EXAMINING TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TRAITS BETWEEN ASIAN AND CAUCASIAN AMERICANS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental comparative study was to measure and compare the leadership styles of higher education professionals across levels of responsibility between Asian-American and Caucasian-American individuals. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and additional demographic surveys were used to obtain measurements and personal leadership traits for the dependent and independent variables. A self-rated questionnaire of the MLQ survey measured nine characteristics of leadership qualities (subscales) of the transformational, transactional, or passive/avoidant (laissez-faire) of the participants. Stratified random sampling technique helped identify these two groups of higher education leaders. Inferential statistical tests of the Mann-Whitney U test were used to identify if significant difference of leadership styles existed for the independent variables of race, mentored experience, birth country, SES background, age, and gender between Asian-American and Caucasian-American higher educational leaders. Significant differences were indicated on transformational leadership quality subscale for IM and transactional leadership quality subscale for MBEA. A third independent factor of age also indicated a significant difference between older and younger leaders in the transformational leadership quality subscale for IS. Higher education institutions and decision makers could use the study result as a point of reference to guide diverse Asian-American individuals in higher education to leadership training and development in their institutions with the aid of a modified PDCA map for a conceptual framework of implementing such process. Such action could advance Asian Americans into open leadership positions and make institutions more diverse to represent its respective community.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my lovely wife, Phonevilay M. Boun and our two beautiful daughters, Alise and Arena. My family supported me through the ups and downs, although more downs than I would like; I would never trade it. Their love, patience, and support help me persist and complete this profound journey of my life. I will continue to support them any way I can and help them achieve their own hopes and dreams as well.

I would not be here without my parents' sacrifice, Heuang and Pheng, for making the ultimate choice to uproot our family (brothers: Bounmy, Bounthieng, Theung, Keng, and sister: Bounnaly) from Laos and started over with nothing but support and love. I also would like to add the Luong family (my cousin), the Des Moines Catholic Church, and Basilica of Saint John for their help in relocating us to a new city and life.

As I am older and with family, I cannot imagine making a similar decision to move my own family from a post-Vietnam War era time and place (Laos) to a new country (USA) to start over. I am thankful for my parents' decision and all those who supported us throughout the years.

Finally, I would like to dedicate hope and good fortune to all others who are working hard—whether it is in academics or personal career—success and happiness for those who work hard for it with their own hands and effort. I hope some of those people with the means will pay it forward and help others, like the many who have shared those moments in my life.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I give thanks to my chair and committee members: Dr. Yongmin Zhu, Dr. Andrew Lawlor, and Dr. Debra Tucker, all of whom gave me effective advice, constructive criticism, and timely support. I am also grateful to Dr. Robert Teranishi, for initially introducing me to the study topic and interests on Asian American in higher education. Dr. Teranishi answered my email questions about Asian-American issues and directed me to network and expand my knowledge by inviting me to attend the Asian and Pacific Islander American Scholarship Fund (APIASF) held annually in Washington, DC (which started in the summer 2010).

Last but not least, I would like to thank NASPA and its members who volunteered their time and experience answering the surveys to contribute to this small but growing research on Asian-American leaders in higher education.

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Introduction

Although higher education institutions in the United States represent the growing diversity of their student populations across campuses, the individuals working with, educating, and leading these diverse populations of students have not kept pace. Diversity, multiculturalism, and equality have been terms that have been overused for rhetorical reasons but lack effective actions in some realities. Such gaps in realities have existed in different forms of discrimination in gender, sexual orientation, religion, politics, and race in the United States (Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

From the literature review, some of the fastest growing minority groups of Asian Americans have faced many complex issues of discrimination through various misunderstanding of culture, race, and academic achievement (CARE, 2014; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). Compounding these issues of culture, race, and academic achievement, only a small number of Asian Americans as leaders, educators, and role models have been represented in the United States' higher education institutions. In two different articles, Lum (2005) and Saigo (2008) pointed to the nonexistent pipeline of Asian-American leaders in higher education, and called for immediate action plans to remedy this surprising reality. Asian Americans as a group are diverse, with 48 different ethnicities, and they have been responsible for the largest minority population increases in America (Chaudhari, Chan, & Ha, 2013). In contrast, the disparity of a limited number of Asian-American leaders leading the growing Asian-American student population in higher education has been a continual concern (Saigo, 2008).

In an effort to increase the awareness of the Asian-American leader shortage in higher education, a study is proposed to examine individual leadership qualities within the full leadership range of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) survey to better attract diverse individuals into higher education. By looking at two groups of individuals at the opposite ends of demographic experience, Caucasian-American individuals made up the largest ethnicity in the United States. At the opposite end, Asian Americans were one of the least represented (Native American being the least represented) minority groups among higher education leaders (CARE, 2010; Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

In this study, the researcher examined both Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals in a quantitative comparative research study to investigate the similarities and differences shared by both groups' leaders. The researcher's goals are to identify various leadership skills, traits, and experience as determined by the MLQ assessment and other differences demographically. Such results could advance future research studies to recruit and develop diverse individuals with potential leadership traits and skills of both genders into leadership positions in higher education.

Background of the Problem

Although the passage of the American Civil Rights Act of 1964 intended to make life for minorities more tolerable, some minority groups in America struggled to deal with racism in daily life and received less than their fair share of equal opportunity in employment (Chong, 2008; Saigo, 2008; Weinberg, 1997). Often overlooked, Asian Americans have been considered the model minority on social and academic advancements in equality. Thus, Asian Americans did not need additional support like

other more repressed minority groups (Chong, 2008; Saigo, 2008). This persistent false view of the Asian model minority became a prevalent myth that ironically resulted in a limited advancement of Asian Americans across all sectors, notably administrative and leadership positions in higher education (CARE, 2010; Saigo, 2008).

In many Asian-American studies, the diversity of this community still showed underrepresentation in many private, public, and government sectors (Chaudhari, Chan, & Ha, 2013). Out of the 48 ethnicities of Asian Americans, the most familiar ethnic subgroups are as follows: Bangladeshi and Pakistani, Cambodian, Chinese, Filipino, Hmong, Indian, Japanese, Korean, Laotian, Native Hawaiian and Pacific Islander, Taiwanese, and Vietnamese (Chaudhari, Chan, & Ha, 2013; Le, 2010). Although nine (Bangladeshi and Pakistani, Chinese, Filipino, Indian, Japanese, Korean, Taiwanese, and Vietnamese) of the more familiar subgroups outperformed the other five (Cambodian, Hmong, Laotian, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander) in academic comparison within groups that could have supported the Asian model minority myth, all subgroups were still well underrepresented in all work sectors (CARE, 2014).

In contrast, the mainstream view of Asian Americans as overachieving in academics as one large group perpetuated by the media only communicated one side of the story. As noted earlier on the diversity of Asian Americans, especially the differences between the high- and low-achieving subgroups among the 14 familiar ethnic subgroups, the other remaining 34 ethnicities were missing from the literature review. Specifically, Asian-American Pacific Islander (AAPI) individuals from Southeast Asian like Laotian, Hmong, and Cambodia, and island nations like Samoan, Tongan, Guamanian, and Native Hawaiian have the least success in academics among other Asian-American subgroups

(Chaudhari, Chan, & Ha, 2013). These AAPI students, who represented seven subgroups of the 19 ethnic groups, struggled academically (as a whole, only 50% graduated high school and 17% or less finished a four-year college program) and economically. AAPI as a group may have been unintentionally ignored entirely because of the Asian model minority myth (Le, 2010; Saigo, 2008).

The news focused on the positive trend of the other larger and more successful ethnic subgroups of Asian Americans: Japanese American, Chinese Americans, Korean Americans, and Asian Indian Americans. These four larger and academically accomplished subgroups of Asian Americans graduated in higher numbers with bachelor's level education than Whites, Blacks, Hispanics, and other minority groups. Because the other seven AAPI subgroups that have been mistakenly lumped into the high achieving group, these lower performing groups were mislabeled (Chaudhari, Chan, & Ha, 2013). This misunderstanding that all Asian-American subgroups are academically successful may have hindered study support and growth for the overlooked smaller subgroups of AAPI. In addition, the very small numbers of all Asian Americans who are leaders in the field of higher education made this study a critical need for expanding the field (CARE, 2010; Le, 2010).

With the increased awareness that the Asian model minority myth can be misleading for some AAPI students attending American higher education institutions, this researcher revisited studies on the AAPI's social, economic, and political life to provide support for a new direction. One of the many goals of this study was to find support for new directions and research concerning Asian Americans in higher education and for increasing their participation in this segment of education in the United States.

Leadership development is crucial in American higher education environment. One activity that can nurture such development is identifying effective leadership qualities in Asian-American leaders in higher education to model for future Asian American students and leaders. This study is important to the growing field of research and practice in higher education.

Problem Statement

Higher learning is essential for individual growth and for fostering global community awareness, and having a balanced and diverse group of education leaders is a critical to the success of institution involved in this mission (CARE, 2014). Over the past 30 years, as this study's literature review shows, Asian-American leaders in the United States higher education field are underrepresented relative to the growth in Asian-American student population (CARE, 2014; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). Some researchers revealed that Asian-American higher education leaders represented less than 1% of college presidents (35 in of 3,191 two- and four-year institutions) (Lum, 2005; Saigo, 2008). AAPI students as a group represented educational attainment figures that are comparable to Black and Hispanic populations, as noted previously. Often, the whole group of Asian Americans universally was misportrayed as academic overachievers in mainstream media (CARE, 2014; Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

A false belief that all Asian-American students excel in academics has made some AAPI students afraid to seek help because the model minority stereotype forced them to struggle on in school silently, failing therefore to benefit from available resources. The consequences of this false expectation have been low graduation and high attrition rates for AAPI students through United States' higher education (CARE, 2010; Wang &

Teranishi, 2012). Increasing Asian-American leaders in higher education could result in greater attention to the AAPI underperformance, which, in turn, could result in solutions to the problematic state of affairs for such students (Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

The literature has suggested that, AAPIs' lack of career opportunities and advancement could be associated with racism, cultural misunderstandings, and lack of mentorship programs (Saigo, 2008; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). Chapter 2 highlights these areas of cultural misunderstanding and provides an understanding as to why advancement for Asian Americans in the field of education was more challenging than believed. Leaders are critical for any changes in an organization; thus, understanding how to increase, support, and train Asian-American leaders with the right leadership skills and abilities can provide a positive change that match its growing number of students on campuses nationwide (Bolman & Deal, 2008). In some organizations, mentorship or network opportunities have worked to advance many individual to become leaders (Brown & Reilly, 2009; Perrakis, Campbell, & Antonaros, 2009).

With so many theories and support on leadership, transformational leaders have been heavily researched (over a third of the field of leadership research concerns transformational leadership theory) and supported in making effective changes in Western organizations, such as in the United States (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Northouse, 2004). For this reason, understanding and preparing future Asian-American individuals with transformational leadership skills can improve the educational product of institutions of higher education and their respective minority groups (Liang & Fassinger, 2008; Nguyen, Huynh, & Lonergan-Garwick, 2007; Shen & Lowinger, 2007). There is no

quantitative research study that uses the MLQ survey's full range leadership model to examine Asian-American leaders in higher education.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental comparative study was to measure and compare the leadership styles of higher education professionals across levels of responsibility between Asian-American and Caucasian-American individuals. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and additional demographic surveys were used to obtain measurements and personal information for the dependent and independent variables. The MLQ survey measures nine characteristics of leadership qualities from 32 observed leadership behaviors and attributes that form nine components (subscales) of the transformational, transactional, or passive/avoidant (laissez-faire). The volunteered participants from both groups answered demographic questions and some personal reflections regarding their life experiences related to leadership potential and development. Using the MLQ, the two groups self-rated themselves by voluntary participation in the survey. Data analyses examined the differences of these two bimodal groups' independent and dependent variables relating to the study to find patterns that could lead to a better understanding of leaders in higher education. Such insights could help future researchers prepare a better plan or recommend a more practical leadership selection, training, and mentoring program.

The dependent variables of the study used the subscale levels of transformation leadership qualities consisted of five characteristics in idealized attributes (IA), idealized behaviors (IB), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). Other remaining dependent variables included the two

lower leadership qualities of transactional (contingent reward and management by active exception) and laissez-faire (management by passive exception and laissez-faire) leadership styles that made up the four remaining subscale characteristics.

The independent variables in this study used demographic characteristics such as age, gender, race, mentorship experience, socioeconomic background, and birth country of the participants. The researcher sought to provide a descriptive and informative picture of the study of leadership and its makeup in the United States from Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA). From this organization, discerned patterns of related or non-related variables in leadership potential and achievement of their members, and invited future researchers to advance the knowledge and study in higher education leaders.

No formal leadership program existed to promote or increase Asian Americans into educational administration or leadership positions as indicated in Lum's (2005) report, so the need to understand the barriers and challenges for Asian Americans to become higher education leaders in America was an overdue issue (CARE, 2010; Saigo, 2008; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). Results of this study could help leaders to direct and make effective recommendation on practices to hire and increase Asian Americans and Asian-American Pacific Islanders (AAPIs) into administrative and leadership positions in higher education.

For the United States to maintain its position as global democratic leaders in diversity, a fair representation of all subgroups of Asian-American administrators and leaders are needed in higher education. These minority leaders are critical in preparing future generations of increasing Asian-American Pacific Islander students in the United

States' population (Executive Order #13515, 2009; Saigo, 2008; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). This researcher focused on topics of many diverse subgroups of Asian-American Pacific Islander leadership experiences and highlighted some possible challenges of attaining the administration and leadership positions in higher education.

Significance of the Study to Leadership

Although Lin's study on two groups of Asian-American and Caucasian students highlighted college impact theories of student and leadership development for the two groups, there have been no quantitative studies specifically concentrated on the aspects of Asian-American leadership characteristics in higher education (Lin, 2010; Lin, 2007). The closest study on Asian college leaders was Hu's (2008) small qualitative research survey of seven senior college administrators and presidents in California provided a useful start for understanding how the small number of Asian-American leaders could be increased. Even though Hu's (2008) research study examined qualitative values from seven Asian-American individuals, a larger quantitative research sample of leadership qualities and individual demographics of Asian-American leaders was missing from higher education research.

In this study, the focus was on two bimodal racial groups representing Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals in higher education. These groups were employed as either faculty or administrators, managers of student affairs. The MLQ, which assess leadership skills and qualities, was administered to all groups. Researchers could use the study result to direct recruiting and mentoring of qualified Asian-American individuals into higher education leadership positions. Culturally, this researcher assumed a low frequency of transformational leadership qualities in Asian-Americans participants

but high leadership qualities in Caucasian-Americans participants (Furr, Liang, & Nixon, 2012). If the study were to produce such results, then steps should be taken to increase Asian Americans' opportunities and help advance them into higher education leadership positions.

A personal experience story from Chancellor Renu Khator related that cultural misunderstandings and lack of initiatives for Asian Americans to participate in networking and mentoring programs made it more difficult for a person like her to advance (Neilson & Suyemoto, 2009). Lum (2009) reported that the disparity of Asian-American individuals (<1%) in higher education presidents compared to Black (4.6%) and Hispanic (5.8%) groups still persisted after previous decade of research (Saigo, 2008; Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

To increase the number of Asian Americans in higher education positions, future generations of low-achieving AAPI students could be inspired to increase their graduation rate to be on par with Caucasians and the other four larger advantaged Asian-American subgroups. Lum (2009) interviewed UC Merced chancellor Dr. Sung-Mo Kang about his personal career path to leadership from academic faculty to administration, a transition that was unintended. Kang followed the traditional path to leadership from the academic side but understood that not a large number of them are from the academic side. Kang believed that more Asian Americans would have considered higher education leadership positions if they were given the opportunity from different fields or industries (Lum, 2009). Perrakis, Campbell, and Antonaros (2009) recommended a plan to increase Asian-American leaders by recruiting qualified individuals from other fields like business, finance, and law. If this practice worked, then similar efforts and programs

could be implemented to other minority groups in America from outside of academia to increase the number of diverse leaders.

Nature of the Study

This non-experimental comparative quantitative study used the MLQ survey as a research instrument to assess Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals in leadership positions at the higher education level to evaluate various leadership styles to find if a significant difference exists between these two sample groups. In this research study, participants answered demographic questions in addition to the MLQ survey. The MLQ offered the researcher a validated and an efficient measure of various leadership styles that included transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors and style from self-assessment of higher education leaders (Bass, Dong, & Avolio, 2003). The analyzed research data of Asian-American leaders compared Caucasian-American leaders in higher education living within the United States of America in a one-time measurement (cross-sectional study).

By analyzing an additional set of demographic data and other given characteristics from the questionnaire, some descriptive data and comparative analyses were drawn from these two sample groups. By understanding differences in transformational leadership qualities and other various leadership traits of the majority group of Caucasian-American and the minority group of Asian-American individuals, and future Asian-American leaders could better plan and develop themselves accordingly for the opportunity of a leadership position in higher education.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Transformational leadership qualities are highly valued in organizations and help inspires followers and produced changes that achieve set goals. Higher education institutions are very similar to business organizations with varying complex levels of culture and bureaucratic layers that require effective leaders to navigate, manage, and lead successfully (Birnbaum, 1988; Bolman & Deal, 2008). By examining two contrasting groups of leaders, Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals, significant differences on leadership qualities and behaviors revealed some possible future studies that could help lead to practical models for Asian-American leaders. The following research questions concerning potential leadership qualities are:

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the difference in the full range leadership levels (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) between Caucasian-American and Asian-American higher educational leaders?

RQ2: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between mentored and non-mentored experience leaders?

RQ3: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between leaders who were born in the United States and those who were foreign born?

RQ4: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between leaders who were born from lower and higher socioeconomic status (SES) background?

RQ5: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between older and younger leaders working in higher education?

RQ6: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between male and female leaders working in higher education?

Hypotheses

$H1_0$: Concerning transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire qualities in leadership, there is no significant difference between Caucasian-American and Asian-American leaders.

H1a: Concerning transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire qualities in leadership, there is a significant difference between Caucasian-American and Asian-American leaders.

$H2_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference between leaders with mentored and non-mentored experience.

H2a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference between leaders with mentored and non-mentored experience.

$H3_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference between leaders of higher education who were born in the United States than those who were foreign born.

H3a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference between higher education leaders who were born in the United States than those who were foreign born.

$H4_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference between leaders from a higher level of socio-economic background than those from a lower level of socioeconomic background.

H4a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference between leaders from a higher level of socioeconomic background than those from a lower level of socioeconomic background.

$H5_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference of older leaders than younger ones.

H5a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference of older leaders than younger ones.

$H6_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference of male leaders than female leaders.

H6a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference of male leaders than female leaders.

Theoretical Framework

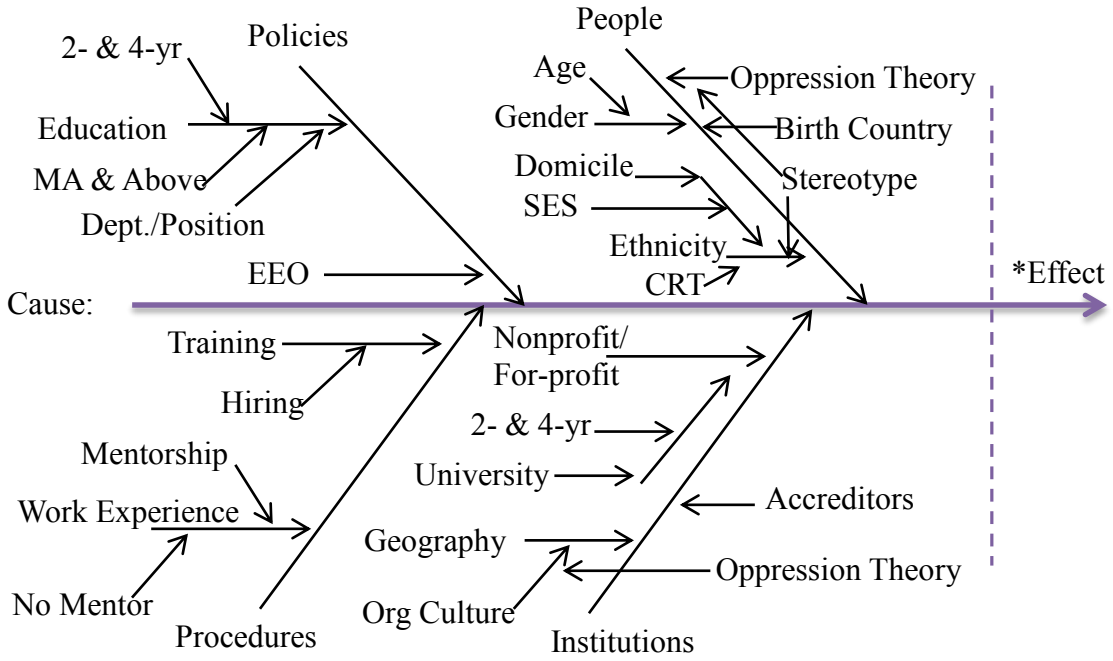
The theoretical frameworks for this quantitative study are divided into two parts. In the first part, it followed historical accounts of race issues in the United States through the lens of theory of oppression, critical race theory, and white identity theory, and all relevant concepts to those theories for a better understanding of the two groups in Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans (Gus, 2009; Kwon, 2009; Marger, 2009). The research gap on the underrepresentation of Asian-American leaders in higher education was found. According to the 2014 CARE report and Lum (2005) previously, Asian-American higher education leaders and presidents were underrepresented compared to the fast growing Asian-American student population.

In the second part, the theoretical frameworks included are total quality management (TQM) business theories and practices, trait leadership, and

transformational leadership theories for higher educational leaders to consider when planning for a positive change in their organizational strategy. For example, business leaders and organizations have used Deming and Ishikawa's theories as models for successful implementation of continuous quality improvement strategies (Radziwill & Benton, 2013; Zairi, 2013). These three theoretical frameworks of TQM philosophy, trait leadership, and transformational leadership theories could also provide higher education leaders critical insights to resolve the underrepresentation of Asian-American leaders in the United States (Lakshman, 2006). Furthermore, identifying trait leadership characteristics and using transformational leadership styles could aid higher education institutions to find diverse leaders and train them to lead effectively the growing diverse U.S. student population.

The result of this study has led the researcher to develop a modified Ishikawa's fishbone (cause and effect) diagram to represent the logical connections of the theories and concepts. In this cause and effect diagram (see *Figure* 1), it shows four main areas of people, policies, procedures, and institutions (and most of its related concepts, factors, variables, and theories) possibly affecting the underrepresentation of Asian-American higher educational leaders in the United States. Although the graph is not complete because of space issues, it provides a good starting point for the study and those missing items are covered in Chapter 2.

Cause and Effect Diagram



*Effect: Underrepresentation of Asian-American Higher Educational Leaders

Figure 1. Hypothesized cause and effect diagram of underrepresentation of Asian-American higher education leaders.

Total Quality Management (TQM)

TQM is a quality improvement process that focuses on the customer and service of the business. TQM was first developed in Japan after World War II with the help of American quality experts of W. Edwards Deming, Joseph M. Juran, and Philip B. Crosby to restore Japan's business economy (Zairi, 2013). After Japan's 50 years of strong economic growth and domination of the world's economy, TQM principles and practices spread to the United States and other world economies (Zairi, 2013). Deming's theory included 14 points on how to improve business processes to achieve TQM. Another notable TQM pioneer that worked with Deming and Juran was Ichiro Ishikawa, who

developed the Ishikawa diagram to determine the root cause of problems graphically (Zairi, 2013).

Redmond, Curtis, Noone, and Keenan (2008) reviewed Deming's 14 principles for transforming the service industry and examined six of those 14 principles as critical factors to consider in higher educational management to lead quality initiatives effectively in the organization. Redmond et al. (2008) believed education service was equivalent to 'pure service' because the education process of students involved no physical product in the production sense but through dialogue, learning, and relationships between teacher and students and students and their college environment. From Deming's 14 principles, the authors cited six principles that higher education should concentrate on:

1. Adapt a new philosophy with management learning what their responsibilities are and by assuming leadership for change
2. Cease dependents on mass inspection for quality by building quality into the service
3. Aim for continuous improvement of the service to improve quality and decrease costs
4. Institute leadership with the aim of supervising people to help them do a better job
5. Drive out fear so that everyone can work effectively together for the organization
6. Break down barriers between departments and encourage departments to work together (Redmond et al., p. 434).

These six summaries of Deming's 14 principles are some good points for leaders to consider using to improve their organization's effectiveness on improving their service to their students.

Trait Leadership

Trait leadership approach is straight forward because the central idea of effective leaders depends largely on certain set of traits and personality of the individuals (Dubrin, 2007). Organizations would operate better if these managers or leaders have certain designated leadership profiles or traits. Thus, identifying these individuals with effective leadership traits and giving them the position and power to lead would only benefit the organizations. The strengths of trait leadership are appealing because recognizing some of the leadership traits of charisma, strong communication skills, and strong ethnical behaviors in people are easily recognizable (Dubrin, 2007). In addition, these desirable traits of leadership are believed to be within all individuals, some are more advance than others but all can be developed to their full potential if given the right opportunity and training (Germaine, 2012).

Badshah (2012) examined the study of leadership within the last 50-plus years in terms of characteristics or traits, sets of behaviors or styles, situation or environment, and cognitive or social processes. Even with scientific research, the universal agreement on leadership theories, definitions, and operations of 70-plus years of empirical data had not yielded a common acceptance of leadership terms (Badshah, 2012). Although leadership theories and models were numerous, Badshah (2012) summarized 10 schools of thought: trait, behavioral, contingency, path-goal, decision-making, managerial grid, transactional leadership, leader-member exchange, transformational leadership, and charisma

leadership theories. Thus, trait and transformational leadership shared some similar traits that could help individuals become better leaders if they work hard on developing them.

Transformational Leadership

According to Northouse (2004), transformational leadership theories have been researched and studied since the early 1980s and have accounted for about one-third of all leadership articles by the beginning of the 2000s. The abundant support for transformational leadership has continued with each decade. Transformational leaders are concerned with the performance of their followers and developing the fullest potential of those followers (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Dubrin, 2007). Bass and Avolio (2004) believed transformational leaders can lead followers to transcend to a higher level of production and achievement in three ways: (a) communicating the importance of goals and leading them to reach or go beyond those set goals, (b) inspiring teamwork over individual self-interest for the sake of the company, (c) keeping the followers to sustain those higher performances (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004).

Transformational leadership style is one of three leadership styles in a full range leadership model continuum in which individuals are assessed according to how they responded to a series of questions that measure leadership behaviors in certain situations. The other two leadership styles along the continuum are "transactional" and "laissez-faire." Two versions of MLQ questionnaires are available—one for self-raters and one for subordinate raters. The MLQ has become standardized, with a short-form consisting of 45 questions measuring nine characteristics for subscale analysis (Bass & Avolio, 2004). The MLQ surveys have been used widely to identify and train leaders across the globe to compete internationally.

Conceptual Framework Summary

Drawing from both Deming and Ishikawa's graphical depiction of outline processes or linkages of concepts for better understanding of developing a practical model for higher educational leaders to consider when executing a plan of implementation of hiring Asian-American individuals with potential leadership traits and characteristics with the use of MLQ and other TQM practices as shown in the plan-, do-, check-, act- (PDCA) concept map (Figure 2).

Process Decision Check Act (PDCA)

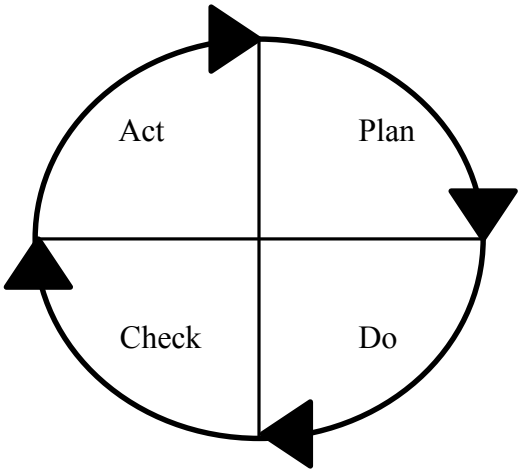


Figure 2. Deming's PDCA model of implementation.

The PDCA chart *(Figure 2*) is a method that maps out conceivable events and contingencies which can occur in any implementation plan. It also identifies possible countermeasures to these problems. This a tool used to plan each possible chain of events

that needs to occur when the problem or goal is an unfamiliar one (Brassard, 1996; Zairi, 2013). A more detail discussion is in Chapter 5 in the *contribution to the field of higher education leadership* section.

Definitions

Asian American. This a person who is a native or inhabitant of the United States and who shares an ethnic identity with one or more combination of 48 different Asian ethnicities from the continent of Asia. The more familiar 19 ethnicities are Asian Indian, Bangladeshi, Cambodian, Chinese, Filipino, Guamanian/Chamorro, Hmong, Indonesian, Japanese, Korean, Laotian, Malaysian, Native Hawaiian, Pakistani, Samoan, Sri Lankan, Thai, Tongan, and Vietnamese (CARE, 2014; Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

Asian-American Pacific Islander (AAPI). In this study, AAPI represents the seven disadvantaged groups of Asian-American students including Laotians, Hmong, Cambodia, Samoan, Tongan, Guamanian/Chamorro, and Native Hawaiians. AAPIs are subgroups of Asian Americans, but in this study, disaggregated data were needed for clarity to dispel the Asian model minority myth and to understand the knowledge gap that bimodal academic and economic achievements existed for some Asian Americans in the AAPI subgroups (CARE, 2014; Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

Asian model minority myth. A concept portraying all Asian Americans as achieving high socioeconomic status based on their hard work, focus on education, and cultural values as evidenced by four major subgroups of Asian-Americans, namely, the Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Asian Indian (CARE, 2014; Kwon, 2009). This general belief that all Asians were a successful minority group was used by White majority as a political ploy to silence any racial injustice complaints against Blacks during the Civil

Rights Movement during the 1960s was widely believed by critical race theorists. This false belief continues to support and challenge any positive steps to improve the other many remaining subgroups of Asian Americans (CARE, 2014; Kwon, 2009). Specifically, this subgroup of Asian Americans are Asian-American Pacific Islander (AAPI) who are economically, politically, and academically disadvantaged, similarly to the Blacks and Hispanic students (CARE, 2014; Wang & Teranishi, 2012).

