, 2006; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Lord & Brown, 2004; Shamir, 2007). On the other hand, constructionist followership approaches propose that leadership and followership are co-constructed in relational interactions of individuals engaged in leading and following (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Fairhurst & Grant, 2010; Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012). For example, DeRue and Ashford's (2010) pointed out that without behaviors associated with granting a leader identity to another and claiming a follower identity for oneself (i.e., following), leadership is not constructed.

Both role-based and constructionist approaches suggest that leadership is hardly constructed when followers do not recognize the legitimacy of a leader's leading attempt. When followers perceive a leader's influence attempt as not

legitimate, the leader is expected to face numerous negative outcomes. For example, the leader may have difficulty strongly identifying as a leader (i.e., leader identity strength; Miscenko et al., 2017). Just because someone holds a managerial position does not mean that this person will view oneself as a leader. Moreover, when followers do not perceive the leader as triggering the "feeling of oughtness" (French & Raven, p. 264) and do not acknowledge them as legitimate in influencing others, it may be difficult for the leader to be confident in their ability to lead others (i.e., leadership self-efficacy; Paglis, 2010, Paglis & Green, 2002).

As a result of receiving less acknowledgment as a legitimate leader from their followers, foreign-accented East Asian leaders may have less favorable leader outcomes than other leaders (e.g., non-accented East Asian leaders). When followers perceive a leader as having no legitimate power to influence them, they may show less respect towards the leader. On the other hand, if followers acknowledge the legitimacy of a leader's leading attempt, they are likely to treat the leader with respect. Because followers are expected to perceive foreign-accented East Asian leaders as having weaker legitimate power than non-accented East Asian leaders, they may show less respect towards the former than the latter. Due to receiving less respect from their followers, foreign-accented East Asian leaders are likely to have less favorable leader outcomes than non-accented East Asian leaders. For instance, foreign-accented East Asian leaders may have difficulty identifying themselves as a leader (i.e., leader identity strength) and being confident in their ability to lead others (i.e., leadership self-efficacy).

Overview

This dissertation examined foreign-accented East Asians' leadership through two studies. In Study 1, I investigated whether a foreign-accented East Asian leader would be perceived as having weaker legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader. I studied perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals as mediators. I hypothesized that a foreign-accented East Asian leader would be perceived as having weaker legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader. In addition, I predicted that a foreign-accented East Asian leader's perceived weaker legitimate power would be explained by their lower perceived leadership prototypicality, perceived leader effectiveness, perceived assertiveness, and perceived fostering acceptance of group goals.

In Study 2, I examined whether East Asian leaders with a foreign accent would be less respected by their followers than those without a foreign accent and White leaders with and without a foreign accent. Moreover, I investigated whether receiving respect from followers affects leaders' leader outcomes, focusing on leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy. Literature suggests that European English accents are not as stigmatized as the accents associated with non-White skin (Lindemann, 2005; Lippi-Green, 1997). By including foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders in Study 2, I aimed to explore the interaction between race and accent. Furthermore, I added assertiveness and fostering acceptance of group goals as moderators to explore whether these two traits (considered crucial for

effective leadership and more controllable than a foreign accent) could help foreign-accented East Asian leaders receive more respectful treatment from followers.

Chapter 2: Study 1

Hypotheses

In Study 1, I examined whether an East Asian leader with a foreign accent would be perceived as having less legitimate power than the one without an accent. I studied this research question using the matched-guise technique (Lambert et al., 1960), which involves recording the same person speaking in different speech styles and comparing evaluative reactions toward the matched guises. I chose this technique as it allows researchers to measure language attitudes with the minimal influence of social desirability bias (Carey & Fernández-Mallat, 2017). Participants watched one of the two videos featuring the same person, who was introduced as holding a managerial position in one company. This person spoke standard American English in one video and foreign-accented English in another video. I investigated whether participants who watched the video of the person with a foreign accent would be less likely to acknowledge the legitimacy of the person's leading attempt than participants who watched the video of the person without a foreign accent.

One basis for legitimate power is cultural values (French & Raven, 1959). Speaking with a foreign accent is a highly devalued characteristic (e.g., Derwing & Munro, 2009; Shuck, 2006; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). I predicted that when participants watch a video of a person speaking in foreign-accented English, they may notice that this person possesses a characteristic not valued in American society. Thus, I hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 1. A foreign-accented East Asian leader will be perceived as having less legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader.

Moreover, I investigated whether perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals would explain why a foreign-accented East Asian leader is perceived as having less legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader. Speaking with a foreign accent is a non-prototypical characteristic of leaders in the United States. Perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, and leader ability are intimately related (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lord & Maher, 1991; Rosette et al., 2008). Thus, a leader who speaks with a foreign accent may be perceived as less effective and less competent than the one without a foreign accent. Furthermore, research suggests that a foreign-accented leader may be regarded as lacking traits that are considered crucial for effective leadership, such as assertiveness and fostering acceptance of group goals (Ewen et al., 2013; Huang et al., 2013; Rosette et al., 2008; Sy et al., 2010). Therefore, I hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 2. Perceived leadership prototypicality will mediate the relationship between having a foreign accent and perceived legitimate power.

Hypothesis 3. Perceived leader effectiveness will mediate the relationship between having a foreign accent and perceived legitimate power.

Hypothesis 4. Perceived leader ability will mediate the relationship between having a foreign accent and perceived legitimate power.

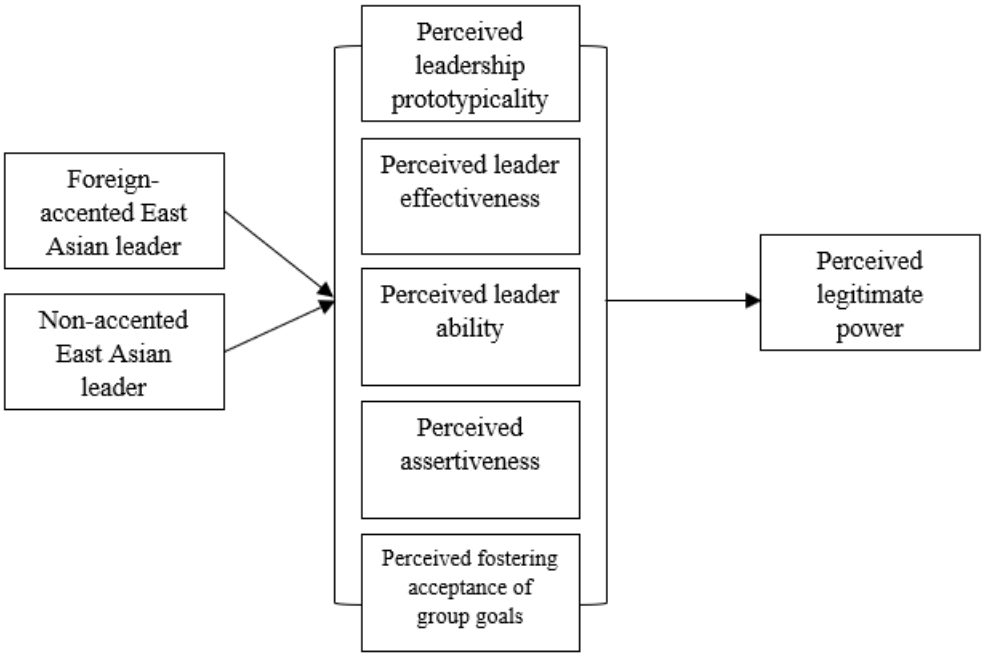
Hypothesis 5. Perceived assertiveness will mediate the relationship between having a foreign accent and perceived legitimate power.

Hypothesis 6. Perceived fostering acceptance of group goals will mediate the relationship between having a foreign accent and perceived legitimate power.

For the visualization of the Study 1 model, see Figure 1.

Figure 1

Study 1 Model



Method

Participants and Procedure

Individuals over the age of 18, full-time employees, and working in the United States (N = 150) were recruited from CloudResearch. Participants ranged from 23 to 71 years of age, with a mean age of 41.77 (SD = 10.97). On average, participants had worked as full-time employees for 19.36 years (SD = 11.62). The sample consisted of 57.3% men and 42.0% women (one participant refused to disclose their gender). In addition, the sample consisted of 69.3% White (non-Hispanic), 9.3% Black, 6.7%

East Asian, 5.4% multiracial, 5.3% Hispanic/Latinx, 3.3% Asian (but neither East Asian nor South Asian), and .7% Native American participants.

The majority of participants (98.7%) had English as their first language, and two participants (1.3%) had a different language as their first language (Chinese, Spanish). Most participants (97.3%) were born in the United States, and four participants (2.7%) were born in a different country (China, Italy, Philippines, Vietnam). Similarly, most participants (98.7%) were primarily raised in the United States, and a small number of participants (two participants; 1.3%) were primarily raised in a different country (Belgium, China). All participants were citizens of the United States.

Participants completed the study online. The study was introduced as the "Evaluation of Manager's Effectiveness" study. Participants first watched a video of a man who was presented as someone holding a managerial position in one company. They were instructed to watch the video with sound and were told that they would be asked questions about the video later on in the study. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. In the no accent condition, participants read the profile of the man that included the information that he was from the United States ("Place of Birth: Irvine, California") and watched the video of him speaking in English without an accent. In the foreign accent condition, participants read the profile that contained the information that the man was from a foreign country ("Place of Birth: Seoul, South Korea") and watched the video of him speaking in foreign-accented English.

After watching the video, participants in both conditions responded to the following measures: Perceived leadership prototypicality, Perceived leader effectiveness, Perceived assertiveness, Perceived fostering acceptance of group goals, and Perceived legitimate power. When responding to these measures, participants were instructed to imagine the man in the video as their supervisor and respond to the questions based on their evaluation of him as a manager. The survey took about 10 minutes to complete. Participants were compensated with $1 upon completion of the study.

Materials

Because guises need to be produced by bilingual individuals who are capable of creating authentic depictions of different speech styles (Carey & Fernández-Mallat, 2017; Lambert et al., 1965), I recruited a Korean-American man in his 40s to record the videos, whose first language is English but also fluent in Korean. This actor read the same script in both videos. The script, which was created based on one of the scripts in Smallfield et al. (2020), was about a leader giving positive feedback to a follower about the team's performance. Both videos were about 30 seconds long. The script used in the videos is in Appendix A.

In the no accent video, he spoke in standard American English. In the foreign accent video, he spoke in Korean-accented English. His English resembled the intonational pattern of Korean, but not to the extent he was incomprehensible to a native English speaker. In both videos, I recorded a side view of the actor wearing a

suit with an office background. The actor acted as if he was talking to someone in front of him. See Appendix B for the screenshot of the video.

The video was accompanied by a short profile of the man, which was made up for the study. The purpose of presenting the man's profile was to suggest that (a) he was from the United States (in the no accent condition) or a foreign country (in the foreign accent condition) and (b) working in the United States. Other pieces of information (e.g., age, job title) were included as filler items. I created a profile for each condition. Two profiles were identical except for "Place of Birth." In the no accent condition, the man was described as being born in Irvine, California. In the foreign accent condition, he was illustrated as being born in Seoul, South Korea. Please see Appendix C to read the profiles.

Measures

Perceived leadership prototypicality. Perceived leadership prototypicality was measured via the 5-item scale that assesses the degree to which a person is perceived to match the leader prototype (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987; Tskhay et al., 2017) on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Extremely). The scale was modified to fit this study (Appendix D). Sample items include "To what degree does he fit your image of what a leader should be?" and "To what extent do you think he is typical of a leader?" Responses to the five items in this scale were averaged to represent the perceived leadership prototypicality of the leader in the video (α = .94).

Perceived leader ability. The 6-item scale by Mayer and Davis (1999) was used to evaluate perceived leader ability on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly

disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). The scale was adapted to fit this study (Appendix E). Sample items include “This manager seems very capable of performing his job” and “This manager seems to have specialized capabilities that can increase the group's performance.” Responses to the ten items were averaged to indicate the perceived leader ability of the leader in the video (α = .96).

Perceived leader effectiveness. The 4-item scale by Wang et al. (2018) was used to measure perceived leader effectiveness on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). The scale was edited to fit this study (e.g., “This person deserves the position of manager”; Appendix F). Responses to the ten items were averaged to indicate the perceived effectiveness of the leader in the video (α = .96).

Perceived assertiveness. Perceived assertiveness was measured via the 3-item scale (Wallen et al., 2017; e.g., “He seems like he would speak up and share his views when it is appropriate”) on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). The scale was adapted to fit this study. The full listing of scale items is included in Appendix G. Responses to the three items were averaged to indicate the perceived assertiveness of the leader in the video (α = .87).

Perceived fostering acceptance of group goals. Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals, the 4-item subscale included in the scale developed to assess transformational leader behaviors (Podsakoff et al., 1990), was adapted to measure perceived fostering acceptance of group goals. The items were measured on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Not at all descriptive) to 6 (Very descriptive). Sample items are “He seems like he would foster collaboration among work groups” and “He seems

like he would get the group to work together for the same goal." See Appendix H for the full list of items. Responses to the four items were averaged to represent the perceived fostering acceptance of group goals of the leader in the video (α = .93).

Perceived legitimate power. Perceived legitimate power was measured using the 4-item subscale (Legitimate Power) in the scale Hinkin and Schriesheim (1989) developed to measure the bases of social power (French & Raven, 1959). This subscale was modified to fit this study and was measured on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). Sample items include "He would give me the feeling that I have responsibilities to fulfill" and "He would make me recognize that I have tasks to accomplish." Full items are in Appendix I. Responses to the four items were averaged to indicate the perceived legitimate power of the leader in the video (α = .95).

