EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND DIVERSITY RECEPTIVENESS OF LEADERS IN

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: A CORRELATION STUDY

by

John A. Bourdon

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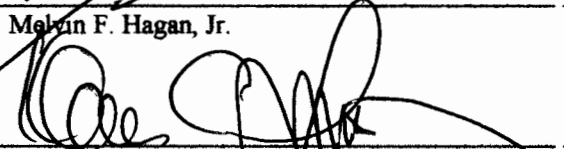
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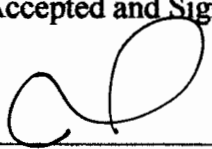
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ABSTRACT

This quantitative research study examined the relationship between leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) and diversity receptiveness (DR). The organization selected for the current study was a large federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The survey instrument was sent via email to 190 employees and 69 participants responded by completing the surveys. The purpose of the survey instrument was to measure EI and DR. The participant population was selected based on pay grade position that ranged from the GS-13 to Senior Executive Service (SES). The results revealed a moderately strong, direct, positive relationship between managers' EI and DR ($R = 0.50$, $p < .01$). Examination of the relationships based on managerial level showed there was no difference between managers' EI and DR, $F(1, 67) = 0.11$ with $p > .05$. Exploratory analysis of the influence of demographic factors of age, race, and gender also reflected no difference in the relationship between managers' EI and DR based on these demographic variables.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my wife, Brenda, for her love, patience, support, and sacrifice during the four years of the doctoral journey. To my sons, John Amilius and Marcus Alexander, and my daughter Monserratte, for providing the spark I needed to advance on the path of realization.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

The competitive landscape and the globalization of the business environment have made diversity in the workplace critical to business success (Usowicz, 2008). Both research and popular belief indicate that leaders who rate high in the areas of diversity awareness or diversity receptiveness (DR) are more successful at leading diverse workforces (Gaze, 2003; Roberge, 2007; Usowicz, 2008). Other research reflects a strong, positive relationship between successful leadership and high ratings in emotional intelligence (EI) (Hayashi, 2005; Landale, 2007; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). In the studies cited, leadership success in both diversity and EI is founded on the leaders' ability to relate to people. On the surface, it appears that leaders who rate high in EI would also rate high in the diversity areas and vice versa.

A literature search revealed thousands of articles related EI and diversity. An in-depth review further revealed that in most of the articles, especially those articles in popular literature and trade journals, the connection was *assumed* to be present, with most authors implying a direct, positive link between EI and diversity (e.g. Ashkanasay, 2002; Hopkins, O'Neil, & William, 2007; Litvin & Betters-Reed, 2005; Robertson, 2007; Schyns & Meindl, 2008). The implied connection between EI and DR is not strongly supported by scholarly research. An exhaustive search of the literature produced only one published research study and one unpublished dissertation (Conrad, 2007), neither of which supported the contention of a direct, positive connection between EI and diversity.

The current study examined the relationship between diversity and EI and the significance to leadership. Chapter 1 provides an overview of the study. The background of the problem is identified, and the significance of the study, purpose, research design,

research questions, and hypotheses are introduced. The research methodology selected for the current study conveys the importance that the information gathered may increase the knowledge base on EI and DR.

Problem Background

According to the U.S. Census Bureau (2000), minorities will become the majority in the U.S. population by the year 2042, with 54% of the population being the "new" majority by the 2050. McCuiston, Wooldridge, and Pierce (2004) indicated that transformation will take place by end of the present decade, when approximately 50% of the U.S. workforce will "be individuals traditionally classified as minorities; specifically, women, people of color, and ethnic minorities" (p. 73). With the increase in diversity it will be important for leaders to be receptive of the differences employees bring to the workplace. The differences can bring a competitive advantage to the organization, which can come in the form of innovation (Bohara, 2007). Equally important will be the ability to manage the differences through the leadership intelligence of EI (Marques, 2007).

EI and diversity both have been extensively researched (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Bohara, 2007; James, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Marques, 2007). A general problem noted is that while extensive research on EI and diversity exists, there is limited scholarly research in the literature available on the relationship of EI and diversity. Presently, very few studies exist on EI and diversity performed on federal government agencies (Gaze, 2003; Soni, 2000).

Diversity Receptiveness

Diversity is often interpreted as the blending of people from a variety of differing backgrounds. The differences include gender, age, religious, ethnic, cultural, and physical

abilities (Marques, 2007; Swanson, 2004). Many organizational leaders try to make a case for diversity within the organization by citing that diversity is a means of reaching a larger customer base (Marques). Others argue that implementing diversity is morally correct but the pursuit for diversity is often abandoned when organizational strategies are fumbled (Marques). Diversity initiatives often present challenges and when the challenges appear to affect organizational strategy the senior leadership no longer feels compelled to pursue diversity initiatives (Marques; Okech & Rubel, 2007).

The purpose of diversity awareness training is to change an individual's behavior, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes toward differences in others (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). A positive behavioral change will lead to receptiveness of the diversity an individual will experience (Tetteh, 2008). DR occurs when people learn to embrace the differences (e.g., religion, cultures, ethnicity, disability, race, and sexual orientation) that each individual can bring to the workplace (Singh & Hynie, 2008).

The inclusion of individuals and groups with diverse backgrounds into the organizational mainstream benefits not only the individual but also the organization and society as well (Konrad, 2006; Singh & Hynie). The diversity receptive leader can inspire a sense of belonging to individual, groups, and the organization. The leader's receptiveness of diversity can improve communication, create ethno-cultural sensitivity, and promote the cultural diversity for the social well being of the organization (Singh & Hynie).

Emotional Intelligence (EI)

EI is self-awareness of one's emotions and the emotions others experience and applying that knowledge in communicating, interacting, and managing relationships with others (Goleman, 1995, 1998; Sen, 2008). Leaders with high EI index ratings are far more

effective in sensing how others feel and take an active interest in managing opportunities for the diverse group of people with whom the leaders work (Sen). Leaders who exhibit higher levels of EI have a social skill proficiency that allows the leaders to have sensitivity in cross-cultural relationships (Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Sen). Elevated levels of EI also assist in managing lasting relationships, building solid networks, and sharing common ground with peers, other organizational members, clients, and customers (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008; Sen).

The emotionally intelligent leader's strength lies in the social skill ability to manage interpersonal relationships by understanding what people feel and need, and what people are concerned with (Piel, 2008; Sen, 2008). The emotionally intelligent leader recognizes differences among the organizational members. The differences are embraced because the leader understands the importance of others' attitudes, feelings, and emotions and acts accordingly (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Sen). The leader with a high EI rating, who is receptive of diversity, can have a sense of self-awareness and can lead across cultural and emotional differences (Usowicz, 2008). The EI diversity receptive leader possesses a relationship competence that drives skills to communicate effectively, help develop broad-scale social ties, and strengthen collaborative negotiation skills (Usowicz).

EI can be defined as how a leader self-manages, engages, empathizes, and develops the ability to understand the emotions that employees bring to the workplace (Landale, 2007). The diverse set of emotions belongs to a diverse set of individuals in the organization. Leaders who have increased levels of EI have more initiative and responsiveness in dealing with the differences in organizational life (Landale). The results of research conducted by Alumran and Punamäki (2008) on three different age groups

within the adolescence years (13-21) indicated that no difference in EI exists. A difference was found in EI when gender was considered as a variable (Alumran & Punamäki).

Low levels of EI can bring about a host of negative emotions that can include hostility toward others (Bagshaw, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 1998). The negative emotions decrease morale and contribute to a lack of collaborative effort within a team and within a department. A leader's insensitivity to the emotions of the employees translates into insensitivity to the differences that employees bring to the workplace (Bagshaw; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). When leaders develop their EI skills, the leader learns to be more receptive of the employee diversity thereby improving the way employees relate to each other at work (Bagshaw; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004).

If organizational leaders commit to strategies geared to increase organizational diversity, the leadership must ensure that managers have an adequate level of EI to sustain the diversity drive (Bagshaw, 2000). The effort to increase organizational diversity cannot be abandoned when organizational strategies change. Many organizations have tried to implement diversity programs, but many fail to achieve the desired result (Marques, 2007). The failure is often attributed to organizations not applying the concepts of diversity to all level within the organization (Bagshaw; Holladay & Quiñones, 2005; Marques). According to Marques, diversity is implemented in most organizations only up to the mid-manager levels.

Problem Statement

The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) estimated that U.S. organizations spent $134.39 billion on employee learning and development in 2007 (Laff). O'Leonard (2009) estimated U. S. corporate training expenditures for the same period were

$58.5 billion, of which $200 to $300 million was on diversity training (Vedantam, 2008).

Chernis, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan, and Adler (1998) conservatively estimated that one-

fourth of the annual corporate training budget was spent on emotional competence training.

The expenditures for both EI and diversity are based on the underlying premise that both

can be taught and that both need to be taught as part of leadership development (Anbu,

2008; Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik

& Roberson, 2008; Kunnanatt, 2004; Ornstein & Nelson, 2006; Weis & Arnesen, 2007).

The general problem is that the need for the training programs may be clashing with

their costs. Nearly 60% of training professionals reported they were under significant or

intense pressure to show return on investment for their training programs (Laff, 2008).

ASTD reported, "…nearly seven out of 10 respondents are, to a high or very high extent,

looking for ways to become more efficient at delivering learning" (Laff, 2008, p. 11). The

specific problem is that many organizations try to develop EI and DR in leaders without

fully understanding if the two are linked (Davenhill, 2009; De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill,

2007; Stokley, 2008). This quantitative descriptive correlational research study examined

the relationship between the level of EI and DR among mid-level to Senior Executive

Service leaders in a U.S. government agency.

<center>Purpose Statement</center>

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to examine the

relationship between a leader's EI and DR. The quantitative research method selected for

the study was the most suitable because the study examined relationships of known

variables using statistical means to analyze data collected from surveys (Creswell, 2005).

The descriptive research design used measured a leader's EI. The data collected from the EI

survey instrument was classified by race, gender, age, and leadership position. The diversity survey measured a leader's receptiveness toward diversity.

The correlational descriptive research design was suitable for the study because the focus was more on identifying and examining the relationship of the variables rather than examining by "testing the impact of activities or materials" (Creswell, 2008, p. 60). The dependent variable was DR and the independent variable was EI. The status or control variables are the level of position (GS-13 to Senior Executive Service (SES) level pay grade), age, gender, and race. The General Schedule (GS) pay schedule is the official pay schedule used by most federal agencies for the federal civilian workforce. For the purposes of this study, GS-13 and GS-14 were classified as middle management; GS-15 and SES positions were classified as senior management.

The target population was 190 employees, in the GS-13 to Senior Executive Service (SES) level positions, in a federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The survey tool that was used to measure EI was the EI Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) (See Appendix A). The survey tool that was used to measure DR was the Receptivity for Diversity Survey (Gaze, 2003) (See Appendix B). The EIS (Schutte et al.) and the Receptivity for Diversity Survey (Gaze) were consolidated into a single instrument for ease of delivery (See Appendix C).

<div align="center">Significance of Study</div>

The current research study could be of significance to scholars, practitioners, and persons seeking leadership positions. The findings from the current study may provide a more applicable role of EI in relation to DR and the successful implementation of diversity initiatives and organizational leadership development programs. The study could add to the

existing body of knowledge in EI and diversity by addressing the gap that exists in the literature. The results of the data from the study could provide a foundation to which other scholars and practitioners may build further studies.

<div align="center">Significance of Study to Leadership</div>

The significance of the current study could provide a greater understanding of the relationship between EI and DR among leaders in organizations. Using the results of hypotheses testing, the understanding may be used as the foundation for improving DR through EI training. According to Latif (2004), the EI quotient of leaders can be raised through targeted training.

The current study's significance may reveal that higher levels of EI have a positive relationship with leaders embracing and being receptive to organizational diversity. The current study intended to contribute new knowledge that responds to the growing need of implementing diversity programs and sustaining commitment within organizations (Bohara, 2007; James, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Marques; O'Leary & Weathington, 2006; Weigand, 2007). Commitment is necessary to increased performance in organizations (Goleman, 1998). The findings of the research study could serve as a stimulus for leaders to develop programs that increase other leaders' EI. The increase of EI levels could serve the purpose of DR and diversity success in organizations.

<div align="center">Nature of Study</div>

This section explores the appropriateness of the quantitative research method and the design and analysis strategies that were used. The research design for the study was quantitative and used two surveys for data collection. The EI Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) (See Appendix A) measured the leader's EI level based on how leaders' perceive,

understand, regulate, and harness emotions adaptively in applying EI. The Receptivity for Diversity Survey (Gaze, 2003) (See Appendix B) measured the leader's receptiveness toward diversity. For simplicity and ease in administration, the two surveys were combined into a single survey instrument (See Appendix C).

Research Method Appropriateness

The research method selected for the study was quantitative because the research questions can be answered through a regulated and logically precise method (Creswell, 2005). Quantitative research allows the gathering of numerical data, variable measurement, and incorporates statistical analysis to evaluate and establish hypotheses from the collected data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Qualitative research is used to explore problems in which the variables are not known or nor clearly understood (Creswell, 2008). Quantitative research is the primary means for "testing objective theories by examining the relationships among variables" (p. 4). The study had specific research questions focused on measuring and describing the relationship between EI and DR and the quantitative method was best suited for that purpose (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005).

Qualitative research involves open-ended questions that prove to be of value for examining participant's perception and provides a detailed comprehension of the unknowns in a phenomenon studied (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). For the purpose of the study, qualitative research was not appropriate. Qualitative research would not have provided answers to the explicit, definite, and focused questions concerning relationships of variables being sought; quantitative research does (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). Since a mixed method approach incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods, the approach would have also been deemed

inappropriate as well. In the current study, the variables were known and the intent was to measure the relationships between the variables, therefore, the quantitative approach was appropriate.