Caucasian American. A person identified as part of the majority White group in the United States and of European ethnic descent. The issues of race are less salient but are more based on other personal values (religion, family, or occupation), beliefs (political, nationality, or belief), or variables salient to the individual self (Fife, McCreary, Kilgour, Canter, & Adegoke, 2010).

Critical race theory (CRT). CRT emphasized that race is a social construction from the dominant society to favor White or European individuals, which indirectly and directly suppressed minority groups because its design inherently favored the dominant White group (Ortiz & Jani, 2010).

Laissez-faire leadership. This expression refers to a leader who does not take responsibility, delays decision-making, gives no feedback, and makes little or no effort to help the subordinates satisfy their needs; thus, the hands-off-and-let-things-ride approach to leading (Ivey & Kline, 2010; Northouse, 2004).

Meritocracy. A meritocracy was defined by Young (1994) as "… a society or social system in which people attain status or rewards because of what they achieve rather than because of their wealth or social status" (Pappas & Tremblay, 2010, p. 31).

Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ). The MLQ is the most widely used measure of transformational leadership. It has undergone many revisions to strengthen its reliability and validity since 1985. It is comprised of questions that measure individuals' transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership style for the purpose of helping improve their individual leadership attributes and skills. In prior research studies, the MLQ used was both in short-form and long-form. The long form consisted of 63 questions used for training, development, and feedback purposes. In contrast, the short-form is the only version available for research use. The MLQ survey has two versions for (a) individual self-rating and (b) peer/subordinate rating. The choice of using a self-rating or peer/subordinate rating is determined by the research use and goal.

Oppression. A systematically unfair treatment that can be psychologically and physically harming another individual's well-being. Such act is a social injustice through which is perpetuated through social institutions, practices, and norms on social groups by other social groups (Cudd, 2005).

Perpetual foreigner concept. This concept applies to individuals who look different in appearance from white individuals. These minority individuals ascribed to Asian American or other minority individuals as the other member of a different group from Whites (Northern European) in the United States no matter if he or she was born in America (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011).

Postmodern philosophy of education. This term refers to a group of education philosophers that believed gaps existed in education, knowledge, and technology. To fill

these gaps, individuals must be well educated and trained to meet and overcome those gaps within the changing world (Waghid & Smeyers, 2010).

Total Quality Management (TQM). TQM or continuous improvement system was an approach to satisfy all customers through constant refinement of organizational processes and financial, mechanical and human resources to meet or exceed statistical quality control of processes, products, and services (Zairi, 2013).

Trait leadership. This term refers to a category of leaders that all humans possess and can develop those desirable traits, motives, and other characteristics of leaders important for leadership success (Dubrin, 2007).

Transformational leadership. This term refers to a category of leader that is concerned with performance of their followers and developed those followers to their fullest potential (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Ivey & Kline, 2010; Mohammed, Othman, & D'Silva, 2012).

Transactional leadership. This is the group of leaders who are influential because doing what the leaders want is in the best interest of subordinates; transactional leaders do not individualize the needs of subordinates nor do they focus on their development as do transformational leaders (Ivey & Kline, 2010; Northouse, 2004).

White identity model. The worldview of whiteness stems from a historical and cultural context of characteristics and norms of dominant European cultures. These norms and values essentially fueled the founding principles and prosperity of early American frontier through individualism, self-reliance, and independence in the early 19th century. This rise of meritocracy historically favored and increased the concentration of wealth and power in the hands of White individuals to the detriment of other minority groups

through restrictive immigration laws, civil rights, housing, education, and voting rights (Gus, 2010).

Assumptions

In this study, the researcher has assumed that theory of oppression, critical race theory, white identity theory, and the examination of racism between Blacks and Whites in America could provide insight regarding racism between Asian Americans and Whites. The idea, support, and explanation concerning issues of human biases and racism are relative to each group's experiences and exposures to such situations. Thus, a clear line between right and wrong is debatable and unsettled. For this reason, a quantitative research method has been employed to help minimize some of the qualitative factors of human biases and judgments that can be prone to error (Pagano, 2010; Vogt, 2007).

The researcher assumed that all respondents who elected to participate answered the survey questions objectively and honestly. The respondents agreed to the terms and conditions of this survey research study set forth by a welcome letter and letter of inquiry for participants who would take part in the study. The researcher assumes that the participants are in good health and of sound mind when answering the MLQ and demographic questions through a web-based survey link. The participants have the option to cancel or remove themselves from the study at any time by contacting the researcher either through email, cell phone, or postal mail from a given contact information in the recruitment letter.

Scope

The researcher examined higher education administrators, faculty members, and professionals in the United States who are registered members through the Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA) professional organization. These higher education professionals who are in a leadership position in their respective institution deal with students, staff, and other colleagues by working toward the organizations' mission and values. A quantitative research method using the MLQ survey and additional demographic survey were used to compare the leadership styles of higher educational leaders across varying levels of positions between the two groups of Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans. The researcher investigated several leadership theories, critical race theories, historical studies, and other critical concepts and models described in the literature review to align the research questions and study goals. The list of factors examined in the study is not comprehensive and limited by keyword searches and database accessibility. The scope of the literature review was also limited by the researcher's selection of theories, current and past research, and any personal views or biases.

Limitations

Some limitations were hard to predict or control, such as any deliberately dishonest response. Certain responses could have varied because of inherent or unknown personal biases of any individuals. Because the researcher specifically targeted two distinct racial groups, data could have reflected cultural influences differently. Such differences of information were used to test against all six hypotheses. Even though the

surveys captured responses from both male and female individuals, equal response rates from both genders could not be guaranteed.

The Asian-American group presented the possibility of a limit on population size. The potential smaller sample of Asian-American participants compared to Caucasian Americans could affect the generalizability to the larger group of Asian-American population (Vogt, 2007).

Although a smaller power calculation of a sample of 128 (64 for each group) with an effect size of .05 and a power of .80 for an independent t-test is recommended, the unexpected smaller number of Asian-American group limited the researcher from executing a power analysis.

The challenges of stereotypes, racism, and cultural differences for the Asian-American group made it difficult to capture those abstract values and factors objectively into the two surveys in the MLQ and additional demographic questions from the participants. In addition, the qualitative concepts of the Asian model minority myth, perpetual foreigner, meritocracy, postmodern philosophy of education, white identity model, and underrepresentation of Asian Americans could not fit perfectly in the given theoretical frameworks for this study. These qualitative conceptual frameworks are necessary given the nature of the study to understand the dynamic and challenging relationship these two groups of Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans continually operate in.

The accuracy of the leaders' positions in higher education is not as narrow or specific. In this study, it represented the United States' population and no other countries because of differences in culture, policy, and processes. Time, money, and other

constraints have been considered to make this an effective use of the study's limited access to those resources.

Delimitations

The delimitation in the study was in not using a qualitative research method. The study of Asian American leadership in higher education with a quantitative research design was scant. Other excluded minority groups of Blacks and Hispanics were not considered because research literature was abundant for Blacks and Hispanics populations. Although Native Americans are understudied, this particular group rested outside of the researcher's area of expertise. Other survey instruments were not chosen because of time, cost, unfamiliarity, or they do not align with the researcher's topic of interest. The process of developing a new research instrument or measurement tool would have been prohibitively costly or time consuming.

Summary

The major goal of this study was to add knowledge to the growing field of Asian American leadership research in higher education and leadership theories in general. This first chapter concentrated on introducing the research and reality gaps of underrepresented Asian Americans in higher education. Higher education as a field has both progressive and conservative elements, progressive in its pursuit of knowledge but slow changing in its practices. In modern times, women and some minority groups have gained advancement into leadership positions in some fields, especially given that a greater number of advanced degrees are issued to women than to men (Jaschik, 2010).

Asian Americans are another small, but fastest growing minority group that wants to participate at the leadership level (CARE, 2014). This study results has given the

researcher some insights to notice some of these changes in higher education leadership trends. The decision to use the MLQ to support data on transformation leadership styles in higher education on two groups at opposite ends of the leadership spectrum could uncover some new information about higher education leadership. Additional theories like theory of oppression, critical race theory, and white identity theory with related concepts of white identity model, Asian model minority myth, postmodern philosophy in education, and meritocracy were introduced. In addition, three theoretical frameworks of TQM philosophy (PDCA map), trait and transformational leadership theories are further examined in Chapter 2.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

This chapter will begin with reviewing the complexity of historical racism in the United States in part one. With three related theories of oppression, critical race, and White identity to better understand the complexity of race and discrimination, additional related concepts of Asian Americans as a model minority have had unintended negative effect on Asian Americans. In a related view, the perpetual foreigner concept established the support that appearances of non-white individuals continued to suffer unintended biases because of ignorance and cultural biases. In contrast, for some individuals belonging to the dominant group such as White individuals in America, they may have had more advantages than minority groups. The White identity model research was examined to understand these advantages better. A final summary of AAPI's conditions in the political, social, and economic areas could highlight some of the unintended results of unrepresented Asian Americans in higher education.

In part two of the literature review, a concise review of the higher education structure and leadership needs was addressed. The theoretical frameworks of TQM, trait leadership, and transformational leadership theories were examined and found to be interrelated. Because of the strong connection and empirical evidence of practice in the business and education fields for the last 60-plus years, these three theories with a modified Deming PDCA map gave an effective tool for higher education leaders to use as a guide for the study's conceptual framework (Zairi, 2013; Lakshman, 2006).

Title Searches, Articles, Research Documents, Journals Researched

The literature review was executed through the University of Phoenix Library internet search databases as follows: ProQuest, EBSCOhost, Emerald eBooks, and the University of Phoenix's Dissertation and Theses. Also included were relevant academic textbooks, conference research briefs, and booklets related to Asian Americans in higher education, higher education leadership, business leaders, and MLQ studies. The keywords used in the search database included: Asian Americans in higher education, higher education leaders and Asian Americans, higher education and transformational leaders, critical race theory and Asian Americans, meritocracy, postmodern education, White identity model, Asian minority model, and perpetual foreigner. The electronic documents retrieved were mostly PDF copies of articles and chapters and some in text documents.

Table 1 provides a summary of the literature reviewed concerning the study topic. Of the sources cited below, more than 85% were published within the last five years and were of relevance to keywords and topic relation, from 2008 to 2014. Only a small portion of the research study result was used for topic relevance specifically related to specific Asian-American subgroups.

Table 1

Literature Reviewed Searched Yielded in Support of the Research Topic

Keywords	EBSCOhost	ProQuest	Emerald	UoP Dissert. & Theses	Books
Asian Americans (AA) & higher education	17	26,068	1,839	0	620
Higher education and transformation leaders	0	2,262	696	4	123
Higher education leadership	209	40,099	5,939	1,123	1,218

Transformational leaders & MLQ	0	189	113	145	6
Critical race theory & AA	14	6,573	305	0	242
Asian minority model	24	11,796	616	0	320
Perpetual foreigner	3	494	2	0	4
White identity model	3	403	18	0	16
Postmodern education philosophy	44	2,320	214	1	92
Meritocracy (AA)	144	334	19	15	34

Note. The literature review search was executed in November 2013.

The searches using large databases such as ProQuest, Emerald, and EBSCOhost yielded more related articles, documents, and books by using various keywords. Even with a large parameter, the majority of the search result did not relate directly to the study topic after a quick review of the abstracts. A much smaller number (less than 10%) of literature reviews was reviewed because the study topic of Asian Americans researched within the keyword searches resulted in a smaller number of related topics on Asian Americans. The zero result of transformational leadership study on Asian-American individuals as the main group was surprising and interesting, making this study as one of the first studies on Asian-American leaders as a main group in higher education using the MLQ survey.

Theory of Oppression

Cudd (2005) examined explanatory theories of normative concepts (ontological, theoretical, pragmatic, and moral) and supported a set of criteria for the theory of oppression through a structural rational choice theory as the most promising methodology for empirical analysis. Cudd believed that for every social group that was oppressed, there were correlative social groups whose members gained materially or psychologically

from the oppression, which she called the oppressor groups as *privileged* groups. Oppression then became stabled, practiced, and accepted by the institution of laws or policies by the privileged groups over other oppressed groups. Through a structural rational choice theory view, it assumed that agents behave rationally to maximize their reward by social groups. The oppressor group behaved rationally to start the oppression, and potentially, the privileged groups could also change morally for the better to maximize their new reward if plan out correctly for such positive change (Cudd, 2005).

Embrick (2011) investigated the notion of diversity in business organizations and interviewed 40 executive-level managers in Fortune 1000 companies about their ideology and practices of advancing diversity issues and goals. Embrick's examination encountered familiar oppressive themes of white dominating culture such as 'white male solidarity' that ran the corporate world and safeguarded access and opportunity from individuals not like them. The 40 participants were 13 women and 27 men (three Black, two Latinas, one Asian, and 34 White) with ages range from early 30s to late 60s. Embrick's interviews highlighted an interesting but concerning viewpoint that "… whites will tend to support minority managers who are of like mind rather than those who threaten their dominant and privileged status in the company" (p. 551). Embrick (2011) also found that HR managers could not effectively state their company's diversity policies or practices even though they believed their organization had such plans.

Psychologically, Pyke (2010) investigated the sociological study of internalized racism and its effects on individuals who experienced it and still suffered from biased viewpoints and values through the lens of critical social theory. Pyke confirmed that the psychological paradigm of White racism (dominating group norm) oppressing minority

individuals and groups through racist stereotypes, values, images, and ideologies existed and continued to cause psychological wounds and challenges to minority individuals to overcome them. Pyke (2010) examined the concept of "model resistor stereotypes" of non-white individuals (Blacks like Rosa Parks, MLK, Michael Jackson, and many others) who resisted oppression and were used by Whites as political resource to detract from the real root causes of racism. Such calculated strategy also supported the White privilege or supremacy of the dominant group by championing those successful non-white individuals.

Wilson (2011) critically examined the racial conflict and its construction from neo-Marxist and Gramscian perspectives that focused on the economic, political, and cultural systems which were created by and for the dominant class of whites. Wilson accounted the Southern system of plantation slavery as a critical part of the emerging capitalist system that maximized the accumulation of wealth for white plantation owners. Using one empirical study of a select county data in Louisiana and Mississippi, Wilson (2012) showed that white class owners owned over 75% of the land and production before and after the Civil War. Although discrimination policies changed after the Civil Rights era, the practices still existed through a capitalist system that is owned by a dominant elite class of whites.

Critical Race Theory

Kim (2011) reviewed historical case studies of multicultural educational efforts in the United States, including critical race theory, whiteness theory, and the role of multicultural education on pre-service teacher education training. Kim (2011) noted that colorblindness and meritocracy concepts have been used as coping mechanisms to treat

students equally but have not succeeded. Such failure was evaluated by critical race theorists wanting genuine experience and understanding of racism and racialization effects from White privilege. The author attempted to bring in serious discussion on preparing pre-service teachers with real and genuine understanding of race issues through critical race theory, but it lacked authentic study methods.

Gusa (2010) examined case study analyses and presented concepts concerning critical race theory (CRT) in predominately White institutional presence (WIP) (a term coined by Gusa). Gusa believed WIP still maintained and practiced embedded ideology supporting majority rule through four attributes: of White ascendancy, monoculturalism, White estrangement, and White blindness.

As an example, Gusa (2010) cited FBI statistics as support of crimes against minorities as the third highest report of racial hate crimes in high education settings. From this high incident of hate crimes on campus, some research studies used it as support for the reason some Black students' high attrition rates can be related to racial discrimination at predominately White colleges and universities. Gusa's (2010) article was a criticism of the affairs of predominately White institutions not addressing the true dialogue about race or accepting the uncomfortable reality of White privilege on their campuses.

Similarly, Ortiz and Jani (2010) addressed the need for changes, such as adopting a CRT framework in the social work education to reflect the increasing diversity of the U.S. population. CRT emphasized that the race term was a social construction in society; thus, recognizing these gaps, informed individuals could make better choices to aid marginalized ones through dialogue and improve social relations. Ortiz and Jani (2010)

critiqued CRT and postmodern philosophy on education structures, recognized that the organization of higher education system favored White or European individuals and suppressed minority groups inherently because of its deliberate design for the majority group (Gusa, 2010; Jungkunz, 2011).

In academics, Sohn (2011) examined the debate of the Black-white test score gap between economic analyses and other non-economic data. Through a critical race theory perspective, understanding on why some Black students did not accept academic excellence as a group goal like whites or some Asians did. As a minority group member, CRT included Asian Americans into the debate as excelling in academics. The Asian group was used as an example against Blacks, which may have led to unintended rivalry between the two minority groups.

Through historical case studies analysis, qualitative accounts, and national test scores, a hypothesis as to why some minority groups (such as some Asian groups) acted more White to excel in academics was both supported and not supported, depending on which minority group was examined (Sohn, 2011). Why academics worked for some Asian Americans but not as much for Blacks in the study were not completely examined or explained (Sohn, 2011). Further study was needed for both sides to continue the debate.

From the students' view, Smith and Hawkins (2011) examined a university's database of end-of-semester evaluations of students' rating of their professors. The researchers observed a three-year period of data collection of 13,702 student ratings for tenure-track faculty. The survey consisted of 36-item questions that 190 tenure-track faculty participated in the study.

Although the faculty make-up showed 82% White (156), 13% Black (24), and 5% identified as "Other" (10), the survey data distributed similarly to the student demographics: 87% White, 6.5% Black, 4% Hispanics, and 2% Asians. Past studies indicated that Hispanic and Asian-American faculty received lower scores than White faculty, but the study result influenced Smith and Hawkins (2011) to believe that Black faculty's mean scores were lower than White and other minority faculty members. CRT can partly explain the study's result of Black faculty receiving lower scores than White faculty since majority of the student demographics was also White (Smith & Hawkins, 2011).

In another related study, teachers were looked upon as role models in Riley's (2010) study that examined whether teacher expectations could be harmful to minority students through supporting theories of stigma, stereotyping, and attribution. Even though critical race or whiteness theory was useful to examine social inequalities at the general level, a deeper level of analysis was needed. Riley's (2010) examination provided a more understanding on the micro-level of individual labels, categories, and belief systems that were constructed from CRT and it could have a more negative effect for certain individuals than for others.

Riley's (2010) criticism of critical race and whiteness theories found them to support the theories of stigma, stereotyping, and attribution on matters of individual consideration unique to each situation. Since mistakes on tracking, attribution, or stereotyping from a teacher can later influence the negative stereotype of individual students to other teachers, Riley (2010) recommended eliminating the old teacher's pre-judgment of the student's progress report. A teacher's role on influencing stereotypes of

individuals can be harmful and unintended. Thus, later teachers should somehow keep an open mind about all their students by ignoring previous old individual reports.

In an attempt to confirm the Asian stereotype, Trytten, Lowe, and Walden (2012) used a mixed method study of academic transcript data, surveys, and semi-interviews of Asian-American engineering students' perception and experience on fitting the model minority stereotype of meritocracy in the United States. The authors reaffirmed that at the heart of CRT described, "… race is an artificial device used by those in power to differentiate and subordinate less powerful groups" (p. 443).

Using Oklahoma State University's engineering minority students (African American, Hispanic American, Asian American, and Native American), the study consisted of 159 participants doing about 227 interviews and answering demographic questions. Using ANOVA calculations for the GPA among the minority groups, Asian-American students' GPA was not significantly higher than other minority groups (Trytten, Lowe, & Walden, 2012).

Even though the Asian model minority myth was not supported by the result of the study that Asian-American students were significantly more prepared than the other four minority groups' GPA, the researchers found that the Asian students chose engineering as a major for economic and prestige reasons from their qualitative interviews. A possible explanation on why later generations of Asian Americans performed better was because earlier generation of students were pressured more to pursue engineering or other STEM degrees (higher income potential) than later generations. The study was limited to one university in Oklahoma and not representative of the general U.S. population (Trytten, Lowe, & Walden, 2012).

Similarly, Le and Gardner (2010) examined the experiences of Asian international students in the STEM fields at an American university. A significant number in 2007 showed that 55.6% of all doctoral degrees were conferred to international students from Asian countries like China, Korea, India, and Taiwan; this large share of international tuition represented a $14 billion dollar industry for higher education institutions in the United States (Le & Gardner, 2010).

Using purposive selection of STEM departments, a random selection of 30 participants from three departments for qualitative interview techniques were used for the data collection process. The three main common themes that emerged from the Asian international doctoral students included support (financial, social, and academic), career and family (economic and honor), and departmental issues (limited offering, poorly funded, teaching quality). Implications from the study were to improve academic and social experiences of international students when competing Europeans countries would be recruiting competitively for the Asian international students (Le & Gardner, 2010).

In a more micro view, Museus and Maramba (2011) highlighted the small percentage of research on Asian-American students' college experience, especially focusing on Filipino American students' undergraduate experience through structural equation modeling (SEM) analysis. The United States Census adopted the term "Asian and Pacific Islanders" in the 1970s as a unifying label for Asian Americans from social reform efforts during the Civil Rights in the 1960s. However, this label of Asian and Pacific Islander has misidentified more than 48 different ethnic subpopulations that vary significantly on education attainments, language, immigration, and income levels (CARE, 2010; Museus & Maramba, 2011).

In a mixed-method study, 143 out of 400 respondents from a West coast university returned the survey. From the three different groups (first, second, and third generation), the third generation group felt the least pressure in terms of sense of belonging on campus and less pressure to commit cultural suicide, and had the strongest connection to cultural heritage. The first-generation students had the most trouble with belonging to their cultural campus club. Finally, the second-generation students exhibited higher pressure to commit cultural suicide, but had the least difficulty connecting to cultural heritage and the most problems on making social connections (Museus & Maramba, 2011). The study was limited to Filipino students on the West coast and was not representative of Filipino population in general.

In another related study, Nadal, Pituc, Johnston, and Esparrago (2010) examined Filipino American graduate students using a qualitative research method to highlight their education experience to improve future student experience. Although data from the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) showed a marked increase in graduate enrollments for minority students, several studies also grouped all graduate students (Whites and minorities) at around 40%-60% failure rate to complete their doctoral program (Nadel et al., 2010). Since no specific breakdowns of Asian-American students' graduation success have been determined, this qualitative study attempted to understand the difficulty and challenges Filipino graduate students faced.

The researchers used online surveys to advertise in the Filipino American community for volunteers. Twenty-nine participants consisting of 15 females, and 13 males (one did not report gender) responded to the survey throughout the United States (Nadal et al., 2010). Nadal et al.'s survey found five domains and themes for Filipino

American students: (a) deficiencies and lack of resource; (b) positive experiences; (c) experiences with support systems; (d) experiences due to race, ethnicity, and racism; and (e) recommendations to improve for future students. A strong theme from the sampled Filipino American students did not relate to the Asian model minority myth or being considered part of Asian-American group since they were unique in expressing their culture, perspective, and experiences (Nadal et al., 2010). The study was a qualitative design and meant to add to the small literature review on Filipino college graduate experience.

Decastro-Ambrosetti and Cho (2011) discussed varying concepts that are affecting education inequality for students from various backgrounds. One main factor was perceptions based solely on how an individual looks. Decastro-Ambrosetti and Cho (2011) sampled 226 secondary education teachers in suburban Southern California. Using an attitudinal survey as a research instrument for a convenience sample, teachers rated Asian students as most likely to achieve academic success or be a model minority. Asian male and female were also evaluated as being least likely to cause problems. The authors concluded that teachers could expand their views or understand their biases with additional education training in critical race theory (CRT) to aid in assessing racial inequity to improve their insights of social construction on race and discrimination.

In the higher education sector, Yamane's (2012) study focused on Asian Americans with PhDs and how career mobility, promotions, and income levels compared with non-Asian American in the United States. The researched used the Oaxaca decomposition method (a standard tool of economists comparing human capital and other characteristics determining wages) and the 2000 U.S. Census Public Use Microdata

Sample (PUMS) of Asian-American ethnic groups with populations of more than 100,000 for comparison in the study (Yamane, 2012). Estimates could not be taken for some smaller subgroups of Asians; only the larger twelve subgroups (Taiwanese, Indian, Pakistani, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Filipino, Thai, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Hmong, and Laotian) were represented.

Asian American with PhDs accounted in many diverse fields such as durable manufacturing (computer, electronic component, and product manufacturing), nondurables manufacturing (pharmaceuticals and medicine), and professional services in scientific research and development. In contrast, Asians were underrepresented in education such as higher education and public administration. Some interesting conclusion about possibility of discrimination based on individuals with Asian heritage varies but East/Southeast Asians were estimated to be discriminated against more than other groups (Yamane, 2012).

In another related study, Woo, Sakamoto, and Takei (2012) examined three years (2200+ respondents) of American Community Survey since it identified South Asians separately from other Asian groups to determine the second generation's socioeconomic levels. Using OLS regression models of hourly wage earners, the empirical data showed that the second generation South Asian group scored higher (5.8% higher) than White group on income and educational attainment (Woo, Sakamoto, & Takei, 2012). Although data indicated that the South Asian group exceeded expectations under critical race theory, cultural values placing high value on education were evident for the selected data used in the study (Woo, Sakamoto, & Takei, 2012). Further studies on cultural value of education for South Asians were needed to verify this early positive result.

In contrast to Asian-American students, Mamiseishvili (2011) examined job satisfaction and workplace perceptions of foreign-born faculty at two-year public institutions using the 2004 National Study of Postsecondary Faculty (NSOPF) in comparison to US-born peers. The 2004 NSOPF survey contained a population of 35,630 faculty and staff members from 1,080 institutions in the United States. From this population, a sample of 26,100 (76%) faculty and instructional staff responded to either a self-administered web-based survey or one conducted via telephone with a trained interviewer. After validation, the final sample included 5,220 community college faculty members (440 or 8.4% foreign-born and 4,780 or 91.6% United States born).

Statistical analyses of Chi-square for demographics comparisons and two-group multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were used to examine the differences of job satisfaction and workplace perceptions. Some of the results indicated significant differences. Foreign-born faculty members had higher terminal degrees (25%) than United States born members (14.4%), but had less job satisfaction and lower workplace perceptions than US-born. Because of the increasing enrollment in two-year institutions as indicated by Institute of International Education in 2009 (95,785, a 10.5% increase from the previous year), a recommendation to attract foreign-born faculty members can be positive for campus learning and retention of diverse students (Mamiseishvili, 2011).

A study of the literature revealed that the international faculty members were less satisfied with job security, salary, benefits, and advancement opportunities, including social support from colleagues (Mamiseishvili, 2011). A limitation of the study was that the foreign-born faculty resided in major cities and the study's limitation was concentrated on community colleges.

In related matters on international Asian students, Gachon (2011) examined the literature review of higher education and found that the United States' higher education market attracted students from many Asian countries. The United States' higher education market accounted more than 39% of the undergraduate and 46% of the graduate programs (high number of STEM related fields) in a $20 billion dollar market. In contrast, Europe attracted the most number of American students majoring in the humanities, social sciences, and businesses. Although the United States attempted to understand the disparity and challenges of Asian-American students, Gachon (2011) believed the United States should capitalize on the strong numbers of STEM graduates from Asia to replenish the dwindling ranks of domestic graduates.

Economic studies forecast that some Asian countries could become economic superpowers (Asian Erasmus Plan involving Japan, China, and South Korea and Association of the Southeast Asian Nations). Thus, the United States should be more strategic and find more permanent pathways for visa holders, as 11,600 of the 22,500 (a little more than half) U.S. natural science and engineering doctorates were from East Asia (China) in 2007. Gachon's (2011) believed that U.S. leaders should adopt a policy more favorable to attracting better STEM-career graduates and to keeping those graduates in the U.S.

White Identity Theory

Baldwin (2012) traced the historical development of whiteness through three dimensions: American labor history, post colonialism and identity, and critical whiteness and anti-racism. W.E.B. Du Bois (1935) and Roediger (1991) examined how white American groups used Blacks as slave labor to benefit economically and as acquired

property for the control over resources and wealth. On the second part of identity and post colonialism, racial identity can be traced back to tradition (history and culture) and environment (nature and biology). Racism can also be expressed through those two forms of biological and cultural differences (Baldwin, 2012). Postcolonial ideology was about perpetuating white imperialistic values of one's identity to be superior over others. Thus, white domination over native ethnicities through assimilation in the American colonies, Canada, Australia, and other places support such white ascendancy (Baldwin, 2012).

Baldwin (2012) critically examined whiteness and anti-racism, an uncomfortable truth for some white individuals. Specifically, Baldwin (2012) accounted geographies of whiteness in American politics and the many advantages that whites have over minority groups (white privilege). These advantages in the geopolitical and economic structures of America had given the majority group (white) over other minority groups. These are the same reasons why affirmative action policies were created to help unburden the disadvantaged minority groups. Baldwin (2012) believed uninformed white leaders could be effective they could accept that white privilege existed (to better lead changes for minority groups).

Whiteness in Higher Education

Carr and Caskie (2010) conducted a study to examine the relationship of social problem-solving (SPS) to white racial identity (WRI) on a convenient sample of 255 (96 men and 159 women) white students in a private university. The participants' ages were between 18 to 24 years (with a diverse range of class standings) and identified themselves as 95% white or European Americans (with 5% (n=13) not identified). The Social Problem-Solving (SPS) Inventory-Revised (SPSI-R) survey was used. This linked to an

earlier 5-dimensional model of SPS. With a total score of the Cronbach's alpha level of .87 for the study, it was lower than the reported score of the first reported sample of .95 (Carr & Caskie, 2010).

The second survey of White Racial Identity Attitude Scale-Revised (WRIAS-Revised) reported a wider range of reported scores and consistencies. In this sample, the Cronbach's coefficient alphas ranged from .30 to .63 for contact, .54 to .82 for disintegration, .58 to .83 for reintegration, .42 to .75 for pseudo-independence, and .32 to .70 for autonomy versus earlier WRIAS. Similarly, the study's revised WRIAS had coefficient scores of .54 for contact, .62 for disintegration, .81 for reintegration, .31 for pseudo-independence, .80 for immersion/emersion, and .55 for autonomy. Prior to the study, testing, skewness statistics and normality probability plots were analyzed for validity.