Results

Factor Analysis

I conducted a factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation to investigate if the mediators are distinct or are measuring a single latent construct. I added the dependent variable – perceived legitimate power – to this factor analysis in order to examine if this dependent variable is distinct from the mediators. Initially, the factorability of the 26 items was examined. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .96, above the commonly recommended value of .6. Moreover, Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, χ^2

(325) = 4938.90, $p < .001$. The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were also all over .5. Furthermore, the communalities were all above the minimum recommended value of .20 (see Table 1), further confirming that each item shared some common variance with other items (Child, 2006; Costello & Osborne, 2005). Given these overall indicators, factor analysis was deemed suitable with all 26 items.

Table 1

Factor loadings and communalities based on maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation for 26 items that measure perceived leadership prototypicality, perceived leader ability, perceived leader effectiveness, perceived assertiveness, perceived fostering acceptance of group goals, and perceived legitimate power

	Factor loading					
	Effective	Legitimate	Fostering	Assertive	Prototypical	Communality
Prototypical #1	.14	-.05	-.08	.16	.79	.87
Prototypical #2	.01	.10	.03	-.01	.84	.88
Prototypical #3	.22	-.12	-.06	.21	.53	.56
Prototypical #4	.01	.00	.23	-.03	.75	.83
Prototypical #5	.45	.00	.18	-.08	.39	.81
Ability #1	.50	.14	-.04	-.01	.38	.83
Ability #2	.57	.11	.17	-.02	.11	.77
Ability #3	.55	.27	.01	-.06	.14	.72
Ability #4	.85	-.08	-.08	.22	.06	.88
Ability #5	.91	.03	-.01	.08	-.15	.73
Ability #6	.64	.15	.06	.00	.12	.82
Effective #1	.96	-.11	.03	.03	.01	.87
Effective #2	.82	.13	.13	-.17	.01	.86
Effective #3	.92	-.02	.04	.08	-.07	.88
Effective #4	.52	.13	.13	.00	.22	.83
Assertive #1	.06	.08	.15	.74	-.06	.78
Assertive #2	.04	-.05	.32	.64	-.05	.67
Assertive #3	.00	.13	-.22	.76	.18	.71
Fostering #1	-.11	.25	.78	-.04	.00	.73
Fostering #2	.16	.03	.81	-.04	-.05	.82
Fostering #3	.20	-.16	.70	.13	.07	.80
Fostering #4	.06	.06	.66	.08	.11	.78
Legitimate #1	.12	.77	-.09	.13	.03	.81
Legitimate #2	.15	.72	.11	-.05	.00	.79
Legitimate #3	-.05	.99	.07	-.01	-.07	.90
Legitimate #4	-.09	.90	.02	.12	.02	.86

Note. N = 150. Prototypical = Perceived leadership prototypicality; Ability = Perceived leader ability; Effective = Perceived leader effectiveness; Assertive = Perceived assertiveness; Fostering = Perceived fostering acceptance of group goals; Legitimate = Perceived legitimate power.

A five-factor solution (Table 1) was selected because it was interpretable and had a "cleaner" factor structure than other factor solutions (i.e., item loadings at least .32, no or few item crossloadings, no factors with fewer than three items; Costello & Osborne, 2005). Perceived leadership prototypicality loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .39), accounting for 2.17% of the variance. Perceived leader ability and perceived leader effectiveness loaded highly on one factor (factor loadings above .50), accounting for 67.18% of the variance. In addition, perceived assertiveness loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .64), accounting for 2.37% of the variance. Furthermore, perceived fostering acceptance of group goals loaded highly on one factor (factor loadings above .66), accounting for 3.41% of the variance. Lastly, perceived legitimate power loaded highly on one factor (factor loadings above .72), accounting for 4.84% of the variance.

Prototypical #5 ("To what extent would you be willing to choose him as the leader of your work group?") crossloaded on two factors (Perceived leadership prototypicality and Perceived leader effectiveness). I decided to include this item in Perceived leadership prototypicality because this item measures how well a person matches the leader prototype, instead of straightforwardly evaluating one's effectiveness as a leader. Moreover, Ability #1 ("This manager seems very capable of performing his job.") crossloaded on two factors (Perceived leader effectiveness and Perceived leadership prototypicality). I included this item in Perceived leader effectiveness because this item asks directly about a person's competence as a leader.

Based on the results from the factor analysis, I ran the mediation analysis. In this mediation analysis, the independent variable was foreign-accented speech; mediators were perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals; and the dependent variable was perceived legitimate power.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics for perceived leadership prototypicality, perceived leader effectiveness, perceived assertiveness, perceived fostering acceptance of group goals, and perceived legitimate power

Variables		1	2	3	4	5	Range	*M (SD)*	*M (SD)*		α
									Accented	Non-accented	
1	Perceived leadership prototypicality	–	.89**	.71**	.77**	.71**	1-5	3.81 (.98)	3.43 (1.08)	4.16 (.71)	.94
2	Perceived leader effectiveness	.89**	–	.71**	.82**	.76**	1-6	4.79 (1.02)	4.42 (1.12)	5.13 (.77)	.98
3	Perceived assertiveness	.71**	.71**	–	.62**	.59**	1-6	4.52 (.98)	4.34 (1.07)	4.70 (.85)	.87
4	Perceived fostering acceptance of group goals	.77**	.82**	.62**	–	.72**	1-6	5.03 (.89)	4.77 (.99)	5.27 (.72)	.93
5	Perceived legitimate power	.71**	.76**	.59**	.72**	–	1-6	4.79 (.93)	4.60 (.99)	4.97 (.84)	.95

Note. $N = 150$.

** $p < .01$.

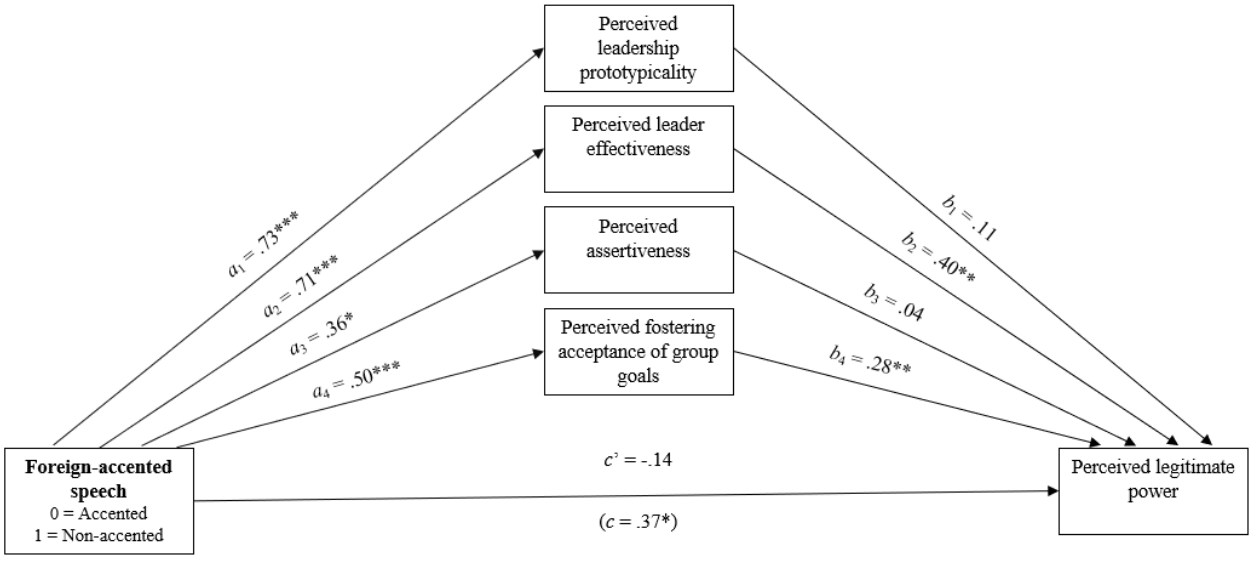
Testing the Mediation Model

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are displayed in Table 2. The research model was tested using Model 4 of the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2021). The direct effect of foreign-accented speech on perceived legitimate power, controlling for the effect of mediators, was estimated with *c'*. The indirect effects were estimated

with *a* (the effect of foreign-accented speech on mediators) and *b* (the effect of mediators on perceived legitimate power). The total effects (path *c*) consisted of the direct and indirect effects. Figure 2 shows the values of *B*-coefficients for *a*, *b*, *c*, and *c*' paths in the analyzed links.

Figure 2

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting perceived legitimate power



Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

Mediation analysis found that the effect of foreign-accented speech on perceived legitimate power, not including the mediators, was significant, total effect = .37, SE = .15, p = .01, 95% CI [.08, .67] (Hypothesis 1 supported). When controlling for the effect of mediators, foreign-accented speech was not related to perceived legitimate power, direct effect = -.14, SE = .10, p = .17, 95% CI [-.35, .06]. Foreign-accented speech was significantly related to all mediators: (a) perceived leadership prototypicality, b = .73, $t(148)$ = 4.89, p < .001; (b) perceived leader effectiveness, *b*

= .71, $t(148) = 4.52$, $p < .001$; (c) perceived assertiveness, $b = .36$, $t(148) = 2.31$, $p = .02$; and (d) perceived fostering acceptance of group goals, $b = .50$, $t(148) = 3.57$, $p = .001$.

As per Figure 2 (path *b*), perceived leader effectiveness and perceived fostering acceptance of group goals were significantly related to perceived legitimate power after controlling for the effect of foreign-accented speech: (a) perceived leader effectiveness, $b = .40$, $t(144) = 3.32$, $p = .001$, (b) perceived fostering acceptance of group goals, $b = .28$, $t(144) = 2.94$, $p = .004$. However, perceived leadership prototypicality and perceived assertiveness were not related to perceived legitimate power after controlling for the effect of foreign-accented speech (Hypotheses 2 and 5 not supported): (a) perceived leadership prototypicality, $b = .11$, $t(144) = .98$, $p = .33$; (b) perceived assertiveness, $b = .04$, $t(144) = .58$, $p = .57$.

A 95% bias-corrected confidence interval based on 10,000 bootstrap samples indicated that the indirect effect through perceived leader effectiveness was significant (Hypothesis 3 supported): indirect effect = .28, SE = .12, 95% CI [.07, .56]. Furthermore, the indirect effect through perceived fostering acceptance of group goals was also significant (Hypothesis 6 supported): indirect effect = .14, SE = .06, 95% CI [.03, .27].

Discussion

Perceived leader effectiveness and perceived fostering acceptance of group goals significantly mediated the relationship between foreign-accented speech and perceived legitimate power (Hypotheses 3, 6 supported). Participants viewed a foreign-accented East Asian leader (vs. a non-accented East Asian leader) as having

less authority to influence others because they perceived him as a less effective leader. Moreover, participants perceived a foreign-accented East Asian leader as having less legitimate power because they viewed him as relatively poor at getting employees to cooperate for a collective goal.

Speaking with a foreign accent is not a prototypical characteristic of a leader in the United States. If people living in the United States were asked to name a common characteristic of a leader in American society, very few of them would name "speaking with a foreign accent." Not only it is a non-prototypical characteristic of a leader, but it is also a highly devalued characteristic that is associated with negative evaluations (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010; Derwing & Munro, 2009; Subtirelu, 2015). Not all foreign accents are stigmatized to the same degree (Giles, 1970; Giles & Powesland, 1975; Lindemann, 2005; Mugler, 2002). Among various foreign accents, Asian accents are some of the most stigmatized foreign accents in the United States (Goto et al., 2002; Hosoda et al., 2007; Hosoda et al., 2009; Yan & Berliner, 2013).

Research suggests that East Asians are not perceived to exhibit behaviors or have capabilities that are necessary for successful leadership. Literature suggests that East Asians are not perceived as prototypical leaders in American society (Cheryan & Monin, 2005; Liang et al., 2004; Rosette et al., 2008). In addition, East Asians are stereotyped as lacking characteristics that are critical for leadership positions (Burris et al., 2013; Lin et al., 2005; Mouton et al., 2020; Zhang, 2015). Study 1 demonstrated that an East Asian leader with a stigmatized Asian accent was perceived as less effective than the one without an accent. Due to a perceived lower leader effectiveness, an East Asian leader with a foreign accent was regarded as having less

legitimate power to influence others than the one without a foreign accent. Although the East Asian leader in the video was introduced as a senior manager, holding the position of a leader was not sufficient to trigger the perception that he has the authority to influence others. Because a foreign-accented East Asian leader was regarded as lacking effectiveness, he was not perceived as having much power to influence others despite holding a leadership position.

Research on Asian leadership has primarily focused on race, but Study 1 results illustrate that foreign-accented speech has a powerful influence on the way leaders are perceived. While the leader in both conditions was the same East Asian man, he was perceived differently depending on whether he spoke with a foreign accent or not. Therefore, when examining Asian leadership or leadership in general, a leader's speech style should be considered. Because the number of foreign-accented leaders in the American workplace is expected to grow (Ruiz, 2017b), it is crucial to consider speech style when examining leadership.

Chapter 3: Study 2

Hypotheses

In Study 2, I compared four groups in terms of the amount of respect they receive from their followers: (a) foreign-accented East Asian leaders, (b) non-accented East Asian leaders, (c) foreign-accented White leaders, and (d) non-accented White leaders. Literature suggests that when followers acknowledge the legitimacy of a leader's leading attempt, they show respect to the leader (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Uhl-bien et al., 2013). Because speaking with a foreign accent is a socially denigrated characteristic (Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010), leaders with a foreign accent may receive less respect than those without a foreign accent. Because accents associated with non-White skin are more stigmatized than the ones related to White groups (Lindemann, 2005; Lippi-Green, 1997), leaders who have a foreign accent associated with non-White groups may be less respected by their followers than leaders with an accent associated with White groups. Furthermore, because being White is a central characteristic of the leader prototype in the United States (Rosette et al., 2008), non-White leaders may be less respected than White leaders.