Correlational Research Appropriateness

A correlational study was used because correlational analysis offers the opportunity to examine the extent of differences between or among variables. A correlational study allows the researcher to discern how the differences relate to or influence other variables (Creswell, 2008). The use of the quantitative correlational research study facilitates determining if relationships exist between or among variables (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005). The correlational research design was appropriate for the study because the study was non-experimental, the participants were not assigned randomly, and the researcher did not intervene on existing variables (Cook & Cook, 2008).

Descriptive Design Appropriateness

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) explained that quantitative descriptive research designs best serve "either identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlations among two or more phenomena" (p. 179). The survey instrument examined the relationship between variables without manipulating, controlling, or changing the variables. The descriptive research design examined the relationship between a leaders' level of EI and DR. The data generated by the survey tool was supported by correlational statistical analysis; therefore, the descriptive research design is appropriate for the study.

The objective of the study was to ascertain if a relationship exists with a leader's level of EI and DR. If a relationship exists, then further examination addressed how significant the relationship was in deriving DR. The results from the current study might

provide leaders with data needed to make a determination if EI training is needed. If EI training is needed, the organization may target the training to increase receptivity of diversity, which in turn may increase organizational performance (Anbu, 2008; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik & Roberson, 2008; Ornstein & Nelson, 2006; Weis & Arnesen, 2007).

Population, Data Collection, and Analysis

The study population included all the GS-13 to SES level pay-grade employees in a federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The population was selected based on managerial and leadership positions available in the organization. For the purposes of the study, the GS-13 and GS-14 positions were classified as middle management positions and GS-15 and SES positions will be classified senior management. The total target population was 190 permanent federal employees.

Two validated survey instruments were used to collect the data for the study. The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) was administered to measure participants' emotional intelligence level. The Receptivity for Diversity survey, originally developed by Soni (2000) but modified by Gaze (2003), was used to measure participant's DR. Both instruments are relatively short and use the same instructions and the same Likert-type scale.

To aid in ease in administration and potentially increase response rate, the two instruments were consolidated into a single survey instrument with a single set of instructions. In addition, the instrument was provided to the participants via a hosted web-based electronic format. Use of the web-based survey aided in ease of administration and ease of response by participants. The hosted electronic format also aided in data

preparation.

Although the survey was administered as a single instrument, the data from the two sections was segregated for analysis. Data analysis was accomplished using PASW (formerly SPSS) version 17 software. Descriptive statistics for all variables was generated and the samples were tested for normalcy. Because analysis showed the samples were normal, simple linear regression was used to measure relationships and strengths of relationships. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to assess similarity or differences in the findings for the identified categories, with any differences measured using independent sample t tests.

<div align="center">Research Questions and Hypotheses</div>

The current study proposed that managers with higher levels of EI would exhibit higher receptiveness to diversity. The current study proposed that as the level of EI increased, so too would the level of receptiveness to diversity. Using the above stated contentions led to the following primary research question:

R1: How do levels of EI to relate to DR for leaders in a U.S. government transportation agency?

The study also examined whether the two levels of management or the individual demographic characteristics (race, age, and gender) reflected any changes in the relationship between EI and diversity awareness and led to the following additional research questions:

R2: What is the relationship between EI and DR when using mid-level managers versus senior managers as an examining factor?

R3: What is the relationship between EI and DR when using the population demographics (age, race, and gender) as examining factors?

Based on the research questions, the hypotheses for the research were developed:

$H1_0$: There is no relationship or a negative relationship between levels of EI and DR in leaders.

$H1$: There is a positive relationship between levels of EI and DR in leaders.

$H2_0$: There is no difference in the relationship between levels of EI and DR in mid-level managers and senior managers.

$H2$: There is a significant difference in the relationship between levels of EI and DR in senior managers versus mid-level managers.

No hypotheses were set forth for R3. The demographic factors of age, race, and gender were used to explore if any significant differences existed. There were no a priori assumptions that any differences would be detected.

Theoretical Framework

Gardner (1983) contended that there are eight areas of intelligences: linguistic, logical, spatial, kinesthetic, musical, intrapersonal, interpersonal, and naturalist. Gardner refuted the theory that intelligence is derived from a single source within a person's cognitive function. The relationship of the eight intelligences is further influenced by cultural and societal influences and personal experiences (Gardner; Sellars, 2008).

Gardner's intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence theory is most closely related to what is known today as emotional intelligence. Interpersonal intelligence is the ability to cooperate with others, be sensitive to other's feelings, and exhibit good communication skills (Gardner, 1983; Sellars, 2008). Intrapersonal intelligence is the ability for introspection and understandings one's own feelings and emotions as a means of directing behavior and actions (Sellars).

The theoretical framework that guided the present research study was based on EI theory (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Conrad, 2007; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Hartley, 2004; Pauchant, 2005) and studies performed on diversity awareness and receptiveness (Bohara, 2007; Conrad; Gaze, 2003; James, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Marques; O'Leary & Weathington, 2006; Weigand, 2007).

The Case for Emotional Intelligence

Goleman (1995) universalized, in leadership theory, the significance of EI by comparing the traditional means of measuring intelligence (IQ) with EI. Goleman asserted that contrary to IQ, which is found in an individual's genetic code, development of EI could occur as early as childhood. Goleman's assertion indicated that people could be trained to acquire higher levels of EI.

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) took the popular leadership concept and application of EI to the work environment by conducting research on the impact of EI training on the organization. Chen and Silverthorne (2005) posited that an employees' engagement in the organization is affected by a leader's leadership style. Chen and Silverthorne added that the organization stands to gain an overall advantage by developing the EI of the leadership ranks.

Increased levels of EI can predict more favorable social results (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). Lower levels of EI can predict increased relationship conflict and the inability or failure to meet social or cultural expectations (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso). According to Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), managers who rate higher in EI are in a better position to develop effective and lasting relationships with other groups.

Individuals with higher levels of EI can manifest a higher sense of personal integrity (Rosete & Ciarrochi). The current research on EI infers that individuals higher on the EI scale display a higher degree of social competence and are involved in trusting relationships (Brackett, Rivers, Shiffman, Lerner, & Salovey, 2006; Brackett, Warner, & Bosco, 2005; Lopes et al., 2004; Lopes, Salovey, Côté, & Beers, 2005). Individuals rated with higher level of EI are more sensitive to interactions between themselves and other groups or individuals (Brackett et al.; Brackett, Warner, & Bosco; Lopes et al.; Lopes, Salovey, Côté, & Beers).

Opposing Views on EI

Other researchers have argued about the validity of EI (Locke, 2005). The argument against EI is centered on the ideal that EI is inclusive of all effective leadership traits (Locke, 2005). The only trait not included is the measurement of actual intelligence (Stephens, 2007).

The inclusion of all leadership traits into the EI concept brings to life many definitions of EI that indicate that EI is leadership about employees feeling good (Locke). Locke argued that true leadership is about collecting essential information to acquire knowledge to make intelligent decisions. Locke (2005) contended that effective leadership relies on introspection and the extent to evaluate one's own behavior, actions, and adapt accordingly.

The Case for Diversity Receptiveness

The increased diversity of the U.S. workforce has resulted in numerous articles on the subject of diversity (Bell & Kravitz, 2008). Since the late 1980s, the number of diversity related studies in academia has been doubling every 5 years (Harrison & Klein, 2007).

Researchers believe that DR is the first step in achieving a more profound understanding of the individual difference (Lopez-Rocha, 2006). Through DR, the differences that individuals bring to the workplace reduce stereotypes, increase self-awareness, and bring employees and managers together for a common organizational cause (Lopez-Rocha).

One goal of diversity awareness, through education, is to increase individual or group receptiveness, ability, and desire to confront obvious discriminatory behaviors (Sue et al., 2007). When individuals or groups learn to confront discriminatory behaviors through awareness training, the incidence of discriminatory behaviors is reduced (Bell & Kravitz, 2008). Awareness will provide all organizational members with the insight needed to embrace and become receptive of the differences of the multicultural organization (Lopez-Rocha, 2006). Diversity is a reality based on the assimilation of divergent cultural experiences that must be used a capability in achieving effectiveness at an individual and organizational level (Lopez-Rocha).

Opposing Views on Diversity

Bell and Kravitz (2008) contended that diversity training could have an effect on mindsets hindering diversity initiatives. Results in changing a person's perspective toward distinct population segments or cultural groups are inconsistent (Bell & Kravitz; Eslund, 2005). For diversity education to be effective, the concepts of single-, double-, and triple-loop learning must be introduced into diversity training programs (Bell & Kravitz).

Too often diversity training focuses on simple and general awareness and the training fails to develop skills that reconstruct thinking patterns (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Cropanzano, Slaughter, & Bachiochi, 2005). Diversity training can fall short in teaching individuals a profound awareness about themselves (Bell & Kravitz; MacGillivray,

Beecher, & Golden, 2007). Single-, double-, or triple-loop learning can increase the value of diversity training beyond a simple and general awareness that many current training courses offer (Bell & Kravitz).

Using single-loop learning, an individual can learn to take corrective action to change behavior and increase self-awareness (Janson, Cecez-Kecmanovic, & Zupančič, 2007). With double-loop learning an individual can learn to re-evaluate behaviors that may be affecting effective interpersonal relationships by developing new mental maps that "generate new meanings and actions" (Janson, Cecez-Kecmanovic, & Zupančič, p. 7). Triple-loop learning increases value of training because through "rigorous questioning, self-critique and critical reflection" an individual can learn to reframe and generate behaviors conducive of positive interpersonal relationships (Janson, Cecez-Kecmanovic, & Zupančič, p. 7). The theoretical framework established in the current study was used to examine if a potential relationship between EI and DR can assist organizations in strengthening EI and subsequently increasing receptivity toward diversity through training.

<div align="center">Definition of Terms</div>

The following terms are defined to provide readers with familiarization of relevant words used throughout the research study. The terms are chosen because of the validity and purpose that the words served in this study.

Diversity Awareness: general awareness and sensitivity toward the beliefs, feelings, emotions, culture, and others differences that people from other cultures bring into interactions with other individuals (Sanchez, & Medkik, 2004).

Diversity Receptiveness (DR): DR is an extension of diversity awareness. The goal of diversity awareness is to change behavior and with changes in behavior, individuals become receptive toward diversity (Sanchez, & Medkik, 2004).

Emotional Intelligence (EI): is the ability of becoming self-aware of one's emotions and managing those emotions in daily interactions with others thereby establishing emotional liaisons (Goleman, 1995).

GS pay schedule: General Schedule (GS) pay schedule is the official pay schedule used by most federal agencies for the federal civilian workforce. The GS is grouped into 15 pay grades and each grade has 10 steps. The grades in the GS pay schedule range from GS-1 to GS-15. Mid-level management to senior management positions are in pay grades of GS-13 to GS-15 (U.S. Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 1998). For the purposes of this study, GS-13 and GS-14 are classified as middle management; GS-15 and above are classified as senior management.

SES: are senior executive service (SES) federal civilian employees above the GS-15 pay schedule but below the presidential appointees. The SES in the studied organization is the SES Associate Administrators and the SES office directors (U.S. Office of Personnel Management [OPM], 2009).

Self-awareness: a conscious process where introspection brings an understanding of emotions, behaviors, strengths, limitations, and recognitions of the impact of such emotion, behaviors, strengths, limitations has in relationships (Jack, 2008.)

<div align="center">Assumptions</div>

The first assumption was that the majority of the population of 190 employees would participate and respond to the surveys. The second assumption was that all

participants who started the survey would complete the survey. The third assumption was that all research subjects would respond honestly and accurately the survey. The fourth assumption was that since government agencies are relatively similar in structure, promotions, and training approaches, the results could be generalizable to most federal government agencies. These assumptions provided a starting point on events from which the research was based.

Scope of Study

The scope of the research study was limited to the relationship between the measurement of EI and DR. Measurement of EI was further classified into categories of race, age, gender, and leadership position. One federal government agency in Washington, D.C. was chosen as the organization of study. The participants were all mid-level to senior level management positions (GS-13 to SES pay-grade level positions). The participants were asked to respond to two electronic surveys, consolidated into one instrument, administered through the SurveyMonkey website.

Limitations

The quantitative descriptive correlational research study was conducted to examine the relationship between the leader's EI and DR within the senior leadership ranks of a federal government agency in Washington, D.C. One potential limitation of the current research study was that the results, while generalizable to most federal agencies, may not be generalizable to a few federal government agencies. Generalizability can be affected by organizational nuances and cultural particulars of one federal agency that can vary from a different federal agency. A second limitation was the honesty and accuracy of the participants' responses to the EI and DR instruments. The third limitation was that the study

was limited to mid-level management and senior leadership ranks of one federal agency in Washington, D.C. The fourth limitation was the imposed restrictions by the participating agency as a condition to conduct the study.

Delimitations

The study was confined to surveying EI and DR of 190 permanent federal employees that includes all GS-13 to SES level positions in a federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) survey instrument, which measured EI, focuses on four specific variables of EI. The Receptivity for Diversity survey (Gaze, 2003), measured the leader's receptiveness toward diversity. The imposed narrow scope of the current study to a specific organization and sample size can restrict the knowledge that may have otherwise been gained through broader scope studies.

Summary

Diversity can be defined as the blending of people with differences in gender, age, religious, ethnic, cultural, and physical abilities backgrounds (Marques, 2007; Swanson, 2004). Diversity awareness encourages people to change stereotypical behavior, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes toward differences in others (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). When individuals increase awareness and become receptive toward the differences, the individual can learn to embrace the differences that each individual can bring to the workplace (Singh & Hynie, 2008). The diversity receptive leader can inspire a sense of belonging to individual, groups, and the organization by improving communication, creating ethno-cultural sensitivity, and promoting cultural diversity for the social well being of the organization (Singh & Hynie).