Neville, Heppner, and Wang (1997) used a sociocultural approach to understand how Black students interpreted and responded to social environments while accepting one's own identity. They found that Black students with a high degree of pro-Black/anti-White sentiments (immersion/emersion status) tended to have negative problem-solving appraisals, lacked confidence, and avoided problems. In contrast, Black students with high internalization attitudes scored higher with a positive problem-solving appraisal, better confidence, and mediated divergent views (Car & Caskie, 2010).

Car and Caskie's (2010) study also found that some similarity for the freshmen group about having a negative-problem solving appraisal, lacking confidence, and avoiding problems because the older classmates scored higher, which could be a result of experience and maturity. Because of the low Cronbach scores on the subscales, the

study's mixed result could indicate that the student needed help. Academic affairs leaders needed to be proactive and mindful of the growing diversity on college campuses. Understanding these issues could require more than the old standard frame of view and operation. The researchers of the study has highlighted that racial diversity on their campus still needed some resolution, which could mean other campuses can as well.

From a qualitative view, Gusa's (2010) summary of the whiteness culture in predominantly White institutions of higher education accounted historical records and case studies concerning race relations. The worldview of whiteness originated from the historical and cultural context of the characteristics and norms of a dominant European culture (or Anglo-Saxon) culture that essentially fueled the founding principles of the early American frontier through individualism, self-reliance, and independence in the early 19th century. The rise of meritocracy favored and increased concentration of wealth and power accumulation in American society to white groups over minority groups through restrictive immigration laws, civil rights, housing, education, and voting rights (Gusa, 2010). Some of these abusive law examples were hiring cheap labors of Irish Americans and from China, the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II, and the genocide and resettling of Native Americans. More examples were slavery, anti-immigration laws against Asian ethnicities, and other social and economic policies that favored majority rule (Curry-Stevens, Cross-Hemmer, Maher, & Meier, 2011; Gusa, 2010).

Equity scholars have described how the majority rules created and dictated system barriers or cultural norms guiding social and academic behaviors that represented white standards called the *deficit model* (Duhaney, 2010; Gusa, 2010). On matters of urban and

social development similar to the deficit model, parts of urban decay were attributed to falling property prices when increased minority owners or dwellers move in, which whites then would move out to suburban or newer markets. Because whites created the system, their majority rule system increased gated communities and neighborhood covenants to restrict certain members by implementing requirements according to their white standards that can be discriminating to some minority groups (Duhaney, 2010; Gusa, 2010).

In academics, examples that favored White norms were standardized tests like SAT, GRE and the LSAT for evaluating students' intellectual competence and acceptability for admission to prestigious higher education institutions (Gusa, 2010). Some more examples of White advantages were legacy applicants, alumni connections, and set quota guidelines. To remove some of the barriers, Gusa (2010) recommended a cultural audit for higher education leaders to consider and reform their institutions to be more inclusive to all ethnicities by understanding and accepting that obstacle existed through the four concepts of White ascendancy, monoculturalism, White blindness, and White estrangement.

In another related article, Duhaney (2010) examined her higher educational experiences through an auto-ethnographical analysis in Canada's education system. Through the framework of critical race theory (CRT), whiteness theory about privilege and power was discussed historically, socially, economically, and politically in Canada's school system. From personal reflections supported by CRT concepts and case studies, Duhaney (2010) believed the perpetrators of racism were not aware of their discriminating behaviors because of ignorance. Although personal experiences may seem

biased, the narrative was sufficiently supported with CRT articles concerning racialization and whiteness.

Whiteness Outside of Academics

In contrast, Jungkunz (2011) examined individuals using silence as a form of communication on matters of race and morality. In this critical analysis of political science and critical race theories, case studies were examined. Using a political science framework, the presentation of the duality of silence presented two interesting forms of communication, as an absence that signals no political activity of thought or behavior, or as a nonverbal signal of a neutral consent that can inadvertently seem to support negative views.

The two sides of silence and nonverbal signal can extend to racism in whiteness theory since it perpetuated the majority rule over minority views. Some minorities have kept silence on their experiences of discrimination and oppression; and some whites have kept quiet about the existence of whiteness as a power and privilege in some societies like America (Jungkunz, 2011). Although whites can experience a subordination or discrimination in class and sex, the group still has the advantage of being born with white racial privilege that can overcome those two obstacles more easily than minority groups in the United States (Jungkunz, 2011). Such repressive system could not change if advantaged individuals maintained their silence or nonverbal signal of maintaining the status quo.

In an example of a system that favored white privilege, Curry-Stevens, Cross-Hemmer, Maher, and Meier (2011) used a community based participatory research (CBPR) study in Multnomah County, Oregon, to examine the issues of population

undercounts and collection processes within the framework of whiteness. The social work research team analyzed their data collection from agencies like the Census Bureau, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Substance Abuse, and Mental Health Services Administration, and found that whiteness greatly influenced the system. The influences contributed to negative and unequal application processing of minority groups versus whites. For example, Hispanics or Latinos make up the largest minority group in terms of number but historically and politically, census researcher has shown that undercounting of this group has occurred (Curry-Stevens et al., 2011). The authors believed such strategy was made for white's benefit.

From previous studies, 47% of Latinos have identified themselves as white while 53% of the same community did not. In this case, such a high percentage had skewed the true population count by a good margin since the Hispanic population was the largest minority group in the United States (Curry-Stevens et al., 2011). Other data collection misidentifying race or ethnicities were found in the death rate mortality data, which can divert needed federal money to health institutions for Native American community. Alternatively in the situations of child welfare or adoption agencies that indicated unknown races for children, it can lead to challenges to match foster care into appropriate families.

Even though the American Community Survey (ACS) was more accurate for data analyses, the federal and state governments still used faulty funding equation by the U.S. Census figure over ACS to estimate the financial loss to the community. The ACS's estimated loss for undercounting was about $1,439 per year per person to the region (Curry-Stevens et al., 2011). The authors recommended seven steps to improve

population counts, and they proposed these steps at the local level for pretesting before a larger national consideration could be considered at the federal level (Curry-Stevens et al., 2011).

A final word from a contrasting perspective on white privilege came from Campbell (2010). Campbell (2010) believed that critical race theory (CRT) and the mantra of white privilege in American society was a false and negative trend supported only by minority groups across college campuses. Campbell (2010) offered his personal viewpoints and insights to refute the attacks on white privilege and power as an excuse for some minority groups to work less hard. Campbell (2010) concluded this through an analysis of multicultural programs across campuses and special budgets for underserving groups with special privileges and access for those diversity programs in college campuses.

Although Campbell (2010) highlighted few personal cases, it appeared that the author was an exemplar of silence through non-support and could not accept the reality of racism existing in America. The article was more of a commentary that offered some personal insights recommending not embracing cyclical fads of minority program support.

The Perpetual Foreigner Concept

Brief History

Although the naturalization process can give legal rights to individuals in the United States, some individuals' appearance can lead people to doubt or question their American culture just by sight. For example, Hispanic and Asian individuals in the U.S. may appear fewer Americans than White individuals based on observation alone; thus,

some individuals can face such stigma of the perpetual foreigner concept living in the United States just by first glance.

Weinberg (1997) noted that early United States' Congress passed a racist law in 1790 that stated a "… foreigner could become a naturalized citizen only if he or she was White" (p. 18). As an example of overt racist act of the U.S. Congress in 1790 law, the law discriminated by allowing practices to help shaped the federal, state, and local policy (Weinberg, 1997). Racist policies existed for the next 130 years, including the 1882 Chinese Exclusion Act, the Gentlemen's Agreement of 1907-1908, and the 1917 Immigration Act. All of these policies were created to deny individuals entry into America who was of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, or other similar Asian descents (Meera, Lee, Chin, Milman, & Yuen, 2008).

The earliest known stereotype of Asian Americans in the United States began with Chinese immigrants who first arrived as laborers to help build the railroad system around the 1800s (Weinberg, 1997). As cheap labors, Chinese immigrants were used to marginalize the Irish immigrants who also were a large group of the railroad workers.

Roy Saigo (2008) voiced a concern about historical biases and misunderstood cultural views against Asian Americans since World War II's treatment of Japanese Americans. During those times, Japanese were considered enemies of the United States even though there were Japanese served honorably in the U.S. military services and as U.S. citizens (Saigo, 2008).

In Recent Times

Huynh, Devos, and Smalarz (2011) investigated the concept of perpetual foreigner affecting the minority individual's identity and psychological adjustment.

Through three series of studies, minority groups such as Asian Americans, Blacks, and Hispanics participated and completed questionnaires concerning perceived discrimination and awareness of the perpetual foreigner stereotype. The researchers in the study indicated that conflict between ethnic and national identities, a sense of belonging to American culture, and other general demographics data existed among the participants (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011). The studies were conducted at a large public West Coast university with 836 students (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011).

The study contained three different sections. In the first, there were 231 Asian Americans, 211 Hispanics, and 394 European Americans participating in quantitative measures of micro aggressions. This survey report evaluated the individual's awareness or experiences with anxiety, stress, helplessness, academic disengagement, anger, and frustration (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011). As expected, European American students reported the lowest scores on awareness or experience of being treated as a perpetual foreigner stereotype while Asian Americans scored highest. Hispanic students scored significantly high as well. In the second study, one group of 89 African Americans and 62 European Americans participated in a process similar to the first group. Again, European American students scored the lowest, while African American scored significantly enough to determine they have a lower sense of belonging than European individuals have (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011).

The final third group measured 56 Asian Americans and 165 Hispanics in a quantitative manner through prediction of increasing level of depression and lower levels of hope and life satisfaction. The third study found moderate effects of a lower sense of belonging for Asian Americans, but significant effects of conflict between ethnic and

national identities for both groups. This conflict could indicate significant experiences on indirect and direct discrimination for both ethnic groups (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011).

The researchers in the study defined perpetual foreigner stereotype as members of ethnic minorities that would always be seen as the other member of a different group from White Anglo-Saxon dominant society in the United States. A limitation of the study was that the questionnaire for awareness of the perpetual foreigner stereotype scale was not rated for reliability and validity; in addition, the selected university was not representative of the United States (Huynh, Devos, & Smalarz, 2011).

In another study on perceptions of individual foreignness, Cargile, Maeda, Rodriguez, and Rich (2010) examined historic law that favored free white persons as the only criteria for citizenship for the Naturalization Act of 1795. After the Civil War and passage of the 14th Amendment to United States Constitution, the law finally allowed African Americans. The final equality for the remaining ethnicities of Asians, Hispanics, and others did not come until 1960's and the civil rights movement effort (Rich, 2010).

Cargile et al. (2010) planned an interesting study concerning the individual's spoken accent. Because some studies on individuals who spoke English with a foreign accent (non-European) affected the listener's behavior and judgments both positively and negatively, Cargile et al.'s (2010) study hypothesized two statements:

> **H1.** Speakers from Latin American and Asian nations will be rated more foreign than speakers from western European nations. Speakers of Mainstream U.S. English (MUSE) will be rated least foreign.

H2. Speakers from western European and Asian nations will be rated more status possessing than speakers from Latin American nations will. Speakers of MUSE will be rated most status possessing.

In this study, a sample of 65 undergraduates showed the participants listened to audio-recordings of 14 male speakers reading the same text in English at a large urban university in the western United States (Cargile et al., 2010). The male recordings came from Speech Accent Archive of the following native speakers: Spanish, German, Italian, Mandarin, Hindi, Vietnamese, and two Midwesterners from the United States. No background information was given on the 14 males' recorded voices. The participants completed 12-scale items evaluating each recorded voice concerning the individual's status, attractiveness, and foreignness; in addition, two items about the speaker's accent (unaccented to very accented) and impression of the speaker's background were asked (Cargile et al., 2010).

Using single factor of repeated measures in MANOVA to measure the participants' responses to the recordings, statistical data supported both hypotheses. Asian and Latin American nations were found to be most foreign compare to speakers from western European nations, and MUSE speakers were rated the least. Also, the researchers found that Mandarin and Vietnamese speakers to be judged as less status-possessing than both MUSE and German speakers when a previous six studies found no significant status differences between the varieties of Asian-accented English (Cargile et al., 2010).

In contrast, those previous six studies showed that Asians had been perceived favorably in terms of education and wealth from demographic data or the Asian model minority myth. A limitation of the study was that the participants were undergraduate

college students and not representative the general population, including geographical differences within the United States (Cargile et al., 2010).

From a family perspective, Benner and Kim (2009) examined Chinese American parents' role in socializing with their children through the adolescent years, including the parents' experiences of discrimination as perpetual foreigners in America having any affect to their parenting style. The participants were all Chinese American parents with a sample of 444 taking part in a short-term longitudinal study, in Northern California in two waves (wave 1 = one year; wave 2 = 4 years later).

The majority of parents were foreign born (87% fathers and 90% mothers) with most (75%) of the children having been born in the United States. The participants were recruited from local public school district middle schools. In Wave One, the participants (7th or 8th grade) completed 80% of the questionnaires (available in both English and Chinese versions). In Wave Two (11th or 12th grade), the surveys used Kessler, Mickelson, and William's (1999) measure of chronic daily discrimination that exhibited Cronbach's alpha level of .85 for mothers at both Waves 1 and 2 and .87 for fathers at both Waves 1 and 2 (Benner & Kim, 2009).

The study topic goals were to see if any parents felt that stress from discriminatory experience as perpetual foreigners moderated or mediated the relationship between parents' discrimination and adolescents' discrimination through the children's sense of cultural behavior or negative views on academic achievements. The researchers in the study also used post hoc analysis to calculate achieved power in the analysis to detect small size effects with alpha levels of .05 and .004 (Benner & Kim, 2009). No significance effects were detected, but there were some strong correlations of racial

socialization and attitude toward education (.709), perpetual foreigner stress and discrimination (.702), and perpetual foreigner stress and attitude toward education (.724) indicated that culturally, parents believed education was a priority to advance economically in America (Benner & Kim, 2009).

Even though some discrimination existed and caused some stress, the cultural philosophy of Confucian harmony and self-restraint may have moderated any effect on their children. The study's limitation was one specific subgroup of Chinese American families rather than diverse ethnic groups of other Asian-American families; different generational levels of family may also change the mediation and moderation effects of discrimination and value of education.

In a similar study, Juang and Cookston (2009) examined Chinese American adolescents and attempted to understand their perceptions of discrimination over a two-year period that included three waves. The sample included 309 ninth- and tenth-grade Chinese American students from two San Francisco high schools that had a large population of Chinese students and other diverse groups of minority students. From the 309 initial participants, 234 continued onto the second wave, and a final 218 participants (71% from 309) completed the survey in the final third wave. The Center for Epidemiological Studies—Depression (CES-D; Radloff, 1977) survey's Cronbach alphas were .85, .86, and .87 at respective Waves One, Two, and Three (Juang & Cookston, 2009).

The result of the study confirmed initial predictions that the first generation of Chinese students reported more perceptions of discrimination than second or later generations of adolescents did at the beginning. Chinese students with a higher level of

acculturation to American culture were significantly less perceptive to discrimination and Chinese students with a high level of Chinese culture reported fewer depressive symptoms. Because of the few studies on Asian-Americans' experience on discrimination, focusing on Chinese Americans was a good starting point (Juang & Cookston, 2009).

Since past studies have linked discrimination to poorer adolescent adjustment for self-esteem and increased depressive symptoms, the counselors and educators used the study results to minimize possible threats at school and share such information to their parents. The study's limitation was that the discrimination source was not distinguished. In addition, the chosen city was not representative of all major cities in the United States.

The perpetual foreigner concept extended beyond academics and into the social, media, and political areas of Asian Americans. Greenfield (2010) examined the historical significance of Mahjong, a Chinese game, during the late nineteenth and early to mid-twentieth century United States. In a historical analysis, Greenfield (2010) reviewed the discrimination and exotic appeal of elite White Americans marketing of Mahjong to social elite- and middle-class White Americans. In this social dynamic, White Americans treated Chinese and other Asian Americans as perpetual foreigners because of wars and economic trade barriers relating to China, Japan, and other Pacific conflicts during that period (Greenfield, 2010).

The successful marketing of Mahjong into middle and upper class Whites during the early twentieth century was driven by both political and financial reasons. The author believed the times have not much changed when the lack of Asian-American presence

has been evident with very limited number of political, social, and entertainment figures in mainstream America (Greenfield, 2010; Locke, 2009).

Similarly, Locke (2009) examined the theme and subplots of the movie Blade Runner to convey the racialized messages of Whites, Asians and slaves (replicants/androids) in a futuristic setting of Los Angeles. Although Locke's article focused on the movie's many subplots, actual historical case studies concerning race, humanism, and economic trade balances with Japan in the early 1990s were examined. The article's general theme still supported that Asians were perceived as a threat to Americans economically. This ambivalent conclusion seemed to support that estimated increases in Asian populations in the future of United States could have a negative outlook, implying that the perpetual foreigner concept on Asian Americans persisted. These negative views can be traced back to historical wars with Asian nations like Japan during World War II, North Korea, and Vietnam.

In another similar theme, Saranillio (2010) examined historical cases of the U.S. behaving imperialistic on Hawaii, Guam, the Philippines, and Puerto Rico through the use of three white supremacy concepts of exploitation (slavery), genocide (settler colonialism), and war from Andrea Smith's analysis of United States history. Through complex political maneuvering of elite white power players wanting Hawaii's transition of territory to statehood (1947-1959) for personal gain, as well as political and military strategic points to the Pacific nations and Asia, Hawaii became the 50th state of the United States (Saranillio, 2010).

Other critical points were about the Japanese internment during World War II and discrimination against Japanese Americans before and after World War II. In the U.S.,

Japanese-Americans were portrayed as possible hidden threats and the idea of perpetual foreigners continued and persisted to individuals with Asian appearances. China was depicted negatively on the business side, as some Americans still perceived a possible war in the future with China or North Korea (Saranillio, 2010).

Although Asian Americans have been gradually minimizing the notion of perpetual foreigner concept in some areas, Asian-Americans' lack of political cohesion and motivation may have added some validity to such a concept. Diaz (2012) examined the voting characteristics of Asian Americans in the United States. Although the income level and educational attainment characteristics (strongest predictors of voting behavior) of Asian Americans as a whole were higher than for all minority groups, the areas of civic life, electoral participation and political activism have been lower than expected.

Diaz's (2012) study used two surveys in the 2000 U.S. presidential election to understand better the contextual influences of Asian voting behavior within their respective counties and the Current Population Survey (CPS) since 1992. From these lists, 1,274 Asian Americans in 64 counties and 22 states represented registered voters and registered citizens for comparisons (Diaz, 2012). The voting variables (age, education, employed, family income, voted, and registered) of Asian Americans were analyzed using hierarchical generalized linear modeling (HGLM). The dependent variable was dichotomous and nestled by counties. Some interesting findings emerged from the analyses. Larger communities of Asian Americans increased the likelihood of registering to vote, notably for the employed and those with higher income. An increase in Asian diversity also increased voting more for the highly educated Asians. For this

reason, if the presence of a national ethnic organization in the United States existed, then it could increase the likelihood of participation for registering and voting.

The declines in the percentage of Asian-American voting from 1992 to 2000 can be explained through some political challenges during those times, as well as some contextual feelings of perpetual foreigner concept (Diaz, 2012). Some Asian Americans felt the voting process was negative because of the barriers to U.S. citizenship naturalization process and voting rights (Diaz, 2012). A limitation of the study was that it surveyed past actions that may not reflect the political climate and was limited to a few Asian subgroups that were not representative of the pan ethnic group of Asian Americans.

The Asian Model Minority Myth

Asian Americans have been the fastest growing sector of the U.S. college-bound population with a wide range in ethnicity, socioeconomic, and immigration patterns (CIRP, 2007). Asian Americans attending higher education have doubled each decade since 1971 from .8% to 8.8% in 2005 (CIRP, 2007). Although this increase can be seen as a positive effect, the biased belief persisted in society that Asian Americans did not need effective leaders emerging from their own groups. A contributing cause supporting this notion was ignorance or false belief in the Asian model minority myth. In support of this ambivalence among Asian-American students, a survey of 82.7% of them believed that a racial discrimination was still a major problem in America. In an interesting twist, only about 50% were supportive for affirmative action even with the strong belief of racial discrimination (CIRP, 2007).

The diversity of views and support for Asian-American individuals had been both positive and negative, depending on the political or sociological intent of the message. Walker's (2011) article critically examined U.S. history through the political and sociological roots of race, racism, and the civil rights movement being at odds with extreme conservatism such as is exemplified by the Tea Party movement. Walker (2011) stated that the Asian model minority myth was used both as a divisive issue to appeal to Hispanic population in the West and Southwest United States. The article appeared to be an opinion piece about some troubling trends of race issues against President Obama's leadership and his decisions to diversify the federal appointments and policies for the United States seemed at odds with some conservative values and policies of past White presidents (Walker, 2011).

For insights on the Asian model minority myth from a younger group, Lo (2010) examined the acculturation process of young Asian Americans and found historical support on Asian immigration trend regarding entry into the United States. Disturbingly, Lo (2010) stated that Asian-American youths were the highest risk among all ethnic groups for suicides. The rate was at 14.1% (Blacks 3.3% and Hispanics 7.4%). The reasons for the high suicide rate can be attributed to a mix of reasons having to do with the acculturation process, family socialization, and Asian model minority myth (Lo, 2010).

Even though no study was performed, the article looked to the literature to provide some possibilities on the challenges Asian-American youths face while growing up in bicultural lives (balancing between one's ethnic culture and an American one) in America. Lo (2010) believed that parents' traditions and culture helped provide a strong

foundation in addition to the environment and upbringing within the community in America. Although the Asian model minority myth may have some effect through qualitative measures, quantitative measures were not available.

Kohatsu, Victoria, Lau, Flores, and Salazar (2011) examined the reality of Asian Americans versus the Asian model minority myth (sociability and competence for two dimensions of the model myth) in an academic setting. The researchers executed a sample of 260 surveys using hierarchical regression analysis to predict anti-Asian prejudices from general stereotypes. Participants sampled consisted of 67 men and 193 women from a West coast university with a diverse ethnic mix (79% Latinos, 12% of African Americans, 6% of other/mixed racial groups, 2% Middle Eastern, and 1% American Indian. Kohatsu et al. (2011) warned against subscribing to the idea of color-blindness and accepting merit as the only criterion for success. Especially when most color-blind racial attitudes have examined mostly Black-White racial dynamics, Asian Americans and other minority groups were not as well studied or researched.

Kohatsu et al.'s surveys used Scale of Anti-Asian-American Stereotypes (SAAAS; Lin et al., 2005), the Color-Blind Racial Attitude Scale (CoBRAS; Neville et al., 2000), the People of Color Racial Identity Attitude Scale (POCRIAS; Helms, 1995a), and a demographic data survey. A post hoc power analysis supported high statistical significance for the surveys: .97 for SAAAS Total, .89 for Competence, .93 for Sociability, and .97 CoBRAS Total (Kohatsu et al., 2011). The authors found some support for the view that Asian Americans were perceived to be less sociable and competent, either through indirect support of the model myth or greater frequency of experience from students sampled in a higher concentration of Asian students (West

Coast region). A limitation of the study was being drawn from a diverse campus. The study included three surveys and a conflict among the instruments may have occurred. Further replication of the study was recommended.

In another similar study, Yoo and Castro's (2011) study investigated if perceived racism affected academic performances of Asian-American students for both foreign-born and United States born. The study was part of a larger study survey (Yoo, 2005), and the sample included 155 Asian-American college students from a large Midwestern university recruited in 2002-2003. Through the university's Asian student organizations, a convenience sample was drawn.

Participants consisted of 58 males and 97 females between the ages of 18 to 34, with 72% United States born and 28% foreign born. A perceived racism survey was developed, tested, and found to have an average internal reliability estimate of .83 (Yoo & Castro, 2011). A post hoc power analysis was done for interaction effects, and it measured at .60, which is lower than the recommended .80, but still effective for the sample size of 107 with an alpha level at .05 (Yoo & Castro, 2011). One of the findings contrasted with the hypothesis on having no significant relationship with perceived racism and academic performance, indicating that perceived racism and academic performance for United States born students was a positive relationship. Foreign-born Asian Americans perceived that racism decreased their academic performance (Yoo & Castro, 2011).

Some studies have indicated that racism was linked to lower self-esteem, depression, anxiety, and social problems for some Asian American college students, but few empirical studies have linked the perceived racism and academic performance for

Asian Americans in general (Yoo & Castro, 2011). Such lack of research interest might arise from a misunderstanding of the Asian model minority myth since the East and South Asian groups (Chinese, Japanese, South Korean, and South Indian) have been academically more successful than other Asian subgroups on obtaining higher education degrees. As mentioned earlier on the perpetual foreigner concept, at first glance, Asians may look similar to each other even with 48 different ethnicities of Asian Americans; such a stereotype could lead to unintended negative views that all Asian Americans were strong in academics.

In contrast, Southeast Asian-Americans and Pacific Islanders' high school graduation rates were found to be comparatively lower than other racial minority groups such as Blacks and Hispanics (CARE, 2010; Yoo & Castro, 2011). The study's limitation was the small sample size from one university in the Midwest. In addition, the authors' conclusion seemed to support possibly the notion that US-born Asian-American students were more comfortable with master of English and had better academic preparation than foreign-born Asian-American students had.

On the career side, Lee's (2010) study used the occupational dissimilarity index calculation to examine if disparity existed between Asian-American and Caucasian-American workers within specific fields. The data for Lee's study used the 2005-2007 American Community Survey (ACS) of the United States Census Bureau (representing about 3% of the U.S. population). Throughout many studies on labor and academics, Asian Americans have been used as the model minority on achieving income and academic equality. Some of these studies did not aggregate Asians within a specific field or occupational category. For example, studies have cited Asian American income levels

to show parity between majority Whites. However, the highly educated Asian Americans were specifically working in high-paying computer, engineering, medical, and other STEM fields. These STEM careers were disproportional to all other fields, and still carried higher median and mean earnings for the entire Asian-American group.

On matters of discrimination, Lee (2010) cited Chou and Feagin (2008) that Asian Americans found more difficulty finding employment in White-owned companies than when they sought employment at Asian-American owned companies. Additionally, if Asian Americans did join White-owned companies, they accepted below-market salaries to work there. By selection of only Chinese and Japanese American, according to Lee's study, culture and economic reasons motivated Chinese-Americans to choose STEM related fields over others. For Japanese Americans, a more diverse selection of fields and occupations were chosen; thus, economic motivation was not as strong for them. The study's limitation was analyzing only two subgroups of Asian Americans; it did not address the low-skilled labors of the subgroups of Asian Pacific Islanders.

Finally, a study from Hernandez's (2010) reported in Diverse Issues article about Executive Director Kiran Ahuja of the White House Initiative on Asian Americans and Pacific Islanders' (AAPI) work on health, education, immigration, and civil liberties. Such issues concerned more than 30 ethnicities of Asian Americans in the United States. Because of the White House's support, more Asian Americans could receive higher education support with a newly created policy under Asian American Native American Pacific Islander Serving Institutions (ANNAPISI) in 2007's College Cost Reduction Act for institutions that had at least 10% of the student body comprised of AAPI students. This policy helped some institutions to qualify for additional federal money for academic

and students' services at the institutions through grant competition. Such specific policy continued to support growing AAPI students across American college campuses during President Obama's leadership while comparable AAPI higher education leaders stagnated or decreased at the same time (CARE, 2010; Hernandez, 2010).

Postmodern Philosophy of Education

The postmodern philosophy of higher education institutions has struggled in the economy of dwindling budget support, increasing competition for students, rapidly evolving technology, and the need to meet the demands of working adults through online schooling.

Institutions are responsible for preparing individuals to be good community citizens, training them for the local workforce, and educating them to raise productive families (Nguyen, 2010). To meet some of these gaps and unpredictability, Nguyen (2010) proposed that higher education should include five parts, or "quotients," as lifelong adaptive skills to overcome any challenges: intelligence quotient, emotion quotient, passion quotient, curiosity quotient, and adversity quotient. Nguyen's (2010) five quotients were descriptive concepts, but pertinent in their attempt to measure an individual's learning potential, similar to Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (Wilson & Mujtaba, 2010).

In another view of postmodern education, Wain (2008) advocated the contrasting positions of Alasdair MacIntyre and Richard Rorty on public education goals and implications for the good of society. Although MacIntyre and Rorty's debate centered on the eighteenth and nineteenth century values, the modern world of rapid advancements

and communication mirrored previous society as the postmodern educational philosophy debate seemed to better fit then than these times and values.

The ideological intent of education was to prepare individuals for liberty and independent thinking, but such values conflicted with the postmodern world of performance, values that were measured by short-term outcomes over long-term considerations. These contrasting ideas of creating an education system that fit the modern world while maximizing independent thinkers versus supporting the growth of information management conflicted and permeated into the university system (Wain, 2008). Employers want a productive worker to be interchangeable with their corporate system, but individuals value their independence and quality of life over economic survival.

Wain (2008) used Lyotard's symbolic thinking that universities in a postmodern world have become factories producing students as products to be ready-made for the global economic competition and social stratification, filling professional positions into a supply system rather than preparing self-actualized individuals and free thinkers. The postmodern education state have become more rigid by enacting more disciplining, regulations, surveillance, and inflexibility than past modern education's goals of educating the masses for liberty pursuits (Wain, 2008).

In contrast, Bloland (2005) revisited postmodernism and examined its core aspects and major changes in society through economic, political, cultural, informational, and social forces. Although higher education institutions have played major roles in the centralized training, production, and dissemination of knowledge and skills to the community and beyond, the advancement of the Internet, communication and spread of

knowledge and news have diminished some of higher education's monopoly on knowledge wealth or prestige. Bloland (2005) instead supported reflexivity to examine constant changes of reality better to prepare students for those uncertainties. Bloland (2005) believed the university was a temporary safe place to reflect, study, and practice actions that individuals can feel safe in questioning before becoming independent thinkers and doers.

Yazdani, Murad, and Abbas (2011) also examined the development of Western civilization history from the period of modernity to postmodernity in the areas of social, political, moral, and scientific progress. Yazdani, Murad, and Abbas (2011) described modernity as the age of progress and reason, between the mid-eighteenth and the twentieth centuries in Western Europe and America. With explosive progress of the industrial revolution to the post-industrial emergence of liberalism and utilitarian ethics, including increases in the socio-economic and socio-political structures, modern times changed so dramatically that no single theory could explain such complexity.