I measured perceived respect via perceived professional respect (i.e., respect that stems from assessments of one's competence; Liden & Maslyn, 1998), perceived workplace respect (i.e., overall perceptions of respect from followers; Smith & Tyler, 1997; Ng, 2016), and experienced workplace incivility (i.e., disrespectful or rude behaviors from followers; Andersson & Pearson, 1999). I conceptualized perceived

respect from followers as receiving more professional/workplace respect and experiencing less workplace incivility from followers. I hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 6-a. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders will perceive less professional/ workplace respect from followers than (a) non-accented East Asian leaders, (b) foreign-accented White leaders, and (c) non-accented White leaders.

Hypothesis 6-b. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders will experience more workplace incivility from followers than (a) non-accented East Asian leaders, (b) foreign-accented White leaders, and (c) non-accented White leaders.

Hypothesis 7-a. Non-accented East Asian leaders will perceive less professional/workplace respect from followers than non-accented White leaders.

Hypothesis 7-b. Non-accented East Asian leaders will experience more workplace incivility from followers than non-accented White leaders.

Hypothesis 8-a. Foreign-accented White leaders will perceive less professional/workplace respect from followers than non-accented White leaders.

Hypothesis 8-b. Foreign-accented White leaders will experience more workplace incivility from followers than non-accented White leaders.

If followers do not respect the leader, the leader is likely to have negative outcomes (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012; Uhl-bien et al., 2014). In this dissertation, I specifically examined leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy as leader outcomes. Without the respect from followers, it

may be difficult for the leader to think of oneself as a leader. Moreover, the leader may have difficulty believing that they can successfully influence their followers. Hence, I hypothesized that:

Hypothesis 9-a. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders will have a weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than (a) non-accented East Asian leaders, (b) foreign-accented White leaders, and (c) non-accented White leaders, and this will be explained by perceiving less professional/workplace respect from followers.

Hypothesis 9-b. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders will have a weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than (a) non-accented East Asian leaders, (b) foreign-accented White leaders, and (c) non-accented White leaders, and this will be explained by experiencing more workplace incivility from followers.

Hypothesis 10-a. Non-accented East Asian leaders will have a weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than non-accented White leaders, and this will be explained by perceiving less professional/workplace respect from followers.

Hypothesis 10-b. Non-accented East Asian leaders will have a weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than non-accented White leaders, and this will be explained by experiencing more workplace incivility from followers.

Hypothesis 11-a. Foreign-accented White leaders will have a weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than non-accented White leaders,

and this will be explained by perceiving less professional/workplace respect from followers.

Hypothesis 11-b. Foreign-accented White leaders will have a weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than non-accented White leaders, and this will be explained by experiencing more workplace incivility from followers.

Not all foreign-accented leaders will receive less respect from followers. Leaders who possess traits that are considered crucial for effective leadership may be respected by their followers, even when they have devalued characteristics such as speaking with a foreign accent. Assertiveness and fostering acceptance of group goals are some of the traits that are considered crucial for successful leadership (Callow et al., 2009; Lu et al., 2020; Pillai & Williams, 2004; Podsakoff et al., 1990; Podsakoff et al., 1997; Yukl, 1999). These variables were investigated as mediators in Study 1. Participants in this study were asked to take the perspective of followers and evaluate the leader based on perceived assertiveness and perceived fostering acceptance of group goals. In Study 2, I examined assertiveness and fostering acceptance of group goals as moderators. I aimed to study whether possessing these traits would help leaders be respected despite having devalued demographic characteristics.

Leaders who are assertive and have the ability to encourage followers to cooperate toward a collective goal may be respected from followers even if they are non-White and/or speak with a foreign accent. Therefore, I predicted that:

Hypothesis 12-a. Assertiveness will moderate the relationship between leader demographics and perceived professional/workplace respect from followers.

Hypothesis 12-b. Assertiveness will moderate the relationship between leader demographics and experienced workplace incivility from followers.

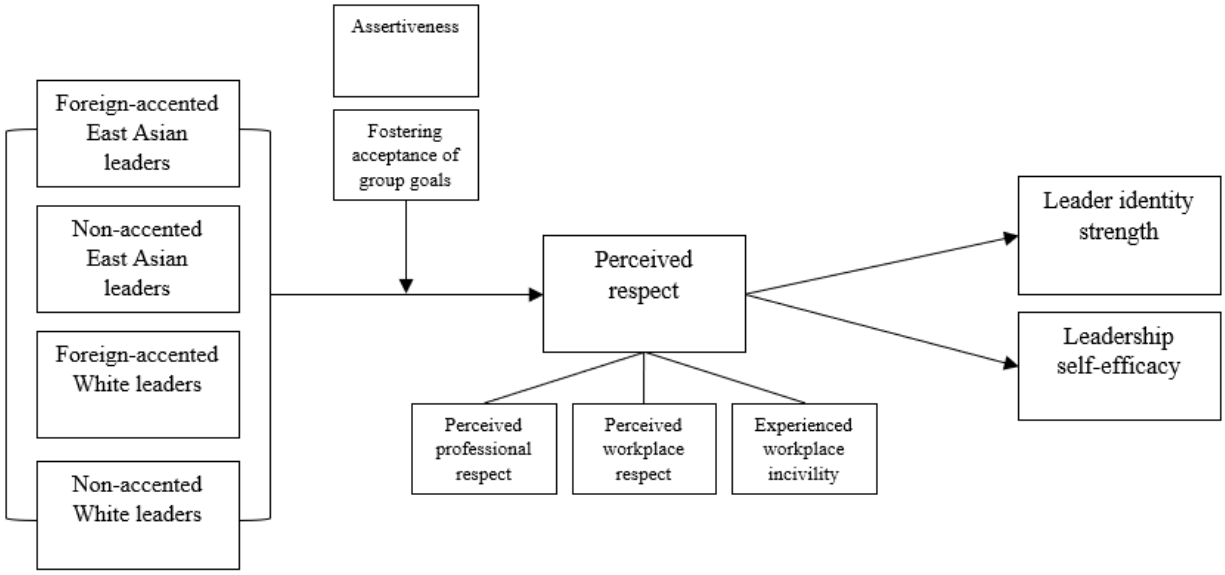
Hypothesis 13-a. Fostering acceptance of group goals will moderate the relationship between leader demographics and perceived professional/workplace respect from followers.

Hypothesis 13-b. Fostering acceptance of group goals will moderate the relationship between leader demographics and experienced workplace incivility from followers.

In Study 2, I will compare non-accented East Asian leaders and foreign-accented White leaders without setting directional hypotheses because there is not much research on whether being White or speaking standard English is a more central attribute of leadership in American culture. See Figure 3 for the visualization of the Study 2 model.

Figure 3

Study 2 Model



Method

Participants

Participants (N = 212) were recruited mostly from Prolific, except for some participants recruited from CloudResearch (details on collection sites in following sections): Foreign-accented East Asian leaders (n = 50), Non-accented East Asian leaders (n = 52), Foreign-accented White leaders (n = 55), and Non-accented White leaders (n = 55). In all four groups, participants had to be over the age of 18 and hold a supervisory position at work in the United States. Each group had specific eligibility requirements, which are described below.

Foreign-accented East Asian leaders

Regarding the foreign-accented East Asian leader group (n = 50), I recruited participants who (a) identify as East Asian (i.e., Chinese, Japanese, or Korean), (b) have Chinese, Japanese, or Korean as first language and not have English as first language, and (c) speak English with a foreign accent. Due to difficulty in recruiting a sufficient number of participants who meet these criteria on Prolific, 17 participants were recruited from Prolific and 33 participants were recruited from CloudResearch. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders recruited for this study had a mean age of 38.04 (SD = 9.70). On average, they had held a supervisory position for 4.21 years (SD = 4.53). Except for one participant who indicated that they communicate in Korean with their subordinates, all participants stated that they communicate in English with their subordinates.

On a 5-point scale ranging from “Very high” to “Very low,” 16% of participants indicated their English proficiency is very high, 62% had high, and 22%

had intermediate English proficiency. The majority of participants (72%) had Chinese as their first language, 22% of participants had Korean as their first language, and 6% had Japanese as their first language. Additionally, 14% of participants indicated they have a strong accent when speaking in English, 46% stated they have a moderate accent, and 40% stated they have a slight accent.

The majority of participants (90%) were not born in the United States, and 10% of participants were born in the United States. Among participants who were not born in the United States, 54% were born in China, 20% in Korea (Some participants used the term Korea and some used the term South Korea), 6% in Japan, 4% in Hong Kong, and 4% in Taiwan. More than half of participants (62%) were not primarily raised in the United States, and 32% were primarily raised in the United States. Among participants who were not primarily raised in the United States, 34% of participants were primarily raised in China, 14% in Korea, 4% in Japan, and each 2% of participants were raised in Canada, Hong Kong, Indonesia, the Philippines, and Taiwan.

The majority of participants (76%) were US citizens, 14% were permanent residents (i.e., green card holders), and 10% were foreign nationals. Among permanent residents, six were citizens of China and one was a Canadian citizen. Among foreign nationals, three were Chinese citizens and two were Korean citizens. The sample consisted of 42% men and 54% women (4% refused to reveal their gender).

Non-accented East Asian leaders

Regarding the non-accented East Asian leader group (n = 52), I recruited participants who (a) identify as East Asian (Chinese, Japanese, or Korean) and (b) have English as first language. All participants were recruited from Prolific. Non-accented East Asian leaders recruited for this study had a mean age of 33.48 (SD = 9.00). On average, they had held a supervisory position for 4.82 years (SD = 4.78). All participants indicated that they communicate in English with their subordinates.

The majority of participants (90.4%) were born in the United States, and 9.6% were not born in the United States (3.8% China, 3.8% Korea, 1.9% Taiwan). Except for one participant who was primarily raised in Taiwan, all participants were primarily raised in the United States. In addition, all participants were US citizens. The sample consisted of 63.6% men and 34.6% women (one participant identified as agender).

Foreign-accented White leaders

Regarding the foreign-accented White leader group (n = 55), I recruited participants who (a) identify as White, (b) have a European language as first language and not have English as first language, and (c) speak English with a foreign accent. Due to difficulty in recruiting a sufficient number of participants who meet these criteria on Prolific, 30 participants were recruited from Prolific and 25 participants were recruited from CloudResearch. Foriegn-accented White leaders recruited for this study had a mean age of 39.84 (SD = 12.47). On average, they had held a supervisory position for 6.26 years (SD = 6.91). Except for one participant who stated that they communicate in Spanish with their subordinates, all participants indicated that they communicate in English with their subordinates.

On a 5-point scale ranging from “Very high” to “Very low,” 54.5% of participants had very high 34.5% had high, 9.1% had intermediate, and 1.8% had low English proficiency. The sample consisted of 43.6% of participants who had Spanish as their first language and 14.5% who had Russian as their language. Additionally, the sample included 7.3% native German speakers, 5.5% native French speakers, 5.5% native Portuguese speakers, 3.6% native Italian speakers, 3.6% native Polish speakers, 3.6% native Romanian speakers, and 3.6% native Turkish speakers. A small number of participants (each 1.8%) had Armenian, Bosnian, Croatian, Greek, and Hungarian as their first language. A small number of participants (1.8%) indicated they have a very strong accent when speaking in English, and 21.8% stated they have a strong accent. In addition, 40.0% stated they have a moderate accent and 36.4% stated they have a slight accent.

The majority of participants (81.8%) were not born in the United States, and 18.2% were born in the United States. Among participants who were not born in the United States, 7.3% were born in Germany, 7.3% in Russia, 5.5% in Spain, 5.5% in Ukraine, 5.5% in Cuba, and 5.5% in Venezuela. The rest of the participants born outside of the United States (63.4%) were born in various countries such as Belgium, Croatia, El Salvador, France, Hungary, Italy, Poland, Portugal, and Romania. Furthermore, 67.3% of participants were not primarily raised in the United States, and 32.7% were primarily raised in the United States. Among participants who were not primarily raised in the United States, 7.3% were primarily raised in Germany, 5.5% in Cuba, 5.5% in Mexico, 5.5% in Russia, and 5.5% in Spain. The rest (70.7%) were

born in various countries such as Brazil, France, Peru, Romania, Ukraine, and Venezuela.

The majority of participants (85.5%) were US citizens and 14.5% were permanent residents. Among permanent residents, two were citizens of Germany and the rest were citizens of Italy, Mexico, Portugal, Spain, Turkey, and Ukraine. The sample consisted of 47.3% men and 52.7% women.

Non-accented White leaders

Lastly, regarding the non-accented White leader group (n = 55), I recruited participants who (a) identify as White and (b) have English as first language. All participants were recruited from Prolific. Non-accented White leaders recruited for this study had a mean age of 39.02 (SD = 11.44). On average, participants had held a supervisory position for 7.18 years (SD = 7.32). All participants stated that they communicate in English with their subordinates. Furthermore, all participants were born and primarily raised in the United States. Additionally, all participants were US citizens. The sample consisted of 45.5% men and 54.5% women.

Procedure

Participants completed the study online. The study was introduced as the "Assessing Relationships with Subordinates" study. Participants responded to the following measures: Perceived professional respect, Perceived workplace respect, Experienced workplace incivility, Assertiveness, Fostering acceptance of group goals, Leader identity strength, and Leadership self-efficacy. The survey took about 15

minutes to complete. Participants were compensated with $2.38 upon completion of the study.