EI can be defined as how a leader self-manages, engages, empathizes, develops the ability to understand the emotions of others, and applies that knowledge in communicating, interacting, and managing relationships with others (Goleman, 1995, 1998; Landale, 2007; Sen, 2008). Increased levels of EI also help individuals manage lasting relationships; build solid networks; and share common ground with peers, other organizational members, clients, and customers (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008; Sen). The EI leader, who is receptive of diversity, can possess a sense of self-awareness that can assist in leading across cultural and emotional differences (Usowicz, 2008).

Decreased levels of EI can bring about negative emotions and hostility toward others (Bagshaw, 2000; Goleman, 1995, 1998). Disregarding emotions of the employees translates into insensitivity to the differences that employees bring to the workplace (Bagshaw; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). When a leader develops EI skills, the leader learns to be more receptive of the employee diversity thereby improving the way employees relate to each other at work (Bagshaw; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004).

The current study examined how leaders' EI can help an organization assimilate DR within the organization. When leaders pay attention in understanding employee emotions and the differences that exist between and among employees diversity can be assimilated. Chapter 1 outlined the background of the problem facing leadership in the area of diversity management and described the purpose and significance of the research study.

An overview of the research methodology and design is also provided. The research questions and hypothesis are introduced and the theoretical framework upon which the research is established. The final sections of Chapter 1 describe the definitions, assumptions, scope, limitations, delimitations that serve as the foundation to the research

study. Chapter 1 concludes with a summary of the major points introduced in the chapter. Chapter 2 presents a review of relevant literature on EI and DR to identify past and existing research, theories, and knowledge relevant to the study. The chapter delineates the importance and justification for the current study.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of the quantitative correlational descriptive study was to find if a relationship exists between EI and DR in a federal agency in Washington, D.C. As part of the data collection process 190 employees were surveyed using the EIS (Schutte et al., 1998) and the Receptivity to Diversity survey (Gaze, 2003). The population surveyed included the mid-level to senior level management positions (GS-13 to SES pay-grade level positions).

Limited research exists in the literature toward understanding the relationship between DR and emotional intelligence (EI). Much of the research in EI demonstrates a positive relationship between leadership success and high ratings in EI (Hayashi, 2004; Landale, 2007; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). The research in diversity awareness and diversity receptivity indicates that leaders who rate high in diversity awareness and diversity receptivity are more successful at leading a diverse workforce (Gaze, 2003; Roberge, 2007; Usowicz, 2008). Leadership success in both diversity and EI is therefore, founded on the leaders' ability to relate to people.

The research study proposed to add to the limited research by examining the relationship between diversity and EI vis-à-vis implementation of diversity initiatives. Chapter 2 provides a literature review that frames the context of the research study in a historical perspective and in modern social theories related to diversity and EI. An analysis of pertinent related issues, problems, and findings in current literature with regard to the variables of EI and DR was explored within the context of a federal government organization.

Documentation

A substantial number of peer-reviewed journals and dissertations were researched to include areas of human resource (HR), education, psychology, and sociology journals intended to expand the purpose of the research. The EI and diversity peer-reviewed articles and dissertations were obtained from the University of Phoenix online library using the ProQuest, ProQuest Dissertations, and EBSCOhost databases (see Table 1). The searches led to 200 sources cited on EI and diversity of which 85% are within the last 5 years.

Table 1

Database Search Statistics as of January 2009

Keyword Search	EBSCOhost	ProQuest	ProQuest Dissertation
Emotional Intelligence	3,119	452	730
EI and Leadership	219	130	237
EI and Teams	66	31	49
EI and Training	152	69	117
Multiple Intelligence	3,539	176	372
Self-awareness	2,882	570	2,062
Social Awareness	18,293	97	182
EI and Diversity	27	14	22
Diversity Awareness	1,997	21	60
Diversity Receptiveness	7	-	-
Diversity Management	11,304	4009	68
Workplace Diversity	3,888	467	105
Diversity Training	3,497	335	151
Diversity and Teams	1,284	422	339

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence (EI) is defined by Goleman (1998) as the ability of becoming self-aware of one's emotions and managing those emotions in daily interactions with others,

thereby establishing emotional liaisons. Scott-Ladd and Chan (2004) stated that the ability to comprehend, relate to, and interact with people is emotional intelligence, which has a solid foundation with social intelligence theories. Goleman (1995) universalized, in leadership theory, the significance of emotional intelligence (EI) by comparing the traditional means of measuring intelligence (IQ) with EI. Locke (2005) gave credit to Goleman for bringing the concept of EI into prominence with organizations and leadership research.

Individuals with higher EI index ratings in emotional awareness, understanding, self-regulation, and typical intelligence are more instrumental in advancing learning in the organization (Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004). The emotionally intelligent leader's strength lies in the social skill ability to manage interpersonal relationships by understanding: what people feel, need, and what people are concerned with (Sen, 2008). Increased levels of emotional intelligence can predict more favorable social results, but lower levels of emotional intelligence can also predict increased relationship conflict (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). As the world population increases, so does the diversity of workforce entrants. The increase in diversity mandates a higher order of interpersonal, social, and emotional skills necessary to execute organizational goals successfully (Fisher et al., 2005).

<center>Historical Overview of Emotional Intelligence (EI)</center>

Understanding and instilling a successful leadership model within an organization is both important and a complex affair (Brown & Moshavi, 2005). The subject of leadership, a social and behavioral phenomenon, has not only enlightened but also has been the cause of debate for researchers and practitioners (Bass, 1990). The management and awareness of

emotions in leading has sparked an interest in the growing dynamic of EI as a humanized form of leading (Hartley, 2004; Pauchant, 2005).

The concept of social intelligence, which is a subset of EI, was presented by Thorndike in the 1920s as one form of varying intelligence an individual can possess (Opengart, 2005). Gardner argued, in the 1980s, that possessing various forms of intelligence is equally important as the intellectual activities of reasoning, remembering, and learning words (Garner, 1983). The EI construct was first defined by Salovey and Mayer in the early 1990s, as the social skill ability to manage interpersonal relationships by understanding people's emotional status (Piel, 2008; Sen, 2008). A leader can influence interactions with people when the leader understands and distinguishes people's emotional status (Sen).

A few years after Salovey and Mayer proposed the EI model, Goleman (1995) released his book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it Can Matter More than IQ.* From that moment forward, EI theories gained influence within leadership theory (Stokley, 2008). In his book, Goleman (1995) claimed that individuals who possess higher levels of EI could excel in all areas of life more so than with cognitive intelligence alone (Harvey et al., 2006; Porterfield & Kleiner, 2005; Stokley). Individuals rated with a high EI index can create organizational climates that inspire trust, share information, and advance learning throughout the organization (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Stokley). As a result of the research conducted by Salovey, Mayer, and Goleman, many researchers have concentrated attention to the link between EI and individual variances in job behavior and success (Bar-On, 2004).

An ability to relate the management of workplace emotions with organizational performance is identified as essential to leadership ability (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Goleman, 1995, 1998). EI, just as is workplace DR, has been a vital method in improving organizational effectiveness and performance (Goleman et al., 2002; Gottleib, 2006; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Piel, 2008; Robbins, 2005). As leaders climb the upper echelons of the organization, the importance of EI can explain up to 90% of the leader's effectiveness (Goleman, 1998). EI has been affiliated with effective leadership mainly because of a leader's ability to motivate the subordinate ranks toward unified action and create a supportive environment (Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2003a).

Founded within the reach and scope of EI literature, leaders are becoming aware of the significance of the management of emotions at the workplace (Goleman, 2002; Harvey, Martinko, & Gardner, 2006; Skinner & Spurgeon, 2005). Goleman et al. (2002) attested that the management of emotions is the primordial mission of EI leadership ability. Self-awareness, self-regulation, and empathy provide the emotional intelligent leader with the tools to improve manager-subordinate relationships and transparency (Goleman et al., 2002). Leadership without the management of the emotional dimension is framing leadership within the context of a failed leadership venture (Callahan Hasler, & Tolson, 2005).

Four Domains of EI

Goleman et al., (2002), separated EI into four distinct domains. The four main domains are self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Goleman et al.). Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso (2002), developed the EI ability-based model that describes a continuous evolution from the first domain to the last.

The four domains of the EI ability-based model are perception, assimilation of emotional thought, emotional awareness, managing emotions, and relationships (Salovey et al., 2002). Salovey et al., postulated that the failure to demonstrate awareness of emotions would preclude a person from having the ability to manage their own emotions and others as well (Howard, 2009).

Self-Awareness

A leader's performance is greatly improved when the leader has a general self-awareness of how others perceive them (Goldsmith, 2006). Self-awareness is important to an individual's cognitive and emotional development because individuals develop skills that allow them to gauge how to respond to feelings; the response can be more congruent with the desired accomplishment (Kress, 2008). The development of true self-awareness cannot be attained superficially (Kress). Self-awareness begins with a profound and honest assessment of personal issues and values that create barriers to communication and effectiveness (Hultman, 2006). The personal assessment creates a process of self-observation that increases awareness of one's behavior within the perception of others thereby understanding and maximizing interpersonal relationships (Hultman, 2006; Robak, Ward, & Ostolaza, 2006).

When a person can understand emotions felt at any time and realize how those emotions affect them and others, the person has a sense of emotional self-awareness (Finley, 2008; Kress, 2008). Emotional self-awareness is the understanding of individual strengths and areas of improvement and leads to a path of true individual capabilities (Finley). Relationships are greatly improved when the competency of emotional self-awareness manages emotions in work environment for optimum interpersonal and

organization effectiveness (Finley; Hultman, 2006). Emotions can leverage and drive workplace behavior; the understanding of EI can increase a leader's ability to address and effect constant and positive change (Richards, 2004).

Self-Management

Self-management is a person's ability to take command or change of focus of disorderly motivations or state of mind (Barry, 2008; Vieira, 2008). Suspending judgments and reflecting in thought before reacting is part of the self-management competency (Barry). With the self-management competency individuals display a sense of awareness and dominion over demanding situations, acclimate to change, and are zealous in confronting issues (Vieira). Trademarks of an individual's self-management ability include self-restraint, receptive to change, trustworthiness, integrity, and (Barry; Vieira). Individuals well versed in self-management also relish the opportunities available in situations of ambiguity (Barry).

Cherniss and Goleman (2001) asserted that self-management includes competencies of emotional self-control, trust, dutifulness, flexibility, and purposeful drive. The competencies are best manifested in the individual who can best tailor and manage emotions to suit a particular situation (Cherniss & Goleman). Goleman (1998) contended that self-management is beneficial to the organization because those individuals who exhibit a high degree of the self-management competency can reduce adverse organizational politics and divisiveness.

Social-Awareness

The social awareness domain of EI explains that an increased level of awareness is necessary to comprehend a situation at hand and the subordinate level of understanding

(Pinos, Twigg, Parayitam, & Olson, 2006). Goleman et al., (2002) defined social awareness as the ability to sense the emotions of others by understanding the person's perspective. Social awareness is characterized by the attunement an individual will have in interpreting how people and groups feel (Shields, 2008). Crucial skills inherent in the social awareness competency are the ability to negotiate, resolve conflict, clearly express viewpoints, and listen actively to others perspective (Lobron & Selman, 2007).

Empathy is the epicenter of social awareness (Goleman et al, 2002; Pinos et al., 2006). With empathy, leaders can perceive how organizational information and values are transmitted to other individuals (Goleman, 1995, 1995; Pinos et al.). When leaders understand how the transmitted message has been received among the subordinate ranks, leaders can shape their behavioral response to buttress positive subordinate actions (Pinos et al.).

A leader competent in social awareness will be able to recognize subordinate needs and address accordingly (Pinos et al., 2006; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004). The competence of social awareness provides leaders the ability to associate with individuals or groups diverse in culture, politics, religious backgrounds (Goleman, 1995; Pinos et al.). The socially aware leader will be able to relate to the diversity individual bring to the organization (Pinos et al.; Sen, 2008).

Relationship Management

Relationship management is another domain of importance within EI. Relationship management uses the social awareness competence to inspire, influence, develop others, manage conflict, and encourage cooperation (Pinos et al, 2006; Sen, 2008). Relationship management requires that leaders have a social competence to handle effectively and

manage emotions of others (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Goleman et al., 2002). If employees perceive a genuine interest in their development for greater organizational involvement, the employee may engage a motivated obligation to reciprocate the positive gesture (Pinos et al.). Relationship management engenders a productive affect in employees that results in enhanced thinking and learning (Bass, 1990).

Relationship management can be used to mediate and settle conflict, find agreement, and share information cooperatively (Pinos et al., 2006; Robbins, 2005). Leaders who cater positive relationship management send clear and persuasive messages and provide clear goals that beget an affective response in behavior from employees (Goleman, 1998; Pinos et al.). If positive relationships are not effectively managed employees may sense that they are not supported in generating ideas that improve processes or procedures (Pinos et al.). Relationship management supports an intellectually impassioned work environment because employees have confidence in the trust that leaders have nurtured in the relationships (Harvey, Martinko, & Gardner, 2006; Pinos et al.).

Emotional Intelligence Training

With the increase of EI literature available today an abundance of EI training programs exist destined to improve EI abilities (Kunnanatt, 2004). Freshman and Rubino (2004) posited, "…that an effective training program must involve a match between employee function and the skills to be learned…" (p. 6). EI information training can come in a variety of delivery methods, such as instructor lectures, discussion formats, pre-recorded video formats, and peer-reviewed printed sources (Ornstein & Nelson, 2006). Many organizations today use internet seminars known as "webinars" to disseminate training program and information.