With a similar growth explosion in the middle-twentieth century, the postmodernists began in the 1960s with critics like Jean Francois Lyotard and Michel Foucault (Yazdani, Murad, & Abbas, 2011). Postmodern critics like Lyotard and Foucault analyzed social life critically in the modern times, in the areas of causality, humanism, democracy, necessity, rationality, responsibility, objectivity, and truth through empiricism and self-reflection (Yazdani, Murad, & Abbas, 2011). In comparison to the postmodern philosophy, it may have embraced similarities of modernism with utilitarianism, materialism, and empiricism. The postmodernists' embrace of rejection,

criticism, and self-indulgence seemed contradictory or negative at times (Yazdani, Murad, & Abbas, 2011).

In an education setting, Ambrose, VanTassel-Baska, Coleman, and Cross (2010) examined the talented and gifted education system for students as outdated and incomplete. Unless an education process followed four levels of practice, research, theory, and philosophy, genuine learning could not take place. Although the gifted education system exhibited misalignments with broken goals, divergent views, and practices, they recommended a more unified attempt for educators to organize and finalize shared goals and strategies through these four levels of practice, research, theory, and philosophy (Ambrose, VanTassel-Baska, Coleman, & Cross, 2010). The new education system proposed was an attempt to fit students into the new postmodern society.

Schinkel's (2010) article further supported individual learning and critiqued the idea of increasing the development of autonomy in children's education learning process, even despite the absence of empirical evidence and research support. Although increases of secular teaching, the homeschooling movement, and a voucher system in the United States increased support for teaching creationism or intelligent design with the theory of evolution, which liberals and like-minded educators did not favor (Schinkel, 2010).

Because the world is a complex place, postmodern educators believed individuals who were learners that are more autonomous would benefit individually and collectively if values like critical self-reflection, liberal democracy, and self-growth were practiced more. Although the idea of increasing the development of autonomy in children's education seemed more beneficial than harmful, Schinkel (2010) still would have liked to

see a more realistic description and concept of autonomy be defined with more use of empirical evidence to support such processes to create learners that are more autonomous learners. Postmodern education must attempt to merge independence into a postmodern system so that students can still maintain the individualism that modernist supported and valued.

In another education view, Kohn (2008) explained that the conflicts between the modernist and postmodern world in his English classes on the practices of truths—right and wrong were discussed critically among his students. Kohn (2008) cited and used Dewey's philosophy of education (modernist view) in the public school system to educate students from all backgrounds to prepare them for independence. In contrast, school administrators favored the postmodernist view on scoring learning performance and outcomes through quantitative test measures.

In a world of certainty, learning should be measurable for quality control purposes. Because the learning process is highly contextual, learning can be difficult to measure accurately in reality for universal acceptance by all educators. Especially in the study of literature or humanities, a postmodernist view on fiction can be constrained into scientific objectivity or quantifiable measures, whereas, in a modernist's view, the duality or multiple points of views can be expressed through varying forms of cultures or subcultures and cannot easily be quantifiable (Kohn, 2008).

Internationally, Safstrom (2011) discussed and examined Sweden's education system within terms of postmodern philosophy. The new global term of a *lifelong learner* supported by North America and Europe was supported by Tom Popkewitz (2009). The idea of two polarizing groups of student learning between resourceful students

(cosmopolitan) and poor or negative students (ADHD or neglected child) have been a disturbing trend that some schools have been ignoring the neglected children's education needs in Sweden. Safstrom (2011) recommended schools return to a more modernist view of creating a learning environment for educating students according to the individual's needs instead of a one-size-fits-all approach. A system that incorporated both thoughts of individual needs and independent outcome measure could address equal needs of both the neglected child and the cosmopolitan child.

In a related global concern, Waghid and Smeyers (2010) examined the realities of the education world. The comparison between two worlds of advancement and positives of the Western world to the dire and desperate situations in East Congo, Darfur, and other less developed nations showed that the plural realities of positives and negatives existed and should always be considered. Postmodern education philosophy was about accepting these gaps of realities and attempting to quantify them for measurement and improvement (Waghid & Smeyers, 2010).

Deem (2009) examined United Kingdom's universities concerning educational excellence and diversity issues through two research projects on management policies and service leadership development in university, schools, and health service organizations. Using a model supporting education excellence, meritocracy, and diversity for improving social diversity and democracy, Deem (2009) added a perspective from a feminist viewpoint as well. Although the United Kingdom attempted to make changes for gender, ethnicity, disability, and other cultural divisions, in Deem’s view, the leaders falsely believed that they had employed a postmodern strategy for the fix while in reality it was only talk or half attempt that failed them.

In the final summary from the social work area, Dybicz's (2010) article provided a critical examination of understanding human behavior through a cause-and-effect look through three-step process views of Aristotle and Ricoeur's theory of causality. These two schools of thoughts were represented by mimesis (evaluating social casework studies in a postmodern approach) and Foucault's conception of power and theories of language. Although the literal meaning of mimesis was imitation, the genuine process of evaluation should include the essential parts of the whole story that has a beginning, middle, and end to better analyze the situation.

From a beginning standpoint, human intentions could be considered the cause of a behavior or action but cannot be explicitly measured through direct observation or understanding on the individual's part (Dybicz, 2012). During all the stages of life, Dybicz (2012) believed humans are defined by language and narratives of individual life and the individual's particular desire are reflections of his or her past, present, and possible future.

Dybicz (2012) examined three prominent theories of social work practices: in narrative therapy, the strengths perspective, and solution-focused therapy. Dybicz then offered a conceptual framework of mimesis and social constructionism. The idea of self-concept and identity formation and discovery was an important step for the social worker to understand before providing aid or planning steps in the right direction. Dybicz (2012) attempted to help change postmodern social work practitioners to consider alternative approaches to assess individuals and utilize mimesis better to explain and seek the right solutions to aid them.

In brief, the idea of a self-reflexive learning and critical thinking to address reality gaps have been consistent in postmodern education philosophy through education and social work, of which both areas addressed the complexity of humanism, learning, empiricism, and rationalism. The challenges of equality and racism have continued to be a major concern as information and advances in communication have made the world smaller and faster (Dybicz, 2012). The contrasts and similarities of modernist and postmodernist education philosophies were about what areas of education and training individuals should focus on. The balance of promoting self-reflection and self–direction versus measured performance and adaptability can be at odds because both schools of thoughts were needed for understanding in the new economy. Preparing individuals to meet all these gaps and uncertainties of global realities in the cultural, political, social, and economic worlds have been advocated by postmodern education philosophers.

Meritocracy in the United States

Kim and Sakamoto (2010) analyzed the 2003 National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG) to investigate earnings between White and Asian-American men. The Asian-American men were disaggregated according to their immigration status, field of study, and college type for comparison. Because of past studies and the Asian model minority myth supporting that Asian Americans have reached parity level with Whites in academics and the labor market, the researchers attempted to investigate whether the income levels between Whites and Asian Americans were as significantly different. They used the 2003 NSCG of single-race Asian-American men with a higher education degree (high school level graduates were not examined). In addition, generation level and

immigration status of Asian Americans were separated from native-born Asian Americans with ages ranging from 25 to 64 years.

The survey study showed that native-born Asian-American men were disadvantaged by 8% lower earnings compared to White men. The first-generation Asian-American men also exhibited the largest earning disadvantage compared to White men. In contrast, the results for 1.5-generation (naturalization through birth) Asian-American men tended to be advantaged over White men because of field of study (higher frequency of STEM careers), college type, and region. A limitation of the study was the exclusion of women and mixed Asian ethnicities. Also, no direct follow up was made to the survey respondents since job loss, transfers, or advancements can occur sooner or later than compared to White men (Kim & Sakamoto, 2010).

In an online education setting, Brantmeier, Aragon, and Folkestad (2011) used a qualitative study research method on 23 students a graduate-level multicultural education online course of a large land-grant university in the United States. Online learning had been a growing field for many adult and traditional students to receive their education courses. Such a classroom format supported collaborative learning modalities (CLM).

The online format supported individuals in freely to expressing themselves through words instead of face-to-face interactions, without having to fear facial expression or body language. The qualitative research study format allowed the instructor and researcher to set course objectives better to understand the reality of racism, sexism, classism, heterosexism, and other discriminating factors in an online format better than in a face-to-face environment because students felt more comfortable in expressing genuine feelings and views through written discussion and support (Brantmeier et al., 2011).

To highlight these individuals' interactions in related case studies concerning issues of race, power, and politics, they executed an exploratory study using qualitative methods of 23 students supported such critical discussions about white privilege. These prevailing issues of multicultural education on gender, sexual identity, and meritocracy matched well with the course and study's goals (Brantmeier et al., 2011). The discussions were deep in nature and used supportive case studies to present each side of the argument among the students. For this particular topic at the graduate level, the qualitative method worked well supporting CLM online learning format (Brantmeier et al., 2011). The study result showed the researchers that understanding gaps of diversity issues and challenges were more effective as a result of the CLM environment over face-to-face interactions.

In mainstream politics, McGlynn (2010) examined the post racial events of electing Barack Obama as the 44th President, the confirmation of Sonia Sotomayor to the United States Supreme Court, and the arrest of Harvard Professor Henry Louis Gates, Jr. Although America has been known as a meritocratic nation, the merit-based ideological ideas have been confronted with discriminating events that have hinted a troubling post-racial America overcoming it. Some interesting figures on the future of United States population were projections of minority groups increases by 2020: 77% for Hispanics, 32% for Blacks, 69% for Asian Americans, 26% for Native Americans, and less than 1% for Whites (McGlynn, 2010).

Although the largest increases in populations projected were for minority groups, some of the minority groups also represented the smaller percentages of higher education completion percentages, behind Asians and Whites. The number of Asian minority groups holding positions in higher education compared very poorly to Whites. Because of

the small numbers of Asian Americans in higher education, increasing minority students in the future may face increasing barriers to each new growing generation of diverse individuals for the Asian minority groups.

In a related article, Vo's (2010) examined the post racial narratives of Asian Americans after the election of President Barack Obama. As a Black president, President Obama symbolized the positive improvement for all racialized individuals regarding having a fair chance for advancement based upon merit in American politics and life. The other Asian connection for President Obama was with his half-sister, who is an Indonesian-White and her husband, a Malaysian-Chinese Canadian American. Obama's multicultural diversity may have helped increase minority support in post-election exit polls analysis that indicated 62% to 35% of Asian-American voters favored Obama over McCain (Vo, 2010). The number was in contrast to the election of the first President Bush in 1989 when Bush won 62% of Asian-American vote. Later, Republican policies, anti-immigration sentiments, and post-9/11 racial profiling may have alienated many Asian-American voters to consider a minority individual like Obama (Vo, 2010).

Because of President Obama's biracial and multicultural background, the President represented a paradox of winning and losing. Obama represented a race-neutral individual achieving the highest political office yet was still criticized by some for being un-American for some actions taken because of his foreign appearance and actions. Nevertheless, President Obama's achievement could still be considered proof positive of American meritocracy.

International Contrast in Meritocracy

Mostafa (2010) examined five countries' education systems in Japan, Finland, Germany, Italy, and the United Kingdom on variables such as students' socioeconomic characteristics, school characteristics, and peer effects. The dataset analyzed was from the OECD Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) 2003. The major subject assessment in PISA 2003 was mathematics and the age group was similar, between 15 and 16 years, for all five countries.

The researcher found inequalities in all five countries' school systems. The smallest variance was in Finland to the widest one in Germany because German students had later school choice on career paths. Germany also had limited funding of school programs and less affluent households than some other countries. The United Kingdom's inequalities were moderate but also it was the only country that showed a positive gain for its private school system compared to the other four countries which showed a negative effect on performance of private schools. The study result showed the researcher that no system could eliminate inequalities unless the student demographics, school characteristics, and peer effects were all homogenized in the diversity of student and school characteristics (Mostafa, 2010).

Political Influence to Meritocracy and Education

Kumashiro (2012) examined the small, but influential and growing list of philanthropists donating money to public education to shape the education communities in the United States. The education business in America was estimated to be a $500-$600 billion industry. Although funded overwhelmingly by public money, much of its products

and services were outsourced to businesses and organizations with ties to lobbying groups influencing government actions.

Historically, the first black colleges and universities were funded by philanthropists. Many organizations still support education (e.g., the Carnegie Corporation, the Ford Foundation, the Rockefeller Foundation, and the Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation) (Kumashiro, 2012) to help increase a productive workforce. Other more conservative foundations like the Richard and Helen DeVos Foundation in Michigan, the Christian Right, the Charles Koch Foundation, and the Media Matters Action Network have favored private voucher systems for public education. They also funded faculty positions and other higher educational initiatives across the United States as well. The article's aim was to inform readers that philanthropy was tied to wealthy businesses' goals of protecting and increasing their profitability through ensuring that schools maintained graduation standards according to a particular foundation's corporate interests and mission values.

Legal Influence to Meritocracy

Sabbagh's (2011) article focused on indirect affirmative action of the United States and France by comparing historical laws that affected admission into their respective higher education institutions. From the perspective of case laws studies, critical analysis of each country's respective historical and constitutional laws, Sabbagh (2011) gave the advantages and disadvantages between the two countries' strategies attempt to remedy underserved or underrepresented individuals of certain ethnicities. Although both countries undertook efforts to increase underrepresented students from minority backgrounds, the United States' efforts were more publicly known than French

efforts. Thus, the political backlash was less severe in France because of the process of indirect affirmative action was concealed better. In either case, the results of any affirmative action programs were difficult to measure for their intended positive outcomes.

Daum and Ishiwata (2010) examined the success of both the civil rights movement on winning some legal battles and the victories of the conservative legal movement against native entitlements (i.e., protection, rights, and services guaranteed from the legislative acts for Native Americans and Native Hawaiians). Through case law and historical analysis, specifically two Supreme Court cases involving native entitlements in Morton v. Mancari (1974) and Rice v. Cayetano (2000) showed that conservatism of eliminating equal protection rights could lead to more losses for minority groups.

Some of these conservative legal movement organizations, such as the Institute for Justice, the Center for Individual Rights, the Center for Equal Opportunity, and American Center for Law and Justice have advocated meritocracy through notable political and media figures to eliminate protection, rights, and services to certain ethnic groups. These conservative law groups used the success of American diversity as support that the minority groups no longer needed equal protection from the laws. Despite troubling statistical data on Native Americans, Alaska Natives, Native Hawaiians and Pacific Islanders that indicated higher poverty levels for these groups, less insurance, greater dropout rates, and greater incarceration rates, those conservative groups would like the public to believe otherwise (Daum & Ishiwata, 2010).

Daum and Ishiwata (2010) highlighted that the goal of conservative legal activism has always been to dismantle civil rights policies and law. The conservative groups' strategy and vision have been fueled by Scheingold's (1974). Thus, when the Court's decision to change earlier winning of native entitlements because of past transgressions through a different set of justice lenses, Daum and Ishiwata (2010) feared that such reactive action might lead others to ignore history and continue the legacy of discrimination in the United States. Even though diversity has had some success, the data on disparity of AAPI and other minority groups still persisted indicating that meritocracy has been stagnating (Daum & Ishiwata, 2010).

Underrepresentation of Asian-American Leaders

Political Perspective

As noted earlier, President Obama created and provided more money to federal programs attempting to dispel the Asian model minority myth in American society (Executive Order 13515, 2009). Meera et al. (2008) and Riccucci (2007) further addressed the scrutiny and decisions from the U.S. Supreme Court to support affirmative action for student admission in higher education institutions and the government's action to promote and increase diversity of the workforce.

Ong (2008) examined increasing Asian-American civic and political engagements in American politics as requirements to help change tangible benefits through participation and taking an active role in influencing public policy for Asian Americans. Although civic and political engagements have helped Whites, Hispanics and Blacks, Ong (2008) believed Asian Americans can be a more politically vocal and active in volunteerism to achieve similar results as other minority groups accomplished.

Population data on Asian Americans from 1990 to 2007 showed that the number of Asian Americans grew from 7.3 million to 13.4 million, a healthy increase of 2.9% of the total population to 4.4% (Ong, 2008). Ong (2008) reported that the United States Census Bureau projected that by 2030, the number of Asian Americans can be expected to grow to 22.6 million (6.2% of the total population). Such increase can help political influences through increasing participation and votes. Because of the steady increases of Asian Americans, one would expect and society would presumably demand the emergence of a proportionate share of the leadership throughout industry and education to reflect Asian-American interests.

Social Perspective

The CARE (2010) report was a reminder that Asian-Americans' quest for balance and equal representation in higher education did not achieve some goals because of an underrepresentation of Asian Americans in higher education positions. In a similar mainstream view, Meera et al. (2008) believed that "… sociological literature on race and media representation directly connects to the current representation of AAPIs on prime-time television" (p. 157). Although very few in three shows, AAPI characters were represented as educated hard workers but with mostly female characters. Thus, the sexually desirable AAPI man is rarely seen in any sexual or intimate relationship (Meera et al., 2008).

Isao and Sakamoto (2008) examined the leadership or managerial potential of AAPIs (native born and college-educated) through data from the 2003 National Survey of College Graduates. The key factor in determining if a corporate bamboo ceiling existed for native born AAPIs was comparing the number of supervised employees AAPIs had

compared to White, Hispanic (non-white men), and Black groups (Khator, 2010). Isao and Sakamoto's (2008) research analysis supported that AAPI men were the only racial group that showed a statistical disadvantage for AAPI men.

In academic settings, Museus (2008) analyzed the cultural environment for minority groups, Black and Asian-American students in predominantly White institutions (PWIs). Museus (2008) wanted to understand why over half of all racial or ethnic minority students at four-year colleges failed to graduate within six years. One possible explanation was the minority students' inability to find membership in the cultures and subcultures of their respective campuses. Museus' (2008) study recommended higher education administrators connect racial and ethnic students with other supporting ethnic organizations or mentors to support their early college careers to increase retention and persistence for Asian-American students.

Higher Education Structure

The organizational structure of non-profit higher education institutions in the United States is typically governed by a board of trustees and president of the university or college. (For-profit institutions may be more similar to business organization structures, but non-profit institutions are used as an example here.) As external governance, the board of trustees is appointed to work with the president on leading the institution's vision and strategy (Birnbaum, 1988). Below the president are many layers of vice presidents, deans, and directors in addition to administrative staff members to support different offices.

The next remaining levels follow traditional hierarchy in the positions of faculty chairs, faculty, managers, and supervisors that oversee daily staff operations of the

colleges and its departments. The faculty governance often plays a major role in the functions of the institution. Detailed descriptions and the size of each department and general operations are determined by the institution's size and the student population it serves (Birnbaum, 1988). A higher education institution's organizational effectiveness is constrained by both external and internal factors since there are many subsystems that make up the entire organizational system (Birnbaum, 1998).

Two major external stakeholders are (a) the federal and state government and (b) businesses that hire the college graduates (Campbell, 2004). According to Campbell (2004), with increasing higher education cost of tuition and expense, the state's support of public institutions has decreased over the years. Although the federal government has decreased budget support in higher education in the U.S., the challenges of producing knowledgeable graduates against other international countries in Asia, Europe, and the Pacific Rim have made institutions more competitive domestically. The other important external stakeholders are the parents, alumni, and business relations that support the institution during uncertain financial times (Birnbaum, 1998; Campbell, 2004). Effective leaders are critically needed to manage and change higher education institutions through the complex layers of bureaucracy in these competitive times.

Higher education institutions can be more challenging to manage compare to businesses because of the complexity of the higher education system, which has many subcultures and departments and requires much time, resources, diffusion, and institutionalization of individuals and departments to make any change effective (Kezar, 2001). Kezar's (2001) change theories and models research supported that any

organizational change attempts must overcome political, cultural, and social-cognitive challenges of individuals and groups.

For example, student affairs leaders and its department should have a close relationship with academic affairs to coordinate supporting programs and services to meet the students' academic and social needs. Higher education academic goals are to retain, develop, and increase retention and graduation rates for the school. The social needs are also equally important to make the students feel safe and grow within a nurturing and understanding community that are harder to measure quantitatively (Kuh, Kinzie, Schuh, Whitt et al., 2005).

Kezar (2001) believed that cultural models represent both elements of social-cognition and dialectical theories, where the change process tends to be long-term and slow. From a phenomenological and social-constructivist approach, the cultural process of respecting the individuals' fundamental beliefs is critical for leaders to understand before encouraging the change processes through a nurturing and patient method (Eckel & Kezar, 2003; Kezar, 2001).

Organization culture and its various departments and groups have their own subculture—formal and informal rules and norms of behavior—symbolic actions, language, rituals, and metaphors (Kezar, 2001). A good leader must be able to examine the various symbols, metaphors and signals, knowing when and how to implement certain plan of actions and words to negotiate and bargain with certain key players to accept the new proposed changes (Eckel & Kezar, 2003).

Higher Education Leadership

Northouse (2004) defined leadership as "… a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 3). By definition, individuals working in academic, administrative, and student affairs positions in higher education can be seen as leaders because these individuals can influence staff members, adjuncts, students, and others. The common goals that they share are the goals of their higher education institution's short- and long-term mission (Bolman, 2008; Chickering, Dalton, & Stamm, 2006).

Leadership has been around since the dawn of human socialization. From oral to written history, stories of great events—heroic and tragic— were led by a leader (Northouse, 2004). No matter what the needed change, a constant for all those changes require one theme: leaders must step forward and lead the change (Kouzes & Posner, 2008).

To fuel the energy and drive of an organizational change plan, Kouzes and Posner (2008) posited five practices of exemplary leadership: model the way; inspire a shared vision; challenge the process; enable others to act; and encourage the heart. The leader must act personably, behave in a clear way, and communication effectively. The leader's actions and words should model these high standards of words and actions (Kouzes & Posner, 2008). A leader must inspire a shared vision by knowing his or her constituents by speaking their language, not only building the bridge with them but also leading them across the bridge.

A leader challenges the process or the status quo. A leader acts before warning signs, or innovates rather than emulates others. A leader builds trust and communication

through helping others act and move toward the goals and mission; a leader empowers others through words and actions, providing any necessary tools and resources. Finally, a leader encourages others when their follower's energy is low, confused, or uncertain, through recognition and celebration or rituals as reminder to the mission and goals (Kouzes & Posner, 2008).

Similar to these five practices of exemplary leadership, the transformational leadership model support those elements of charismatic leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) has been tested to be reliable and valid on evaluating an individual's transformational or charismatic leadership skills and behaviors (Dubrin, 2007; Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Ultimately, the leadership path to the position of a college or university president or other senior management positions are mostly from academic or student affairs; in some community colleges, leaders are recruited from the business ranks. Presidents and senior administrators could use the study result to measure transformational leadership skills and behaviors in potential individual leaders from diverse fields to consider for leader selection.

Total Quality Management

Zairi (2013) examined the conceptual root of total quality management (TQM) to Walter Shewhart's work in statistical process control in the 1920s to major pioneers in quality movement of W. Edwards Deming, Joseph M. Juran, and Philip B. Crosby in the mid-twentieth century. Deming's 14 points outlined a new theory of management to control and improve higher quality through examining processes, using statistical analysis, and improving work training and relationship. These 14 points were carried out

in the Deming cycle, a plan-do-check-act (PDCA) cycle of steps to implement the new steps for continued improvements or unfamiliar problems (Stauffer, 2003; Zairi, 2013).

Zairi's quality management concepts and review of the great contributors also included Feigenbaum, Conway, Taguchi, Shingo, Ouchi, and Ishikawa. Specifically, Ishikawa and his development of the Ishikawa diagram (fishbone) that managers and supervisors used to solve process problems through a cause and effect diagram (Zairi, 2013). Japan had been a strong case of support for this practical theory of using TQM since they have dominated the world's economy for over a period of 50 years, as the United States (and others) also used these principles to regain their competitive position in the world economy (Zairi, 2013).

Sosik and Dionne (1997) investigated the linkages between specific leadership styles of Bass and Avolio's full range leadership model and TQM behaviors. Sosik and Dionne found that transformational leaders met all five points of TQM behavior factors in change agency, continuous improvement, teamwork, trust building, and short-term goal eradication. In contrast, laissez-faire leaders did not meet those same five factors of TQM behaviors. Transactional leaders met few or some of the TQM behaviors in some situations but were more effective than laissez-faire types.

Padro (2009) believed that educational institutions could use Deming's System of Profound Knowledge to help them meet new accountability requirements they would face as reported by the 2005 National Commission on Accountability in Higher Education. Derived from Deming's 14 points of continuous quality management, Deming's System of Profound Knowledge has four interconnected dimensions of (1) appreciation for a system, (2) knowledge about variation, (3) theory of knowledge, and (4) psychology

(Padro, 2009) seemed tailor fit for complex organizations like in a higher education system.

Koch (2003) investigated on why more failures than successes have resulted from many of the TQM initiatives in higher education and if alternative ways could have improve some of those TQM into successes. Koch (2003) used earlier works of management theories from Berle and Means, including Kuhn's research that scientific revolution can require as long as an entire century before it would be fully assimilated and adopted. Koch used this insight as a way to describe TQM's philosophy as a revolutionary idea but resisted by managers on new paradigms during the 1990s. Another narrow strategy of higher education leaders was that they implemented those quality processes in only non-academic areas such as bill collection, check writing, admissions applications, physical plant inventory, and job scheduling (Koch, 2003).

The remaining two factors that affected TQM's implementations negatively were that the academic culture was not receptive and higher education leaders failed to identify who were the customers of higher education. Because the customer lists for higher education was long with students, faculty, parents, alumni, sports fans, fine arts supporters, professional sports teams, business firms, research firms, government, or individuals who rent facilities, such complexity diluted those implementation efforts to fail easier than accomplishing their goals (Koch, 2003; Sirvanci, 2004).

Sirvanci (2004) also examined on why implementation of TQM strategy in higher education and focused on the process of customer identification, leadership, cultural, and organization issues. Although TQM movement have been more effective in manufacturing companies, it eventually led to service companies like banks, insurance,

health care, government, and educational institutions. Educational institutions may lead on learning and creating knowledge, but they seemed to fall behind on successful implementation and achieving organizational successes than other businesses and industries (Koch, 2003; Sirvanci, 2004).

Wiklund, Klefsjo, Wiklund, and Edvardsson (2003) examined the effects of TQM philosophy movement in Sweden's higher education system during a period of 1995-1998 on 36 programs. Wiklund et al. (2003) noted as a major problem with TQM was the vagueness of the terminology *quality* or confusion of its complex application for organizations, especially ones in higher education. The researchers presented nine specific themes or objectives as general guidelines to help coordinate and involve internal and external customers to build effective plans for the organization to follow. As an outside quality assessment objective, the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award or the Swedish Quality Award was used as a graded evaluation for success. Although no defined outcomes were discussed, the researchers gave other institutions a good outline on what expectations or goals to consider preparing for a TQM philosophy implementation (Wiklund, Klefsjo, Wiklund, & Edvardsson, 2003).

Eagle and Brennan (2007) evaluated the United Kingdom's implementation of TQM processes into their higher education system to focus on the students as a customer from a theoretical perspective. By viewing students as the customer, the quality perspectives focused on the students getting a value for their money, teaching courses to match competencies for employers, and providing a diverse campus for the students to grow socially and academically. Through these three themes, higher education leaders and staff should focus on reducing eight quality cost categories: prevention cost,

appraisal cost, internal failure cost, external failure cost, customer-incurred cost, customer-dissatisfaction cost, loss-of-reputation cost, and lost-opportunity cost (Eagle & Brennan, 2007). The researchers believed that institutions could improve their customer focus and quality by embedding those eight quality cost categories into their processes as a way to produce quality first instead of after.

Higher education leaders such as chancellors or presidents lacked total control or effectiveness like their counter parts from the CEOs of business organizations since their public or private universities have shared governance with faculty senate leaders (Sirvanci, 2004). At the managerial level, higher education institutions are organized into departmental units or academic disciplines. Thus, the departmental structure involved interdepartmental teams, and clear communication among teams can be more challenging to achieve when dealing with different agendas and goals (Sirvanci, 2004). Finally, the customer identification processes involved many internal and external customers, such as students, faculty, parents, alumni, business alliances, government, or research firms (Koch, 2003; Sirvanci, 2004).

Aly and Akpovi (2001) investigated two large university campuses (California State University and University of California) in California's implementation of TQM practices in only the business finance and administrative services. A survey was sent to 134 vice presidents and vice chancellors in the administrative and academic affairs of business schools, production and operations management, and schools of engineering and education from both schools. A total of 64 responses were returned for a response rate of 47% and analyzed (Aly & Akpovi, 2001). Although the implementation was partially used only to business-type operations, Aly and Akpovi (2001) found that TQM

implementation in the CSU system was more than in the UC system. A significant number of those implemented also agreed that the TQM practices reported some improvements in their processes; however, the study confirmed that challenges to implement it wider met resistance from some faculty, administrators, and staff (Aly & Akpovi, 2001).

Argia and Ismail (2013) investigated Libya's strategy to nationalize their higher education system for the country's growing demand for quality education and preparing graduates to compete in the new global economy. Specifically, Argia and Ismail (2013) examined the role of transformational leadership affecting the use of TQM implementation in their higher education system through a survey sample of 500 faculty members distributed in 11 campuses in Libya's seven universities. Many researchers believed that TQM philosophy primary goal was to produce high quality services to students, which in result should produce high quality students (products). For this philosophy to be maximized, TQM must be practiced and supported from top down as well in addition to having effective managers and supervisors to help lead the changes in every process (Argia & Ismail, 2013).

These effective managers or supervisors ideally exhibited four factors of transformational leadership qualities in idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The researchers found that idealized influence ($b = .22$; $p < .01$) and individualized consideration ($b = .13$; $p < .01$) had significant influences toward the practice of TQM leadership. For TQM strategic planning, intellectual stimulation ($b = .14$; $p < .05$) and individualized consideration ($b =$

.18; $p < .01$) were found to have positive influences and affected it significantly (Argia & Ismail, 2013).