To reduce common method bias, I conducted a follow-up study a week after participants completed the first survey. In this follow-up study, participants responded to the measures that assess leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy. In the Foreign-accented East Asian leader group, 76% of participants (n = 38) took part in the follow-up study. In the Non-accented East Asian leader group, 92.3% of participants (n = 48) participated in the follow-up study. In the Foreign-accented White leader group, 85.5% of participants (n = 47) took part in the follow-up study. Lastly, in the Non-accented White leader group, 87.3% of participants (n = 48) took part in the follow-up study. Those who participated in the follow-up study were compensated with $2.

Measures

Perceived professional respect. The 3-item scale (Liden & Maslyn, 1998) was used to measure perceived professional respect on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). The scale was adapted to fit the study (e.g., "They respect my knowledge of and competence on the job"; Appendix J). Responses to the three items were averaged to indicate the perceived professional respect from followers (a = .84).

Perceived workplace respect. The 7-item scale (Smith & Tyler, 1997; Ng, 2016) was used to measure perceived workplace respect on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). The scale was modified to fit the study (e.g., "My subordinates react well to me and to what I say or do"). The

complete list of items appears in Appendix K. Responses to the seven items were averaged to indicate the perceived workplace respect from followers (a = .90).

Experienced workplace incivility. The 7-item Workplace Incivility Scale (Cortina et al., 2001) was used to measure the frequency of one's experienced workplace incivility from followers. The scale was adapted to fit the survey and was measured on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 (Never) to 5 (Very frequently). Sample items include "Put you down or was condescending to you" and "Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility." For the complete list of items, see Appendix L. Responses to the seven items were averaged to indicate the extent of experienced workplace incivility from followers (a = .85).

Assertiveness. Assertiveness was measured by the 3-item scale (Wallen et al., 2017) on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Not at all descriptive) to 6 (Very descriptive). The full listing of scale items is included in Appendix M (e.g., I speak up and share my views when it is appropriate"). Responses to the three items were averaged to indicate the degree of one's assertiveness (a = .72).

Fostering acceptance of group goals. The 4-item subscale ("Fostering the Acceptance of Group Goals"; Podsakoff et al., 1990) was used to measure one's ability to encourage followers to cooperate toward a collective goal on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Not at all descriptive) to 6 (Very descriptive). The scale was modified to fit the study (Appendix N). Sample items include "I foster collaboration among work groups" and "I get the group to work together for the same goal." Responses to the four items were averaged to indicate the extent to which one fosters the acceptance of group goals among followers (a = .87).

Leader identity strength. Leader identity strength was measured by the 4-item scale (Hiller, 2005) on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). The scale was adapted to fit the study (e.g., "I see myself as a leader"; Appendix O). Responses to the four items were averaged to indicate the extent to which one identifies as a leader (a = .91).

Leadership self-efficacy. The 7-item scale (Hiller, 2005) was used to measure leadership self-efficacy on a 6-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree). Sample items include "I am confident that I can lead others" and "I am confident in my ability to influence a group I lead." The complete list of items appears in Appendix P. Responses to the seven items were averaged to indicate one's self-confidence in leadership (a = .94).

Results

Factor Analysis

I examined the research model only using data from participants who took part in the follow-up study. First, I conducted a factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation to explore if the mediators and moderators are distinct. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .87, above the commonly recommended value of .6. In addition, Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, χ^2 (276) = 2261.59, $p < .001$. The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were also all over .5. Finally, the communalities were higher than the minimum recommended value of .20 (see Table 3), further confirming that each item

shared some common variance with other items (Child, 2006; Costello & Osborne, 2005). Thus, factor analysis was deemed appropriate with all 24 items.

Table 3

Factor loadings and communalities based on maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation for 24 items that measure perceived professional respect, perceived workplace respect, experienced workplace incivility, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals

	Factor loading					
	Workplace	Incivility	Fostering	Professional	Assertive	Communality
Professional #1	-.09	-.02	-.04	.88	.02	.68
Professional #2	.12	.03	.02	.75	-.06	.66
Professional #3	.22	-.07	-.10	.57	.09	.57
Workplace #1	.71	.02	-.06	.03	.01	.50
Workplace #2	.64	.15	.08	.08	.13	.63
Workplace #3	.78	-.07	.01	-.09	-.01	.56
Workplace #4	.88	.11	.00	-.09	.03	.68
Workplace #5	.53	-.08	-.02	.19	-.10	.39
Workplace #6	.33	.03	.02	.50	-.07	.51
Workplace #7	.74	-.06	.09	.04	-.08	.63
Incivility #1	.00	.79	-.08	.04	-.03	.66
Incivility #2	-.21	.77	.15	.12	-.14	.67
Incivility #3	-.08	.66	-.07	-.07	.03	.51
Incivility #4	.15	.60	-.02	-.11	-.03	.35
Incivility #5	.06	.70	-.08	-.03	.02	.50
Incivility #6	-.02	.71	.03	-.02	.01	.50
Incivility #7	.11	.59	.02	.04	.13	.35
Assertive #1	-.14	.02	.20	.24	.52	.51
Assertive #2	-.01	.01	-.07	-.11	.89	.65
Assertive #3	.05	-.04	-.02	.06	.60	.44
Fostering #1	.09	.01	.71	-.01	.10	.65
Fostering #2	-.02	-.03	.88	-.01	-.18	.63
Fostering #3	-.04	-.01	.82	.06	.04	.71
Fostering #4	.06	-.01	.81	-.14	.08	.70

Note. N = 181. Professional = Perceived professional respect; Workplace = Perceived workplace respect; Incivility = Experienced workplace incivility; Assertive = Assertiveness; Fostering = Fostering acceptance of group goals.

A five-factor solution (Table 3) was chosen because it was interpretable and had a "cleaner" factor structure than other factor solutions (i.e., item loadings at least .32, no or few item crossloadings, no factors with fewer than three items; Costello &

Osborne, 2005). Perceived professional respect loaded highly on one factor (factor loadings above .57), accounting for 3.90% of the variance. Moreover, except for one item, perceived workplace respect loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .53), accounting for 29.60% of the variance. Additionally, experienced workplace incivility loaded on a separate factor (factor loadings above .59), accounting for 12.94% of the variance. Furthermore, assertiveness loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .52), accounting for 3.30% of the variance. Last but not least, fostering acceptance of group goals loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .71), accounting for 7.08% of the variance.

Workplace #6 ("Most of my subordinates are impressed by what I have accomplished at work.") crossloaded on two factors (Perceived professional respect and Perceived workplace respect). I decided to exclude this item because it was closer to measuring respect specifically related to assessments of one's competence, although it was a part of the scale that measures perceived workplace respect (overall perceptions of respect from followers).

I conducted additional factor analysis to examine if dependent variables (leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy) are distinct or are measuring a single latent construct. A two-factor solution (Table 4), which generated two distinct factors – Leader identity strength and Leadership self-efficacy – was considered most appropriate. For the detailed description of this factor analysis, see Appendix Q.

Table 4

Factor loadings and communalities based on maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation for 11 items that measure leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy

	Factor loading

	Efficacy	Identity	Communality
Identity #1	.19	.71	.75
Identity #1	.01	.97	.96
Identity #1	.15	.65	.60
Identity #1	.00	.74	.55
Efficacy #1	.60	.32	.77
Efficacy #1	.86	.07	.84
Efficacy #1	.94	-.02	.86
Efficacy #1	.77	.17	.83
Efficacy #1	.77	.08	.69
Efficacy #1	.84	.04	.76
Efficacy #1	.78	.08	.72

Note. N = 181. Identity = Leader identity strength; Efficacy = Leadership self-efficacy.

Descriptive statistics for the study variables are displayed in Table 5. I tested the moderated mediation via Model 7 of the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2021) on IBM SPSS Statistics version 27. Assertiveness and fostering acceptance of group goals did not moderate the relationship between leader demographics and the mediators (Hypotheses 12-a, 12-b, 13-a, and 13-b not supported). Thus, I examined the research model excluding the moderators.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics for perceived professional respect, perceived workplace respect, experienced workplace incivility, assertiveness, fostering acceptance of group goals, leader identity strength, and leadership self-efficacy

Variables		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Range	*M* (*SD*)	*M (SD)*				α
											FE (*n* = 38)	*NE* (*n* = 48)	*FW* (*n* = 47)	*NW* (*n* = 48)	
1	Perceived professional respect	–	.61**	-.11	.44**	.33**	.46**	.50**	1-6	4.82 (.61)	4.68 (.59)	4.76 (.58)	4.91 (.64)	4.89 (.63)	.82
2	Perceived workplace respect	.61**	–	-.20**	.43**	.46**	.25**	.39**	1-6	4.92 (.52)	4.70 (.55)	4.94 (.50)	4.95 (.51)	5.04 (.48)	.87
3	Experienced workplace incivility	-.11	-.20**	–	-.11	-.21**	.03	-.05	1-5	1.69 (.55)	1.72 (.66)	1.55 (.55)	1.87 (.55)	1.62 (.39)	.85
4	Assertiveness	.44**	.43**	-.11	–	.44**	.40**	.42**	1-6	4.73 (.69)	4.56 (.59)	4.71 (.73)	4.77 (.77)	4.83 (.65)	.72
5	Fostering acceptance of group goals	.33**	.46**	-.21**	.44**	–	.30**	.35**	1-6	5.00 (.64)	4.84 (.61)	4.98 (.70)	4.97 (.64)	5.16 (.61)	.87
6	Leader identity strength	.46**	.25**	.03	.40**	.30**	–	.80**	1-6	4.07 (.94)	3.95 (.81)	3.59 (.81)	4.34 (1.05)	4.38 (.85)	.90
7	Leadership self-efficacy	.50**	.39**	-.05	.42**	.35**	.80**	–	1-6	4.39 (.80)	4.20 (.81)	3.96 (.47)	4.71 (.82)	4.65 (.81)	.96

Note. $N = 181$.

** $p < .01$.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders; FW = Foreign-accented White leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

Testing the Mediation Model

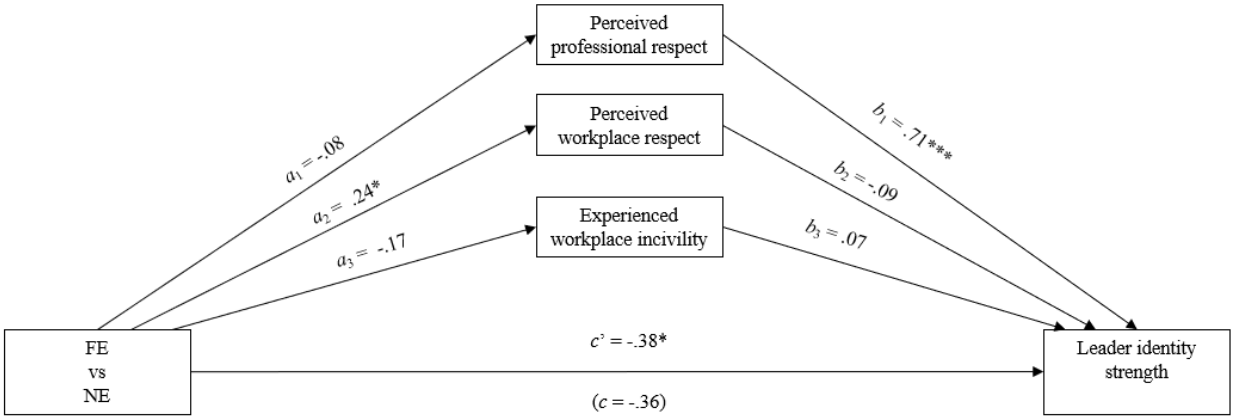
I tested the mediation model via Model 4 of the PROCESS macro (Hayes, 2021) on IBM SPSS Statistics version 27. I dummy-coded the leader demographics variable, with foreign-accented East Asian leaders as the referent. The direct effects of leader demographics on leader identity strength and leadership self-efficacy, controlling for the effect of mediators (perceived professional respect, perceived workplace respect, and experienced workplace incivility), were estimated with *c'*. The indirect effects were estimated with *a* (the effect of leader demographics on mediators) and *b* (the effect of mediators on dependent variables). The total effects (path *c*) consisted of the direct and indirect effects.

The effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength was not significant when comparing East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent

(Figure 4), total effect = -.36, SE = .19, p = .06, 95% CI [-.74, .02]. On the other hand, the effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength was significant when foreign-accented East Asian and White leaders were compared (Figure 5), total effect = .39, SE = .19, p = .04, 95% CI [.01, .78]. Similarly, the effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength was significant when comparing foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders (Figure 6), total effect = .43, SE = .19, p = .03, 95% CI [.05, .81].

Figure 4

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leader identity strength



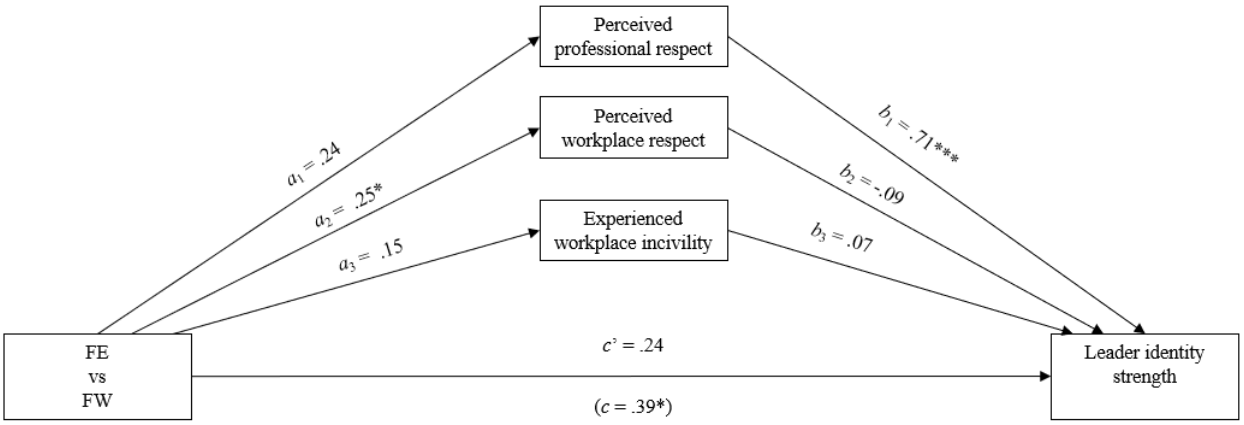
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders.