The goals of every EI training program is to engender self-awareness, create a vision of clarity, and to foster behaviors that are aligned with purpose, goals, and values (Weis & Arnesen, 2007). A common feature seen in many EI training programs is that the EI program may commence with an evaluation of the participant's rational-emotional processes (Kunnanatt, 2004; Litvin & Betters-Reed 2005; Weis & Arnesen). The evaluation is often accomplished through self-reporting assessments, other techniques used to self-map EI, or 360-degree assessments (Kunnanatt). Course participants usually move onto other stages of EI training such as mapping and authentication of emotions as well as strengthening of empathy (Kunnanatt; Ornstein & Nelson, 2006).

People possess a complex set of emotions. Understanding the set of complex emotions can be difficult and confusing to others (Kunnanatt; Skinner & Spurgeon, 2005). The mapping of emotions helps individuals identify, classify, understand cause and effect of emotions on the performance of daily tasks (Davenhill, 2009; Kunnanatt). Individuals can then visualize how these emotions affect the conscious mind, emotional content, and behavior (Davenhill; Kunnanatt). The authentication of emotions has participants evaluating the effects of their emotions and subsequent actions upon themselves and others (Kunnanatt; Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter, & Buckley, 2003a).

Strengthening empathy through training consists of exercises destined to help individuals experience and understand the emotions of other individuals (Anbu, 2008; Kunnanatt, 2004). Empathy is difficult to develop but once cultivated can provide the foundation for valuing relationship with other by nourishing positive social interactions (Anbu, 2008; Kunnanatt). Developing the empathy competency through awareness and experience can make participants more attuned to others by listening, caring, respecting,

and trusting others (Goldsmith, 2006; Hultman, 2006; Kress, 2008; Kunnanatt). EI training and education provides a mechanism for removing layers of emotional biases that prevent the development of EI (Weis & Arnesen, 2007). When individuals are ready to remove layers or barriers, they are ready to distinguish the emotions and behaviors that cloud emotional intelligence (Weis & Arnesen).

Current EI Findings

EI research has gained considerable strength in recent years by becoming one of the most researched topics concerning organization performance and effectiveness (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Recent EI scholarship correlates EI to transformational leadership and other inspirational theories (Stokley, 2008). Other research suggests that leaders rated with a high EI index are more apt to understand the dynamic of resonating positive leadership, organizational disharmony, individual, and group needs (Seal, 2006; Stokley). A leader rated with a high EI index can increase organization sustainability and profitability (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008; Stokley).

EI theory is divided into two constructs, the ability-based EI and the other competency-based EI. The ability-based model was developed by Salovey and Mayer in 1990 and EI is considered a subpart of social intelligence (Seal, 2006). Salovey, Mayer, and Caruso measure EI by using the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT).

The competency-based EI model was developed by Goleman (1995, 1998) and EI is defined as competencies that include self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management. Competency is demonstrated through frequency of use and

effectiveness in a situation (Goleman, 1998). Goleman measures EI through the Emotional Competency Inventory (ECI) (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2002).

Seal's study proposed to measure the interrelationship between the EI ability-based and the EI competency model and the effect on performance. In a comparison of the two models there seemed to be a likely relationship between the two models (Seal, 2006). Individuals rated high in emotional ability were on a higher course for performance by using emotional competencies and vice-versa (Seal). The results of the research study failed to answer the research questions that performance improves when emotional ability is used as a moderator between emotional competency and performance results (Seal). Further research is needed that overcomes some of the limitations experienced in Seal's study to test the research questions posed (Seal).

Other studies on EI indicated that as a person occupies greater positions of leadership within an organization, EI skills and abilities tend to diminish (Collin, 2001). The decline in EI skill could be associated with leaders concentrating more on profit than on the human side of the business. Gardner and Stough (2003) found a positive correlation between employee commitment and a leader's level of EI. The positive correlation of EI and business results extends to how well leaders manage emotions effectively for the good of the employees and the organization (Stokley, 2008).

Sustaining EI

Skill in EI can be improved and sustained for the long-term (Singh, 2008). Organizational leaders must be attentive in guaranteeing that the learning results from EI training programs are transmitted effectively to the work setting (Callahan, 2008). Activities that assist in sustaining EI include developmental programs, mentoring, and coaching, and

mentoring (Callahan). Leaders who exhibit a positive attitude, are approachable, empathetic, and confident tend to deny negative emotions and use positive emotions to experience success (Singh).

Communication is a key ingredient is sustaining organizational EI. Through communication, people are brought together by sharing information for the common goal of accomplishing organizational goals (Callahan, 2008). Since communication drives and connects emotions to produce human behavior, leaders must understand and manage emotions to produce behaviors for effective social interactions (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). Lopes et al., (2004) indicated that EI is directly associated with meaningful interactions. Leaders must communicate the value of EI and become advocates to ensure long-term sustainability of EI.

In the selection and promotion process used by the organization, the organization may want to interview former supervisors and other work peers to determine the candidate's level of EI (Fernandez-Araoz, 2001). Evaluating performance employee evaluations and participating in role-playing scenarios can assist managers in discerning a candidate's level of EI (Higgs & Aitken, 2003). Creating organizational policies can help transcend the EI effort to all levels within the organization (Berman & West, 2008). Organizational codes of conduct help support EI efforts by serving as a standard against improper behavior (Berman & West).

Providing feedback to subordinates concerning their social skills can increase a leader's level of EI skills (Berman & West, 2008). Mentoring advances EI competencies when leaders reflect and communicate their behaviors and actions in situations that merit sensitive judgments (Berman & West). Another tool used to sustain and improve

organizational EI efforts is modeling. Modeling occurs when leaders serve as a behavioral role model for the rest of the organization (Albrecht, 2005). Employee awareness on EI competency is increased because of modeling (Albrecht).

Training is the most prevalent tool used to increase awareness on any particular subject. To sustain organizational EI efforts many training topics can help increase awareness of EI competencies. The Myers-Brigg Type Indicator (MBTI), teamwork, conflict management, and change management training offer the opportunity to increase an individual's emotional competency by increasing self-awareness and awareness of the differences that others can bring into the workplace (Berman & West, 2008; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik & Roberson, 2008). Training can positively affect interaction behaviors between individuals, influence selection, promotion, feedback, mentoring, and modeling by accentuating the fundamentals of emotional skills (Berman & West; Hite & McDonald, 2006; Kulik & Roberson).

Advantages of EI

Leaders can be forceful, keep up with current trends, and produce results on a consistent basis, but to motivate the employees, leaders need to develop competency in soft skills (Chen, 2006). The results of a recent study that examined competency elements of leadership found that leaders who were able to manage emotions demonstrated a higher correlation to success (Chan, 2007). Recent studies also suggest a relationship between a highly rate EI index and transformational leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006). The relationship between EI and transformational leadership was confirmed by Brown, Bryant, and Reilly (2006) in a research study.

EI is equal to human intelligence and recent studies suggest that leaders rated high in EI can ascertain and understand organizational harmony, antagonism, opportunities, and risks (Stokley, 2008). The emotionally intelligent leader can combine the opportunities in the external and internal environment with the dynamics of individual and team relationships to create an efficient organization (Stokley). Leaders who give employee individual consideration reduce turnover and absenteeism rates (Cherniss & Goleman, 2001; Peterson, 2004). When a leader exhibits EI, employee commitment is positively affected and the organization benefits (Chen & Silverthorne, 2005).

A research study by D'Intino, et al., (2007) found a positive relationship between EI and entrepreneurship. D'Intino et al. (2007) discovered that EI is an important element in the success of self-leadership. Entrepreneurs need EI as a motivational agent during the draining demands of starting a business and for success thereafter (D'Intino et al.). Abraham (2006) advocated the promotion of EI skills by business educators in business courses. Since the concept of EI had been widely accepted by the business world, academia could also relish in the benefit of teaching EI in academic course curriculum (Abraham).

Humphrey (2006) posited that EI is crucial in resolving workplace conflict. Empathy along with recognition and expression of emotions allows leaders to manage effectively the emotionally filled transactions of conflict (Humphrey). Conflict management requires leaders to have the necessary competency in EI to create the perception of a win-win situation for the parties involved in conflict (Stokley, 2008). Leaders rated high in EI will have a better understanding of interpersonal relationships and can positively influence achievements and navigate through conflict (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Humphrey).

Schutte, Schuettpelz, and Malouf (2001) research indicated that employees who rated high in EI completed knowledge tasks with more success and were able to face challenges with a positive attitude. Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2004) contended that EI positively influences work performance. Carmeli and Josman's (2006) research revealed that EI improved job performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. The study also revealed that there was a correlation between EI and job performance, social conscience, and agreement. King and Gardner's (2006) found that EI competency of awareness of others' emotions was associated with coping strategies and adaptable assessment in difficult circumstances.

The emotionally intelligent leader or employee has the skill to adapt assuredly to organizational change (Vakola, Tsaousis, & Nikolaou, 2004). Additional studies provide evidence on the important role of EI and organizational commitment (Humphreys, Brunsen, & Davis, 2005; Jain & Sinha, 2005; Oginska-Bulik, 2005). Leader rated high in EI experienced high levels job satisfaction and positive emotions toward the organization (Carmeli, 2003). Employees who were rated high in EI experienced decreased work-related stress and exhibited a higher degree of commitment (Carmeli). Schutte et al. (2002) confirmed that employees rated high in EI maintained a positive attitude when confronted with negative affection.

Disadvantages of EI

The EI debate rests on the proper school of thought of EI, the lexicon used to describe the EI theory, and validity of criteria used to evaluate EI (Dulewicz, Higgs, & Slaski, 2003). Researchers argue that emotional quotient (EQ) is not scientific and can therefore, not be measured as accurately as intelligence quotient (IQ) (Dulewicz et al.).

Anyone can have a meaningful conversation of EQ until claims that rave accurate measure of EI are introduced in the conversation (Dulewicz et al.). According to Jaegar (2004) because EI has been universalized, the concept has been adulterated. Jaegar suggested that EI might be the same as a person's character traits.

Zeidner, Matthews, Roberts, and MacCann (2003) revealed that EI is a representation of a person's cultural norms in which emotions are recognized, expressed, and managed within the construct of a culture. Zeidner et al. (2003) argued that being compliant to cultural norms is more social compliance within a culture than a competency of EI. Humphreys, Brunsen, and Davis (2005) contended that EI does not necessarily result in leader effectiveness. The researchers experienced mixed results when evaluating the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness. Additional research on organizational variables associated with EI needed to be conducted to determine the relationship between EI and leadership (Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Humphreys, Brunsen, & Davis, 2005).

Locke (2005) supported the argument that EI may be a fallacious concept. Many of the characteristics of EI are included in the character traits of a competent leader, with the exception of human intelligence (Locke). Leading is about gathering verifiable information to create knowledge and make informed decisions (Locke). Dulewicz, Young, and Dulewicz (2005) compared the IQ and EI of several British Royal Navy officers with the performance ratings and found no evidence to support EI levels. A difference in IQ was found in officers who were performing tasks that required more intellectual capacity (Dulewicz, Young, & Dulewicz).

The concept of EI is relatively young in the field of leadership theory and therefore, the definitions in EI vary considerably (Cherniss, Extein, Goleman, & Weissberg, 2006).

Locke (2005) claimed that EI has been defiant in yielding an accurate measure. Some critics argue against the possibility of immeasurable intelligence (Sternberg et al., 2000). Other critics of EI argue that the available EI measures lack standardization in content, depth, and methods (Conte, 2005). Landy (2005) maintained that since EI has continually fluid measures tracing changes in EI using the EI instruments is impractical.

Locke (2005) criticized the validity of EI by arguing that EI is not a true type of intelligence; EI is more rationality-based then intelligence-based. Locke advocated the idea of repackaging EI as a character trait and not used in the theory of intelligence. Other opponents defend the posture that EI lacks strength in design, administration, and interpretation to provide adequate measures in intelligence, aptitudes, or personality traits (Conte, 2005; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Critics have even questioned the germaneness of EI as relevant theory (Waterhouse, 2006).

<center>Historical Overview of Diversity</center>

Diversity often is interpreted as the blending of people from a variety of differing backgrounds. The differences include gender, age, religious, ethnic, cultural, and physical abilities (Marques, 2007; Swanson, 2004). The foundation for diversity came in the form of affirmation action law, which required the elimination of discrimination based on race, color, or creed. Through the process of evolving civil rights laws, workforce diversity became the cornerstone of equal treatment and inclusiveness. Many leaders try to make a case for diversity within the organization by citing that diversity is a means of reaching a larger customer base and that implementing diversity is morally correct (Marques).

Where diversity is often interpreted as the blending of people from a variety of differing backgrounds, affirmative action programs seek to eradicate discrimination and the

under-use of underrepresented groups (Kogut & Short, 2007; Kravitz, 2008). The underrepresented groups include women, racioethnic minorities, the physically disabled, and various classes of military veterans (Kravitz). The case for diversity in the organization begins with affirmative action programs (AAP) designed to provide remedies in attracting, hiring, and retaining members of the underrepresented social groups (ASHE, 2007).

The implementation of an AAP can accentuate the diversity benefit in the organization by remedying the overt, involuntary, or voluntary organizational discrimination (Kravitz, 2008). In the implementation of an AAP, the organization performs an adverse impact evaluation on the hiring process (Kogut & Short, 2007; Kravitz). The evaluation is performed to terminate or substantiate the procedures that negatively impact groups based on race, color, religion, sex, or national origin (Jones, 2007; Kravitz). If the organization determines that a group is underrepresented, the organization makes a good faith effort to set strategies to correct the imbalances.