Zakuan, Muniandy, Saman, Ariff, Sulaiman, and Jalil (2012) reviewed effective TQM implementations and proposed a conceptual model that future practitioners could use in their higher education institution. The researchers found three common areas for TQM approaches in higher education. The three areas were through a customer-based approach, staff-focus approach on providing training to improve the organization's performance, and service-agreement approach for faculty, as to assign goals and a timeframe for evaluation of the processes (Zakuan et al., 2012). The researchers concluded from their investigations on TQM that for achieving critical successes, seven factors in management commitment and leadership, continuous improvement, total customer satisfaction, employee involvement, training, communication, and teamwork need to work in total alignment for the institution to achieve their goals (Zakuan et al., 2012).

Asif, Awan, Khan, and Ahmad (2013) examined the critical success factors of implementing TQM in Pakistani universities. A survey was used to collect from faculty members of the universities. Asif et al. (2013) found that four common themes of lack of agreement on defining customers, defining the unique nature of academic processes, and defining the meaning of quality and academic freedom affected TQM implementations negatively in the study. In contrast, the six factors that was critical to a successful implementation of TQM in the study included leadership, vision, program design, resource allocation, measurement and evaluation, process control and improvement, and other stakeholders (Asif et al., 2013).

Chen (2012) examined Taiwan's educational market supply and demand after joining the World Trade Organization. With world economic influences, businesses and education institutions shared a symbiotic relationship that also faced scrutiny and accountability on the quality of its admission standards and the output of its graduates. To help ensure quality processes of Taiwan's national education system, universities have used business tools such as Plan-Do-Check-Action (PDCA) cycle, balanced scorecard (BSC), and Six Sigma to improve their competitiveness within the new global environment. TQM has been proven effectively for business manufacturing organizations for many decades and has recently been applied to educational institutions in many European countries like the United Kingdom and Switzerland (Chen, 2012).

Chen (2012) focused on applying the PDCA of TQM to improve the gap of the SERVQUAL model for a private university located in northern Taiwan. This university had seven colleges and 27 departments that served around 15,000 students with 800 faculty. The university followed standardized service processes of the ISO 9000 guidelines within a five-year strategy and mission value plan to improve their quality processes of providing superior services for their students. The researchers found four service gaps through internal surveys in the university and formed leadership groups to focus and correct. As a result of their efforts and consistent improvement, the studied university won four consecutive years of quality awards from 2004-2008 in Taiwan (Chen, 2012).

Venkatraman (2007) also reviewed TQM philosophy using one of its tools from the PDCA cycle for implementing continuous improvements in higher education programs through a seven-step course evaluation process. Because of the intangible

factors of the learning process in a classroom setting, using statistical control techniques were more challenging. Venkatraman (2007) reaffirmed that some TQM plans have failed in some education institutions because of the lack of proper leadership or misunderstanding of the TQM philosophy because adopting TQM principles required full effort from the top to bottom.

Trait Leadership Theory

Although in practice, leadership predated biblical times and was not noted formally until in the late 17th century, serious scientific research of leadership theories began in the 20th century (Badshah, 2012). Colbert, Judge, Choi, and Wang (2012) supported that personality traits of leaders can influence when and how effective he or she can be. To get a more comprehensive assessment of the leader's personality and effectiveness, the researchers believed that using both self-assessment and observer ratings in their study of the leader's personality and leadership mediated the group's success. Colbert et al. (2012) examined five leadership traits of neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness for leaders and their subordinates to rate these five characteristics. Colbert et al. (2012)'s study showed that using both leader self- and observer-ratings can useful in leadership prediction than just using self-rating alone.

Zaccaro (2007) revisited trait-based leadership as a quantitative research support that began with Galton's work in *Hereditary Genius* (1869). Galton (1869) supported leadership quality as a fixed or unchanging element in individuals. In contrast, social and industrial and organizational psychologists in a 40-year span, from Blum and Naylor (1956) to Baron and Byrne (1987), rejected the immutable quality of leadership and

offered alternative views of leadership, from leaders who were influenced by certain situations and leaders with expertise to the contingency theory of interaction between traits and situations.

Zaccaro (2007) offered an improve process of leadership trait model by combining distal attributes (cognitive abilities, personality, and motives/values) with proximal attributes (social appraisal skills, problem solving skills, and expertise/tacit knowledge) of the leader operating in any given environment to yield the leader's effectiveness, emergence, and success. Zaccaro (2007) believed from his research that combinations of traits and attributes can be used for leadership prediction because dominant leadership traits were stable and transferrable to any situation, though with varying effective levels.

Germaine (2012) investigated if the leader's expertise and trait characteristics combined to produce effective outcomes. Germaine (2012) also summarized the last 100 years of theories of leadership as behaviors, traits, or skills of individuals from born-leaders to situational leadership to the traits of leaders on making effective leadership decisions. Although leadership trait theory was limited on prediction and measuring specific trait for leadership effectiveness in different situations, social gifts or charisma of leaders were challenging to measure and have proven historically that charismatic leaders can lead others to do extraordinary things or surpass goals (Germaine, 2012). Germaine (2012) believed that the two areas of leadership effectiveness concentrated in leadership traits and expert knowledge of the individuals.

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Finally, Hernandez, Eberly, Avolio, and Johnson (2011) examined the literature review in a qualitative design and reformed the leadership theories into a more unified big picture for analysis and understanding using a 4 by 5 grid system. In this two-dimensional framework grid system, the loci of leadership included five points in leader, context, followers, collective, and dyads in the x-coordinate; in the y-coordinate, the mechanics of leadership included four points of traits (to be), behaviors (to do), cognition (to think), and affect (to feel).

Hernandez et al. (2011) analyzed 25 different leadership theories and placed them (3 theories were in multiple spots) within the 4 by 5 grid system to get a graphical picture of how each 25 theories fell within the leadership realm. Hernandez et al. (2011) wanted to start a map of common language for leadership theorists and future researchers to use to advance new leadership theories or complete existing ones. By using these researchers' leadership map, trait theory was located at leader and traits, and transformational (charismatic) leadership theories were at opposite end of the loci spectrum of dyads and mechanics of traits, behaviors, and cognition (Hernandez et al., 2011).

Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership was introduced by J.W. Dowton in 1973 but was later expanded by House (1976) and James M. Burns' book, *Leadership in 1978* (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Burns' book examined two types of leadership: transactional and transformational, which led to the modern version of transformational leadership theory as further developed and refined by Bass in the mid-1980s (Northouse, 2004). Bass's transformational leadership theory supported and detailed factors that empowered and motivated the followers more than previous authors (Northouse, 2004).

In contrast to transformational leaders are laissez-faire leaders, who believe in not developing their followers, giving no feedback, delaying decisions, and offering no goals. Laissez-faire leaders give freedom to followers for self-direction with minimum guidance (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004). As noted on transactional leaders, these leaders are in the middle of the spectrum between transformational and laissez-faire ones. Transactional leaders are the typical managers who operate by procedure and standards, exchanging promotions, advancements, and merits through goals achieved but not through close personal relationship with their followers (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004).

Transformational leadership has two components of charismatic and visionary leadership elements. In general, these leaders are aligned with their emotions, values, ethics, and goals to the followers' motives, needs, and valuing their humanity (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Even though charismatic leaders have their own field of literature, transformational leaders share some of the characteristics of charismatic leaders. Some researchers believed that transformational leadership can be learned versus

the trait leadership that individuals are born with it and that cannot be learned (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004).

Charismatic leaders have a strong sense of confidence and personal values; they are dominant and influence others and can attract followers easily. Charismatic leaders' behavior shows confidence in their actions and inspires others to follow. These leaders have set goals and articulate them to others. The followers naturally listen to charismatic leaders because they easily communicate their desires and goals for followers to be inspired to work toward while they served the followers' needs, values, emotions, acceptance, and goals (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004). Charismatic leaders are effective because they can identify with followers and lift their inspiration and confidence to work beyond the goals that are aligned by the organization or institution.

The transformational leadership model is a part of two other leadership types, transactional and laissez-faire leaders, which has become known as a full range leadership spectrum. From these three types of leaders, the transformational leadership model developed by Bass and Avolio (2004) has been used for business and education to identify leadership qualities within individuals through the assessment of the MLQ. The MLQ assesses the individual's attitude, desires, behaviors, and skills according to these three leadership types in one full range leadership spectrum (Dubrin, 2007; Northouse, 2004).

Although the positives of transformational leaders can work when used for good, there are possible drawbacks of charismatic leaders. First, insufficient validation in research can misidentify potential individuals. Second, some bad individuals with the power and position can use it for the wrong reasons. Concerning the validity, some

researchers have had trouble and disagreements on defining charismatic leaders for operational measures, especially when some charismatic leaders can exhibit both extreme support and disdain at the same time.

For example, Steve Jobs and Martha Stewart, both strong charismatic leaders may inspire both reverence and hatred at the same time; thus, the concept of this leadership polarity can be difficult to measure operationally (Dubrin, 2007). Some cult leaders, or even Adolf Hitler, have been considered charismatic leaders and used their power for the wrong goals. In the area of businesses, individuals like Bernie Madoff have used it for fraud and financially devastated many lives. Extreme versions exist, but most charismatic leaders use their position and power to benefit their followers and their organizations.

In summary, the MLQ can assess an individual's leadership traits, values, and behaviors through nine leadership subscale qualities that indicate an individual's leadership scores to determine among the three leadership styles of either transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire leaders (Northouse, 2004). Although transformational leadership began from a business background, the essential elements have been used and evaluated in many fields, including higher education.

Business Field

Transformation leadership started in business organizations to help managers motivate and lead subordinates to reach the company's goals. Pastor and Mayo (2008) examined the relationship between managers' beliefs and goal orientation of work and their self-perception of transformational and transactional leadership styles determined by the individual manager's level of formal educational level attainment. From a sample size of 76 executive officers using the short-form MLQ, Pastor and Mayo (2008) found that

both followers and transformational leaders showed a positive relationship with learning goal orientation. Transactional leaders also showed a smaller positive relationship with performance goal orientation. To achieve the goals, they motivated their followers with contingent rewards and other transactional exchanges to lead them to the goals (Pastor & Mayo, 2008).

Brown and Reilly (2009) used both the MLQ and Myers-Briggs type indicator (MBTI) to determine the possible relationship elements between the leadership and personality styles of 148 individuals working at the North American manufacturing facility. Transformational leaders reported more individuals exhibiting extraversion (E) over introversion (I) and intuition (N) over perception (P). However, the small sample was not generalizable. Leaders rated themselves higher with transformational qualities than their followers rated them. Similar themes have occurred on such personal biases from previous studies.

In a small business setting, Valdiserri and Wilson (2010) examined small construction businesses' success and organizational profitability in the East Coast states using the MLQ survey on leaders, managers, and employees. Some correlation existed between transformational (r=.669) and transactional leadership (r=.587) affecting the employees' effectiveness and organization's profitability. In contrast, support for laissez-faire leadership styles did not produce significant success or production and showed a lower correlation score (r=.167). The negatives of the study were the small population of 48 participants that numbered males over females for managers and leaders (all females were administrative employees).

In a nonprofit setting, Lansford, Clements, Falzon, Aish, and Rogers (2012) examined a group of nine successful female leaders in the non-profit services field. The qualitative study assessed the commonalities, leadership skills, feminine traits, and strategies of women leaders. The researchers developed four main research questions and found common themes, traits, and behaviors similar to transactional leaders' seven dimensions that helped all nine women succeed in the non-profit industry. The researchers did not provide any specific MLQ or transformational characteristics that can be compared or supported.

In a religious organization setting, Carter (2009) used the MLQ and two other surveys to measure leadership styles, personality, and spirituality of 93 pastors to determine if individual leadership effectiveness can be predicted based on certain variables. Effective pastoral leaders need to balance the many tasks of church operations, administration, preaching and counseling, and community involvement; thus, finding key variables of leadership skills and traits can make recruiting and training potential leaders more sustainable for pastors and churches.

Although leadership style and spirituality had limited capability to predict leadership effectiveness, the MLQ's attribute of individual consideration (IC) showed a positive correlation with the Pastoral Leadership Effectiveness Scales (PLES). Because only one of the seven dimensions showed a positive correlation, the other six leadership dimensions could not be used. A limitation of the study was a small sample size that can be prone to Type II error and the selected church and geography was not representative of the state (Carter, 2009).

In other countries, the MLQ has been widely used. Using the MLQ survey for raters and self-raters, Wolfram and Mohr (2010) examined both groups of workers and leaders to compare the work satisfaction and leadership effectiveness at German business organizations such as banks, insurance, service, and engineering companies. Researchers interpreted the study result as an indication that employees' gender dominance (more male workers than females, vice versa) and their leader's gender can influence the worker environment and team's satisfaction and effectiveness.

Wolfram and Mohr (2010) examined two samples of 455 followers and 142 direct leaders from banks, insurance and engineering companies. In an attempt to equalize gender bias, 65 teams were from female-dominated economic sectors (banks and insurance), 28 teams from gender-neutral sectors such as housing and other service companies, and 49 teams from male-dominated sectors from engineering companies. Using ANOVAs to test their hypotheses, the researchers found that the minority leaders with different gender dominance scored significant higher satisfaction than other comparison groups. Although male leaders scored high with male dominated groups, female leaders did not score high with female dominated groups (Wolfram & Mohr, 2010).

In Australia, Muchiri, Cooksey, Di Milia, and Walumbwa (2011) examined the leadership effectiveness and styles of individuals through factors such as gender and management. The study sample was drawn from nine local councils that represented managerial and professional positions of 200 employees. The final valid sample was 177 because of incomplete answers and because more males than females answered the self-reported MLQs. In a mixed-method of qualitative and quantitative designs, researchers

assessed that the qualitative thematic result indicated that leadership styles and behaviors contrasted views between male and female participants. Quantitative finding was not conclusive. Future studies to help narrow focuses of individuals, work teams, and varying organization hierarchy levels were needed to clarify the literature on gender and management levels of leadership styles.

In Cyprus, Zopiatis and Constanti (2010) used two surveys, the MLQ and Maslach burnout inventory (MBI), to find out which leadership style was more prone to burnout effects for managers working in the hospitality industry. The researcher found that transformational leadership had a significant positive association with personal accomplishments. In contrast, a weak and negative correlation was made with both emotional exhaustion and depersonalization. Although laissez-faire had a positive association with emotional exhaustion and depersonalization, previous study indicated these leaders were prone to exhibit burnout symptoms if they had lower hardiness scores. The study limitation was the small sample of 131, and the culture and geography were different from Western culture and country.

In Malaysia, a study by Ismail, Mohamad, Mohamed, Rafiuddin, and Zhen (2010) specifically measured the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and individual outcomes on perceptions of justice and trust in leaders. From a sample of 118 out of 150 employees working in a U.S. subsidiary firm, in Malaysia, the researchers used surveys utilizing a cross-sectional method to integrate in-depth interview, pilot study, and custom survey to collect data.

The researchers strongly believed that the study result supported transformational leadership as an important predictor of procedural justice and transactional leadership

was an important predictor of distributive justice (Ismail et al., 2010). Such indications supported that employees with similar values to their managers were more effective than different. The organization can plan and administer jobs better with the aid of the MLQ assessment that could influence positive attitudes and behaviors from employees according to their following of their individual manager's or supervisor's leadership style.

In Pakistan, Chaudry and Javed (2012) examined the two lower levels of the full range leadership model of transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles as motivating factors to 278 employees (217 males and 61 females) in the banking sector. As noted from Mehmood and Arif's (2011) study that laissez-faire leadership style dominated (70% versus 20% transactional) in Pakistan, Chaudry and Javed's (2012) study attempted to see if the result could be verified. Chaudry and Javed (2012) found that using transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles were more effective than using transformational leadership in Pakistan because of the culture. The limitations of the study were not explained clearly why transformational styles did not work and what procedures were used for the employees in the survey.

In Lebanon, Mahseredjian, Karkoulian, and Messarra (2011) examined the followers' perceptions of their leaders' (managers) styles in a learning organization. Learning organizations are defined as organizations that are trained to create, obtain, and share knowledge in order to compete in a changing environment because of evolving technology, communication, and competition. The researchers found that transformational leaders were more effective to lead a learning organization than transactional and laissez-faire leaders. In addition, transactional leaders were sometimes effective, and laissez-faire sometimes obstructed or slowed the learning process down.

The study's limitation was that it was a small convenient sample, as the location of the study was in Lebanon, where culture and customs may be different from Western cultures.

Finally, Metwally (2012) examined in Egypt the effectiveness of organizational change between male and female leaders in the healthcare and pharmaceutical sectors. In these qualitative case studies analysis with two rounds of interview and observation research methods of 20 participants, the researcher found that age, managerial level, and previous work experience influenced the individual's leadership style. More transformational leaders were found from both groups that were under 50 years of age, and in contrast, individuals who were 50 years or older exhibited transactional leadership styles. Another significant note was that top-level female leaders exhibited more transformational leadership qualities than did males while male middle-level managers exhibited more transformational leadership qualities than female middle-level managers.

Education Field

Pounder's (2008) research examined the leadership of instructors' transformational leadership style with students (followers) in the classroom to produce positive leadership outcomes such as extra effort from the students. By utilizing the MLQ short-form modified for use in the classroom scenario, Pounder used Cronbach's (1951) alpha to test the reliability of the scales measuring the modified leadership instrument. Six of the seven transformational leadership dimensions met the reliability criterion of .70 for widely used scales, but only one dimension of the Individual Consideration scale was at .68, which it was still in an acceptable range for social science research (Pounder, 2008).

In addition to the instructor's evaluation, the students' perception and satisfaction of the professor's leadership (teaching) style were also evaluated (Pounder, 2008). There were 217 student responses examined (76% response rate) on five different instructors at a Hong Kong university (Pounder, 2008). Pounder's (2008) study indicated that students evaluated their instructor positively in each of the transformational classroom leadership dimensions that correlated with scores on each of the classroom leadership outcomes, with correlation scores ranging from .29 to .47 (.01 significance level). Even though the correlation scores were low to medium in the range, the researcher still believed that the MLQ instrument was reliable. The study's limitations were geography, culture, and teaching style.

In the athletics department, Peachey and Burton (2011) assessed the leader's gender and its influences with college athletic directors through a sample of 99 male participants from Division I and II schools. A total of 112 athletic directors responded from a pool of 845 athletic directors (19.5% response rate for both divisions). Using MLQ with MANOVA and post hoc analyses, no significant differences were found between male and female leaders and their varying leadership styles on leading participants to attain the goals. In contrast, a previous study from Burton and Peachey (2009) found that transactional leaders were more favorable than transformational leaders because the athletic directors' roles and work environment demanded higher level of detailed work such as coordinating schedules, operations, grounds, maintenance, travels, and budgeting.

In students, Smith (2011) analyzed the ideology of two main leadership styles (transformational and transactional) influencing young marketer's views on culture and

ethics; especially on leadership styles that can reinforce or influence individuals to behave according to the marketer's goals. A convenience sample of 135 undergraduate marketing students from an accredited university in the northeastern region of the United States participated in the study on a voluntary basis. A valid 130 questionnaires were analyzed, with 51% female and 49% male students with ages between 19 and 22.

These students were assessed with the MLQ and a modified 26-item Personal Cultural Orientation scale to measure cultural values at the individual level. The limitation was that personal values and ideologies of young students could change later on in life as they grow and become more experienced. The biases in the study were convenience sampling and geography. The researcher found that cultural values and ethical ideologies influenced the students' perceptions of transformational leadership style.

Wu (2009) examined the relationship of adult English cram school leaders' leadership style and foreign English teachers' job satisfaction in Taiwan using the MLQ with the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) and the Job in General (JIG) Scale surveys. Additional face-to-face interviews were also conducted to understand more deeply the relationships of leadership styles and job satisfaction. Although no significant relationships could be found between the school leaders' leadership styles and the English teachers' job satisfaction because of the low reliability of the JIG instrument, the face-to-face interviews highlighted that most of the 18 teachers liked their teaching environment, coworkers, and leaders. Those teachers who classified their leaders as transformational leaders indicated higher satisfaction scores in all areas than others who had leaders with a

combination of transformational and transactional styles. Some limitations of the study were the small sample, geography, and culture.

At another university, Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) analyzed the leadership style and effectiveness of academic chairs at Malaysian Research Universities through the raters' MLQ survey from lecturers. Previous researchers have supported that transformational leaders were considered effective to lead organizations and this study's result aided the researchers to decide if one or a combination of the full range leadership styles supported leadership effectiveness in the department chairs.

Paarlberg and Lavigna (2010) used a correlational design study with a stratified random sampling of 400 lecturers from target universities of which 320 were returned. Only, 298 were valid for statistical analysis (74.5% response rate). With regression analysis support, the researchers found that using a combination of both transformational and transactional leadership styles was more effective than any one leadership style alone. Both negative relationships and leadership effectiveness were found through individuals exhibiting laissez-faire leadership style.

Finally, Mehmood and Arif (2011) examined full range leadership from the MLQ of human resource management (HRM) executives' perceptions on their teaching staff at universities in Pakistan. From a sample of 200 teachers, 180 valid respondents were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The limitation seemed that the sample was not diverse, and the study result seemed to reflect cultural biased since the dominant response rate of 70% indicated laissez-faire leadership style was perceived by the subordinates. Other contrasts were 10% indicated transformational leaders and 20% transactional leaders as reported by the subordinates of the HRM executives. In addition, comparison

of male and female leadership was not made since, culturally, males dominated in Pakistan.

Studies of transformational leaders have been positive and promising in many cases in business, non-profit organizations, and education in the United States and many countries. Although gender and culture can affect the MLQ measures, the reliability and validity of the scales were consistent. Transformational leadership values and the use of the MLQ have many applications in business and education related fields to find critical leadership traits, values, and skills to make effective change for organizations. This researcher believes the study's goals of using the MLQ better to understand the two bimodal groups' higher education leaders have been missing from research.

Both transformational leadership and trait theory supported that extraordinary leaders were born with certain characteristics to be effective and productive leaders to lead organizations or others to achieve the desired goals. Also, both transformational leadership and trait theory generally focused on the leaders and not the followers. By using TQM as a practical tool, leaders could be more effective on planning new strategy or process to implement for their organizations. Thus, organizations that have managerial or leadership positions with designated profiles or personality styles could maximize the organization's effectiveness (Northouse, 2007; Zaccaro, 2007).

Summary

In this second chapter, the literature review examined the essential theories of oppression, critical race, white identity, and their related concepts of perpetual foreigner concept, the Asian model minority myth, postmodern philosophy of education, and meritocracy as complex dynamic factors that may have contributed to the

underrepresentation of Asian-American leaders in higher education. In the second part, the three main theoretical frameworks of TQM, trait leadership, and transformational leadership theories provided related studies and examples that higher educational leaders could use to plan implementation strategies for their organizations.

The United States has a diverse and rich history, thanks to the migration of minority groups seeking freedom, economic opportunity, or both. As the nation grew with a large literate and productive society, higher education institutions in America have flourished to meet the new economic demands. Such growth has made America one of the world's elite providers of higher education institutions, which has graduated some of best graduates in many fields of study. As America's population growth continues to increase in size and diversity, the ethnic proportionality of its leaders has not kept pace with the proportionality of its student base or with the general population. This differential portends unintended negative effects in the economic, social, and political areas. This is a problem that will grow and that will demand a solution.

A good starting place for Asian-American students and leaders are already attending and working in higher education institutions, respectively. Chapter 3 will present a descriptive research design using the research instrument in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) to describe the commonalities and differences of Caucasian-American and Asian-American leaders. In addition, competing research methods and designs will be examined with various statistical analysis and tools to better understand the study data.

Chapter 3

Methods

The purpose of this quantitative non-experimental comparative study was to measure and compare the leadership styles of higher education professionals across levels of responsibility between Asian-American and Caucasian-American individuals. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and additional demographic surveys were used to obtain measurements and personal information for the dependent and independent variables. The MLQ survey measures nine characteristics of leadership qualities from 32 observed leadership behaviors and attributes that form nine components (subscales) of the transformational, transactional, or passive/avoidant (laissez-faire). Within these three leadership styles, participant responses can determine how he or she reacted about certain behaviors and situations, much like leaders did on similar realities.

Using stratified random sampling for both Caucasian-American and Asian-American groups, the research method was a survey research study to compare the two groups of Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans. Additional demographic questions and data were collected for statistical comparison and analysis. In this study, Asians-Americans leaders were compared to Caucasian-American leaders to see if any significant differences existed among the five transformational leadership characteristics: idealized attributes (IA), idealized behaviors (IB), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). Other possible significance of leadership styles may also be found in the lower four subscale scores of transactional (MBEA & CR) and laissez-faire (MBEP & LF).

This chapter, noting Chapter's 2 discussion of the underrepresentation of Asian Americans as leaders in various setting, examines many areas in business, education, social and political theories and models to support the study topic's research method and design. The following sections present the research questions and hypotheses, population, sampling, informed consent and confidentiality, data collection, instrumentation, reliability, internal and external validity, and data analyses.

Research Method

In selecting a methodology, two choices are generally available for consideration: qualitative designs and quantitative designs (Neuman, 2011; Rumrill, 2004). Both research designs have their advantages and disadvantages and the research questions generally dictate which designs make the most sense for a particular study. Neuman (2011) summarized quantitative research as an appropriate process to measure causal or deductive concepts in distinct variables since data are in forms of numbers or scales (nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio) using statistics, tables, or charts to show relation or difference to the hypotheses. In contrast, qualitative research does not use statistical analysis. Qualitative research methods capture and discover meaningful data through form of words, images, or knowledge in documents, observations, interviews, and transcripts (Neuman, 2011; Pagano, 2010). Qualitative research questions or theory can be causal or non-causal through an inductive process. The analysis is developed through evidence of emerging themes or generalizations that describe a consistent picture to bear on answers to research questions (Monette, Sullivan, & DeJong, 2008; Neuman, 2011).

A third research method, called mix-method research, combines elements of both quantitative and qualitative research methods for use. Mixed methods generally demand

greater time and expertise from the researcher (Cameron & Molina-Azorin, 2011). In addition, mixed method designs are not as widely accepted as either quantitative or qualitative research methods (Cameron & Molina-Azorin, 2011; Lopez-Fernandez & Molina-Azorin, 2011).

For this research study, the use of descriptive non-experimental quantitative research was appropriate to the research questions asked and the related hypotheses concerning Asian-American and Caucasian-American leaders in higher education. To minimize biases between these two groups, qualitative research method was not chosen because possible subjective behavior based on opinions and viewpoints can be introduced into the study (Neuman, 2011; Pinder, Prime, & Wilson, 2014). By contrast, in a quantitative method, data collection and scoring using the MLQ survey instrument composed of specific validated and reliable questions was chosen rather than constructing open-ended ones as in qualitative research.

Quantitative research uses statistical analysis for comparisons and to understand the possible existence or absence of a relationship between variables (Neuman, 2011; Vogt, 2007). The three quantitative research designs are non-experimental, quasi-experimental, and experimental (Neuman, 2011; Pinder, Prime, & Wilson, 2014). This comparative non-experimental quantitative research study tested six hypotheses applicable to data produced in the use of the MLQ and demographic survey responses of the participants. The demographic variables consisted of age, gender, race, mentorship experience, socio-economic background, and birth country. Inferential analytic statistics such as a test of significance was used to identify significant differences between the two

groups' leadership styles and six independent variables (Coughlan, Cronin, & Ryan, 2007).

Research Design

A non-experimental comparative research study design was appropriate for the researcher to compare similarities and differences between the two groups of Asian-American and Caucasian-American leaders in higher education. An experimental design was not appropriate for this study because no intervention or change was used in either group at any time during the study (Monette, Sullivan, & DeJong, 2008; Neuman, 2011. Christensen, Johnson, and Turner (2011) supported survey method as an excellent technique to capture and measure attitudes, opinions, and beliefs, and to examine relationships between contrasting groups and individuals at one point in time (cross-sectional). The MLQ and demographic surveys were used in this study.

Random sampling technique is highly recommended for the study in order to strengthen the data representation (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2011; Vogt, 2007). In a comparative descriptive design, data collections are used to describe two or more groups of participants in the organization setting or phenomena, no changes of the independent variables are introduced into the study like those in an experimental design study. Any attempt to generalize the finding from a comparative study to a larger population is limited since biased sampling of one or a few cases of the study could occur (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2011; Coughlan, Cronin, & Ryan, 2007).

The researcher used the study to test six descriptive hypotheses using statistical tests to examine the general dimensions of leadership behavior and decision of two different groups of higher education leaders in the United States. In the MLQ survey

instrument, the researcher may read some data as indicators that some independent variables can influence certain relationships, which could lead to future research to into a correlational design. According to Neuman (2011), "… research questions refer to relationships among a small number of variables" (p. 172). Both genders from Asian-American and Caucasian-American individuals were asked to participate and provide information about his or her self-reported individual leadership style.

The analysis was undertaken according to the demographics of the individuals to show any significant differences or similarities within and between these two groups of leaders. Data were collected using the member list of Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA), and a stratified random sampling of both Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals in higher education to gather sufficient sampling for two different groups. The survey research study assessed demographic data from a biographical survey and the MLQ to offer a validated and an efficient measure of nine subscale qualities of transformational leadership (five subscales), transactional leadership (two subscales), and laissez-faire (two subscales) (Bass, Dong, & Avolio, 2003).

The independent variable for the study is thought of as a possible explanation for influencing a dependent or response variable (Neuman, 2011; Vogt, 2007). The independent variables in this study consisted of demographic characteristics in race, mentorship experience, birth county, SES background, age, and gender of the participants.

The dependent variable of transformational leadership levels consists of five subscale characteristics in idealized attribute (IA), idealized behavior (IB), inspirational

motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individualized consideration (IC). Other four remaining subscales of the dependent variable of note was on the lower leadership qualities of transactional (CR and MBEA) and laissez-faire (MBEP and LF) leadership styles. The MLQ measures the participant's leadership qualities and behaviors using a Likert-type scale with five variance levels and are as follows: 0 = Not at all; 1 = Once in a while; 2 = Sometimes; 3 = Fairly often; and 4 = Frequently, if not always. The MLQ measures are ordinal in nature. Thus, evaluating the magnitude level of low, medium, and high between the two groups could be comparable for difference in levels of leadership behaviors and skills. The significant ratio data types were examined from the individual's age, experience, and education. Other nominal demographic data were from the individuals' gender, birth country, and mentorship experience.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Previous research on MLQ and transformational leaders did not clarify which leadership traits and behaviors between Asian and Caucasian American leaders, specifically those leaders working in the field of higher education. In addition, few quantitative research studies examined previously have concentrated on the topic of Asian-American leaders in higher education because the field of research is relatively young compared to other minority groups. In the past, two former higher education presidents, Bob Suzuki and Chang-Lin Tien attempted to start a leadership program for Asian-Americans in 1995 but failed because of apparent lack of political support and interest (Yamagata-Noji, 2005). In contrast, a qualitative study of Asian American leaders was done by Hu (2008), but the small group of Asian Americans that were

interviewed only resided in California, and the qualitative measures did not reflect a larger or diverse group geographically, or use a quantitative research approach.