FE was coded as 0 and NE was coded as 1.

Figure 5

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leader identity strength



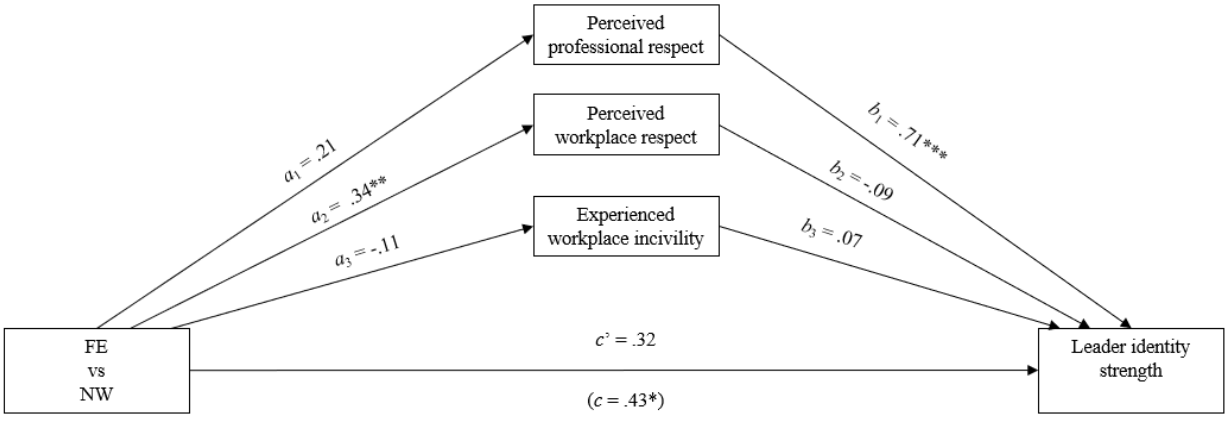
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; FW = Foreign-accented White leaders.

FE was coded as 0 and FW was coded as 1.

Figure 6

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leader identity strength



Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

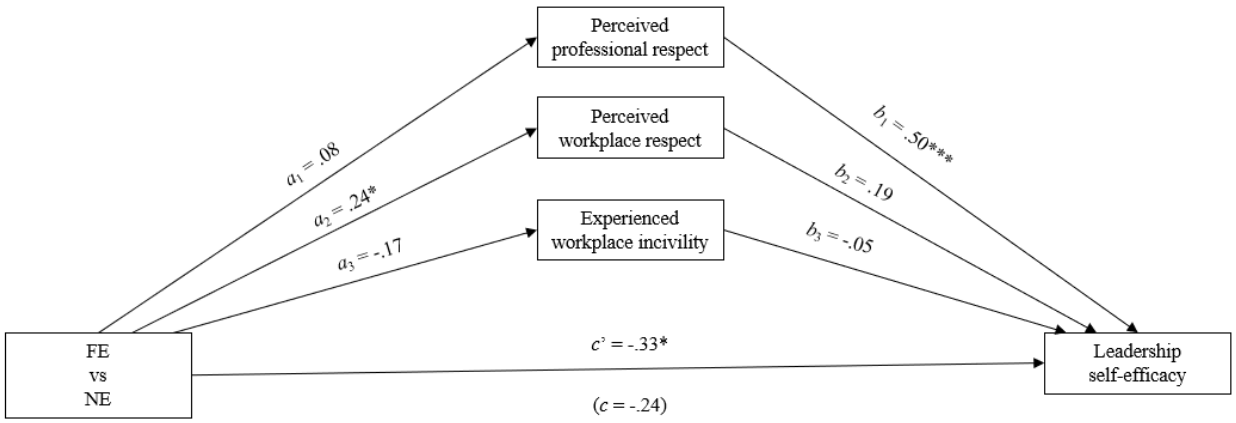
FE was coded as 0 and NW was coded as 1.

In terms of leadership self-efficacy, East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent were not significantly different (Figure 7), total effect = -.24, SE = .16,

p = .14, 95% CI [-.55, .08]. However, foreign-accented East Asian leaders had significantly lower leadership self-efficacy than foreign-accented White leaders (Figure 8), total effect = .51, SE = .16, *p* = .002, 95% CI [.19, .83]. Moreover, foreign-accented East Asian leaders had significantly lower leadership self-efficacy than non-accented White leaders (Figure 9), total effect = .45, SE = .16, *p* = .01, 95% CI [.13, .76].

Figure 7

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leadership self-efficacy



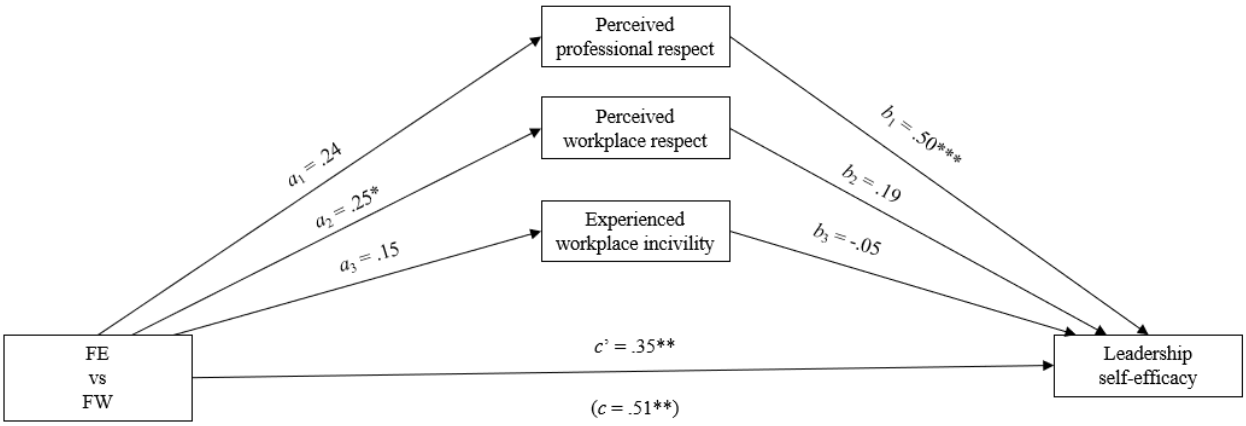
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. **p* < .05; ***p* < .01; ****p* < .001.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders.

FE was coded as 0 and NE was coded as 1.

Figure 8

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leadership self-efficacy



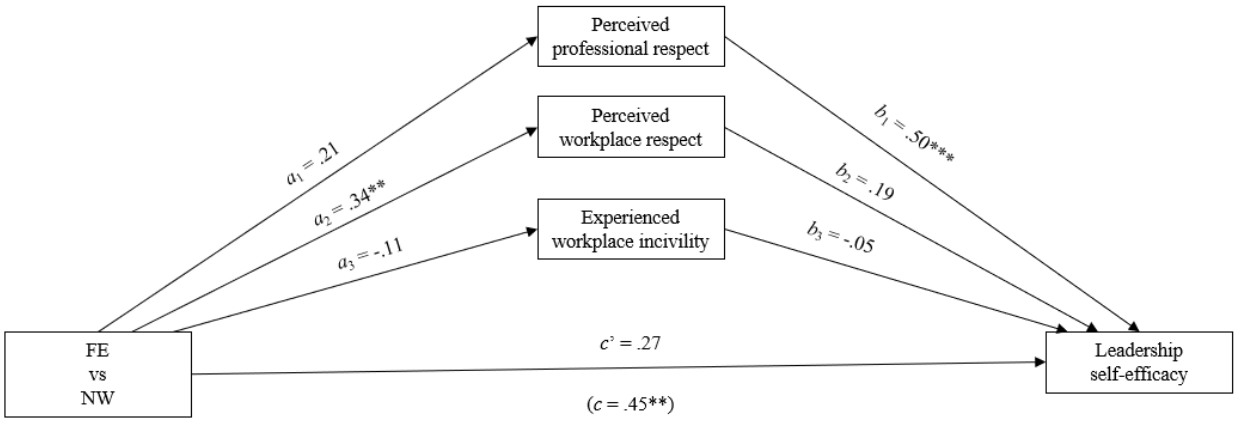
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; FW = Foreign-accented White leaders.

FE was coded as 0 and FW was coded as 1.

Figure 9

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leadership self-efficacy



Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FE = Foreign-accented East Asian leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

FE was coded as 0 and NW was coded as 1.

When controlling for the effect of mediators, the effect of leader demographics was significantly related to leader identity strength when comparing East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent (Figure 4), direct effect = -.38, SE = .18, p = .03, 95% CI [-.73, -.04]. On the other hand, the effect of leader demographics was not significantly related to leader identity strength when comparing (a) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent (Figure 5), direct effect = .24, SE = .18, p = .19, 95% CI [-.12, .59] and (b) foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders (Figure 6), direct effect = .32, SE = .18, p = .07, 95% CI [-.03, .67].

After controlling for the effect of mediators, the effect of leader demographics was significantly related to leadership self-efficacy when comparing (a) East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent (Figure 7), direct effect = -.33, SE = .14, p = .02, 95% CI [-.61, -.05] and (b) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent (Figure 8), direct effect = .35, SE = .14, p = .01, 95% CI [.07, .64]. However, the effect of leader demographics was not significantly related to leadership self-efficacy when comparing foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders (Figure 9), direct effect = .27, SE = .14, p = .06, 95% CI [-.01, .55].

The analysis showed that the effect of leader demographics was not significantly related to perceived professional respect when comparing (a) East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent (Figure 4), b = .08, t(177) = .61, p = .54, (b) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent (Figure 5), b = .24, t(177) = 1.80, p = .07, and (c) foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders (Figure 6), b = .21, t(177) = 1.61, p = .11.

The effect of leader demographics was significant on perceived workplace respect when comparing (a) East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent (Figure 4), $b = .24$, $t(177) = 2.17$, $p = .03$, (b) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent (Figure 5), $b = .25$, $t(177) = 2.21$, $p = .03$, and (c) foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders (Figure 6), $b = .34$, $t(177) = 3.08$, $p = .002$. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders reported receiving significantly less workplace respect than other leaders (Hypothesis 6-a partially supported).

The effect of leader demographics on experienced workplace incivility was not significant when comparing (a) East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent (Figure 4), $b = -.17$, $t(177) = -1.49$, $p = .14$, (b) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent (Figure 5), $b = .15$, $t(177) = 1.25$, $p = .21$, and (c) foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders (Figure 6), $b = -.11$, $t(177) = -.90$, $p = .37$.

A 95% bias-corrected confidence interval based on 10,000 bootstrap samples indicated that the indirect effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength through perceived workplace respect was not significant when comparing (a) East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent, indirect effect = -.02, SE = .04, 95% CI [-.11, .04], (b) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent, indirect effect = -.02, SE = .04, 95% CI [-.11, .05], and (c) foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders, indirect effect = -.03, SE = .05, 95% CI [-.14, .06]. Furthermore, the indirect effect of leader demographics on leadership self-efficacy through perceived workplace respect was not significant when comparing (a) East Asian leaders with and without a foreign accent, indirect effect = .04, SE = .04, 95%

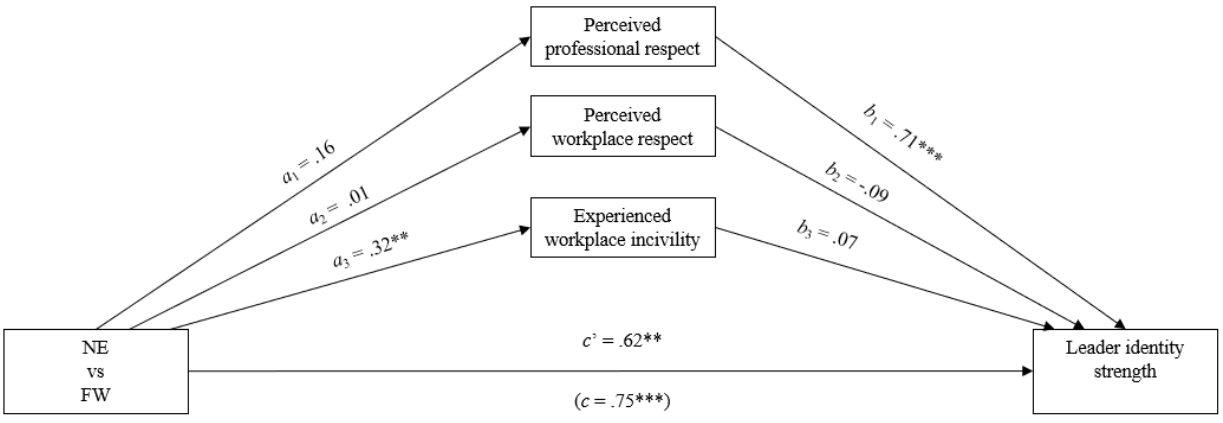
CI [-.01, .13], (b) East Asian and White leaders with a foreign accent, indirect effect = .05, SE = .04, 95% CI [-.01, .14], and (c) foreign-accented East Asian leaders and non-accented White leaders, indirect effect = .06, SE = .05, 95% CI [-.01, .17].