Affirmative Action

The affirmative action initiative began as a federal law aimed at eliminating discriminatory hiring practices experienced by underrepresented women and minorities working for federal contractors (ASHE, 2007). President Franklin Roosevelt on June 25, 1941, issued Executive Order 8802, which made discrimination an illegal practice when based on race, creed, color, and national origin (ASHE). In 1961, President Kennedy issued Executive Order 10925, which mandated all federal contractors ensure all employees are treated fairly without regard to race, creed, color, or national origin (ASHE).

President Nixon, in 1969, enhanced affirmative action with Executive Order 11478. The Executive Order required that equal employment opportunity practices be incorporated

into every personnel policy governing employee hiring, development, advancement, and treatment of government employees (Kogut & Short, 2007; Kravitz). Reform to the affirmative action law has translated into the equal employment opportunity legislation that started in 1972 and has evolved and taken shape as equal employment opportunity (Kogut & Short).

Affirmative action was created as a means to address past and present social disparities in higher education and in the workplace (Jones, 2007; Kogut & Short, 2007). Affirmative action advocates suggest that because racism still exists today, the affirmative action policies in place are necessary to ensure inclusion of underrepresented in education, workplace, and in American society (Jones; Kogut & Short). Proponents argued that affirmative action serves a necessary option in higher education and employment because diversity creates opportunities for inclusion, engagement, and generation of ideas for students and employees (Jones; Kravitz, 2008).

Equal Employment Opportunity

The Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972 further strengthened workplace diversity. The law required that all personnel practices in the federal government be discrimination-free. The Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 mandated that federal government agencies develop recruitment and retention programs to bolster the hiring of underrepresented groups. With the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, diversity at the federal workplace was a requirement (Kogut & Short, 2007). The responsibility for ensuring workplace equality was charged to the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) in 1964 by enforcing Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (McKenna, 2005).

An amendment to the Civil Rights Act in 1991 allowed employees to sue for monetary damages when intentional cases of discrimination are found. In 1999, the Federal Sector Equal Employment Opportunity Final Rule issued by the EEOC strengthened the complaint procedures by focusing on perceived unfairness in the complaint process. By the year 2000, Congress and the executive branch created many legislative directives intended to increase diversity and equality for minority groups employed by the federal government (Kogut & Short, 2007).

As part of the EEOC enforcement litigation blueprint, various methods are used to redress occurrences of intentional acts or practices of discrimination. Some of the remedies include (a) retroactive pay of salary or wages, (b) future pay, (c) hiring of the individual/s affected, (d) promoting individual/s affected, (e) if a case goes to court, payment of attorney and court expenses, and (f) other actions that will redress monetary loss, present and future, and mental anguish suffered by affected parties (McKenna, 2005).

To reduce discrimination and increase organizational diversity the EEOC recommended that in the recruiting, hiring, and promotion process employers should broaden the applicant pool (Carroll & Miller, 2006). The employer should also conduct a self-evaluation to discern if any practice unfairly affects an underrepresented group (Carroll & Miller; Jones, 2007). The EEOC recommended that to reduce barriers to equal employment opportunities employers should implement objective qualification standards and consistently apply the standards (Carroll & Miller). The EEOC stands committed to the anti-discrimination mission by reaching out to organizations (EEOC, 2009). The outreach efforts of the EEOC includes training, education, informational material, workshops, and

other outreach efforts aimed at eliminating discriminatory tensions and fortifying diversity through workplace equality (EEOC).

The Changing Workforce

The U.S. has always been known to be a cultural melting pot. The advent of several civil rights laws further molded the national diversity into the workplace and education arenas. The receptiveness toward diversity is enabling the difference that each individual brings to the workplace to coexist and give individuals the opportunity be appreciated because of the differences (O'Leary & Weathington, 2006; Singh & Hynie, 2008).

The trend toward diversity within the U.S. workforce indicates that the once White male dominance is slowly evaporating (Hunter, 2007; O'Leary & Weathington). In 1978, White males constituted over 51% of the workforce but a decade later (1988 – 1998) women and minorities composed nearly 68% of new workforce entrants (O'Leary & Weathington). New workforce entrants are expected to be over 70% women and minorities by the end of 2009 (Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007; O'Leary & Weathington). Similar trends are occurring in other nations as the globalization of international trade make its mark on businesses across the world.

The U.S. Department of Labor reported that by the year 2014 ethnic or racial minorities will comprise 36% of the workforce (Hunter, 2007). By the year 2050, minorities will account for nearly 50% of the U.S. workforce (Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007). By the year 2000, the Hispanic population increased 60% making Hispanics the largest minority group in the U.S. (Mallol, Holtom & Lee, 2007). In the period of 2000 to 2005, immigrants created 25% of technology start-up companies in the U.S. (Hunter).

By the year 2014, the number of minorities entering the workforce will increase rapidly because 45% of the U.S. population is minority or foreign-born (Hunter, 2007). The increase in U.S. workforce minority population makes diversity a reality that must be dealt with appropriately. Today's workforce is more diverse that ever and the population demographic statistics demonstrate the trend toward a more diverse workforce demographic that will increase significantly (O'Leary & Weathington, 2006).

<div align="center">Current Findings in Diversity</div>

Diversity training and education seems to be the prevalent method in addressing awareness of individual differences within the organization. A significant degree of variation among diversity awareness training exists but all training programs have three essential components (Holladay & Quiñones, 2005; Kulik & Roberson, 2008). The first goal is to bring about a more desirable work environment by increasing the general awareness of behaviors that lead to biases and discriminatory actions (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Holladay & Quiñones; Pendry, Driscoll & Field, 2007). The second goal is to improve organizational relationships by having employees acknowledge their own prejudices and develop strategies to overcome the prejudices (Holladay & Quiñones; Kulik & Roberson). The third goal is improving individual and organizational performance by understanding the value of diversity as an asset and being receptive to the asset of organizational diversity (Holladay & Quiñones).

The increased life expectancy of the average person means that today's workforce will have two and three generations of people working together (Konrad, 2006). The three generations that make an organization generational diverse are Baby Boomers, Generations X, and Y (Bell & Narz, 2007). Baby Boomers are those employees aged from mid 40s to

60s; Generation X late 20s to early 40s; and Generation Y early 20s and younger (Bell & Narz). These three generations provide interactions where the employees can be exposed to differences in perceptions, behaviors, experiences, values, and attitudes (Konrad, 2006; Kyles, 2005; Yang & Guy, 2006).

According to Zemke, Raines, and Filipczak (2000) a trend in addressing the receptivity to the generational diverse workforce is twofold: "aggressive communication" and difference deployment." *Aggressive communication* is over-communication that addresses the biases of generational diversity (Zemke, et al.). The fresh perspective of the younger employees is combined with the experienced wisdom of the older employees for a greater understanding between generations (Kulik & Roberson, 2008; Zemke, et al.).

Difference deployment is the creation of cross-generational work teams using each person's diversity in experience, skill, background, and perception (Zemke, et al.) Cross-generational teams maximize the team's effectiveness and meet organizational goals as a cohesive unit (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Zemke, et al.). Organizational leaders try to close the rift between the different generations by incorporating cross-generational training and generational awareness instruction in the diversity awareness training given at the organization (Bartley, Ladd & Morris, 2007).

Konrad (2006) contended that aside from training and coaching, other remedies existed that addressed DR. Research shows that one of the most pervasive and enduring ways to strip the stereotypes of minorities is to cultivate a relationship of friendship with a minority group member (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Konrad, 2006). Friendship affords a favorable opening to learn about a minority group member as a complex individual, thus bringing to fruition the effects stereotyping experiencing by the minority group member

(Konrad). Organizations cannot command employees to be friends with each other, but the organization can create favorable circumstances for collaboration that assist people in connecting to diverse individuals (De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill, 2007; Konrad).

Diversity experts have identified four strategies for effectively managing the diversity effort. The strategies are training and education, create workplace policies, establish mentoring programs, and offer awareness training (Bartley, Ladd & Morris, 2007; Konrad, 2006; Scott, 2005). Training and education promotes awareness, builds competency skills that help employees understand the value of workplace diversity (Bartley, Ladd & Morris; Konrad; Scott).

Developing effective workplace policies provides an equitable work environment and fair treatment for all (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Scott). Establishing mentoring programs can help the underrepresented groups understand organizational culture and craft strategies for advancement within the organization (Scott). Offering self-awareness programs can assist the underrepresented appreciate their strengths and become aware of areas for improvement as a means to meet career objectives and advancement (Scott; Konrad).

Organizational culture is an important in sustaining diversity initiatives because culture holds the organizational values and assumptions the organization considers important; culture cannot be changed hastily or directly (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Konrad, 2006; Pless & Maak, 2004; Scott, 2005). The creation of a strong culture that supports diversity is dependent upon aligning leadership, strategy, and human resource processes (Konrad; Ricaud, 2006; Tetteh, 2008). To align leadership, strategy, and human resource processes Konrad stated that leaders must communicate the diversity message often throughout all ranks in the organization.

Diversity has to be aligned and integrated within the organizational strategy in conducting business (Konrad, 2006; Ricaud, 2006). The human resources processes must change to produce a diverse applicant pool, hire the best, to ensure that the diverse talent is equally allocated throughout the organization (Konrad; Pless & Maak, 2004). The organization must be resilient in motivating a diverse workforce for performance and guaranteeing diverse perspectives are considered and acknowledged (Konrad; Scott, 2005).

Advantages of Diversity

Organizational conflict is unavoidable when employees or groups interact with those individuals and groups of diverse backgrounds, customs, religion, race, or gender. Long-term strategies for diversity can change the organizational culture and employee perception to embrace diversity (Forbes, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Marques, 2007). When organizational culture and employee perceptions change to embrace diversity, the organization will experience the advantages of diversity (Forbes; Konrad; Marques; Tetteh, 2008). According to O'Leary and Weathington (2006), the aspects of diversity related to tenure, education, background, and race are associated with advantages in creativity.

Better generation of ideas, innovation, collaboration, increased opportunities of business strategies considered for the organization are more advantages of diversity that an organization can experience (O'Leary & Weathington, 2006). Bohara (2007) pointed out that present research indicates that people who have lived and learned from multiple cultures cultivate certain abilities and conduct that is deficient in their one-cultured cohorts. One of the most coveted benefits of diversity is the augmented creativity and innovation experienced by the organization because of the diverse teams established (Bohara; Rubel & Okech, 2006; Swanson, 2004).

The organization that realizes the benefits and advantages of diversity will increase diversity training in an effort to bring awareness throughout the organization (O'Leary & Weathington, 2006; Swanson). Diversity effort brings individual and business success by using the abilities, knowledge, skills, and of all organizational employees (Jones, 2007; O'Leary & Weathington). The promotion of diversity within the organization has been linked to reduced levels of biases and stereotypes (Estlund, 2005). Higher productivity is achieved because employees are confident that their perspectives, ideas, and inputs, are considered and appreciated (Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007; Marques, 2007).

The business case for diversity, when properly managed, can produce a competitive advantage for the organization via a capable workforce and reduced expenditures by not seeking talent outside of the organization (Espinosa, 2007; O'Leary & Weathington, 2006). The business case for diversity provides the opportunity for an organization to draw upon a diversified employee base, putting the organization in a competitive position to fulfill customer and community obligations (James, 2008). Using the diverse workforce to relate to the customer and community the organization will be better equipped to meet internal and external expectations (Bohara, 2007; James).

The organizationally diverse workforce is more likely to perform at an optimum level than the homogenous organization because of diversity in experiences, knowledge, perceptions, and abilities available to the organization (O'Leary & Weathington, 2006). The homogenous organization may find it difficult to flourish in the quick pace of aggressive markets whereas the diverse organization tends to thrive in high-risk performance markets (Weigand, 2007). The diverse workforce affords an organization the advantage of cultural

intelligence needed in conducting business in the global marketplace (Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007; Marques, 2007; O'Leary & Weathington).

Workforce diversity can benefit society; the work environment is where most people will have an opportunity to interact with people of different backgrounds on a consistent basis (Douglas, 2008; Espinosa, 2007; Estlund, 2005). The contact, interaction, and subsequent cooperation and collaboration allow employees to experience the differences and in time, most people conquer their biases and stereotypes of other individuals or groups (Estlund; Lopez-Rocha, 2006). Today diversity should not be a choice between race or gender and quotas (Douglas). Diversity should be a deliberate effort of inclusion of all to guarantee that every employee shares the same opportunities and advantages (Bartley, Ladd & Morris, 2007; Douglas; James, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Scott, 2005).

Disadvantages of Diversity

Opposition to diversity based on affirmative action programs has increased at a steady pace in the last four decades (Flores & Rodriguez, 2006; Jones, 2007). Jobs and education are at the center stage of the conflicts between the majority and underrepresented groups (Flores & Rodriguez). Much of the opposition to affirmative action or diversity programs stems from the assumption that the programs cater to the preference of particular minority groups (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Flores & Rodriguez). Opposition to diversity increases when resources are scarce, jobs and educational opportunities are limited (Flores & Rodriguez).

A major impediment for the diversity movement came when Alan Bakke, in 1978, filed a "reverse discrimination" lawsuit in court against the University of California (Flores & Rodriguez, 2006). Jones (2007) affirmed that affirmative action programs begets

additional unfairness through what is known today as "reverse discrimination" In the Bakke lawsuit the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that it was unconstitutional to use quotas to establish a specific number of minorities to admit in the school (Berry & Bonilla-Silva, 2008; Flores & Rodriguez). The use of race was allowed as another admissions measurement when used to fulfill affirmative action requirements (Flores & Rodriguez).

Between 1993 until 2003, several court rulings have affected diversity initiatives and affirmation action programs (Berry & Bonilla-Silva, 2008). Cases against diversity include Gratz et al. v. Bollinger 2003 in Michigan, Hopwood v. State of Texas 1996, Florida legislation, and ballot referendums in Washington and California (Berry & Bonilla-Silva). These cases have reduced or terminated some diversity related programs in education and the work environment (Berry & Bonilla-Silva; Flores & Rodriguez, 2006).