This comparative quantitative study method used surveys through the MLQ instrument and demographic data on Asian and Caucasian Americans in leadership positions at the higher education level. The MLQ asked behavioral and situational leadership questions that assessed their responses within five subscale levels of transformational leadership and four subscale levels of transactional and laissez-faire styles to find if significant differences existed between these two sample groups. This survey research study used demographic data from a biographical survey with the MLQ and offered researchers a validated and an efficient measure of transformational leadership, including other leadership behaviors and style from self-assessment of higher education leaders (Bass, Dong, & Avolio, 2003). The analyzed research data of Asian-American leaders compared to Caucasian-American leaders in higher education showed some differences and similarities.

The following research questions and hypotheses are a summary from Chapter 1:

Research Questions

RQ1: What is the difference in the full range leadership levels (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) between Caucasian-American and Asian-American higher educational leaders?

RQ2: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between mentored and non-mentored experience leaders?

RQ3: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between leaders who were born in the United States and those who were foreign born?

RQ4: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between leaders who were born from lower and higher socioeconomic status (SES) background?

RQ5: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between older and younger leaders working in higher education?

RQ6: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between male and female leaders working in higher education?

Hypotheses

$H1_0$: Concerning transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire qualities in leadership, there is no significant difference between Caucasian-American and Asian-American leaders.

H1a: Concerning transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire qualities in leadership, there is a significant difference between Caucasian-American and Asian-American leaders.

$H2_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference between leaders with mentored and non-mentored experience.

H2a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference between leaders with mentored and non-mentored experience.

$H3_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference between leaders of higher education who were born in the United States than those who were foreign born.

H3a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference between higher education leaders who were born in the United States than those who were foreign born.

$H4_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference between leaders from a higher level of socio-economic background than those from a lower level of socioeconomic background.

H4a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference between leaders from a higher level of socioeconomic background than those from a lower level of socioeconomic background.

$H5_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference of older leaders than younger ones.

H5a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference of older leaders than younger ones.

$H6_0$: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is no significant difference of male leaders than female leaders.

H6a: Concerning transformational leadership qualities, there is a significant difference of male leaders than female leaders.

Population

The relevant population of the study consisted of higher education professionals with a job description of influencing, supporting, or leading subordinates to goals and strategies in higher education, in the United States of America. Table 2, compiled by Wang and Teranishi (2012), reveals that five million (excluding nonprofessional staff figures) higher educational professionals were in the United States.

Table 2

Employees in Degree-Granting Institutions, by Race/Ethnicity and Occupation, Fall 2007

Occupation	Total	White	Asian/Pacific Islander	% of Total Pop., White vs. API
Professional Staff	2,629,401	1,894,641	156,969	72.1% vs. 6.0%
Exec/Admin/Managerial	217,518	173,948	6,517	79.9% vs. 2.9%
Faculty	1,371,390	1,038,982	78,593	75.8% vs. 5.7%
Graduate Assistants	328,979	169,028	24,712	51.4% vs. 7.5%
Other Professional	711,514	512,683	47,147	72.1% vs. 6.6%
Nonprofessional staff	932,027	602,113	37,965	64.6% vs. 4.1%

Note. Educational Statistics, 2009 (NCES 2010-013), 2010, Table 246.

Looking at Wang and Teranishi's Table 2 that used the 2009 National Center for Education Statistics, they found some interesting figures for the breakdown of occupation and race or ethnicity of employees in degree-granting institutions in the United States between Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans.

The Wang and Teranishi report showed significant percent differentials between White and Asian/Pacific Islanders in occupations held for the fall of 2007. For executive/administrative/managerial positions, White held at 79.9% and Asian/Pacific Islander held at 2.9%. Other relevant statistics were the professional staff of White at 72.1% versus Asian/Pacific Islander at 6.0% and the faculty of White at 75.8% and Asian/Pacific Islander at 5.7%. These two indicators represent where future development and advancement were concentrated that lead to leadership positions in higher education for academic and student affairs. Also of note was the graduate assistants' percentage of White at 51.4% and Asian/Pacific Islander at 7.5%. Although White seemed to decrease in the total percentage, and Asian/Pacific Islanders increased a little, the data suggested a growing minority student population.

The researcher in this study examined two subsets of the higher education professionals belonging to two racial groups: Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans living and working in the United States. The two sample groups collected belong to a professional organization called NASPA. Permission to use NASPA members was obtained and approved by the University of Phoenix's institutional review board approval on January 9, 2014 and submitted and approved for access of the member list (see Appendix E) on January 20, 2014. Although other similar professional organizations existed, NASPA was chosen for the breadth and depth of its leaders in higher education in the United States. These participants worked in various areas in higher education institutions such as faculty chairs or leadership positions within the department as indicated in the demographic survey questions. These leaders were administrators who led and supported staff and students, or senior management teams and who had titles such as program manager, director, vice president, dean, provost, president, chancellor, or trustee.

NASPA is one of two student affairs professional associations in the U.S., and NASPA is the larger association of student affairs professionals' organization. Founded in 1919, NASPA had more than 13,000 members in all 50 states, 29 countries, and eight U.S. territories. Although NASPA has international reach, the researcher focused on members residing and working in the United States. NASPA also advocates and supports the advancement of diverse members working for students and in higher education institutions in a variety of roles, responsibilities and positions. These individuals are in positions such as vice president, dean for student life, housing directors, business

managers, career office directors, admission/enrollment managers, and other racial and ethnic minority support services, retention, and assessment (About NASPA, 2012).

These data also indicated that graduate assistants were less aligned within the general population; future study would be needed to see if a majority of them would advance into leadership positions. Although, this study result gave the researcher a good starting point to support and give better insight on such future topic for leadership research, research literature in this relatively young field of Asian American research showed that Asian American leaders were underrepresented as noted earlier with the CARE (2014) report, Saigo (2008), Lum (2005), and Wang and Teranishi's (2012) research studies.

Sampling

In an ideal situation, a high number of participants (sample size) was recommended by Raosoft's sample size calculator for a 95% confidence level and by G*Power's calculation for a 95% power (1-b). Because of this researcher's limited resources of time and money, those minimum numbers could not be reached for sampling. For example, the population of NASPA members was around 13,000. By inputting 13,000 into Raosoft's sample size calculator for 95% (5% error), the minimum number of participants recommended was 374 for each group (Raosoft, 2004). In contrast, a power analysis was recommended in addition to the confidence level test of hypotheses, for a one-tail t-test for a 95% power calculation, the total sample needed for this calculation calculated by the G*Power yielded 184 participants (Bucher, 2012). In these two examples, the time and resources for such thorough research study were not feasible, especially for power analysis.

Because of limited time and resources, this researcher attempted to obtain a minimum number of 100 participants for each group (100 Caucasian American and 100 Asian Americans) to compare for tests of significant differences and power analysis on both groups. Using the Raosoft (2004) website calculation for a sample size of 100 in each group, the margin of error is 8.19% for a confidence level of 90% for hypothesis testing for significance.

As noted earlier, a smaller power calculation of a sample of 128 (64 for each group) with an effect size of .05 and a power of .80 for an independent t-test was recommended by Christensen, Johnson, and Turner (2011). With a smaller power, detection of significant differences could be affected. In this example, the effect size of .05 with a power of .80 level would have a low number, test of significance and the margin of error would be too large.

Because the Asian-American community of higher education professionals in NASPA was smaller (240 versus over 500 as initially thought) than expected after IRB approval (after obtaining the actual membership list), the majority members of Caucasian Americans were decreased to the same number (240) of Asian Americans for better comparison. A stratified random sampling of both groups from NASPA members recruited to obtain the minimum number of 30 for a sufficient statistical sample for comparison (Neuman, 2011; Pagano, 2010).

Vogt (2007) recommended stratified random sampling as a technique to compare groups that are not equally represented such as Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans in the U.S. population. Thus, randomly selecting a set number of quantities within certain categories (male, female, academic affairs, and student affairs) for both

groups in the study to compare and analyze was an optimal strategy to eliminate bias (Vogt, 2007).

Informed Consent and Confidentiality

The 480 NASPA members (240 for each group) received an Informed Consent form that had a confidentiality statement accompanying the delivered mail letters asking for volunteer participation in the study. The Informed Consent (see Appendix C) form specified no foreseeable risk was anticipated for study participants. Included in the letter was a brief description of the study, estimated time (15-20 minutes) required to complete the survey, directions on how to participate in the survey through Mind Garden's website address and access in a private access.

Mind Garden's survey participation ensured privacy by randomly assigning each visitor a unique identification for temporary access to start and complete the survey (Appendix D). Information and data collection for each participant on the server side were collected and maintained by the company's 128-bit security encryption and system firewall. Only the website administrator had access for administrative purposes. The survey result for the researcher presented demographic characteristics for statistical analysis only. No indication of the participant's name was given, only the individual's unique digital code from the computer and that individual’s point of access. No survey or demographic questions such as institution type, size, or location were asked for privacy reasons.

Participants could withdraw from the study at any time, without loss of benefit, by contacting the researcher directly via email, phone, or mail, with contact information given in the survey recruitment letter. One withdrawal request was given, but the high

number of uncompleted surveys from both groups could be such indication. Nine participants asked to be put on a mailing list for a copy of the study when completed.

All information—papers, identification matrix, and work-in-progress materials, documents, and flash drives about the participants and study—were saved in electronic or print form and housed in an electronic fireproof safe lockbox (SentrySafe Office Guard) for daily work. The security access combination was known only to the researcher. Electronic forms and software used was password protected, and access was known only to the researcher.

All information collected and processed in any way remained in the possession of the researcher, housed in a fireproof electronic safe lockbox located at the researcher's residence during and after the study was completed. After three years on the date of the completed study in the summer of 2014, all electronic and print form files will be deleted, shredded, or destroyed through incineration (burning).

Data Collection

As mentioned, the MLQ uses a five-point Likert-type scale of 45 questions that permits a comparative analysis and testing of hypotheses. Individuals are self-aware and tend to act and communicate in certain ways that will affect their decision-making process and behaviors positively. Although many leadership assessments examine individual preferences, behaviors, and personal attributes to determine an individual's particular leadership style, few of them include demographics for comparison examination. The additional demographic survey had nine questions for the participants to complete. The amount of time needed to complete the MLQ survey and demographic questions ranged from 15-20 minutes.

Vogt (2007) discussed the advantages and disadvantages of survey research. The critical goal in using survey is to elicit the most valuable responses from as many participants as possible. The five methods of survey research are mail, face-to-face, telephone, email, or web. The disadvantages of mail are cost of postage and language level (communication) being appropriate to the participants' general literacy level of the reader but it does have the advantage of being administrable to a large group. In face-to-face surveys, the main disadvantages are the cost in time and money, disadvantages that may, under certain circumstances, be offset by information in the form of the participant's visual cues and the opportunity to clarify questions and responses. For telephone and email, participants may become annoyed or uncomfortable with general solicitation but these have some advantages for the researcher in that they allow direct and timely communication. Finally, web solicitation is simple and easy to administer to a large group but the quality of participants is uncertain and can range more broadly than expected (Vogt, 2007).

The volunteer participants had convenient access to complete the MLQ and demographical survey via the internet. The internet access to the survey was secured and executed by Mind Garden's website system (Appendix D). Web access was chosen for the ease, convenience, and anonymity for two very literate groups of participants to volunteer and participate in the survey research study (Vogt, 2007).

With all approvals in place, on January 9, 2014, NASPA's administrator executed the random sampling of 240 Caucasian-American individuals. Since there were only 240 individuals in the Asian-American sample, random sampling was unnecessary. A postage letter of the invitation letter and consent form was mailed out to both groups on February

3, 2014. The study's expiration or closing date was given on February 21, 2014. A follow-up notice to participate in the study was sent around February 10, 2014.

The study questions included asked participants' age, gender, race, mentorship experience, position, work experience, birth country, and socio-economical background level of two different racial groups and leadership achievement in America. The leadership styles and characteristics could highlight some differences between the two groups.

Instrumentation

The MLQ measures nine characteristics of leadership qualities from 32 observed leadership behaviors and attributes that form nine components (subscales) of the transformational, transactional, or passive/avoidant (laissez-faire). The five subscales of transformation leadership are idealized influence—attributes (IIA), idealized influence—behaviors (IIB), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individual consideration (IC).

Transformational leaders are proactive and seek to optimize individual, group, and organizational development and innovation through maximizing the five subscales or characteristics of IIA, IIB, IM, IS, and IC:

1. IIA identify leaders' characteristics of trust and respect for others, he or she instills pride in others and display a sense of power and confidence,
2. IIB is leaders' characteristics of moral standards, values, and beliefs, he or she communicates the important values and beliefs of the organization and leading to those goals,

3. IM is leaders' characteristic of inspiration to others and motivating them to reach beyond their goals,
4. IS the leaders' behaviors and motivation through innovative thinking and inspiring creative approaches from the team,
5. IC is leaders' behavior to individual's needs to provide a supportive and mentoring climate to encourage individual growth.

For transactional leadership, the two subscales are contingent reward (CR) and management by [active] exception (MBEA). Transactional leaders display behaviors associated with constructive and corrective transactions between manager and worker, a style all too familiar in a bureaucracy setting. CR refers to a leader who sets clear expectations and rewards achievement according to those goals met. MBEA refers to a leader who specifies the standards for compliance and closely monitors and takes corrective action as necessary.

For a passive avoidant leader or laissez-faire leader, the two subscales are management by [passive] exception (MBEP) and laissez-faire (LF), which all at the other end of the full leadership spectrum. MBEP refers to leaders who are more passive versions of MBEA leaders because they will not take the corrective action until it is too far late. Laissez-faire leaders avoid any decision making, fail to follow up, and are absent when needed.

The MLQ level of measurement is ordinal and the rating scale of the leadership items follows a Likert-type measure: 0 = not at all; 1 = once in a while; 2 = sometimes; 3 = fairly often; and 4 = frequently, if not always leadership (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Mohammed, Othman, & D'Silva, 2012; Northouse, 2004).

The MLQ has been used widely for assessing individuals' leadership values and behaviors, particularly the four characteristics of ideals, inspirations, innovations, and individual considerations for the followers. The MLQ long-form has been used in many diverse business and education organizations because of its high validity factor of .92 to .94 (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In the literature review chapter from Pounder's (2008) study, he used Cronbach's alpha to test the reliability of the scales of the MLQ short-form version and found that six of the seven characteristics met the reliability criterion of .70, with only one from Individual Consideration was measured a little below at .68. The MLQ was a highly validated copyrighted instrument and permission was granted for its use (Appendix A).

The MLQ has several revised versions to improve and maintained its high validity. Mind Garden provided the MLQ survey and service for purchase and research to assess leadership traits on individuals. The standard classic short-form MLQ was used and disseminated to random volunteered Caucasian American and Asian American individuals in leadership positions listed and identified from NASPA's member list for self-rating of their leadership behaviors and attributes.

Additional demographic survey was created by the researcher for the purpose of this study, but neither validity nor reliability was tested since the questions were general in nature. The demographic questions asked participants' gender, age group in five-year increments, position, years of experience, education attainment, general socio-economic background, citizenship, birth country, and race. No questions were asked on institution type, location, state, city, or any other deductive factors that can compromise privacy issues. An example of the demographic questions can be seen in Appendix B.

Reliability

According to Marczyk, DeMatteo, and Festinger (2005), instrument reliability in research measures variables in a stable, predictable, and consistent manner. If an instrument is reliable, then replication to other studies or an exact study should yield reliable results. To evaluate an instrument's reliability, researchers recommended using the Cronbach's alpha to determine the instrument's reliability and consistency. Many studies have used short-form MLQ and found its reliability scales on five of six characteristics at .70 (one at .68). Reliability in research can be affected in many unintended ways. Low reliability of the instrument can lead a researcher to miss the relationship between variables that in reality do exist, either in direct or inverse relationship (Vogt, 2007).

In quantitative research, the three types of reliability issues are stability reliability, representative reliability, and equivalence reliability (Neuman, 2011). In stability reliability, the researcher is concerned with the data pattern's stability over time; observing temperature over a month's time versus six months would have different reliability issues. For the representative reliability, the measure of an instrument on different groups' age, race, gender, or membership can vary but as long as it can be reliable across subgroups or different types of cases, then the instrument has a high representative reliability (Neuman, 2011).

A good example is the MLQ as noted earlier with a very high validity (.92 to .94) and strong reliability (.68 to .70) scores in a wide range of cases from business and education studies. Finally, the equivalence reliability involves multiple indicators or tests

that measure consistent and stable results for; which the MLQ has been rated highly valid and reliable.

Validity

The biggest threats in validity were construct validity for this study. The questions concerned using the MLQ instrument as a construct of the full range of leadership have been debated and tested, especially, when there were numerous leadership surveys and theories that might alternatively answer if transformational leaders are effective in higher education. Another possible construct threat was the inadequate explanation of the full range leadership for some participants because the questions may be culturally or gender biased. Such biases could affect some individual responses since a possible construct of transformational leadership qualities was not within the five subscale qualities, or even out of the range of the remaining four subscale qualities of transactional and laissez-faire leadership qualities. As noted earlier in many past studies, high validity (.92 to .94) and strong reliability (.68 to .70) indicated that the MLQ as an instrument was highly valid.

For the issue of internal validity in this study, causation or examination of the relationship between two variables cannot be inferred since the researcher presented comparative descriptive results for future studies. Such further analysis as may build on this work can infer correlation or causation if the researcher sees some questions could spark such research interests. Thus, this study results could lead the researcher to not infer such a cause and effect relationship because of the study's goal limitation is based on a comparative study design.

In contrast, external validity issues have been revealed in other studies that outside of the United States where diverse organizational settings and cultures could vary

significantly (Bass & Avolio, 2004). In addition, Vogt (2007) noted that random sampling maximizes external validity and increases accuracy to generalize to a larger population. In this study, stratified random sampling was used for the larger group but not for the smaller because of the total smaller population of Asian Americans.

By understanding what parts make a good study of the validity, the four main potential threats to validity should be noted in statistical conclusion, construct, internal, and external validity (Vogt, 2007). An example of a threat in a measurement of external validity deals with a faulty conclusion about a population based from evidence of the studied sample; likewise, a mistake of reasoning about the cause and effect relationship between variables can lead to an error in internal validity. In construct validity, the study lacks a concrete or inadequate operational definition for the study. Finally, threats to statistical conclusion can occur when the data violate a statistical assumption or has low statistical power (Vogt, 2007).

Because so many challenges exist to achieving validity and reliability a reliable on a research instrument, the decision to used existing research instruments was prudent and effective for researchers (Vogt, 2007). Although the MLQ provides high validity and reliability, the study result was not be generalized to all higher education individuals in the United States unless a cluster sampling method had been used (Christensen, Johnson, & Turner, 2011; Neuman, 2011; Vogt, 2007).

Data Analysis

In quantitative research methods, data analyses involve a good understanding of statistics and proficient use of statistical software like IBM SPSS 21. Statistics is grouped into two main areas as either descriptive or as inferential statistics (Pagano, 2010; Vogt,

2007). Descriptive statistics describes large amount of information through averages, central tendency (mean, median, and mode), standard deviation, and other basic features of the sample data. In contrast, inferential and correlational statistics are used to make predictions (through calculation) or draw conclusions from samples of a population.

Inferential and correlational statistics requires advance statistical analysis models from the General Linear Model that includes regression analysis, the t-test, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA). In contrast, nonparametric techniques like Chi-square for independence, Mann-Whitney U Test, and Kruskal-Wallis Test are used when certain data violate the general four assumptions of normality (Pagano, 2010; Vogt, 2007).

The independent variables of the study were the race, mentorship experience, birth country, SES background, age, and gender to test against the six hypotheses. The dependent variables consist of nine subscales of leadership behaviors and attributes that made up three leadership types in transformational (five subscales: IA, IB, IM, IS, and IC), transactional (two subscales: CR and MBEA), and laissez-faire leaders (two subscales in MBEP and LF).

The comparative analysis included some descriptive data such as frequencies, percentages, medians, and standard deviation to analyze the composite scores of both groups of participants. Other descriptive statistics of the independent variables (demographic factors) were presented as frequencies, percentages, and graphs for comparison between the groups and gender through measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode). Inferential statistics, such as tests of significance, were used to

identify about the differences in the two groups reported on their individual leadership styles in the MLQ survey and their individual characteristics as independent variables.

In a hypothesis testing, the hypothesis statement is reworded in the null form to match what statistical testing take the form of inductive reasoning, which gives a chance to reject or retain the hypothesis. If one rejects a null hypothesis (finding a statistically difference because the p-value is smaller than the given alpha level), then one did find an association, effect, or a difference between the variables or groups. In this situation, one of two conditions is true, either the null is true or the null is false (then the alternative must be true). If the decision was to reject a null hypothesis when in fact it is true, then a Type I error was committed. In contrast, if the decision was to retain the null hypothesis when in fact it was false, then a Type II error was committed. Given this scenario, it is often better to reduce the probability of making a Type I error (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). In this study, the test of significances will test for differences in the sample of both groups of Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans within the given hypotheses. Thus, hypothesis testing never proves anything with certainty since the probability for error exists (Type I and II errors) and there is always a statistical chance for random sampling error (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

Both Neuman (2011) and Pagano (2010) recommended that a minimum number of 30 participants should give the sampling distribution of the mean a normally shaped curve in behavioral science study (excluding reaction time scores) for meaningful description and analysis. In addition, non-parametric techniques, such as the Mann-Whitney U Test was used to compare differences between two independent groups with

dependent data that are either continuous or ordinal, but not normally distributed. In addition, the four assumptions must also be met to execute the Mann-Whitney U Test.

The four assumptions for the Mann-Whitney U Test concern the dependent variable. First, the dependent variable was measured at ordinal or continuous level. Second, the independent variable consisted of two categorical, independent groups. Third, the group was independent of observation (no relationship between groups themselves or has different participants in each group). Finally, the two variables were normally distributed, or the shape of the distributions in each group was similar, which affected comparison to either the median or mean ranks of the groups (Pagano, 2010; Pallant, 2010).

Because the total number of the study groups was not greater than 64, power analysis was not executed in addition to hypothesis testing because the low number would not be any more effective for power analysis. According to Christensen, Johnson, and Turner (2011) "Power is defined as stating the probability of rejecting a false-null hypothesis" (p. 267). The key point here was that the researcher would want the power to be high certainty (.95 = 95% is desirable) with an alpha level (.05 significance level) for the confidence interval. Because of the limited resources and unexpected low response rate of participants for each group, the power of less than .80 (probability of avoiding making a Type II error) was not acceptable and power analysis was not executed.

Summary

Chapter 3 discussed the methodology of both qualitative and quantitative research designs, their benefits, and disadvantages. Data were collected through voluntary participation of NASPA members in the United States, using a stratified random

sampling of one Caucasian-American group, and all available NASPA members for the Asian-American group. Introduced as a high validity (.92 to .94) and strong reliability (.68 to .70), the MLQ as a tool was well suited for comparative quantitative study design to compare two different groups. In addition to MLQ, a demographic survey was used to identify traits or characteristics differences between Caucasian-American and Asian-American leaders in higher education. Although the MLQ used five-point Likert-type scales, understanding the differences of transformational versus transactional or laissez-faire leadership qualities and behaviors between the two groups could lead future researchers to a better measurement and evaluation of leadership scores among different ethnic groups.

Chapter 4 presents an analysis of the survey data gathered from two contrasting groups using some descriptive statistics in frequency tables and related charts. Furthermore, the data analyses and results of the study are presented detailing tests of significance for the six hypotheses through the Mann-Whitney U Test. As discussed the chance for some random sampling error always exist in any test of significance (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Additional use of power analysis was not considered since the data collections for each group were less than the minimum number of 64 for an 80% power analysis.

Chapter 4

Results

The study purpose of this non-experimental quantitative comparative design was to measure and compare the leadership styles of higher education professionals across levels of responsibility between Asian-American and Caucasian-American individual in the United States using the MLQ. The MLQ and additional demographic surveys were used to obtain measurements and personal information for the dependent and independent variables. A stratified random sampling of Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals was used to recruit participants from members of NASPA to compare two different groups. The sample was chosen because NASPA membership included a large potential population of higher education professionals in the United States.

A quantitative comparative research study using a survey design was followed and executed to examine the significant differences of transformational leadership subscales (IIA, IIB, IM, IS, IC, and CR) between two groups of Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals. Transactional and laissez-faire subscale qualities were also examined for one subpart research question. The researcher used IBM's SPSS Statistics 21 software for statistical analysis and to support the study's research questions.

In Chapter 1, the background problem of underrepresented Asian-American individuals and confusion as a model minority in higher education showed the need for more research. From the literature review, research supported that Asian-Americans' academic persistence can be confusing, and leadership attainment was small in higher education. These two gaps have led to the development of the problem statement and purpose of the study to examine if leadership attainment of two bimodal groups

Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals' demographic factors or traits affected how these two groups responded on their self-assessment of their leadership styles.

Chapter 2 reviewed the literature concerning two main sections of theories were divided into two parts. In part one, three main theories of oppression, critical race, and white identity highlighted race discrimination, power struggles, and group domination. Additional related themes from the perpetual foreigner concept, Asian model minority myth, postmodern philosophy of education, and meritocracy in the United States explained some possible support on why underrepresentation of Asian-American leaders existed. In part two, three theoretical frameworks of TQM, trait leadership, and transformational leadership theories provided related studies and examples that educational leaders could use a modified PDCA to plan implementation strategies for their organizations.

Chapter 3 reviewed the study's research methodology, the research design, population, and statistical analyses (test of significance). Additional examination of demographic characteristics such as race, mentored experience, birth country, SES level, age, and gender were presented. The high reliability and validity of the MLQ as a research instrument measuring the individual's leadership styles has proven consistent and accurate across many research studies, countries, and industries (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

Research Questions

This study used a non-experimental comparative study design with research questions concentrated on the underrepresented leaders and academic achievement

confusion of Asian-American individuals in higher education to find if there are significant differences between two groups' characteristics of Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals. Data were collected and analyzed to find answers to the following research questions:

RQ1: What is the difference in the full range leadership levels (transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire) between Caucasian-American and Asian-American higher educational leaders?

RQ2: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between mentored and non-mentored experience leaders?

RQ3: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between leaders who were born in the United States and those who were foreign born?

RQ4: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between leaders who were born from lower and higher socioeconomic status (SES) background?

RQ5: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between older and younger leaders working in higher education?

RQ6: What is the difference in transformational leadership level between male and female leaders working in higher education?

Sample Selection

For the two groups, 480 letters (a sample of 240 for each group) were sent via United States Postal mail service to the addresses provided by NASPA's member list after full IRB approval was obtained on January 9, 2014. NASPA's research department executed the stratified random sampling for both groups that identified themselves as

Caucasian Americans, Asian Americans, or similar mixed races, as well as including both genders as equally as possible. On February 3, 2014, 480 letters (study invitation and consent form) were sent out, and a follow up reminder to participate in the study was executed a week later on February 10 with notice of closing the campaign on February 21, 2014.

For the Caucasian-American group, 240 members resided in 38 different states, which covered about 74.5% of the United States. Similarly, the Asian-American group of 240 members lived in 31 different states (60.8% of the United States) (see Appendix K).

The invitation letter directed interested participants to go to Mindgarden's two separate website links organized by two different groups to participate in the MLQ and demographics surveys. Although 48 Caucasian-American individuals participated by clicking on the directed group link, 38 completed the surveys but three had some missing critical data and were eliminated from the study, reducing the number to 35. For Asian-American individuals, 59 clicked on the provided web link but only 39 completed the surveys. Two participants also had to be dropped for missing critical data information for the study and one decided to drop out after the study concluded. Thus, 35 Caucasian American and 36 Asian Americans finished the surveys completely and were submitted analysis.

In addition, 14 letters were returned by the Post Office as undelivered mail for the Caucasian Americans; 11 letters were returned from the Asian American group. A success rate of 35 (14 males and 21 females) out of 226 letters resulted in a 15.5% for the Caucasian American group, and a success rate of 36 (11 males and 25 females) out of

229 letters resulted in a 17.0% for the Asian American group made the survey study successful within the expected outcomes for a survey study (Vogt, 2007).

Descriptive Statistics

Included with the MLQ, a demographic survey asked from each participant his or her gender, age range, work experience in years, department, position, mentored experience, education level, degree program, socioeconomic status (SES) background, birth country, naturalization status, and race. A summary view of the descriptive statistics is shown in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3
Number and Percent of Participants by Gender

	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Male	25	35.2
Female	46	64.8
Total	71	100

Note. Total number of participants from two groups.

Table 3 show 46 female participants constituting 64.8% of the population, with, 25 male participants making 35.2% of the total. This high percentage of women in higher education seemed to support Jaschik's (2010) article that more women than men have been gaining employment in higher education.

The largest to smallest percentage in the age group (Appendix F) was as follows: 33.8% are between 25-30 years old with 24 participants; 15.5% are between 43-48 years old with 11 participants; 14.1% are between 18-24 years old with 10 participants; 11.3% are between 31-36 and 37-42 years old (or 22.6% are 31-42 years old) with 8 participants each (16 total), 7% are between 49-54 years old with 5 participants; 4.2% are between 61-66 years old with 3 participants, and 2.8% were between 55-60 years old with 3 participants.

Table 4 shows 49.3% reporting as Caucasian and 46.5% reporting Asian or Asian Pacific Islander, with 4.2% reported as a combination of other mixed races with either the Caucasian or Asian race.

Table 4
Number and Percent of Participants by Race

	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
Asian or Asian Pacific Islander	33	46.5
Caucasian	35	49.3
Other mixed races	3	4.2
Total	71	100

Note. Total number of participants from two groups.