Comparing Non-accented East Asian Leaders to White Leaders with and without a Foreign Accent

To investigate the hypotheses that compare non-accented East Asian leaders to White leaders without a foreign accent (Hypotheses 7-a, 7-b, 10-a, and 10-b) and to explore the differences between non-accented East Asian leaders and foreign-accented White leaders, I ran another mediation analysis with non-accented East Asian leaders as the referent. Mediation analysis found that non-accented East Asian leaders had significantly weaker leader identity than (a) foreign-accented White leaders (Figure 10), total effect = .75, SE = .18, p = .0001, 95% CI [.39, 1.11] and (b) non-accented White leaders (Figure 11), total effect = .79, SE = .18, p < .0001, 95% CI [.43, 1.15].

Figure 10

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leader identity strength



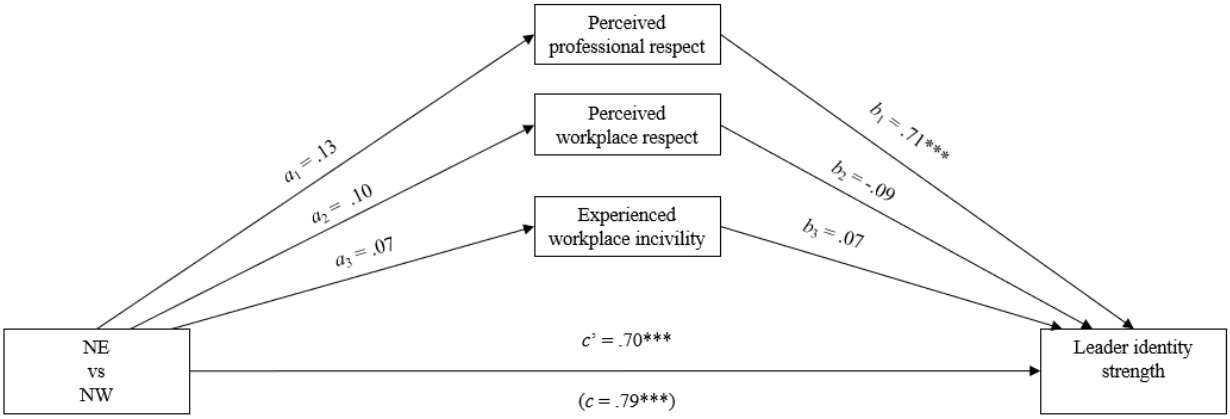
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders; FW = Foreign-accented White leaders.

NE was coded as 0 and FW was coded as 1.

Figure 11

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leader identity strength



Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

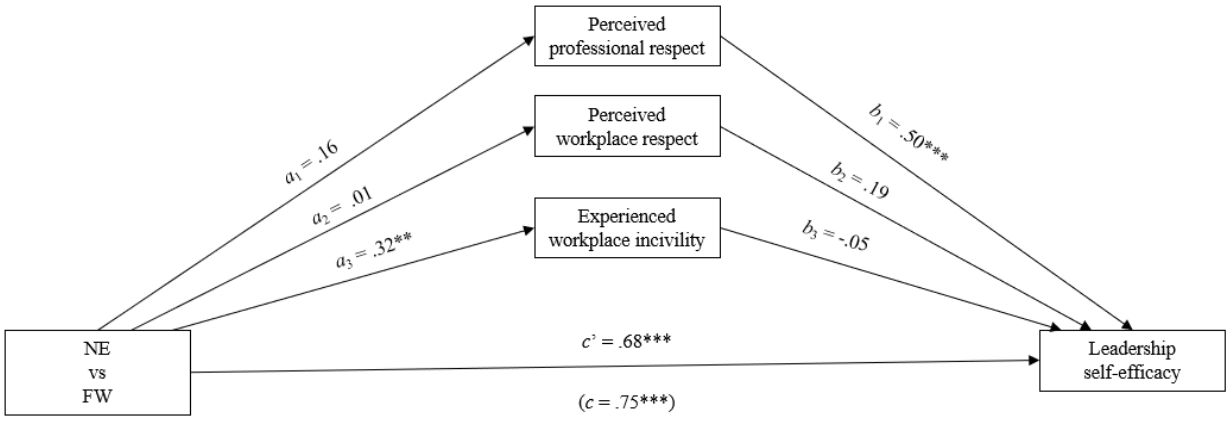
NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

NE was coded as 0 and NW was coded as 1.

In terms of leadership self-efficacy, non-accented East Asian leaders had significantly lower leadership self-efficacy than foreign-accented White leaders (Figure 12; total effect = .75, SE = .15, p < .0001, 95% CI [.45, 1.05]) and non-accented White leaders (Figure 13; total effect = .68, SE = .15, p < .0001, 95% CI [.38, .98]).

Figure 12

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leadership self-efficacy



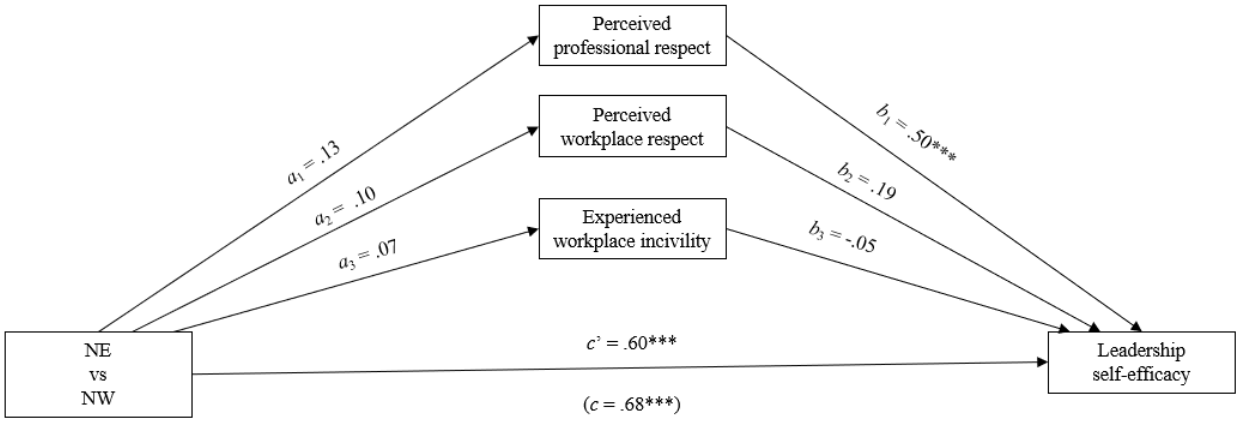
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders; FW = Foreign-accented White leaders.

NE was coded as 0 and FW was coded as 1.

Figure 13

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leadership self-efficacy



Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

NE = Non-accented East Asian leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

NE was coded as 0 and NW was coded as 1.

When controlling for the effect of mediators, the effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength was significant when comparing non-accented East Asian leaders with (a) foreign-accented White leaders (Figure 10), direct effect = .62, SE = .17, p = .0003, 95% CI [.29, .95] and (b) non-accented White leaders (Figure 11), direct effect = .70, SE = .16, p < .0001, 95% CI [.38, 1.03].

After controlling for the effect of mediators, the effect of leader demographics on leadership self-efficacy was significant when comparing non-accented East Asian leaders with (a) foreign-accented White leaders (Figure 12), direct effect = .68, SE = .14, p < .0001, 95% CI [.41, .95] and (b) non-accented White leaders (Figure 13), direct effect = .60, SE = .13, p < .0001, 95% CI [.34, .86].

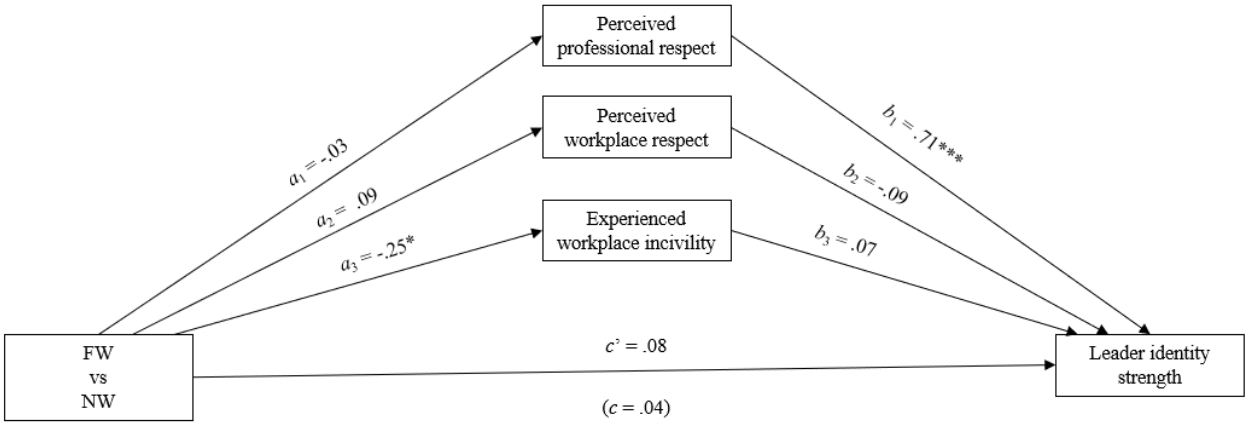
In terms of perceived professional respect, non-accented East Asian leaders did not differ from (a) foreign-accented White leaders, b = .16, t(177) = 1.26, p = .21 and (b) non-accented White leaders, b = .13, t(177) = 1.06, p = .29. Similarly, in terms of perceived workplace respect, non-accented East Asian leaders did not differ from (a) foreign-accented White leaders, b = .01, t(177) = .06, p = .96 and (b) non-accented White leaders, b = .10, t(177) = .97, p = .33. In terms of experienced workplace incivility, non-accented East Asian leaders experienced significantly less workplace incivility than foreign-accented White leaders (b = .32, t(177) = 2.90, p = .004), but they did not differ from non-accented White leaders (b = .07, t(177) = .62, p = .54). The indirect effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength through experienced workplace incivility was not significant. Moreover, the indirect effect of leader demographics on leadership self-efficacy through experienced workplace incivility was also not significant.

Comparing White Leaders with and without a Foreign Accent

To explore the hypotheses that compares White leaders with and without a foreign accent (Hypotheses 8-1, 8-b, 11-a, and 11-b), I ran another mediation analysis with foreign-accented White leaders as the referent. The effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength was not significant for White leaders with and without a foreign accent (Figure 14), total effect = .04, SE = .18, p = .83, 95% CI [-.32, .40]. Moreover, White leaders with and without a foreign accent did not differ from each other regarding leadership self-efficacy (Figure 15), total effect = -.07, SE = .15, p = .67, 95% CI [-.36, .23].

Figure 14

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leader identity strength



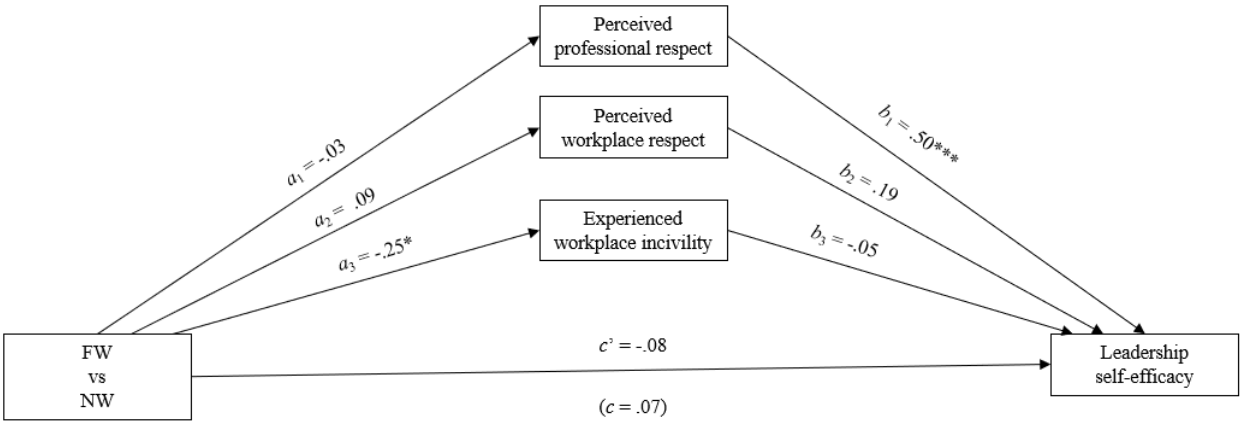
Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FW = Foreign-accented White leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

FW was coded as 0 and NW was coded as 1.

Figure 15

Path model of direct and indirect relations of the study variables predicting leadership self-efficacy



Note. Values reflect unstandardized coefficients. *p < .05; **p < .01; ***p < .001.

FW = Foreign-accented White leaders; NW = Non-accented White leaders.

FW was coded as 0 and NW was coded as 1.

When controlling for the effect of mediators, the effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength was not significant for White leaders with and without a foreign accent, direct effect = .08, SE = .17, p = .62, 95% CI [-.25, .41]. Furthermore, the effect of leader demographics on leadership self-efficacy after controlling for the effect of mediators was also not significant, direct effect = -.08, SE = .13, p = .54, 95% CI [-.35, .18].