Research on diversity has yielded findings that suggest that workforce diversity leads to decreased satisfaction, detachment, below average performance evaluations, increased absenteeism, and higher turnover (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Estlund, 2005). Sorenson (2004) postulated that racial workplace diversity has a negative affect on turnover, job satisfaction, and a sense of belonging to the organization. The negative outcomes of diversity is explained by citing that diverse groups are more prone to experience controversy, complicate the communication process, and have reduced unite cohesion than do homogenous groups (Flores & Rodriguez, 2006 ; Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007).

Resistance to diversity is another challenge that an organization may face when any individual believe that he or she will not benefit by embracing diversity (Cropanzano, Slaughter, & Bachiochi, 2005). A global challenge in diversity that managers face is the management of core values related to the numerous religions and cultures that exist today

(MacGillivray, Beecher, & Golden, 2007). Issues related to religion are delicate to address but practitioners are realizing that religion sensitivity requires just as much attention as does the other diverse workforce factors (Cropanzano, Slaughter, & Bachiochi; MacGillivray, Beecher, & Golden).

Others argue that diversity initiatives fail to improve workforce diversity. Kogut and Short (2007) contended that the last 40 years of affirmative action programs within the federal government have failed to produce an appropriate distribution of the underrepresented. Hispanic groups in the workplace as compared to the minority numbers are lagging in balanced distribution in employment within the federal government (Jones, 2007; Kogut & Short). The affirmative action programs in the federal government indicate success for a diverse workforce (Estlund, 2005; Kogut & Short). Critics argued that the bold affirmative action initiatives "appear to have benefited certain minority groups at the expense of others" (Kogut & Short, p. 204).

The last 40 years of bold affirmative action initiatives by the federal government to correct the under representation in the workplace has resulted in obvious inequalities in minority hiring (Estlund, 2005; Kogut & Short, 2007). The overrepresentation of African Americans and the under representation of Hispanics in employment indicates the intent of equal employment opportunity in the federal government has not been fulfilled (Estlund; Kogut & Short; Sorenson, 2004). The federal government's quest to achieve workplace equality has resulted in affirmative action initiatives that favor some minority groups over others. The original purpose of affirmative action laws was to provide equal employment opportunities for African Americans (Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007; Kogut & Short). The

original intent may explain the federal government's present day interest on African American population to the disservice of other underrepresented groups (Kogut & Short).

When diversity initiatives or affirmative action programs are implemented to redress past documented workplace injustices the outcome is the creation of unwarranted racial quotas (Jones, 2007; MacGillivray, Beecher, & Golden, 2007). Critics argue that racial quotas only seek to address discrimination by providing preferential treatment to certain classes of individuals. The elimination of workplace discrimination is better addressed through the U.S. legal systems that effectively prohibit discrimination of any type (Jones).

An additional disadvantage of diversity in the workplace includes the undermining of individual and personal accountability because a group can be treated as the standard without regard to the individual (Jones, 2007; Kogut & Short, 2007). Curseu (2005) noted that researchers have indicated that individuals, as group members, with dissimilar backgrounds convert and act on information differently, and as a result, performance may be substandard. Critics contended that diversity based on race and gender may not produce the intellectual diverse capacity sought, diversity should also be valued at the intellectual capacity (Jones; Kogut & Short).

Workplace Diversity

In achieving workplace diversity, a standard approach will not work for every organization, but specific parameters are necessary to engender an environment conducive to diversity success (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Harrison & Klein, 2007; Tetteh, 2008). Important factors to consider in workplace diversity are diversity awareness, diversity management, creating acceptance in diversity of cultures, preparing for organizational challenges, and training (Marques, 2007; Kravitz, 2008; Tetteh). Today's diversity efforts

go beyond gender and race (ASSE, 2008). Leaders must demonstrate sensitivity toward the different cultural behaviors, religions, individual abilities and disabilities, social classes, sexual orientation, and understand how history has shaped generations of people (ASSE; Okech & Rubel, 2007). The successful diversity effort will augment the sharing of information and induce favorable cultural receptiveness throughout the organization (Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Tetteh).

Diversity Awareness and Receptiveness

When organizations learn to embrace diversity, the result is a greater understanding and respect of individual differences (ASSE, 2008). In order for individuals to embrace and become receptive toward diversity, individuals must first become aware of their own biases, prejudices, and selective stereotypes (Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Swanson, 2004). An honest self-assessment combined with peer feedback is important in the self-examination process (Swanson). Individuals are often surprised to discover how their actions, behaviors, and choices are perceived by others (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Lopez-Rocha; Swanson). The individual perceptions affect interactions with other individuals, teams, groups, and the organization (ASSE).

The purpose of diversity awareness is to change an individual's behavior, beliefs, emotions, and attitudes toward differences in others (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). A positive behavioral change will lead to receptiveness of the diversity an individual will experience. Swanson (2004) explained that once individuals learn how their behaviors, actions, and choices are perceived by others, a leader must then move the organization to focus on the similarities each individual has as organizational agents. When the organization learns to accept the commonalities between individuals a

process of evolution unfolds that will produce effective bonds of tolerance, appreciation, compassion, and companionship (Sue et al., 2007; Swanson). A diversity receptive leader can help individuals become receptive to diversity through conceptualization of diversity issues (Okech & Rubel, 2007; Rubel & Okech, 2006).

Conceptualization of diversity issues develops skills that increase diversity awareness by providing an understanding of an individual's experience, demands, and performance within a group (Rubel & Okech, 2006; Swanson, 2004). Conceptualization skills assist leaders in understanding how relationships are affected by diversity within a group, member communication, and performance. The awareness is further enhanced by knowledge of how world events and perspectives, oppressive history, and the development of identities affect relationships (Okech & Rubel, 2007; Sanchez & Medkik, 2004). Other factors that have a direct affect on relationship awareness are the perceptions of how one social or cultural group view others, communication styles, and language barriers (Okech & Rubel; Singh & Hynie, 2008; Tetteh, 2008).

Resistance to diversity is often centered on established bitterness, biased behaviors, and cultural idiosyncrasies (Singh & Hynie, 2008; Swanson, 2004; Tetteh, 2008). The expression of multiple cultures in one setting, without receptivity, awareness, and sensitivity to diversity, invites animosities where the true cause of disharmony becomes evident (Okech & Rubel, 2007; Swanson). Self-awareness increases an individual's ability to preserve diverse perspectives without passing judgments on individuals or groups (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004; Singh & Hynie; Swanson). Increased awareness promotes the selection of outcomes that mutually benefit the participants involved in the interaction (Konrad, 2006; Swanson). The absence of diversity awareness preserves cultural stereotypes, prejudices,

and biases that serve to marginalize individuals and groups (Marques, 2007; Okech & Rubel).

Diversity Management

The future demographic shape of the workforce will be even more diverse in race, culture, and ethnicity, extending the demand for effective diversity management (Forbes, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Singh & Hynie, 2008). Many scholars agree that diversity management is the most crucial component that will decide the survivability of organizations in the present century (Forbes; Swanson; Tetteh, 2008). Effectively managing diversity not only complies with state and federal laws but also maximizes the communication and synergy between individuals from all backgrounds (Forbes; Lopez-Rocha, 2006). To avoid adverse conclusions in communication and cooperation between individuals diversity management entails the development of supportive organizational structures, targeted approaches, and the creation of an equitable work environment for all (Sanchez & Medkik, 2004; Tetteh, 2008).

Failure to organize diversity management approaches can produce adverse conditions that will extinguish workforce harmony (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Forbes, 2008; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik & Roberson, 2008). Effective diversity management can be achieved using an approach that identifies and recognizes differences, implements appropriate actions for receptivity of differences, and advances the progress made in diversity efforts (Pitts, 2009; Tetteh, 2008). Scholars and practitioners include additional factors such as accountability; leadership support; employee commitment; organizational practice and processes integration with diversity initiatives; and establishing a link between diversity and performance (Ford, 2007; Tetteh). The

external customer base is affected when the internal organizational harmony is disrupted because of the negative perceptions of diversity (Forbes; Ford, Pitts). The organization will have difficulty meeting and exceeding the external client's demands when the organizational participants are warring with each other (Forbes).

Diversity management varies from affirmative action, equal employment opportunity (EEO), and quota systems because diversity management is based on knowledge and practice, instead of the law (Pitts, 2009; Tetteh, 2008). Diversity management is about the daily decisions made by management, and the programs and policies that could serve a diverse workforce to ensure equality and fair treatment (Ford, 2007; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Pitts). Diversity management commitment has to be integrated into the organizational strategic plan to promote diversity (Forbes, 2008; Ford). Executive and senior leaders can promote the case for diversity throughout the organization by establishing model behaviors, making diversity training a requirement, and create mentoring programs aimed at improving collaboration (Ford; Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008).

Diversity management can be strengthened in the recruitment effort (Newman & Lyon, 2009; Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008). Recruitment efforts designed to attract minority applicants may increase the minority applicant pool but will also create a pool of candidates unqualified or disinterested candidates (Newman & Lyon; Tetteh, 2008). Framing a job a certain manner may increase the prospects of increasing targeted recruitment when the available position is described in a way that attracts candidates with certain qualities (Ford, 2009; Newman & Lyon). Targeted recruitment efforts have the potential to increase comparatively the abilities of minority-based groups when the recruitment effort includes trait- and aptitude-based qualifications (Ford, 2007; Newman &

Lyon). Researchers have found that hiring practices that target minority groups have a positive correlation with perception and support of organizational diversity efforts (Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008).

To advance diversity management HR professionals must improve organizational programs, policies, and diversity efforts to eradicate potential biases, barriers, and challenges for an inclusive workforce (Ricaud, 2006; Tetteh, 2008). The HR expert must identify organizational diversity champions and network outside of the organization with other HR professionals to discover innovative approaches to diversity management (Pless & Maak, 2004; Tetteh). The HR professionals should be a leader-partner in the diversity effort while the senior leadership guides, set the tone and vision, and priorities of the diversity objective (Ford, 2009). The HR professional can assist in assigning the senior leadership the defining purpose and responsibilities of managing diversity (Tetteh). Successful implementation of a diversity management effort includes constant communication, adaptability to change, recognizing needed action, and the willingness to invest in resources to manage and permeate diversity throughout the organization (ASSE, 2008).

Creating a Diverse Culture

Economic survival in the global business environment is dependent on organizations understanding and being receptive to the cultural diversities among the organizational members and external clients (Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Ricaud, 2006). True changes in culture occur when senior leadership evaluates organizational behavior and creates needed changes in organizational relationships (Raso, 2006; Tetteh, 2008). Internal auditors assigned to understand and measure significance, elements, and hazards of culture offer the organization a unique opportunity to establish cultural auditing as a toll for improvement

of cultural diversity (Ricaud).

Discussion on culture centers on four distinct areas: language, religion, customs, and politics (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Harrison & Klein, 2007; Okech & Rubel, 2007; Ricaud, 2006). The four distinct areas offer opportunities as well as potential risks that internal auditors need to evaluate in detail (Ricaud). A cultural language barrier, where an individual may lack skill in the predominant language spoken in an area, may be the cause of an individual or customer being rejected (Ricaud; Swanson, 2004). Internal auditors can evaluate more closely the effects of language on business operations and workforce inclusiveness (Kogut & Short, 2007; Ricaud).

Religion and customs are sensitive and diverse areas where internal auditors need to evaluate the organization's practice and principles to assess levels of sensitivity, compliance, and risks associated with current policies (Marques, 2007; Ricaud, 2006). Political tensions between countries may materialize at the workplace between employees of different nationalities (Kravitz, 2008; Ricaud). The internal auditor should diagnose the imminent risk for animosity and inform the leadership of the risk of not addressing political tensions taken to the workplace (Ricaud). The internal auditor will have to assess the complete organization structure, corporate mindset, and receptivity to diversity in the business and social environment (Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Ricaud).

The creation of a culture of inclusiveness starts with recognition; individuals want to be recognized and respected for whom they are and honored for their achievements (Pless & Maak, 2004). Mutual recognition is one of the more important standards of coexistence because when individual needs are met recognition and acceptance of cultural diversity follows (ASSE; Pless & Maak). Raso (2006) posited that the creation of a diverse culture

also can be supported through training, education, and through opportunities for cultural learning by celebrating cultural differences. A culture of inclusiveness rests on the recognition of differences while seeking commonalities between individuals (Pless & Maak; Sue et al., 2007).

Recognition raises awareness to differences but leaders must shape the diverse culture through a vision of inclusiveness through policies, programs, and HR processes (Pless & Maak, 2004; Raso, 2006; Ricaud, 2006). The organizational diversity climate is the combined employee perception of organizational practices that establish diversity and fair treatment as a priority (Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley, 2008). The organizational climate related to diversity is an association between the organization diversity demographic and employee perceptions of diversity (McKay & Avery, 2006; Pugh, Dietz, Brief, & Wiley; Roberson & Stevens, 2006). To reshape the diversity climate a change in culture is needed that incorporates a vision that rethinks and adapts management concepts, processes, and codes of conduct to the realities of diversity (Pless & Maak).

Organizational Challenges

Changes in U.S. population demographics offer managers workplace opportunities and dilemmas (Lopez-Rocha, 2006). The increase in U.S. workforce minority population makes diversity a reality that must be dealt with appropriately. Today's workforce is more diverse that ever before and the population demographic statistics demonstrate the trend toward a more diverse workforce demographic that will increase significantly (O'Leary & Weathington, 2006). Unfortunately, the promise of workforce diversity is often denied without regard to the value diversity brings to the workplace, community, and society (Lopez-Rocha). Creating and sustaining a diverse culture is a challenging endeavor

that demands extensive commitment as does all diversity initiatives (Pless & Maak, 2004).