Further descriptive statistics showed a continuation of the two groups' degree program, department, and position (Appendix G). As shown in Figure 3, the general make-up of the participants showed that they frequently majored in a variety of distinct programs, including degrees related to higher education or student affairs (31%), education leadership (26.3%), psychology/counseling (11.3%), sociology (7%), or business (4.2%). Other degree programs (20.2%) were not related to higher education field but were in various majors such as American sign and interpreting, criminal justice, film and media studies, history, anthropology, and public health. These participants worked in related departments such as student services (54%), academic services (6%), senior administration (6%), and other related services (34%) in higher education.

Figure 3.
Bar Chart of Participants' Education Major by Percent

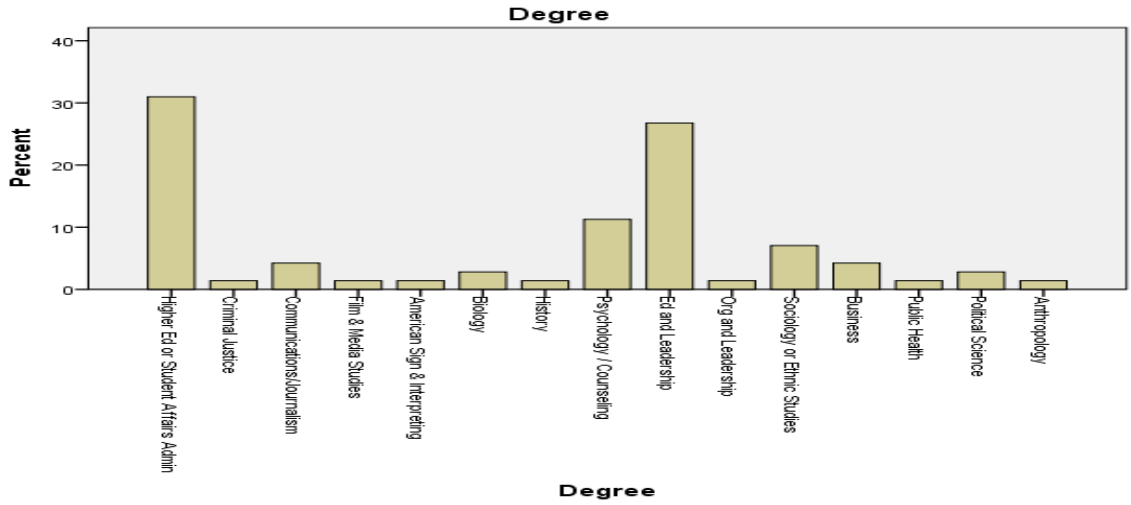

Figure 3. Percentage of Individuals by Degree Program

Concerning years of work experience and education level, the mean or average years of work experience for the participants was about 10.35 years and 2.99 frequency score (master's degree level) for education level. The middle number for total work experience was about seven years and 3 as a middle score for education level; the most frequently occurring number for total work experience was four years and a frequency score of 3 for education level (master's degree).

Education attainment in general was important to the individual's occupation and income level; thus, it was a natural fit for individuals working in higher education as well. The participants in the study exhibited a large percentage, 78.9%, that held a master's degree or higher to work in higher education institutions as shown in Table 5. Although 22.5% of the participants held a four-year degree, it is understood that in order to advance in higher education, continuing education is highly recommended with work experience and networking.

Table 5
Detail Summary of Participants' Education Level

	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)
2 year degree	1	1.4
4 year degree	14	19.7
Master's degree	41	57.7
Ph.D. or terminal degree	15	21.1
Total	71	100

Note. Male participant's mean education = 3.08; Female participant's mean education = 2.93.

Results by Hypotheses

Examining the variables between transformational leadership (the full leadership spectrum in one research question) and the independent variables among six hypotheses showed some interesting indications to either reject or retain the null hypotheses by initial appearances. Actual calculations for hypothesis testing were performed by IBM SPSS Statistics 21 using the nonparametric test of the Mann-Whitney U Test.

The null hypothesis is a prediction of the dependent variable having no association, effect, or difference with the independent variables. If the result yielded a $p > 0.5$, one could retain the null hypothesis because no effect may exist because the p-value is larger than the alpha level of .05. In contrast, if the result yielded a $p < 0.5$, one could reject the null hypothesis because a difference or an effect exist because the p-value is smaller than the alpha level of .05 (Pagano, 2010; Vogt, 2007).

The chance on making Type I or Type II errors exists when drawing a conclusion from statistical tests. A Type I error occurs when one rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that an effect exists but in reality it does not (false positive). In contrast, a Type II error occurs when one retained the null hypothesis and concluded that the effect does not exist, but in reality it does (false negative) (Pagano, 2010).

Because the MLQ leadership subscale level data are measured by frequency, the Mann-Whitney U Test was best suited for these two groups for comparing differences. The Mann-Whitney U Test statistic measure the frequency of how a variable is categorically distributed disproportionally across a given levels of measurement. In a case like the MLQ result, the Likert-type scale scores of 0 through 4 are expressed as one continuum of leadership traits, behaviors, or thoughts (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Vogt, 2007). Other descriptive data such as central tendency, standard deviations, and frequency data can be used to analyze differences as well by comparing past larger studies. The hypothesis testing steps were repeated for the six hypotheses in the study, and statistical calculations were executed by IBM SPSS Statistics 21 software for acceptance or rejection of each null hypothesis.

As noted earlier, this study met the four assumptions of using non-parametric test of the Mann-Whitney U Test because the dependent variable (leadership subscale qualities) was on an ordinal scale. Second, the independent variable consisted of two categorical independent groups (Caucasian and Asian). Third, both groups were independent of observation, and, fourth, the shape of the distributions in each group were similar (Pagano, 2010; Pallant, 2010).

Significant Difference between Caucasian-American and Asian-American Individuals

In the first research question, the null hypothesis stated that transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire subscale qualities in leadership between Caucasian and Asian-American individuals showed no significant difference. With a set alpha level of .05, the p-value of the test statistic of the three leadership qualities will either yield a

number higher or lower than the .05 alpha level. If the p-value is lower than the alpha level of .05, then the null hypothesis is rejected (alternative hypothesis is accepted); if the p-value is greater than .05, then the null hypothesis is retained because there was no significant difference between the two groups.

The dependent variables were transformational (IIA, IIB, IM, IS, and IC), transactional (MBEA and CR), and laissez-faire (MBEP and LF) leadership qualities. Using IBM SPSS Statistics 21, the data were analyzed using a nonparametric function with an appropriate two-group setting for Caucasian-American and Asian-American. Table 6 shows the Mann-Whitney U Test results.

Table 6
Summary of Transformational Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

TL/Race	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whiney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
IIA/CA	35	36.21	1267.5	517.5	-.748	.46
IIA/AA	33	32.68	1078.5			
IIB/CA	35	33.77	1182.0	552.0	-.317	.75
IIB/AA	33	35.27	1164.0			
IM/CA	35	39.13	1369.5	415.5	-2.01	.045
IM/AA	33	29.59	976.5			
IS/CA	35	33.24	1163.5	533.5	-.55	.59
IS/AA	33	35.83	1182.5			
IC/CA	35	36.49	1277.0	1163.5	-.87	.39
IC/AA	33	32.39	1069.0			

Note. Grouping variable by race, three unaccounted because of mixed races. Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v. 21.

A Mann-Whitney test was executed to determine if there were differences in transformational leadership qualities level between Caucasian-American (CA) and Asian-American (AA) individuals. Distribution of the five qualities of transformational leadership showed similar frequency scores for Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans through a quick visual inspection. Interestingly, more detail examination of

the test statistics result showed a significant difference existed for the IM subscale in the median score of the sample, with mean rank scores for Caucasian Americans (39.13) and Asian Americans (29.59).

This IM subscale result was the only statistically significant difference, U = 415.5, z = -2.01, p = .045. The statistical difference in the IM median called for a rejection of the null hypothesis because the p = .045 was lower than the alpha level of .05 (.045 < .05). Thus, the alternative hypothesis must be true. In addition, the z score of -2.01 indicated that the IM score was below the group mean score for individuals of a different race. In other words, individuals of a different race between CA and AA have an IM subscale of -2.01 standard deviations below the mean of transformational leadership subscale qualities of the group mean.

The other four transformational subscales of IIA, IIB, IS, and IC had scores of mean rank above the alpha level of .05 as follows:

- IIA mean rank scores for CA (36.21) & AA (32.68), U = 517.5, z = -.75, p = .46
- IIB mean rank scores for CA (33.77) & AA (35.27), U = 552.0, z = -.32, p = .75
- IS mean rank scores for CA (33.24) & AA (35.83), U = 533.5, z = -.55, p = .59
- IC mean rank scores for CA (36.49) & AA (32.39), U = 508.0, z = -.87, p = .39.

The null hypothesis for transformational leadership was not statistically significant for four subscales of IIA, IIB, IS, and IC levels; thus, the null hypothesis is retained for four subscales of IIA, IIB, IS, and IC.

On transactional leadership qualities, two factors were CR and MBEA scores. These data were also analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 21, and its results were similar to the transformational leadership qualities as shown in Table 7 below:

Table 7
Summary of Transactional & Laissez-faire Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

Tr&LF/Race	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
CR/CA	35	35.61	1246.5	538.5	-.48	.63
CR/AA	33	33.32	1099.5			
MBEA/CA	35	29.61	1036.5	406.5	-2.11	.035
MBEA/AA	33	39.68	1309.5			
MBEP/CA	35	34.09	1193.0	563.0	-1.80	.86
MBEP/AA	33	34.94	1153.0			
LF/CA	35	30.37	1063.0	433.0	-1.80	.07
LF/AA	33	38.88	1283.0			

Note. Grouping variable by race, 3 unaccounted because of mixed races. Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v. 21.

A Mann-Whitney test was executed to determine if there were differences in transactional leadership quality levels between Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans. Distributions of the two qualities of transactional (CR and MBEA) leadership showed similar frequency scores for Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans by visual inspection.

One of two of the mean rank scores for Caucasian Americans (CR=35.61) and Asian Americans (CR=33.32) were not statistically different except for MBEA mean rank (29.61 and 39.68). Interestingly, the MBEA score did indicate that there was a significant difference between Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans concerning one of two areas in the management-by-exception (active) areas since the p-value (.035) was lower than the alpha level of .05. Thus, the alternative hypothesis must be true. Because the z-score of -2.11 indicated that MBEA score was below the group mean score for individuals of different race. In other words, individuals of different race between CA and AA have an MBEA subscale of -2.11 standard deviations below the mean of transactional leadership subscale qualities of the group mean.

The final third sub-part of the full leadership model was laissez-faire quality levels (two subscales in MBEP and LF) between these two groups as analyzed and shown previously in Table 7. A Mann-Whitney test was executed to determine if there were differences in laissez-faire leadership quality subscales between the participating Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans. Distributions of the one factor of laissez-faire leadership showed a large difference of frequency scores for participating Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans by visual inspection. The two mean rank scores for Caucasian Americans (MBEP = 34.09 and LF = 30.37) and Asian Americans (MBEP = 34.94 and LF = 38.88) was not statistically different: $U = 563$, $z = -1.80$, $p = .86$ and $U = 433$, $z = -1.80$, $p = .072$. Thus, for laissez-faire leadership scale, the null hypothesis is retained because there was no significant difference between the two groups.

In a brief summary, the IM subscale factor ($p = .045 <$ alpha level $= .05$) of transformational leadership indicated that a significant difference existed between the two sample groups for the independent factor of race. For transactional leadership qualities, the subscale factor of MBEA also seemed to support the alternative hypothesis ($p = .035 <$ alpha level $= .05$) that a significant difference between Caucasian American and Asian American individuals existed between the two groups for the independent factor of race as well. For the first research question, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis must be true for both the subscale factors of IM (transformational) and MBEA (transactional) concerning the full leadership spectrum.

Significant Difference between Individuals with Mentored or Non-Mentored Experience

In the second research question, there was a large difference of percentages between individuals with mentored or non-mentored experience as the frequency table showed in Table 8 indicated that a greater number of individuals (51 or 71.8%) were mentored versus not mentored (20 or 28.2%).

Table 8
Summary of Transformational Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

TL-Mentored	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whiney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
IIA-Yes	51	37.65	1920.0	426.0	-1.09	.28
IIA-No	20	31.80	636.0			
IIB-Yes	51	37.63	1919.0	427.0	-1.07	.28
IIB-No	20	31.85	637			
IM-Yes	51	36.27	1850.0	496.0	-1.81	.86
IM-No	20	35.30	706.0			
IS-Yes	51	37.54	1914.5	431.5	-1.02	.31
IS-No	20	32.08	641.5			
IC-Yes	51	34.88	1779.0	453.0	-.74	.46
IC-No	20	38.85	777.0			

Note. Grouping variable by mentored experience. Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v. 21.

Further analysis from the Mann-Whitney U Test shown in Table 8 indicated that the mean rank scores for mentored (Yes) and non-mentored (No) individuals were not statistically different for the five subscales of transformational leadership qualities:

- IIA mean rank scores for Yes (37.65) & No (31.80), U = 426, z = -1.09, p = .28
- IIB mean rank scores for Yes (37.63) & No (31.85), U = 427, z = -1.07, p = .28
- IM mean rank scores for Yes (36.27) & No (35.30), U = 1850, z = -.18, p = .86
- IS mean rank scores for Yes (37.54) & No (32.08), U = 1915, z = -1.02, p = .31
- IC mean rank scores for Yes (34.88) & No (38.85), U = 1779, z = -.74, p = .46.

These five p-scores indicated higher than the .05 alpha level; thus, the null hypothesis was retained.

Significant Difference between Individuals Born in the USA- versus Foreign-Born

For the third research question, the percentage of individuals born (80.3%) in the United States was greater than foreign-born individuals (19.7%) as shown in Appendix H. The group of Asian Americans showed a significant number of foreign-born (36.1%) even though these were later naturalized as United States citizen. In contrast, only one of 35 Caucasian Americans was foreign born.

Table 9
Summary of Transformational Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

TL-Citizenship	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whiney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
IIA-Yes	57	34.87	1987.5	334.5	-.95	.34
IIA-No	14	40.61	568.5			
IIB-Yes	57	34.90	1989.5	336.5	-.91	.36
IIB-No	14	40.46	566.5			
IM-Yes	57	35.75	2037.5	384.5	-.21	.83
IM-No	14	37.04	518.5			
IS-Yes	57	35.86	2044.0	391.0	-.11	.91
IS-No	14	36.57	512.0			
IC-Yes	57	34.92	1990.5	337.5	-.90	.37
IC-No	14	40.39	565.5			

Note. Grouping variable by natural U.S. citizenship (born in the U.S.). Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v. 21.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results in Table 9 shows that the mean between two groups for individuals born in the United States (Yes) and in foreign countries (No) were not statistically different as shown below on the five transformational leadership subscale qualities:

- IIA mean rank scores for Yes (34.87) & No (40.61), U = 335, z = -.95, p = .34
- IIB mean rank scores for Yes (34.90) & No (40.46), U = 337, z = -.91, p = .36

- IM mean rank scores for Yes (35.75) & No (37.04), U = 385, z = -.21, p = .83
- IS mean rank scores for Yes (35.86) & No (36.57), U = 391, z = -.12, p = .91
- IC mean rank scores for Yes (34.92) & No (40.39), U = 338, z = -.90, p = .37.

The five subscale p-scores were all higher than the set alpha level of .05. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained as there was no significant difference between individuals born outside of the United States and those who were foreign born.

Significant Difference between Low and High Levels of SES

For research question four, the percentage of individuals coming from a higher level (Middle-Middle Class or higher) of socioeconomic status (SES) background exceeded the individuals that came from a lower level (Lower-Lower Class to Middle-Lower Class) of socioeconomic status background (Appendix I). Out of 71 participants, 51 individuals (71.8%) indicated their SES background from adolescent to high school graduation years as either Middle-Middle Class, Upper-Lower Class, or higher. In contrast, 20 individuals (28.2%) reported that their SES background was either Middle-Lower Class or lower.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results are shown in Table 10.

Table 10
Summary of Transformational Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

TL-SES	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whiney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
IIA-High	51	35.8	1824.0	498.0	-.16	.88
IIA-Low	20	36.6	732.0			
IIB-High	51	35.2	1794.0	468.0	-.54	.59
IIB-Low	20	38.1	762.0			
IM-High	51	37.9	1933.0	413.0	-1.25	.21
	20	31.2	623.0			

IM-Low						
IS-High IS-Low	51 20	35.7 36.8	1820.5 735.5	494.5	-.20	.84
IC-High IC-Low	51 20	33.7 42.0	1717.0 839.0	391.0	-1.55	.12

Note. Grouping variable by high- and low-SES levels. High SES indicated as Middle-Middle Class and above levels. Low SES indicated as Lower-Lower Class to Middle-Lower Class levels. Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v. 21.

The Mann-Whitney U Test results indicate that the mean between the two groups (Lower-Lower Class to Middle-Lower Class for Group 1 and Middle-Middle Class and above for Group 2) of individuals from higher SES background (35.38) and lower (37.58) were not statistically different on all five subscale qualities of transformational:

- IIA mean rank scores for high SES (36.60) & low SES (35.76), U = 498, z = -.16, p = .88
- IIB mean rank scores for high SES (38.10) & low SES (35.18), U = 468, z = -.54, p = .59
- IM mean rank scores for high SES (31.15) & low SES (37.90), U = 413, z = -1.25, p = .21
- IS mean rank scores for high SES (36.78) & low SES (35.70), U = 495, z = -.20, p = .84
- IC mean rank scores for high SES (41.95) & low SES (33.67), U = 391, z = -1.55, p = .12.

All five p-scores were higher than the set alpha level of .05. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained. There was no significant difference between individuals born from higher SES background and those who were from lower SES background.

Significant Difference between Older Individuals versus Younger Ones

For research question five, the age range of 18 to 66-plus years was too large. Thus, two groups were divided for analysis using the Mann-Whitney U Test. Group 1 consisted of individuals who indicated their ages from 18 to 42 years old and Group 2 consisted of individuals who identified themselves from 43 to 66-plus years old. Table 11 shows the results of the analysis.

Table 11
Summary of Transformational Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

TL-AGE	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whiney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
IIA-<42	50	36.5	1825.5	499.5	-.33	.74
IIA->43	21	34.8	703.5			
IIB-<42	50	35.9	1795.0	520.0	-.06	.95
IIB->43	21	36.2	761.0			
IM-<42	50	33.3	1665.0	390.0	-1.72	.09
IM->43	21	42.4	891.0			
IS-<42	50	32.3	1616.5	341.5	-2.34	.02
IS->43	21	44.7	939.5			
IC-<42	50	33.8	1687.5	412.5	-1.44	.15
IC->43	21	41.4	868.5			

Note. Grouping variable by two age groups, 18-42 years and 43 – 67 years of age. Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v.21.

Table 11 reveals that the mean between the two groups of younger (18-42 years) (33.69 group mean rank) and older (43-66 years) (41.50 group mean rank) were not statistically different for four out of five subscale qualities of transformational leadership as followed:

- IIA mean rank scores for younger (36.51) & older (34.79), U = 500, z = -.33, p = .74
- IIB mean rank scores for younger (35.90) & older (36.24), U = 520, z = -.06, p = .95

- IM mean rank scores for younger (33.30) & older (42.43), U = 390, z = -1.72, p = .09
- IC mean rank scores for younger (33.75) & older (41.36), U = 413, z = -1.44, p = .15.

Four out of five p-scores were higher than the set alpha level of .05; thus, the null hypothesis was retained for IIA, IIB, IM, and IC subscales.

However, the two age groups differed significantly on the IS subscale of transformational leadership. The mean rank score for younger was 32.33 and for older 44.74. This result was the only statistically significant difference, U = 342, z = -2.34, p = .02. A statistical difference in the IS median called for a rejection of the null hypothesis because the p = .02 was lower than the alpha level of .05. Thus, the alternative hypothesis must be true. Also, the z-score of -2.34 indicated that IM score was below the group mean score for aged individuals. In other words, individuals of different age groups between younger and older individuals had an IS subscale of 2.34 standard deviations below the mean of transformational leadership qualities of the group mean.

Significant Difference between Male Leaders versus Female Leaders

Table 12 shows the differences of five transformational leadership subscale qualities between male and female leaders participants using the Mann-Whitney U Test.

Table 12
Summary of Transformational Leadership Subscale Levels & MWU Test Statistics

TL-Gender	n	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whiney U	Z-score	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
IIA-Male	25	31.4	785.0	460.0	-1.41	.16
IIA-Female	46	38.5	1771.0			
IIB-Male	25	33.9	847.5	522.5	-.64	.52
IIB-Female	46	37.1	1708.5			

IM-Male IM-Female	25 46	34.7 36.7	867.5 1688.5	542.5	-.40	.69
IS-Male IS-Female	25 46	31.8 38.3	794.5 1761.5	469.5	1.28	.20
IC-Male IC-Female	25 46	36.8 35.5	921.0 1635.0	554.0	-.26	.80

Note. Grouping variable by gender. Mann-Whitney U Test results (z- and p-scores) executed by IBM SPSS v.21.

The mean scores between males and females were not significantly different for all five transformational subscale qualities as followed:

- IIA mean rank scores for males (31.40) & females (38.50), U = 460, z = -1.41, p = .16
- IIB mean rank scores for males (33.90) & females (37.14), U = 523, z = -.64, p = .52
- IM mean rank scores for males (34.70) & females (36.71), U = 543, z = -.40, p = .70
- IS mean rank scores for males (31.78) & females (38.29), U = 470, z = -1.30, p = .20
- IC mean rank scores for males (36.84) & females (35.54), U = 554, z = -.26, p = .80.

All five p-scores were higher than the set alpha level of .05. Thus, the null hypothesis was retained. There was no significant difference between male and female individuals on levels of transformational leadership qualities in higher education.

Conclusion

The results of the statistical test of significance involved transformational leadership qualities on four out of six research questions. In the study result, it indicated

to retain the null hypotheses that no significant differences existed between individuals concerning independent factors such as mentored experience, birth country, socioeconomic levels, and gender. In contrast, two alternative hypotheses were supported by the evidence of the p-values showing a smaller score than the alpha level of .05 for IM subscale ($p = .042 < .05$ alpha level) factor for transformational leadership and MBEA subscale ($p = .035 < .05$ alpha level) factor for transactional leadership qualities concerning the independent variable of race. In addition, age was also a third factor that had a lower p-value ($p = .02 < .05$ alpha level) on the IS subscale factor for transformational leadership qualities. These three incidences of rejecting the null hypotheses showed significant differences for individuals of different races and age ranges between Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans indicated support for the alternative hypotheses. Future research study may expand on with a more in-depth method to determine why different races as in this study viewed the IM, IS, and MBEA subscale factors of leadership values significantly different for transformational and transactional leadership subscale qualities. Of course, hypothesis testing never proves anything with certainty because the probability for error due to chance exists, but given the alpha level of .05, the results support three incidents of the alternative hypotheses.

Chapter 5

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

As a nation of equal opportunity for learning and advancement, the United States has relied on higher education institutions to graduate informed and diverse students for the economic, social, and political world of varying communities. The purpose of this non-experimental comparative quantitative study was to examine two bimodal groups on leadership styles and traits in higher education within the United States using the MLQ and demographics surveys. The methods executed in the study consisted of: (a) defining the variables, (b) collecting the data, (c) establishing statistical hypotheses, (d) conducting test of significance, and (e) retaining or rejecting the null hypotheses to determine if any demographic variable significantly affected the dependent variable of leadership subscale qualities between two bimodal groups of Caucasian and Asian-American individuals in higher education.

Although detail individual academic achievement was not examined in the survey, the literature review of the social, political, and myths of Asian-American individuals were analyzed through the theories of oppression and critical race, TQM philosophy, Asian model minority myth, perpetual foreigner concept, and meritocracy in higher education. The literature review showed gaps of proportionate leadership attainment for Asian Americans in comparison to Caucasian Americans as the standard model for leadership achievement. A stratified random sampling technique was used to recruit participants for comparison from two groups. The researcher used the MLQ survey as a research instrument and IBM SPSS Statistics 21 to execute necessary

descriptive statistics and hypothesis testing for significance through the Mann-Whitney U Test.

In this final chapter, a general overview of the study result is presented with some literature review to connect them to relevant theories and models to get an idea on the bigger picture of the research field of higher education. Recommendations and implications on leadership in higher education will also be discussed to help guide some possible future study consideration.

Representativeness of the Sample

The researcher attempted to capture the study sample of the two diverse but similar groups in Asian-American and Caucasian-American individual leaders in higher education using stratified random sampling within 50 states and the District of Columbia. In the initial stage, the large population of NASPA members seemed ideal as a source of participants because it had a large membership list most likely with an adequate number of Asian-American members. This researcher attempted to make the study generalizable to the larger United States population because it used random sampling for groups. The smaller than expected number of Asian-American members was indicative of the small sampling of the United States' population of Asian Americans. Both groups' survey responded well below the recommended 50% of the sample, which negatively affect the generalizability of the study (Coughlan, Cronin, & Ryan, 2007).

Appendix K shows the detail breakdown of how the recruitment letters was sent for both groups categorized by states and counts for each state. A detailed view of the individual counts of whom and where these individuals completed the survey cannot be discerned because of the anonymous process of how the surveys were accessed and

executed via the internet website. Nevertheless, 240 Asian-American individuals were sent invitation letters to participate in the study. They resided in 31 states (60.8% coverage). Letters for 240 Caucasian-American individuals were sent to 38 states (74.5% coverage).

The objective of the study was to determine whether statistical evidence supported the six hypotheses of significant differences of transformational and other leadership subscales between these two groups of leaders in higher education. The goal of the study was to use samples that were representative of their respective group population and to find significant differences that may lead to future studies and a greater understanding for both groups, especially for the two findings of independent factors of race and age showing significant differences between the two groups.

Limitations

The Asian-American group was more limited in terms of population size than anticipated. Although NASPA has over 13,000 members around the world, the United States population of Asian Americans consisted of fewer than 300 members in contrast to the far larger Caucasian Americans. Even with this challenge, Asian American members represented about 2.3% of NASPA's population, which correlated well within the United States' population makeup. The stratified random sampling technique for both groups was executed by NASPA's research department after receiving IRB initial approval on January 9, 2014. Equal representation of gender was requested, but limitations such as a larger number of females to males in higher education may already exist and guaranteeing equal responses from both genders cannot be maintained given the constraint of getting equal numbers of willing participants.

The resulting small samples for both groups also limited the study for a power analysis for the hypotheses. Although a power analysis would have added more power to the test of significance (1-β) or a higher probability of avoiding type II error, the hypothesis testing of using the nonparametric test of the Mann-Whitney U test was sufficient and effective for the ordinal scales data measured by the MLQ. Also, the small percentages of respondents in both groups (15.5% CA and 17% for AA) were below 50%, which Coughlan, Cronin, and Ryan (2007) believed response bias can affect the study's generalizability to the population if the response rate is less than 50%.

Research instruments such as the MLQ were limited to mostly nominal and ordinal (Likert-type scales) scores and limited the opportunity for advance statistical analysis to nonparametric analysis such as the Mann-Whitney U Test and descriptive statistics like frequency, percentage, and central tendency. Although the MLQ is a highly valid and reliable research instrument for leadership characteristics measurement for the full range leadership model (transformation, transactional, and laissez-faire levels), the data are measured in ordinal scales. Ordinal scale cannot be analyzed by more powerful statistical analyses such as parametric techniques—t-tests, ANOVA, MANOVA—and other correlational or multiple regression analysis that can better analyze for prediction models or relationships.

In addition, an analysis of relationship or causal link among the independent variables was not examined because the study was a comparative design. Future researchers could plan for such analysis in a correlation or causal study design.

Although education degree program and the highest level of education level were asked, other interval data scoring such as GPA, SAT, or ACT scores were not targeted.

This survey study could not execute any practical finding of academic achievement gaps between these two groups without those interval scores. Although mostly transformational leadership differences were captured and examined for this study, leadership traits of race, age, gender, birth country, and SES background (independent variables) were asked from the demographics survey.

Research design and method always challenge researchers, in addition to theoretical and conceptual frameworks, when they plan for a study. Experimentation versus non-experimentation and cross-sectional versus longitudinal observation are just some essential, but critical considerations that can greatly affect the researcher's limited time and resources to conduct a study. For additional theories and concepts to consider, Bracey (2001) reviewed Gordon's study of why there were so few Asian American teachers in the state of California. In a qualitative research method of interviewing a group of Asian college students, Gordon found four emerging themes in her study.

These fours themes of parental pressure, individual inadequacy, fear of working outside a comfort zone, and a rejection of race-matched teaching could explain why most Asian American students do not seek out teaching positions (Bracey, 2001). Future researchers may consider these four themes in their topics as theoretical or conceptual framework. Related motivational or identity theories should also be considered to better understand individual influences and career choices for Asian American individuals (Lee, 2002).

Other external validity considerations involve whether the study's findings can be generalized to other similar professional higher education associations. Professional organizations like the American Association of University Professors (AAUP),

Association of American International Colleges and Universities (AAICU), Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) may not work because of unknown factors, a unique culture, or membership characteristics. In addition, the study design was a survey and not experimental. Thus, the design was less rigorous in terms of method. Participants' response may have been affected by unknown factors such as individual mood, biases, difference of understanding, or technological constraints. Finally, finances can be a major challenge for new independent research that may have to contend with a limited and budget time constraints.

Study Summary and Interpretation of the Data Results

The results of the statistical test of significance involving transformational leadership qualities on four out of six research questions in the study indicated a support for the null hypotheses, in other words, that no significant differences existed between individuals concerning four independent factors such as mentored experience, birth country, socioeconomic levels, and gender.

The purpose of hypothesis testing is to determine the accuracy of each hypothesis revealed true differences and not a random sampling error, that is, the result of the study happened for real in the population and not by chance in the sample (Cooper & Schindler, 2003).