White leaders with and without an accent were not different in terms of perceived professional respect, b = -.03, t(177) = -.21, p = .84. Additionally, they did not differ in terms of perceived workplace respect, b = .09, t(177) = .91, p = .36. However, foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders differed in terms of experienced workplace incivility. Foreign-accented White leaders experienced greater workplace incivility than non-accented White leaders, b = -.25, t(177) = -2.29, p = .02

(Hypothesis 8-b supported). The indirect effect of leader demographics on leader identity strength through experienced workplace incivility was not significant. Similarly, the indirect effect of leader demographics on leadership self-efficacy through experienced workplace incivility was not significant.

Summary of Findings

Overall, the indirect effects of leader demographics on leader outcomes through all mediators were not significant, but there were some significant findings. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders reported more negative leader outcomes (weaker leader identity, lower leadership self-efficacy) than both foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders, but not non-accented Asian leaders. In addition, foreign-accented East leaders perceived significantly less workplace respect (i.e., overall perceptions of respect) from followers than all the other groups. Non-accented East Asian leaders showed weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy than foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders. Moreover, foreign-accented White leaders experienced significantly more workplace incivility than non-accented East Asian and White leaders. There was no evidence of moderation for assertiveness or fostering acceptance of group goals.

Discussion

In a second study, I tested the relationship between leader accent, race, and leadership outcomes, this time from the perspective of the leaders themselves.

Foreign-accented East Asian leaders were not different from non-accented East Asian leaders, foreign-accented White leaders, and non-accented White leaders in terms of perceived professional respect and experienced workplace incivility. However, foreign-accented East Asian leaders received significantly less workplace respect than non-accented East Asian leaders, foreign-accented White leaders, and non-accented White leaders. Furthermore, foreign-accented East Asian leaders reported more negative leader outcomes (weaker leader identity and lower leadership self-efficacy) than foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders. Foreign-accented and non-accented East Asian leaders did not differ in terms of leader outcomes.

Other differences of note included foreign-accented White leaders experienced significantly more workplace incivility than non-accented East Asian leaders, as well as non-accented East Asian leaders reporting significantly more negative leader outcomes than foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders. Additionally, foreign-accented White leaders experienced more workplace incivility than non-accented White leaders. Although leader demographics led to several null relationships, when there were differences the general trend was that being accented and/or being Asian were associated with perceiving less followership and having more negative leader self-perceptions that being non-accented and/or being White.

As mentioned, foreign-accented East Asian leaders received significantly less workplace respect than non-accented East Asian leaders, foreign-accented White leaders, and non-accented White leaders. One thing to note is that foreign-accented East Asian leaders did not differ from others regarding perceived professional respect. According to a classic work on the concept of respect (Darwall, 1977), respect can be

divided into recognition respect and appraisal respect. Appraisal respect stems from assessments of one's capabilities. Recognition respect, on the other hand, refers to valuing someone intrinsically, not involving the evaluation of excellence. In Study 2, perceived professional respect was measured via a scale that assesses respect stemming from assessments of one's competence (e.g., "They respect my knowledge of and competence on the job."; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). Perceived workplace respect was measured via a scale that assesses overall perceptions of respect from followers (e.g., "My subordinates react well to me and to what I say or do."; Smith & Tyler, 1997; Ng, 2016). Thus, perceived professional respect resembles the notion of appraisal respect, and perceived workplace respect is similar to the notion of recognition respect.

Darwall (1977) pointed out that appraisal respect and recognition respect are distinct concepts; thus, one can receive a high level of appraisal respect but a lower level of recognition respect and vice versa. The finding that foreign-accented East Asian leaders received significantly less workplace respect than non-accented East Asian leaders, foreign-accented White leaders, and non-accented White leaders in terms of perceived professional respect, but were differentiated in terms of perceived professional respect, suggests that perhaps they are less respected by their followers as a human being. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders may experience decent recognition of their expertise and skills from their followers, but they may feel relatively less respected as human beings.

Study 2 did not find that those who receive more respect from followers have more positive leadership outcomes. However, it was found that foreign-accented East

Asian leaders had more negative leadership outcomes than non-accented and foreign-accented White leaders. Several factors may explain why foreign-accented East Asian leaders had more negative leadership outcomes than non-accented and foreign-accented White leaders. Although perceived respect from followers did not explain foreign-accented East Asians' poorer leadership outcomes, perceptions of followership still could have affected this relationship. Both role-based and constructionist approaches to followership theories suggest that followers affect leader outcomes. Role-based followership theories describe followers as playing a vital role in shaping leader outcomes (Collinson, 2006; Dvir & Shamir, 2003; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Lord & Brown, 2004; Shamir, 2007). Constructionist followership theories suggest that leaders and followers co-create leadership and its outcomes (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Fairhurst & Grant, 2010; Fairhurst & Uhl-Bien, 2012). Thus, perhaps followers demonstrated different followership behaviors (i.e., behaviors enacted in relation to leaders) toward foreign-accented East Asian leaders that then affected leader self-efficacy and identity. However, this behavior would have to be separate from exhibiting respect. For example, perhaps follower-exhibited trust may explain foreign-accented East Asians' poorer leadership outcomes, as trust from followers is an important ingredient in strong leader identity (Den Hartog et al., 2002; Kalshoven & Den Hartog, 2002). Future research examining follower trust in accented and non-accented leaders of different racial-ethnic backgrounds will help elucidate this relationship further.

One thing to note is that foreign-accented White leaders experienced more workplace incivility than non-accented East Asian leaders. Care should be taken not

to overgeneralize this finding as the sample size was small, but perhaps speaking standard English (speaking English without a foreign accent) is a more central attribute of leadership in American culture than being White. Foreign-accented White leaders possess one key characteristic attribute of leadership in that they are White (Rosette et al., 2008), but they lack one trait that is also key to experiencing esteem in the United States: being perceived as American. According to the Racial Position Model (Zou & Cheryan, 2017), a group is perceived as American when it is seen as having the prototypical characteristics of the American prototype. The group is perceived as culturally foreign when it lacks these characteristics. Sharing Anglo-Saxon cultural heritage has great influence on determining which groups are perceived as more or less American. Speaking standard American English is one crucial element of Anglo-Saxon cultural heritage. Thus, foreign-accented White leaders may be perceived to strongly deviate from the American prototype. If a leader is perceived as national outsider who possess foreign and disparate values, followers may be more likely to demonstrate rude and disrespectful behaviors toward the leader.

Chapter 4: General Discussion

Through two studies, I examined foreign-accented East Asians' leadership. In Study 1, I investigated whether a foreign-accented East Asian leader would be perceived as having weaker legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader via an experimental study. I examined perceived leadership prototypicality, leader effectiveness, assertiveness, and fostering acceptance of group goals as mediators. In Study 2, I surveyed actual leaders and examined whether foreign-accented East Asian leaders would perceive less respect from followers than non-accented East Asian leaders and White leaders with and without a foreign accent. In addition, I studied whether perceived respect from followers would affect leader outcomes (self-efficacy and identity).

Study 1 found that perceived leader effectiveness and perceived fostering acceptance of group goals significantly mediated the relationship between foreign-accented speech and perceived legitimate power. A foreign-accented East Asian leader was perceived as having weaker legitimate power than a non-accented East Asian leader because the former was perceived as less effective and relatively poor at facilitating followers to cooperate toward a group goal than the latter.

In Study 2, foreign-accented East Asian leaders received significantly less workplace respect than non-accented East Asian leaders, foreign-accented White leaders, and non-accented White leaders. Foreign-accented East Asian leaders reported more negative leader outcomes than foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders. Non-accented East Asian leaders experienced significantly less

workplace incivility than foreign-accented White leaders. Additionally, non-accented East Asian leaders reported significantly more negative leader outcomes than foreign-accented and non-accented White leaders. Furthermore, foreign-accented White leaders experienced more workplace incivility than non-accented White leaders.

Theoretical Implications

Leadership categorization theory (Lord et al., 1982; Lord et al., 1984; Lord & Maher, 1991) proposes that leaders who match the leader prototype are evaluated more positively than leaders who do not match the leader prototype. Study 1 found that, when compared to a leader without an accent, a foreign-accented East Asian leader was perceived as less effective and relatively poor at encouraging followers to cooperate toward a group goal. The finding that a foreign-accented East Asian leader was evaluated more negatively suggests that speaking so-called "standard American English" may be a critical characteristic of leadership.

Rosette et al. (2008) demonstrated that being White is a key feature of the leader prototype in the United States. Research has also shown that being male is one of the most common features of the leader category (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Scott & Brown, 2006). In this dissertation, I proposed that speaking non-accented English is a central attribute of the leader prototype in the United States and illustrated how a leader with a foreign accent is rated unfavorably. If the focus were solely on race when examining Asian leadership, differences among Asians caused by accents would go unnoticed. Hence, my dissertation compared foreign-accented and non-accented East Asian leaders, aiming to differentiate bias due to race from bias due to race and accent.

Study 1 suggests that, due to being perceived as having fewer capabilities needed for successful leadership, foreign-accented East Asian leaders were perceived as having less authority to exert influence on others (i.e., weak legitimate power) than leaders without an accent. Speaking with a foreign accent may have been perceived as indicating a lack of cultural values, which are one basis for legitimate power (French & Raven 1959). Speaking with a foreign accent, especially an accent that is stigmatized as an Asian accent (e.g., Goto et al., 2002; Hosoda et al., 2007; Hosoda et al., 2009; Yan & Berliner, 2013), may harm a leader's legitimate power.

The person in the video was described as holding an advanced leadership position ("senior manager"). When a person holds a leadership position in an organization, it is plausible to assume that the person was entrusted with the position by someone who had the legitimate authority to make such a decision (e.g., the CEO of the organization). If this person is assumed to have been given the leadership position by a legitimizing agent, then this person satisfies one basis for legitimate power (designation by a legitimizing agent). Thus, if a leader with an accent, who was likely assigned their leadership position by a legitimizing agent, is perceived as having less legitimate power than a leader without an accent, perhaps this is because cultural values are more powerful than being appointed to the position by a legitimizing agent. In other words, speaking with a foreign accent might be devalued to the extent that people may be hesitant to acknowledge the legitimacy of a leader's leading efforts even though it is assumed that the person was entrusted with the position by a legitimizing agent.

The literature suggests that speaking with a foreign accent is a socially devalued characteristic (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Shuck, 2006; Gluszek & Dovidio, 2010). The findings from Study 2 are in line with the literature insofar as I found that foreign-accented White leaders experienced significantly more workplace incivility than non-accented White leaders. They also experienced significantly more workplace incivility than non-accented East Asian leaders.

Study 2 also found that foreign-accented East Asian leaders received significantly less workplace respect than non-accented East Asian and White leaders. Additionally, they received significantly less workplace respect than foreign-accented White leaders. This suggests that speaking an Asian accent may be more devalued than speaking a European accent. The literature suggests that not all accents are devalued to the same extent and that accents differ in prestige (Giles, 1970; Giles & Powesland, 1975; Lindemann, 2005; Mugler, 2002). According to the literature on language attitudes, foreign accents linked to non-White skin trigger more negative reactions than foreign accents linked to White skin (Giles, 1970; Lindemann, 2005; Lippi-Green, 1997; Ryan et al., 1982). Several studies have also shown that Asian accents are stigmatized in the United States (Goto et al., 2002; Hosoda et al., 2007; Hosoda et al., 2009; Subtirelu, 2015; Yan & Berliner, 2013). My research suggests some evidence of the accent prestige effect. East Asians are in a vulnerable position in American society (Kim, 1999; Zou & Cheryan, 2017), which has likely resulted in the devaluation of the Asian accent in the United States.

Practical Implications

Lu et al. (2020) suggested that East Asians may have difficulty attaining leadership positions compared to South Asians. My research, which looked at East Asians specifically, suggests that race and accent interact and result in more negative outcomes. The results of Study 1 showed that, compared to an East Asian leader without an accent, a foreign-accented East Asian leader was perceived as a less effective leader, and as a result, as not having much authority to influence others. The difficulties that foreign-accented East Asian employees face in organizations cannot be fully revealed by simply considering race. Unique challenges that foreign-accented East Asian leaders face in the workplace are not likely to be illuminated if the focus is only on race.

Even if foreign-accented East Asian leaders manage to attain leadership positions, they may have difficulty being promoted to a higher leadership position. If employees doubt the legitimacy of a foreign-accented East Asian leader's leadership, those who have the power to promote this person to a higher position may also be skeptical about this leader's ability to lead. To be promoted to a higher leadership position, this leader may have to demonstrate exceptional abilities compared to people who are being considered for the same position and who are closer to the leader prototype.

If employees doubt the legitimacy of a leader's leadership, this may not only harm the leader but can have negative implications for the organization as well. The leader may notice that he or she is not recognized as having the authority to influence employees when the employees demonstrate noncompliance or disrespectful

behaviors. This may lead to negative outcomes such as weak leader identity and low leadership self-efficacy. These negative consequences may prevent the leader from performing to his or her full potential or, even worse, may make the leader burn out and leave the organization. Hence, if a leader is not perceived as having much legitimate power to lead others, it may be detrimental not only to the leader but also to the organization.

Many organizations take pride in recruiting diverse employees. However, diverse recruitment not coupled with efforts to promote inclusion is incomplete. Organizations should strive to foster an environment where employees with diverse identities, experiences, cultural backgrounds, and characteristics can build positive relationships and collaborate. My research suggests that East Asian leaders with a foreign accent may be regarded as having a less legitimate right to influence others. When employees do not fully acknowledge foreign-accented East Asian leaders' legitimate power, these leaders may feel that they are not fully part of the organization. Organizations should aim to make the environment inclusive for these individuals.