One challenge to diversity is the oversimplification of diversity. Often time employers decline to recognize the diversity dimensions and the impact to employees' attitudes, behavior, and productivity (Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Rubel & Okech, 2006). The oversimplification is grounded on the perception that all employees are equals and all deserve equal treatment; a "one size fits all" approach to diversity will not assimilate employees into the general organizational culture (Lopez-Rocha; Okech & Rubel, 2007). The cognizance of the benefit of diversity will require a unifying course of action that begins with a recognizing differences and developing an inclusive framework (Pless & Maak).

Assimilation presents another challenge to diversity in that assimilation is only one means to embrace diversity and should not be considered that only remedy for a diverse workforce (Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Swanson, 2004). In assimilation, dominant groups often force others to adapt and this translates into workplace disorientation, rejection, segregation, and apprehensions (Lopez-Rocha; Marques, 2007; Pless & Maak, 2004). When the dominant group observes the behavior of the diverse group, the dominant group will believe that the diverse group is unqualified to accomplish goals (Lopez-Rocha).

Implementing diversity efforts will give rise to cultural contention and animosity related to a deficiency in understanding and knowledge of cultural differences (Lope-Rocha, 2006; Pless & Maak, 2004). The understanding of other cultures and groups starts with individual self-awareness of one's attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, and customs (Forbes, 2008; Lopez-Rocha; Pitts, 2009; Pless & Maak). Insufficient knowledge and understanding of cultural differences may lead to biases, prejudices, and stereotypes that when combined

with authority and power often produces discriminatory behaviors and actions (Lopez-Rocha; Pitts).

Generational diversity presents challenges to organizations as leaders identify the need for organizational training that addresses intergenerational diversity among the workforce (Bartley, Ladd, & Morris, 2007; Bell & Narz, 2007). The challenge for leaders and HR professionals is bridging the generational rifts while expanding awareness about the generational diverse workforce (Bartley, Ladd, & Morris; Bell & Narz; Kyles, 2005). Older workers who are more experienced are working with younger but more technology inclined employees, all come to the workplace with different socioeconomic and political ideologies (Bartley, Ladd, & Morris; Kyles). Many of the generational differences are grounded on ethical and developmental distinctions that are influenced by socioeconomic changes and advances in technology (Bartley, Ladd, & Morris; Yang & Guy, 2006).

The Similarity-Attraction theory (Newcomb, 1961) predicts that people with similar values, beliefs, and attitudes assist the progress of interpersonal relationships with people who are the same, and vice versa (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Konrad, 2006; Mannix & Neale, 2005). Similarity and subsequent attraction strengthen each other and create a burden on receptivity and equality (Mannix & Neale). Newcomb's theory also professed that people, in general, will restrain from communicating with individuals they disfavor or those with differing views or perceptions (De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill, 2007; Hite & McDonald, 2006; Mannix & Neale). Newcomb's theory may pose a serious challenge to organizations if leaders cannot transcend the affinity that similar groups feel for each other and become receptive toward diversity.

Diversity Training

One of the most common interventions in diversity initiatives that seek to bring awareness and sensitivity to the workforce is training (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). The increased change to the population and workforce demographic creates opportunities and challenges for leaders that can be addressed through diversity training and education (Bell & Kravitz, 2008). The challenge for trainers will be to present the diversity training in a manner that maximizes diversity awareness because diversity is complex and has many different manifestations (Bell & Kravitz; Pendry, Driscoll & Field, 2007). Diversity education and training is effective in increasing awareness and modifying behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions related to diversity (Kulik & Roberson).

Diversity education and training interventions are available in many delivery methods. Individuals and groups can be trained through lectures, webinars, role-playing exercises, and panel discussions (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). Trained organizational members in diversity are more receptive to solicit information and opinions from diverse individuals, increasing organizational performance (Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik & Roberson). Managers trained in diversity and who have a receptive diversity attitude not only employ and promote diverse individuals but also base decisions with upper management on diversity (Kulik & Roberson; Pendry, Driscoll & Field, 2007). Organizational participants who display a receptive attitude in diversity may create a meaningful diversity climate that engenders commitment and inclusiveness toward the diverse workforce (McKay et al., 2007).

The central objective in many diversity education and training programs is to instill individual and group change in attitudes, behaviors, knowledge, and skills (Kulik &

Roberson, 2008). The goals intend to increase awareness about individual and group diversity, circulate information related to current issues and policies, and shape attitudes to improve the culture (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Pendry, Driscoll & Field, 2007). The intent among the diversity training programs may be the same but the results may vary in profoundness and worth because of the complexity of changing behaviors (Hite & McDonald; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007). Executing diversity training well can provide workforce and business benefits but deficient execution may beget complications that may take years to conquer (Hite & McDonald; McKay et al, 2007).

A research study conducted by Holladay and Quiňones (2008) demonstrated that training framework and who presents the training does matter in trainee reaction and learning about diversity. Holladay and Quiňones findings indicated that training centered on similarities generated advantageous results such as reduced adverse reactions and enhanced conflict management actions. The philosophy of diversity training is to teach inclusiveness of all but by concentrating on the domain of differences the training programs may be imparting knowledge on exclusion instead (Stewart, Crary & Humberd, 2008). Diversity training efforts have five components that ensure success, leadership support, assessment needs, trainer qualifications, alignment of management process to support training, and subsequent follow-up and evaluation (Hite & McDonald, 2006).

Awareness training is a necessary part of diversity training but the knowledge and intuitiveness acquired does not convert to implemental skills for training participants (De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill, 2007; Hite & McDonald, 2006). Training not handled properly can be the cause of the awareness focus reinforcing dissimilarities, segregation, and prejudices because unqualified trainers may accuse majority-training participants for

diversity issues (Hite & McDonald; Kulik & Roberson, 2008). Trainers who effectively present diversity training, coupled with an organization that effectively manages and supports the diversity effort reap the many benefits of diversity (De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill, 2007; Holladay & Quiňones, 2008). Some of the benefits gained are in recruitment, innovation, reduced turnover, adapting to fluid market conditions, and entry into under-explored markets (De Meuse, Hostager, & O'Neill)

For diversity training seriousness to be reinforced, it must become a frequent organizational occurrence rather than a mandatory, compressed, and short-lived event as given in some organizations (Hite & McDonald, 2006; Holladay & Quiňones, 2008). As the diversity effort permeates throughout an organization, many organizations are merging diversity subjects into other training such as leadership, sales, team building, and conflict management training courses (Anand & Winters, 2008; Holladay & Quiňones). Diversity training is being incorporated into global operations for some organizations, adapting the subject matter to fit the country where the training if offered (Anand & Winters; Stewart, Crary & Humberd, 2008). Diversity courses in the past incorporated many diversity subject into a single course, thereby addressing the complexities of diversity on a superficial level (Anand & Winters).

Many organizations are realizing that to build diversity skill, separating diversity subjects into separate courses fosters a profound learning experience (Anand & Winters). Before a training course begins, trainers need to clarify expectations to involve trainees in an interactive course and explore all trainee perspective including conflicting views (Stewart, Crary & Humberd, 2008). Organizations leading in the field of diversity are designing different learning approaches tailored to specific ranks of leadership and

functional units within the organization (Anand & Winters, 2008; Hite & McDonald, 2006). The "one-size fits all" approach does not produce the desired training effect. Organizations realize that a desired diverse outcome of training is achieved through training in which diversity and inclusion change behavior, attitudes, perceptions, and prejudices (Anand & Winters; De Meuse, Hostager, & O'Neill, 2007).

Conclusion

The literature review revealed that diversity and emotional intelligence have been researched extensively over the last decades. Much of the research in EI demonstrates a positive relationship between leadership success and high ratings in EI (Hayashi, 2004; Landale, 2007; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). EI has been recognized as a vital element of effective leadership (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman et al., 2001; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Sen, 2008). However, past studies conducted have not addressed the relationship between EI and DR and the effects on effective leadership.

The research in diversity awareness and diversity receptivity indicates that leaders who rate high in diversity awareness and diversity receptivity can successfully lead a diverse workforce (Gaze, 2003; Roberge, 2007; Usowicz, 2008). The interest in EI has been increasing via supported research studies and applicability in organization settings, but the research available that adequately connects DR and EI is limited. To increase the body of knowledge on the dynamics of the relationship between EI and DR, the current study examined if there was a relationship between EI and DR.

Other conclusions found in the literature concerning EI revealed that leaders who exhibited higher levels of EI have a social skill proficiency that allows the leader to have sensitivity in cross-cultural relationships (Sen, 2008). The research on diversity indicates

that when DR occurs people learn to embrace the differences (e.g., religion, cultures, ethnicity, disability, race, and sexual orientation) that each individual can bring to the workplace (Singh & Hynie, 2008). Leadership success in both diversity and EI is therefore, founded on the leaders' ability to relate to people.

Summary

According to Rosete and Ciarrochi (2005), leaders who rated higher in emotional intelligence develop effective, affective, and lasting relationships with other groups and individuals. The current research on emotional intelligence infers that individuals higher on the emotional intelligence scale display a higher degree of social competence; are involved in trusting relationships; and are more sensitive to interactions between themselves and other groups or individuals (Brackett et al., 2006; Brackett, Warner, & Bosco, 2005; Lopes et al., 2004; Lopes, Salovey, Côté, & Beers, 2005). Lower levels of emotional intelligence can also predict increased relationship conflict and the inability or failure to meet social or cultural expectations (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008). EI can be strengthened through training by engendering self-awareness, creating a vision of clarity, and fostering behaviors that are aligned with purpose, goals, and values (Weis & Arnesen, 2007). EI training and education provides a mechanism for removing layers of emotional biases that prevent the development of EI (Weis & Arnesen).

Researchers believe that DR is the first step in achieving a more profound understanding of the individual differences by reducing stereotypes; increasing self-awareness; brings employees and managers together for a common organizational cause (Lopez-Rocha, 2006). Diversity awareness will provide organizational members with the insight needed to embrace the differences of the multicultural organization (Lopez-Rocha,

2006). Diversity is a reality based on the assimilation of divergent cultural experiences that must be used a capability in achieving effectiveness at an individual and organizational level (Lopez-Rocha).

Diversity also comes with a host of challenges for any organization (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Estlund, 2005). Group diversity is more prone to experience controversy, complicate the communication process, and have reduced unite cohesion than do homogenous groups (Flores & Rodriguez, 2006; Hoover, Will, & Milligan, 2007). Organizational core values may be difficult to manage when the values conflict with the numerous religions and cultures that exist today (MacGillivray, Beecher, & Golden, 2007). Other researchers contended that diversity initiatives have failed to produce an appropriate distribution of the underrepresented in organizations (Estlund; Jones, 2007; Kogut & Short, 2007). To achieve positive workplace diversity, a standard approach will not work for every organization, there has to be specific parameters in place that are necessary to engender an environment conducive to diversity success (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Harrison & Klein, 2007; Tetteh, 2008).

Chapter 2 presented a historical and theoretical overview of diversity and EI literature available. Chapter 3 describes the rationale for research method and design appropriateness selected for this study. A discussion on the details of the study population, validity and reliability, and research questions was addressed in chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3: METHOD

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to examine the relationship between a leader's EI and diversity receptiveness (DR). The current study was conducted on various leadership ranks within a federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The quantitative research method selected for the current study was most suitable because the research data explained, through statistical evaluation, the strength of the relationship between EI and DR. A qualitative study would have focused more on discovery without identifying the strengths ingrained within the relationship. The descriptive research design focused on identifying and examining the relationship of the variables rather than examining by "testing the impact of activities or materials" (Creswell, 2008, p. 60).

An abundance of studies on EI exists (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Brown & Moshavi, 2005; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Hartley, 2004; Pauchant, 2005) and even more studies on diversity (Bohara, 2007; James, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Marques; O'Leary & Weathington, 2006; Weigand, 2007). The majority of the studies are related to managing people from either a diversity perspective or a leader's EI ability (Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee; James; Konrad; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005). Few existing studies have tied EI and diversity together (Ashkanasy, 2002; Litvin & Betters-Read, 2005; Robertson, 2007; Schyns & Meindel 2006).

The problem is that by not linking EI and diversity on one training platform, organizations may continue to spend billions of training dollars without a significant return on investment. Organizations might be able to save training money by taking advantage of any links between EI/EQ and diversity. In 2008, the ASTD reported, "nearly seven out of

10 respondents are, to a high or very high extent, looking for ways to become more efficient at delivering learning" (Laff, 2008, p. 11).

Connecting EI and DR may enhance leadership. Leaders who realize the importance of EI are in a better position to accept the importance that the diverse workplace can bring to the organization (Fisher et al., 2005; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008; Scott-Ladd & Chan, 2004; Sen, 2008). Included in this chapter is an overview of the research method and design appropriateness. Discussion on population, sampling frame, survey instruments, data collection procedures and rationale, reliability, internal and external validity, and statistical analysis are also included.

<div align="center">Research Method and Design Appropriateness</div>

The current study used a quantitative descriptive correlational research design that examined the relationship between EI and DR. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) explained that quantitative descriptive research designs best serve "either identifying the characteristics of an observed phenomenon or exploring possible correlations among two or more phenomena," (p. 179). The data gathered, using surveys, was evaluated using commercial statistical software to aid in the assessment of the relationship between EI and DR. The two survey tools that were administered to the participating federal government agency employees were the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) (See Appendix A) and the Receptivity for Diversity Survey (Gaze, 2003) (See Appendix B). For simplicity and ease in administration, the two surveys were combined into a single survey instrument (See Appendix C).