These four null hypotheses were retained because individuals could overcome obstacles or challenges within the factors of work experience, birth country, SES levels, and gender more easily than they could with such outward appearance factors such as age and race (Benner & Kim, 2009; Cargile et al., 2010; Metwally, 2012; Yoo & Castro, 2011). Although previous literature of the MLQ and related business studies have found

consistent support for these four factors of mentored experience, birth country, SES levels, and gender as moderating factors between dependent and independent variables, future studies could show a stronger relationship for correlation or prediction (Cargile et al., 2010; Yoo & Castro, 2011). Similarly, when these same four factors are used as independent variables such as work experience (mentored experience), acculturation (birth country), education level (SES), and gender (female stereotype that females are perceived as naturally more caring than males), all four showed no significant difference between the two groups in this study (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Lansford et al., 2012; Muchiri et al., 2011; Pastor & Mayo, 2008).

Two alternative hypotheses were supported by evidence of the small p-values than the given alpha level of .05. As mentioned in three studies from Benner and Kim (2009), Cargile et al., (2010), and Yoo and Castro (2011), the perpetual foreigner concept and Asian model minority myth of Asian-American individuals significantly affected these individuals both negatively and positively on how others viewed them concerning academic and leadership evaluations. The significant differences on the two subscale qualities of IM and MBEA supported the notion that stereotypes or perceptions did matter significantly in this study.

In addition, age was also a factor and had support with a low p-value ($p = .02$). The study result is similar to Metwally's (2012) study (Chapter 2) of 20 leaders in the healthcare and pharmaceutical sectors supported that significant difference on age as an independent factor for individuals between 50 years of age or older (exhibiting more transactional styles), and those under 50 years of age (exhibiting more transformational styles). In this study, the age cut-off was at 43 years.

These three incidences of significant differences existed for individuals of different races and age ranges between Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans in the study. Future research study may expand on a more in-depth study on why different races may view the IM and MBEA subscale factors of leadership values significantly differently for transformational and transactional leadership qualities.

Implications of the Study

Burris et al.'s (2013) study found that stereotypes of Asian Americans indicated them to be shy and not as aggressive as Caucasian Americans, which supported the significant difference of inspirational motivation (IM) subscale quality of transformational leadership value between the two groups. The quality subscale of IM identified individuals who can inspire others to achieve their full potential. Caucasian Americans in the study self-reported having the confidence and experience in their work environment to lead others. In contrast, the Asian-American participants self-reported uncertainty about their ability to inspire others or they did not feel comfortable in their work environment to better practice or develop their individual leadership, either through indirect stereotype hindrance or lack of experience.

Caucasian leaders may use the study results as an insight to be more aware of the cultural differences and encourage Asian Americans to develop their leadership skills. Similar to trait leadership theory, all individuals are capable of developing those skills with proper encouragement and practices. Also, such cultural knowledge also gives the mentor some flexibility to be more patient, especially to women leaders because they are generally stereotype as less aggressive or confidence.

Next, the independent factor of age seemed to affect the intellectual stimulation (IS) subscale factor for transformational leadership for both groups. The reasonable assumption about older workers is that they are more experienced and wiser by virtue of their age. Thus, older and wiser leaders have more experience and skills to mentor or lead younger staff or individuals. Leadership studies like Metwally (2012), Bass and Avolio (2003), Dubrin (2007), and Northouse (2004) have indicated that age plays a critical role in effective leadership, but the age cut-off can be arbitrary or vary in some studies.

Again, mentor leaders should be patient with younger leaders because age and wisdom matter on leadership development. The leadership traits of wisdom and experience give older leaders advantageous than younger ones. Higher education leaders may want to reach out to retired faculty or higher education leaders to help develop younger leaders if the budget is limited or when institutional leaders are not available to mentor or train the younger ones.

Lastly, regarding the transactional subscale quality of management-by-exception: active (MBEA) identifies leaders as specifying rules standard for compliance purposes (rewards and punishments) to closely monitor and correct workers from making any mistakes and errors to actively minimize any loss or deviation (Bass & Avolio, 2003). Asian American individuals indicated more obedience to rules than Caucasian-American individuals in the survey, which again supported one of the stereotypes of Asian Americans as disciplined and quiet workers who prefer not to bring attention to themselves (Burris et al., 2013; Koch, 2011; Lin, 2010). In contrast, Caucasian Americans scored higher because these individuals were more independent and given to

risk-taking because of familiarity with rules and work environment than were Asian Americans.

From this study result, it confirmed to the researcher that previous two factors of race and age, older leaders have to recognize these inexperience and cultural differences can limit a potential leader from stepping out and exercising their leadership if the mentor is not patient and nurturing with the mentee.

Although four of the null hypotheses concerning mentorship, birth country, SES background, and gender were not rejected, such results seemed to support that the trait leadership theory that all individuals have potential of being effective leaders no matter the person's lack of mentorship experience, nationality, SES background, or gender. As Germaine (2012) earlier supported, the two areas of leadership effectiveness concentrated in leadership traits and expert knowledge of the individuals.

Contribution to the field of Higher Education Leadership

Even though the study topic on Asian Americans leaders in higher education was scant, no quantitative study design on Asian American professionals specifically working in higher education existed when the researcher executed the online research database in November of 2013. In this study, the researcher should be executing one of the first studies that used the MLQ and demographical surveys of two groups of Caucasian and Asian American professionals working in higher education across the United States. These two groups made up a total of 71 NASPA members who participated in the study from a recruitment of postal mail letters that directed interested participants to access a designated website link through Mindgarden's website.

The researcher has highlighted some challenges from the study for Asian Americans in leadership positions similar to many research studies presented in the literature review. The literature review was related to three social theories of oppression, critical race, and White identity, and its related concepts in the Asian model minority myth, perpetual foreigner concept, postmodern education philosophy, meritocracy, business, education, and two theories from TQM philosophy, trait leadership, and transformational leadership to understand the bimodal achievements between these two groups. Future researchers, educators, and practitioners are encouraged to add more related knowledge to the field of Asian Americans in higher education that can lead to practical solutions for leaders to use in their respective institutions and communities to recruit and develop qualified minority leaders through mentoring.

As a practical conceptual framework for higher educational leaders to consider on using for their institutions when implementing a strategy to increase Asian Americans or other diverse leaders, an outline of the PDCA of such actions are given as a detail example in Appendix J. This detail PDCA example has three levels of decision making on a goal under three main questions: where to start, when to start, and how to start? In the second level steps are the initial plan of where, when, and how the process could start. In the third level are what if scenarios under each respective three questions of where, when, and how. Finally, the possible countermeasures are listed for each heading and a final consideration of the varying level of feasibility on each heading is considered for success for each decision if it was chosen.

Recommendations

Future researchers wanting to add more knowledge about Asian American individuals in higher education should consider inviting individual members from related higher education associations like the AAUP, AAICU, AACU, and other similar higher education associations to participate in a study. For student minority groups or associations, they can provide another good insight on career planning and preparation as noted in Lin's study. Research studies in either quantitative, qualitative, or mixed-method designs are all valuable considerations on adding knowledge and advancing future Asian American individuals and students to serve their higher education needs and related goals. Higher education or business leaders should support mentorship or networking pathways to increase recruiting respective minority leaders according to the institution, student, and community needs.

Because Asian American leaders in higher education are underrepresented, some researchers believed recruiting efforts in business, industry, and politics should be made to fill some of the vacant leadership positions (CARE, 2014; Saigo, 2008; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). As noted in one of the study results, a large percentage (71.8%) of the participants had mentored or networked experience to obtain their position or advance into one. Although the study did not find any significant differences in leadership qualities between the two groups concerning mentorship, it should still be a high-value consideration to have a formal mentorship program for institutions that want to increase diverse leaders.

In addition, higher education leaders should also look to present Asian-American student leaders or potential leaders within their respective institutions and start a

mentorship program to grow future leaders for their institution. Other informal networking or student run organizations like Asian or other minority campus groups could better communicate the leadership needs and opportunities by starting such programs in their seminars and workshops similar to the professional ones like NASPA, AAUP, AAICU, AACU, and others.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study result has provided some insights and understanding for researchers to see that research gaps exist regarding Asian-American leaders in higher education, as well as informing in the confusion of the Asian model minority myth that all Asians were high achievers in academics through the lens of critical race theory, the Asian model minority myth, and perpetual foreigner concept (CARE, 2010; Wang & Teranishi, 2012). The study goal, as summarized earlier, was focused on the leadership behaviors and characteristics between bimodal groups on leadership and education levels in higher education captured by the two surveys in the MLQ and demographics.

An important goal of any study was to develop an explanatory model for others to understand, repeat, and utilize in practical applications that can benefit society. Because of the MLQ's limitation on using ordinal data scores, other leadership instruments that use interval or continuous data scoring could be more advantageous for research design and analysis. In addition, a well-planned qualitative or mixed-method study design could benefit for Asian-American leaders or individuals in higher education.

Other considerations to ask or consider for independent variables in a future study are the SAT, ACT, GPA, or other academic scores (preferably interval or ratio data for both dependent and independent variables) that measure individual's academic

performances. If a future researcher considers such a pursuit this area, some privacy or sensitive issues should be addressed seriously and thoughtfully to gather those critical but private data from willing individuals to participate in the study.

In this study, the survey questions captured data descriptions on two bimodal groups of Caucasian Americans and Asian Americans' gender, age range, education level, work experience, degree of study, and work department. Further tests on significant differences between the two groups on six null hypotheses relating to the full leadership model subscale qualities determined that there were significant differences between the two groups using the Mann-Whitney U Test on three different subscale factors in the IM, IS, and MBEA qualities of transformational and transactional leadership. Although significant differences were retained on four out of six hypotheses, a future study may consider on expanding into two variables of race and age because these two factors supported the alternative hypotheses in this study.

The descriptive data and hypothesis testing in this study have advanced some knowledge concerning these groups of Caucasian-American and Asian-American individuals working in higher education from 71 NASPA participants. Another interesting finding was that the Asian-American group did have a high percentage of individuals born outside of the United States at 36.1% (13 out of 36 participants). In a future research study, researchers could concentrate on a more in-depth examination of Asian American individuals who were born outside of the United States relating to higher education leadership.

Conclusion

This study has aided the researcher to measure and compare the leadership styles of higher education professionals across levels of responsibility between Asian American and Caucasian American individuals from NASPA. The MLQ and additional demographic surveys were used to obtain measurements and personal information for the dependent and independent variables. The MLQ survey measured nine characteristics of leadership qualities from 32 observed leadership behaviors and attributes that formed nine components (subscales) of the transformational, transactional, or passive/avoidant (laissez-faire). Previous research on MLQ and transformational leaders did not distinguish between Asian- and Caucasian-American leaders, specifically those leaders working in the field of higher education. In addition, few quantitative research method designs have been used to measure Asian American leaders in higher education because this field of research is relatively young compared to fields of research involving other minority groups.

The study contained two bimodal groups of Asian-American and Caucasian-American individual leaders in higher education, in the United States. Although the Asian-American group sampling was smaller than expected, the result could be generalized to the larger population of higher education professionals in the United States.

The study limitation of examining a small population could be improved by sampling from large organizations like AAUP, AAICU, and AACU where the researcher might find a large potential pool of Asian-American individuals working in higher education. Also, random sampling is preferred over the convenience method of finding

participants. Other considerations for a good research design are experimentation and longitudinal studies. Every study has some limitations and challenges; it is the researcher's task to plan research within the constraints imposed by limitations and challenges.

The results of the study are aligned with previous studies that independent factors such as race and age could be significantly different between Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans (Burris et al., 2013; Metwally, 2012). The study also supported four independent factors such as mentored experience, birth country, SES levels, and gender, all four of which were not significantly differentiated between the two groups. With these two interesting results of the study, future researchers can better plan and design a study to examine the independent factors of race and age further using more sophisticated research instrument (high validity and reliability preferred) that can measure interval or ratio data.

As mentioned, the review of the literature yielded three supporting studies from Burris et al. (2013), Koch (2011), and Lin (2010) that confirmed a strong support for both the perpetual foreigner concept and Asian model minority myth in this study could affect leadership development and attainment for Asian Americans. Similarly, this study supported the idea that both negative and positive stereotypes may have determined some significant differences for two quality subscales in IM and IS of transformational and one significant difference of quality subscale in MBEA of transactional leadership styles between Asian-American and Caucasian-American individuals. The prevailing stereotypes of Asian-American versus Caucasian-American individuals, and the experience and skills of older leaders over younger ones proved to be significantly

different. These three indicators of significant differences for these two bimodal groups should invite future researchers to consider more analyses into these two factors of race and age found in this study.

A final reminder for higher education leaders is to embrace knowledge and change in a positive manner. Although this study has advance some knowledge for Asian-American individuals in higher education, leaders who do not use it to manage, lead, and change their organizations for the better are practicing leadership styles that are not transformational and can be detrimental to their organization. An important goal of any study is to develop an explanatory model for others to understand, repeat the study as necessary, and apply it. May this study result help ignite future researchers to consider carefully adding more knowledge to the topic of Asian-American leaders in higher education.

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Appendix A

University of Phoenix®

PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING SURVEY

Date **11/26/2012**

From: Author Name: Mind Garden, Inc.
Author Address: 855 Oak Grove Ave.
STE 215
Menlo Park, CA 94025

To: Tem Boun.

Thank you for your request for permission to use the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) in your research study. We are willing to allow you to access, use and reproduce the above named instrument ~~at no charge~~ with the following understanding and in accordance with the following terms and conditions:

- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management or curriculum development activities.
- You will include the copyright statement on all copies of the instrument.
- You will send your research study and one copy of reports, articles, and related publications that make use of this survey data promptly to our attention.

If these are acceptable terms and conditions, please indicate so by signing one copy of this letter and returning it to us.

Sincerely,

Valorie Keller
Author Name (please print)

VBaeller
Author Signature

11/27/12
Date

I understand these conditions and agree to abide by these terms and conditions.

Tem Boun
Researcher Name (Please print)

Tem Boun
Researcher Signature

Date 11/26/2012

Expected date of completion 11/26/2013

Current version 032012

Appendix B

1. What is your gender? (M) Male or (F) Female.
2. What is your age group in full years?
   (a) 18-24 (b) 25-30 (c) 31-36 (d) 37-42 (e) 43-48
   (f) 49-54 (g) 55-60 (h) 61-66 (i) 67 or older.
3. What is your current department and leadership position? Academic Service, Student Service, Senior Administration, Faculty, Other: _____.
   (a) What is your position in this department: (1) program manager; (2) faculty chair; (3) director, associate director, etc. (4) vice president, associate VP; (5) dean or associate dean; (6) president, (7) chancellor, or (0) Other: _____.
4. How many years of experience do you have at your current position? _____ years.
   (a) How many years of experience do you have working in higher education (including present position)? _____ years.
5. Did you have mentorship opportunity or networking relationship with a leader or superior before advancing into your current position? (Y) Yes or (N) No.
6. What is your highest completed grade level?
   (i) 2-year degree (ii) 4-year degree; (iii) Master or above (iv) Terminal degree or Ph.D.

   (a) What is your highest completed degree program in? (For example: education, business, political science, law, psychology, sociology, etc.) Please write in: _____.

7. While growing up through high school graduation, how would you summarize your socio-economic background?
   (a) Lower-lower class (below poverty rate)
   (b) Lower-middle class (above poverty rate but not middle class)
   (c) Middle-lower class (borderline middle class without insurance or vacations)
   (d) Middle-middle class (comfortable living with a vacation or trips infrequently)
   (e) Upper-lower class and above (affluent/desirable neighborhood, trips, and financial security).

8. Were you born in the United States or its territories and automatically naturalized as a citizen by birth?
   (Y) Yes or (N) No.
   If no, then what country were you born in? Write in:_____.
   How long have you lived (in years) in the United States if you were not born here? _____ years.

9. What race or ethnic background do you described yourself as:
   Caucasian or European descent, country of origin (if known): _____
   Asian or Pacific Islander, country of origin (if known): _____
   Black or African American, country of origin (if known): _____
   Hispanic or Latin American, country of origin (if known): _____
   Native American Indian, ethnic tribe: _____
   Other or mixed races: _____.

Appendix C

INFORMED CONSENT FOR PARTICIPANTS 18 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

Dear Participant,

My name is Tem Boun and I am a Ph.D. candidate for the Higher Education Administration degree program at the University of Phoenix School of Advanced Studies. I am conducting a quantitative descriptive research study entitled *Examining Transformational Leaders in Higher Education between Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans in the United States*. The purpose of the study is to describe the differences of transformational leadership skills and behaviors between Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans in higher education.

If you do decide to participate, your participation will involve the completion of two surveys in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and additional demographics questions. Your participation is voluntary and the surveys will take about 15 to 20 minutes. If you choose not to participate or to withdraw from the study at any time, you can do so without penalty or loss of benefit. The results of the research study may be published but your identity will remain confidential and your name will not be disclosed to any outside party.

In this descriptive research, there are no foreseeable risks to you because the given answers will be used for comparisons of the current higher education leaders in the United States.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit from your being part of this study is to help mentors advance leadership opportunities for other diverse leaders to match the growing diversity of the student population in the United States.
As a participant in this study, you should understand the following:

1. You may decline to participate or withdraw from participation at any time without consequences.
2. Your identity will be kept confidential.
3. Tem Boun, the researcher, has thoroughly explained the parameters of the research study and all your questions and concerns have been addressed.
4. All data will be encrypted and stored in a password-locked safe in a secure location. The data will be stored for three years and then destroyed.
5. Participant responses will not reflect or represent the views or position of the agency or institution. Participant responses will remain confidential and participant name will not be disclosed to any outside party.
6. The research results will be used for publication.

I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, any potential risks to me as a participant, and how my information will be kept confidential. By selection of "Agree" and signature indicates that I am over the age of 18 years old and give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study. Selecting "Disagree" indicates I do not wish to participate in the study.

- ☐ Agree (signature): _____ Date _____
- ☐ Disagree

(Check one)
Signature of the researcher: _____ Date _____

In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. Again, at any time you may withdraw from survey participation during or after the process by contacting the researcher, _____, at the contact information provided below this letter. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, indirectly, your participation will add to the growing research literature that will benefit future related studies.

If you have any questions concerning the research study or to withdraw, please contact me at _____ (cell) or _____ (email) for a fast response.

Please return surveys in addition to the attached consent form to me by mail (self-addressed paid envelope provided) or email (as a scanned image) to the given address. If you decide to respond via web access, your action on responding to the link provided constitutes as an agreement to these stated terms as well.

For those interested in participating via web access, please go to this link: _____.

I would like to thank you for your time and consideration today. I hope you decide to participate in the study. If anyone would like a copy or know of the study results, please contact me and I will put your name on a list to notify when the study is completed.

Sincerely,

Tem Boun
Doctoral Candidate, University of Phoenix SAS

Appendix D

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DATA ACCESS AND USE PERMISSION

Mind Garden, Inc.

Name of Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association

Please check mark any of the following statements that you approve regarding the study and data described below:

☑ I hereby authorize Tem Boun, a student of University of Phoenix who is conducting a research study titled or described as follows: *Examining Transformational Leaders between Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans in Higher Education*, access to, and use of, the non-identifiable archival data described as follows: volunteered participants taking the MLQ concerning leadership qualities and behaviors via website access for use in the aforementioned research study. In granting this permission, I understand the following (please check mark each of the following as applicable):

☑ The data will be maintained in a secure and confidential manner.

☑ The data may be used in the publication of results from this study.

☑ This research study must have IRB approval at the University of Phoenix before access to the data identified here is provided to Tem Boun.

☑ Access to, and use of, this data will not be transferred to any other person without my/our express written consent.

☑ The source of the data may be identified in the publication of the results of this study.

☑ Relevant information associated with this data will be available to the dissertation chair, dissertation committee, school as may be needed for educational purposes.

Valorie Keller — 11/27/2012

Print Name — Date

V Bueller — Tem Boun

Signature — Researcher Signature/Acknowledgement

Title Director — 11-27-2012

Address 855 Oak Grove Ave Menlo Park CA 94025 — Date

Current version 032012

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DATA ACCESS AND USE PERMISSION

Student Affairs Administrators in Higher Education (NASPA)

Name of Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association

Please check mark any of the following statements that you approve regarding the study and data described below:

☒ I hereby authorize Tem Boun, a student of University of Phoenix who is conducting a research study titled or described as follows: *Examining Transformational Leaders between Asian Americans and Caucasian Americans in Higher Education*, access to, and use of, the non-identifiable archival data described as follows: volunteered participants taking the MLQ concerning leadership qualities and behaviors for use in the aforementioned research study. In granting this permission, I understand the following (please check mark each of the following as applicable):

☒ The data will be maintained in a secure and confidential manner.

☒ The data may be used in the publication of results from this study.

☒ This research study must have IRB approval at the University of Phoenix before access to the data identified here is provided to Tem Boun.

☒ Access to, and use of, this data will not be transferred to any other person without my/our express written consent.

☒ The source of the data may be identified in the publication of the results of this study.

☒ Relevant information associated with this data will be available to the dissertation chair, dissertation committee, school as may be needed for educational purposes.

Brian A. Sponsler — 12/11/12

Print Name — Date

Signature — Researcher Signature/Acknowledgement

Title Vice President for Research + Policy - NASPA — 12-10-2012

Address — Date

111 K. Street NE

Current version 032012 Washington, DC 20003

Appendix F

Participant's Age in increment of 5 years

Age in Years	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Cumulative %
18 – 24	10	14.1	14.1
25 – 30	24	33.8	47.9
31 – 36	8	11.3	59.2
37 – 42	8	11.3	70.4
43 – 48	11	15.5	85.9
49 – 54	5	7.0	93.0
55 – 60	2	2.8	95.8
61 – 66	3	4.2	100.0
Total	71	100.0	

Appendix G

A. Participant's Degree Major

Degree Program	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Cumulative %
Higher Ed or Student Affairs Admin	22	31.0	31.0
Education and Leadership	19	26.8	57.8
Psychology / Counseling	8	11.3	69.1
Sociology or Ethnic Studies	5	7.0	76.1
Business	3	4.2	80.3
Communications / Journalism	3	4.2	84.5
Biology	2	2.8	87.3
Political Science	2	2.8	90.1
American Sign & Interpreting	1	1.4	91.5
Criminal Justice	1	1.4	92.9
Film & Media Studies	1	1.4	94.3
History	1	1.4	95.7
Anthropology	1	1.4	97.1
Organization Leadership	1	1.4	98.5
Public Health	1	1.4	100.0
Total	71	100.0	

B. Participant's Work Department

Department	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Cumulative %
Student Service	54	76.1	76.1
Academic Service	6	8.5	84.6
Senior Admin	6	8.5	93.1
Faculty	1	1.4	94.5
Other	4	5.6	100.0
Total	71	100.0	

C. Participant's Position

Position Title	Frequency (n)	Percent (%)	Cumulative %
Director/Asoc. Dir.	21	29.6	29.6
Program Manager	14	19.7	49.3
Dean	5	7.0	56.3
Vice President	4	5.6	61.9
Assoc. VP	1	1.4	63.3
Other position	26	36.6	100.0
Total	71	100.0	

Appendix H

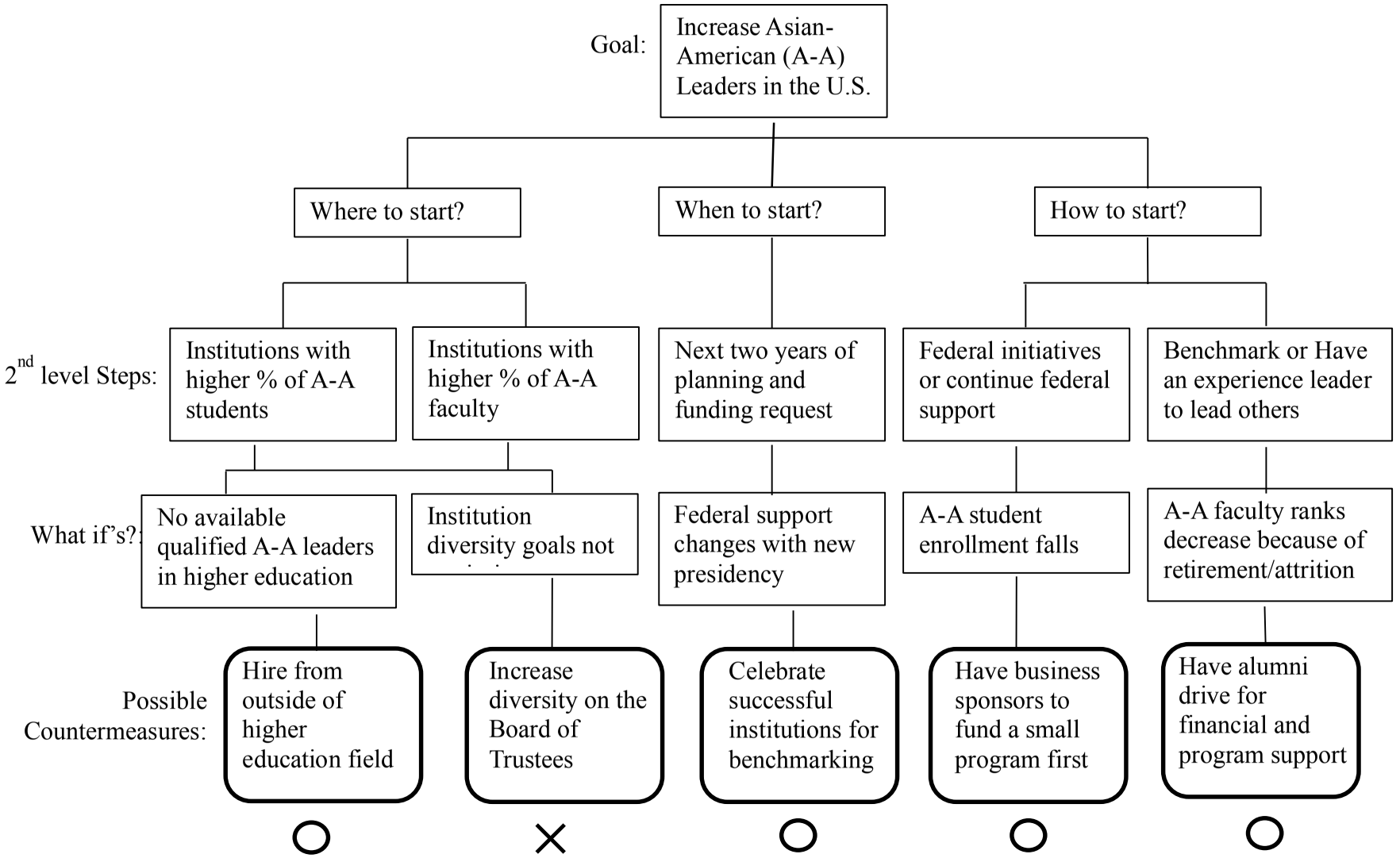
Citizenship & Race Cross Tabulation

Citizenship	Caucasian	Asian or Asian Pacific	Other Mixed Races	Total
Yes (n)	34	20	3	57
% within citizenship	59.6%	35.1%	5.3%	100.0%
% within race	97.1%	60.6%	100.0%	80.3%
% of Total	47.9%	28.2%	4.2%	80.3%
No (n)	1	13	0	14
% within citizenship	7.1%	92.9%	0.0%	100.0%
% within race	2.9%	39.4%	0.0%	19.7%
% of Total	1.4%	18.3%	0.0%	19.7%
Count	35	33	3	71
% within citizenship	49.3%	46.5%	4.2%	100.0%
% within race	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
% of Total	49.3%	46.5%	4.2%	100.0%

Appendix I

Past SES * Gender Crosstabulation

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Past SES	Lower Lower Class	Count	0	4	4
		% within Past SES	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	0.0%	8.7%	5.6%
		% of Total	0.0%	5.6%	5.6%
	Lower Middle Class	Count	2	5	7
		% within Past SES	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%
		% within Gender	8.0%	10.9%	9.9%
		% of Total	2.8%	7.0%	9.9%
	Middle Lower Class	Count	5	4	9
		% within Past SES	55.6%	44.4%	100.0%
		% within Gender	20.0%	8.7%	12.7%
		% of Total	7.0%	5.6%	12.7%
	Middle Middle Class	Count	13	29	42
		% within Past SES	31.0%	69.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	52.0%	63.0%	59.2%
		% of Total	18.3%	40.8%	59.2%
	Upper Lower Class or above	Count	5	4	9
		% within Past SES	55.6%	44.4%	100.0%
		% within Gender	20.0%	8.7%	12.7%
		% of Total	7.0%	5.6%	12.7%
Total		Count	25	46	71
		% within Past SES	35.2%	64.8%	100.0%
		% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	35.2%	64.8%	100.0%


Goal:
Increase Asian-American (A-A) Leaders in the U.S.
Where to start?
When to start?
How to start?
2nd level Steps:
Institutions with higher % of A-A students
Institutions with higher % of A-A faculty
Next two years of planning and funding request
Federal initiatives or continue federal support
Benchmark or Have an experience leader to lead others
What if's?:
No available qualified A-A leaders in higher education
Institution diversity goals not
Federal support changes with new presidency
A-A student enrollment falls
A-A faculty ranks decrease because of retirement/attrition
Possible Countermeasures:
Hire from outside of higher education field
Increase diversity on the Board of Trustees
Celebrate successful institutions for benchmarking
Have business sponsors to fund a small program first
Have alumni drive for financial and program support
O = Selected
X = Impossible/Difficult

Appendix K

Sampling by State

States	Asian	Caucasian
Alabama		
Alaska		
Arizona	2	1
Arkansas		5
California	78	17
Colorado	8	10
Connecticut	4	5
Delaware		
Florida	6	23
Georgia	1	3
Hawaii	12	
Idaho	1	1
Illinois	21	12
Indiana	2	8
Iowa	1	7
Kansas	1	
Kentucky		1
Louisiana		
Maine		
Maryland	4	2
Massachusetts	16	19
Michigan	3	5
Minnesota		3
Mississippi		1
Missouri	2	4
Montana		2
Nebraska	3	5
Nevada		
New Hampshire		2
New Jersey	2	4
New Mexico		
New York	15	12
North Carolina	4	5
North Dakota		
Ohio	5	15
Oklahoma	1	3
Oregon	6	3
Pennsylvania	5	18
Rhode Island	5	4
South Carolina		4
South Dakota		
Tennessee		8
Texas	2	8
Utah	1	4
Vermont	3	
Virginia	6	2
Washington	14	5
West Virginia		
Wisconsin		2
Wyoming		1
Washington, DC	6	6
Total	240	240
States Count:	31	38