One initiative for cultivating an inclusive environment for foreign-accented East Asian leaders is diversity training. Diversity training refers to programs designed to help positive intergroup interactions, reduce bias and discrimination, and develop the skills, knowledge, and motivation needed to build positive relationships with diverse others (Bezrukova et al., 2012). Diversity training tends to focus primarily on race and gender (Bezrukova et al., 2012; Bezrukova et al., 2016). My research suggests that perceptions related to accent should also be discussed during diversity training.

Accent is not a frequently discussed topic in diversity training, but accents have a strong influence on how individuals are perceived, as supported by my research.

Accent is also a timely, highly relevant topic for the contemporary American workplace, which includes many individuals who were not born and raised in the United States. Each year, 85,000 foreign nationals receive the H-1B visa, which permits them to work in the United States (Ruiz, 2017b). Since this work visa frequently leads to the opportunity of permanent residence (i.e., through application for a green card), many foreign-accented employees are likely to work in the American workplace for a long time. Including people who work using a different visa, the number of foreign-accented individuals in the American workplace is expected to be quite high. Therefore, accent should be discussed in diversity training.

Such training should emphasize that not all employees use standard American English and that some employees have a foreign accent. It should be pointed out that people—consciously or unconsciously—use accent as a cue to make negative evaluations of the speaker. Diversity training can be a good opportunity to raise awareness about the bias against foreign accents. This will be an important first step in navigating how to disassociate foreign accents from negative evaluations.

Diversity training should not be limited to promoting awareness about the prejudice against foreign-accented individuals. It should specifically address the fact that having a foreign accent is not related to competency. Diversity training should educate participants that having a foreign accent is simply a different speech style and does not signal a lack of competency or disqualify a leader. One way to reframe foreign accents as merely a different characteristic is by presenting diverse images of

leaders with diverse characteristics. It may help broaden what a leader looks (and sounds) like. Additionally, foreign-accented leaders can be reframed as having extra qualifications since they have the ability to speak another language fluently.

Limitations

In Study 1, I provided a profile of the man in the video so that participants in the no accent condition had information that he was from the United States and those in the accent condition were informed he was from South Korea. I provided this information along with the video to strengthen the accent and no-accent conditions. However, being told that a speaker is from a foreign country is different from simply watching a video of a man with a foreign accent, and national origin may have confounded accent effects.

The foreign-accented East Asian leaders recruited for Study 2 had Chinese, Japanese, or Korean as their first language, but the foreign-accented White leaders had various European languages as theirs. About half (58.1%) had Spanish or Russian, with German, French, Portuguese, Italian, Polish, Romanian, and Turkish among the others. The literature suggests that accents associated with White skin elicit more positive reactions than those related to non-White skin, but it is also important to note that accents associated with more powerful social groups are considered more prestigious than those related to the less influential (Giles, 1970; Ryan et al., 1982). Accordingly, European accents that are associated with more powerful countries may trigger more positive reactions from listeners. For example, a White leader with a French accent may elicit a more positive reaction than one who has an accent associated with a less economically and politically powerful European

country. Future research involving European-accented speakers may benefit from being limited to a specific European language instead of any.

Not all of the foreign-accented East Asian and White leaders in Study 2 were highly proficient in English. Having a foreign accent is different from language competence or how well one knows it (Derwing & Munro, 1997), and I aimed to examine the effects of speaking with a foreign accent rather than the influence of competence. The majority of the foreign-accented East Asian leaders (78%) and the foreign-accented White leaders (89%) had "high" or "very high" English proficiency. Nevertheless, future research investigating the effects of accent should consider only recruiting foreign-accented speakers who are highly proficient in English so that the effects of language competence do not confound accent influence.

Future Directions

Most H-1B visa applications are for occupations in science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM; Ruiz, 2017b), implying that most foreign nationals who receive H-1B visas work in STEM disciplines. Where a foreign-accented East Asian individual holds a leadership position in the American workforce, the possibility of them working in STEM is relatively high as they are strongly represented in this field.

A category prototype reflects the central characteristics of its members (Rosch, 1978; Smith & Medin, 1981). Having a foreign accent may not be a central characteristic of the STEM leader prototype, but it will be relatively common among leaders in STEM than among those in other fields. Thus, people may have more favorable reactions to a foreign-accented East Asian leader in STEM than in another

area, such as consulting or human resources. One avenue for future research is to compare the perceptions of and reactions to foreign-accented East Asian leaders depending on the industry in which they work. For example, is a foreign-accented East Asian senior software engineer evaluated differently than a senior business manager in a non-STEM field? Do foreign-accented East Asian leaders in STEM receive more respect from their followers than those in other fields? Future research can address these questions.

Another intriguing possibility for future research is to investigate the skills that might buffer against negative perceptions of being a leader with a foreign accent. Assertiveness and fostering the acceptance of group goals did not moderate the relationship between leader demographics and perceived respect in Study 2, but other skills may offset negative evaluations stemming from having an accent. Accents are themselves difficult to control (Kalin, 1982), but many skills that are crucial for successful leadership, notably transformational approaches (Barling et al., 1996; Warrick, 2011), can be developed through training. If foreign-accented East Asian leaders can elicit positive followership behaviors through the possession of certain skills, training them in these specific aptitudes may help them prosper in the organization. Alongside research on ameliorating accent bias, further examination of the skills that might buffer the negative reactions is needed.

Conclusion

Through two studies, I investigated whether East Asian leaders with a foreign accent would be perceived and treated differently by their followers than those without an accent. Findings suggest that foreign-accented East Asian leaders may be

perceived as less effective than non-accented East Asian leaders and be seen as having less legitimate power to lead others. Furthermore, foreign-accented East Asian leaders reported receiving less respect from followers than non-accented East Asian leaders and White leaders with and without a foreign accent. If I focused solely on race, differences between foreign-accented and non-accented East Asian leaders would not have been disclosed. Revealing unique difficulties foreign-accented East Asian leaders may experience in the workplace was a crucial first step in exploring ways to disconnect foreign accents from negative evaluations.

Appendices

Appendix A

Leader Video Script (created based on Smallfield et al., 2020)

I have to say, your team has performed well overall the last few months. We have received positive comments from at least two of your clients, praising the quality of your work. I have talked with other departments, and your team stands out as being easy to work with. Thanks for your work. Please share my thanks to your team as well.

Appendix B

Leader Video Screenshot

Appendix C

Leader Profiles

Foreign accent condition:

Age: 43
Current Residence: Chicago, Illinois
Education: Bachelor's degree in Management, MBA
Place of Birth: Seoul, South Korea
Title: Senior Manager

No accent condition:

Age: 43
Current Residence: Chicago, Illinois
Education: Bachelor's degree in Management, MBA
Place of Birth: Irvine, California
Title: Senior Manager

Appendix D

Perceived leadership prototypicality (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987; Tskhay et al., 2017)

Please answer these questions in relation to the manager in the video. Imagine he is your supervisor. Please respond to the questions based on your evaluation of him as a manager.

1 = Not at all
2 = Slightly
3 = Somewhat
4 = Moderately
5 = Extremely

1. To what degree does he fit your image of what a leader should be?
2. To what extent does he exhibit leadership?
3. To what extent do you think he is typical of a leader?
4. To what extent did he engage in leadership?
5. To what extent would you be willing to choose him as the leader of your work group?

Appendix E

Perceived leader ability (Mayer & Davis, 1999)

Please answer these questions in relation to the manager in the video. Imagine he is your supervisor. Please respond to the questions based on your evaluation of him as a manager.

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. This manager seems very capable of performing his job.
2. This manager seems successful at the things he tries to do.
3. This manager seems to have a good amount of knowledge about the work that needs to be done.
4. I feel very confident about this manager's skills.
5. This manager seems to have specialized capabilities that can increase the group's performance.
6. This manager seems well qualified.

Appendix F

Perceived leader effectiveness (Wang et al., 2018)

Please answer these questions in relation to the manager in the video. Imagine he is your supervisor. Please respond to the questions based on your evaluation of him as a manager.

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. I would want this person to continue to be the manager.
2. This person deserves the position of manager.
3. I would approve of this manager as a leader.
4. I would recommend working for this manager to a friend or close colleague.

Appendix G

Perceived assertiveness (Wallen et al., 2017)

Please answer these questions in relation to the manager in the video. Imagine he is your supervisor. Please respond to the questions based on your evaluation of him as a manager.

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. He seems like he would speak up and share his views when it is appropriate.
2. He seems like he would be willing to engage in constructive interpersonal confrontations.
3. He seems like he would be able to stand his ground in a heated conflict.

Appendix H

Perceived fostering acceptance of group goals (Podsakoff et al., 1990)

Please answer these questions in relation to the manager in the video. Imagine he is your supervisor. Please respond to the questions based on your evaluation of him as a manager.

To what extent do these statements describe the manager in the video?

1 = Not at all descriptive
2 = Not descriptive
3 = Somewhat not descriptive
4 = Somewhat descriptive
5 = Descriptive
6 = Very descriptive

1. He seems like he would foster collaboration among work groups.
2. He seems like he would encourage employees to be team players
3. He seems like he would get the group to work together for the same goal.
4. He seems like he would develop a team attitude and spirit among employees.

Appendix I

Perceived legitimate power (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1989)

Please answer these questions in relation to the manager in the video. Imagine he is your supervisor. Please respond to the questions based on your evaluation of him as a manager.

If he were my manager,

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree.
6 = Strongly agree

1. He would make me feel that I have commitments to meet.
2. He would make me feel that I should satisfy my job requirements.
3. He would give me the feeling that I have responsibilities to fulfill.
4. He would make me recognize that I have tasks to accomplish.

Appendix J

Perceived professional respect (Liden & Maslyn, 1998)

The following questions are about your subordinates (people you supervise; anyone who reports directly to you at work and/or is evaluated by you). How do you think your subordinates perceive you as a supervisor?

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. They are impressed with my knowledge of my job.
2. They respect my knowledge of and competence on the job.
3. They admire my professional skills.

Appendix K

Perceived workplace respect (Smith & Tyler, 1997; Ng, 2016)

The following questions are about your subordinates (people you supervise; anyone who reports directly to you at work and/or is evaluated by you). How do you think your subordinates perceive you as a supervisor?

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. My subordinates respect my values.
2. I have a good reputation among my subordinates.
3. My subordinates react well to me and to what I say or do.
4. I make a good impression on my subordinates.
5. Most of my subordinates like me.
6. Most of my subordinates are impressed by what I have accomplished at work.
7. Most of my subordinates respect me.

Appendix L

Experienced workplace incivility (Cortina et al., 2001)

While you have been working as a supervisor, have you been in a situation where one of your subordinates:

1 = Never
2 = Rarely
3 = Occasionally
4 = Frequently
5 = Very frequently

1. Put you down or was condescending to you?
2. Paid little attention to your statement or showed little interest in your opinion?
3. Made demeaning or derogatory remarks about you?
4. Addressed you in unprofessional terms, either publicly or privately?
5. Ignored or excluded you?
6. Doubted your judgment on a matter over which you have responsibility?
7. Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal matters?

Appendix M

Assertiveness (Wallen et al., 2017)

To what extent do these statements describe you at work?

1 = Not at all descriptive
2 = Not descriptive
3 = Somewhat not descriptive
4 = Somewhat descriptive
5 = Descriptive
6 = Very descriptive

1. I speak up and share my views when it is appropriate.
2. I am willing to engage in constructive interpersonal confrontations.
3. I am able to stand my ground in a heated conflict.

Appendix N

Fostering acceptance of group goals (Podsakoff et al., 1990)

To what extent do these statements describe you at work?

1 = Not at all descriptive
2 = Not descriptive
3 = Somewhat not descriptive
4 = Somewhat descriptive
5 = Descriptive
6 = Very descriptive

1. I foster collaboration among work groups.
2. I encourage employees to be team players.
3. I get the group to work together for the same goal.
4. I develop a team attitude and spirit among employees.

Appendix O

Leader identity strength (Hiller, 2005)

Please respond to the following questions on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree).

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. I am a leader.
2. I see myself as a leader.
3. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word “leader.”
4. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.

Appendix P

Leadership self-efficacy (Hiller, 2005)

Please respond to the following questions on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 6 (Strongly agree).

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Slightly disagree
4 = Slightly agree
5 = Agree
6 = Strongly agree

1. I feel confident that I can be a leader in most situations.
2. I am confident that I can lead others effectively.
3. I am confident that I can lead a group to perform effectively.
4. I am confident in my ability to influence a group I lead.
5. I am confident that I can help a group overcome obstacles.
6. I am confident in my ability to set a direction for the group.
7. I am confident in my ability to gain commitment from others.

Appendix Q

I conducted a factor analysis using maximum likelihood extraction with promax rotation to examine if the dependent variables are distinct or are measuring a single latent construct. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .95, above the commonly recommended value of .6. Additionally, Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant, χ^2 (55) = 2096.55, $p < .001$. The diagonals of the anti-image correlation matrix were also all over .5. Moreover, the communalities were higher than the minimum recommended value of .20 (Table 4), further confirming that each item shared some common variance with other items (Child, 2006; Costello & Osborne, 2005). Thus, factor analysis was deemed appropriate with all 11 items.

A two-factor solution (Table 4) was selected because it was interpretable and had a "cleaner" factor structure than other factor solutions (i.e., item loadings at least .32, no or few item crossloadings, no factors with fewer than three items; Costello & Osborne, 2005). Leader identity strength loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .65), accounting for 5.52% of the variance. Moreover, leadership self-efficacy loaded highly on a separate factor (factor loadings above .60), accounting for 70.11% of the variance.

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