Research Method Appropriateness

The research method selected for the current study was quantitative because the

research questions could be answered through a regulated and logically precise method. Quantitative research allows the gathering of numerical data, variable measurement, and incorporates statistical analysis to evaluate and establish hypotheses from the collected data (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). The current study had specific research questions focused on measuring and describing the relationship between EI and DR and the quantitative method was best suited for that purpose (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). The intent of the current study was to examine the relationship of variables and quantitative research is used for "testing objective theories by examining the relationships among variables" (Creswell, 2008, p. 4).

Qualitative research attempts to define, discern, and provide an explanation to questions concerning the character of a circumstance from the perspective of the studied participants (Cassell & Symon, 2006; Studer, 2006). Qualitative research involves open-ended questions that prove to be of value for examining participant's perception and provides a detailed comprehension of the unknowns in a phenomenon studied (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). For the purpose of the current study qualitative research was not appropriate. Qualitative research would not have provided answers to the explicit, definite, and focused questions concerning relationships of variables being sought; quantitative research does (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). Since a mixed method approach incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods, the approach would have also been deemed inappropriate as well.

Research Design Appropriateness

The purpose of the current study was to examine the relationship between a leader's EI and DR within various leadership ranks. The correlational design was appropriate for the

research study because through quantitative analysis the relationship among variables is appropriately appraised (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). The correlational design describes the relationship and determines how one or more of the relationship variables can influence another (Bernard, 2006; Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005).

Howell (2007) contended that correlational studies are suited for determining the strength of the investigated relationships between variables. The research questions in the current study were descriptive and structured surveys were used to facilitate the objective statistical evaluation of data collected. The nature of the study supports a quantitative, correlational research method and design.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The current study proposed that managers with higher levels of EI would exhibit higher receptiveness to diversity. The current study proposed that as the level of EI increased, so too would the level of receptiveness to diversity. Using the above stated contentions led to the following primary research question:

R1: How do levels of EI to relate to DR for leaders in a U.S. government transportation agency?

The study also examined whether the two levels of management or the individual demographic characteristics (race, age, and gender) reflected any changes in the relationship between EI and diversity awareness. The examination of the demographic characteristics led to the following additional research questions:

R2: What is the relationship between EI and DR when using mid-level managers versus senior managers as an examining factor?

R3: What is the relationship between EI and DR when using the population demographics (age, race, and gender) as examining factors?

Based on the research questions, the hypotheses for the research were developed:

H1_0: There is no relationship or a negative relationship between levels of EI and DR in leaders.

H1: There is a positive relationship between levels of EI and DR in leaders.

H2_0: There is no difference in the relationship between levels of EI and DR in mid-level managers and senior managers.

H2: There is a significant difference in the relationship between levels of EI and DR in senior managers versus mid-level managers.

No hypotheses were set forth for R3. The demographic factors of age, race, and gender were used to explore if any significant differences existed. There were no a priori assumptions that any differences would be detected.

Population and Sampling

The population for the current study was a large federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The agency is a sub-agency within the U.S. Department of Transportation and employs more than 1000 employees nationwide. The agency's mission is to save lives by reducing the number of crashes, injuries, and fatalities related to commercial motor vehicles. To participate in the study, the members of the population must have been in GS-13 to Senior Executive Service (SES) pay grade positions and worked in Washington, D.C. The study participants were asked to rate themselves in EI and DR.

The survey instrument was sent via email to 190 employee positions and 69 participants responded by completing the surveys. Selection was based on pay grade

position that ranged from the GS-13 to Senior Executive Service (SES). The positions
included were GS-13 Program Specialist, GS-14 Team Lead, GS-15 Division Chiefs, SES
Office Directors, SES Associate Administrators, and other Senior Executive Service
positions. The participants were all full-time employees from various departments, such as
administration, policy and program development, research and information technology,
program delivery, field operations, human capital, chief counsel, finance and budget, and
communications.

Political appointees were excluded from the sample population. Civil service
employees normally have extensive experience within government service. Those achieving
the mid-level and senior management positions in this study have been promoted through
the system, thereby having somewhat similar employment histories and experiences.
Political appointees normally do not have the same history and experiences.

The sampling was not a random selection because the entire eligible population was
selected. The population was selected based on managerial and leadership position. The GS-
13 positions were middle management positions and along with the GS-14 position served
to examine comparatively EI and DR with the senior leadership ranks (GS-15 and SES).
The administered surveys discerned distinctions in race, age, gender, and leadership
position.

With the small total population available, the sample size necessary for statistical
significance was an issue. Required sample size was influenced by the degree of precision
desired, including confidence level and confidence interval, and the expected dispersion of
responses (Cooper & Schindler, 2005). When assessing a sample size for a specific level of
accuracy, the expected dispersion is set at 50% (0.5). Using the formula to determine the

sample size of a proportion (Lind, et al., 2008), it was estimated 127 surveys needed to be returned for results to be significant at $a = .05$ with a confidence interval of ±5. With a population of 190 employees and the response rate of 69 employees completing the surveys, the confidence interval was 9.44.

<div align="center">Data Collection Procedures and Rationale</div>

Two survey instruments, the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) and the Receptivity for Diversity survey (Gaze, 2003), were consolidated into a single survey instrument that was administered to a sample population of a federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The study instruments were hosted by Survey Monkey. Participants who chose to participate were provided an URL link via e-mail to link the participants to the website for an electronic consent form and access to the surveys. A deadline for response was imposed because of the time constraints in completing the research.

All data electronically collected from the survey was downloaded from a host site and transferred into a Microsoft® Excel spreadsheet. The data was imported to PASW for Windows for analysis. Using web-based surveys instruments produces fewer coding discrepancies because the process of hand scribing data is removed (Gottleib, 2006). Since everyone in the population uses computers in the performance of daily work, the expectation was that using a web-based survey would make it easier for the participants to access the survey and enhance the chances for full participation.

The participating agency agreed to participate in the study; however, the respondents were prohibited from using work hours or government furnished equipment to respond to the survey. Anyone wishing to participate in the study had to do so from their homes using

their own personal computers. Many potential participants expressed that such a restriction complicated the effort to complete the survey because at home there were many distractions.

Another potential hindrance to participation was that the researcher was prohibited from using government email to send out the survey invitations to participants. The researcher created a private email account that was used to invite participants to participate in the study. Because many potential participants did not recognize the email address inviting them to participate in the study, they subsequently deleted the email thinking it was spam email.

Informed Consent, Confidentiality, and Geographic Location

All proposed study participants were contacted via e-mail requesting their participation in the study. The email contained general information about the research study and provided an URL address link for the web-hosted survey. Once participants accessed the website via the furnished link, the participants were taken to the Informed Consent form page (See Appendix D).

The participants were presented with an informed consent statement and a query box requiring active acceptance or declination. The consent agreement explained that acknowledgement of the agreement must be completed prior to accessing the survey. The consent agreement explained that participation was voluntary, identity would be kept anonymous, and that only the researcher had access to the data. Those who acknowledged agreement via the query option were granted access to the electronic survey site sponsored by SurveyMonkey.

Those who did not accept were blocked from continuing. SurveyMonkey's privacy policy guaranteed that the data collected through surveys would not be used by SurveyMonkey. The data collected was kept private and confidential. SurveyMonkey protects the data on their servers through digital surveillance equipment that performs network security audits weekly and Hackersafe scans daily (SurveyMonkey, 2008).

Permission to use the premises and conduct the study was granted by the Acting Chief Safety Officer of the participating federal agency (See Appendix E). To ensure confidentiality, no effort was made to link participant answers to any participant, with the exception of data evaluation purposes. The survey instruments did not collect personal descriptors that could be used to identify study participants.

Every attempt was made to preserve study participant's confidentiality at all times. All data gathered was secured in a locked cabinet during and after the completion of the research. Ensuring confidentiality encourages participant honesty in responding to the survey questions (Stephens, 2007).

The surveys were administered through an internet-based website. Electronic administration of the surveys ensures greater anonymity and increases participant confidence because participants may perceive that handwritten responses may lead to being identified (Gottlieb, 2006). All data collected through the surveys will be retained and secured for period of 3 years after which it will be destroyed.

The geographic location of the study population was Washington D.C. and the participant organization is a sub-agency of the U.S. Department of Transportation. The federal agency employs approximately 1000 employees nationwide but the sample study population was composed of only the senior leaders working in Washington, D.C. The

geographic location presented an advantage to the researcher because of daily access to the premises and the opportunity for face-to-face contact with the study participants, if questions arise.

<div align="center">Instrumentation</div>

Two validated survey instruments were used to form the single instrument that was used to collect the data for the current study. The Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) (Schutte et al., 1998) was administered to measure participants' emotional intelligence level. Permission to use the EIS was granted by Dr. Schutte (See Appendix F).

The Receptivity for Diversity Survey, originally developed by Soni (2000) and modified by Gaze (2003), was administered to measure participant's receptivity toward diversity. The permission to use the modified Receptivity for Diversity Survey was granted by Dr. Gaze (See Appendix G). The study participants were asked to rate themselves on EI and DR. Other than consolidating the questions into a single instrument, the survey instruments used were not altered or modified from original content for the purpose of this study.

Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS)

The EIS, in other peer-reviewed sources known as the Assessing Emotions Scale, the Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test, or the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, is modeled after Salovey and Mayer's (1990) original EI assessment (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009). The EIS is a 33-item Likert-type scale self-report questionnaire that uses a five-point scale for scoring. The complete scale score is calculated by reversing a few scored items and adding all 33-item scores. Scores can range anywhere between 33 and 165 and a higher score indicates higher levels of EI (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar).

All items in the Likert-type scale survey have been classified under four EI factors identified by Ciarrochi, Chan, and Bajgar (2001). The four factors are perception of emotion, managing one's own emotions, managing others' emotions, and utilization of emotion (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar). A summary of the survey items that make up the survey instrument is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

The EIS Grouped into Four Subscales [Ciarrochi et al. (2001)]

Summary of Survey Questions	
Factor Subscale	Survey Item Number
Perception for Emotions	5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33
Managing Own Emotions	2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31
Managing Others' Emotions	1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30
Utilization of Emotions	6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27

The EIS was selected for this research study over other instruments because the instrument has been most commonly used in the research literature (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009) and could be used without cost. Many commercially available instruments, such as the Mayer Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test (MSCEIT) and The Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), were rejected because of survey length and high per-person fees charged for their use. Many studies indicated that the EIS scale instrument has worthy reliability and positive validity (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar). The EIS was appropriate for this study because it helped the researcher understand the elements of emotional management related to perceiving, understanding, regulating, and harnessing

emotions in the organizational setting (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar).

Receptivity for Diversity Survey

The other data collection instrument that was administered to the study participants is the Receptivity for Diversity survey. The Receptivity for Diversity survey is a 20-item Likert-type scale self-report questionnaire. Although other surveys exist, this survey was selected because it has been administered and validated with other federal agencies (Soni, 2000). The Receptivity for Diversity instrument was ideal for the current study because of its conciseness.

<center>Validity</center>

Validity relates to accuracy, measurement effectiveness, and confidence of the results. Leedy and Ormrod (2005) posited that validity is the confidence in the conclusions drawn that is justified in the collected data. Validity signifies that the results measured the intent and purpose of the study within the limitations of the study (Salkind, 2003).

Internal Validity

Internal validity is determined through the survey instrument and gauges the accuracy, confidence, and measurement effectiveness (Van Der Ark, 2005). The internal validity for the Emotional Intelligence Scale (EIS) has been confirmed in numerous studies and in different settings but all related to EI (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009). Researchers have found that the EIS is an appropriate instrument in the collection of data related to measuring EI in setting such as mental health, employment, and academic pursuits (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar).

The internal validity for the Receptivity for Diversity instrument is derived from its content. The survey instrument was developed as a means for measuring DR. The

instrument's content validity offers an acceptable core on which to construct a set of principles aimed at evaluating the instrument's validity and accuracy (Litwin, 1995). The Receptivity for Diversity instrument has been used within organizations of the federal government, such as the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) (Soni, 2000) and the U.S. Navy (Gaze, 2003).

External Validity

External validity is ascertained when generalization can be made of the research to include the applicability of the results to similar situations or populations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). Researchers have found that scores on the EIS were associated with emotional awareness, lucidity of emotions, and emotional mending (Bastian, Burns & Nettelbeck, 2005). Higher scores on the EIS are related with a lower degree of debilitating fatigue (Brown & Schutte, 2006), favorable organizational citizenship behaviors (Carmeli & Josman, 2006), and increased life well-being (Wing et al. 2006).

The EIS has been extensively administered by researchers to respondents from varying populations and the majority of sample population was comprised of adults with a range of ages (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009). The EIS has been extensively used in many studies related to EI and written about in over 200 publications (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar). The study has external validity because the EIS instrument specifically measures EI in a variety of disciplines. The external validity of the study has a proven foundation built by valid research, substantial literature review, and research method strategies tested in a variety of disciplines (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar).

The Receptivity for Diversity instrument was first tested in 1995 by Soni (2000). Soni developed and administered the instrument to the EPA for measuring the extent of DR

in relation to race and gender. The study by Gaze (2003) modified and expanded the scope of the Receptivity for Diversity instrument to measure the extent of DR on four separate races in the military.

The research conducted by Gaze expands on the knowledge of diversity but in a different organizational setting. The study has external validity because the Receptivity for Diversity instrument specifically has measured DR in several organizational settings. The external validity of the study has a solid foundation built by valid research, substantial literature review on diversity, and research method strategies tested in a federal government agency and the military.

<div align="center">Reliability</div>

The important elements in reliability are consistency (Cooper & Schindler, 2005) and trustworthiness (Neuman, 2005). Reliability indicates that if the instrument were used in comparable populations, related results would be gained (Neuman, 2005). Schutte et al. (1998) reported that the internal consistency of the EIS had a Cronbach's alpha value at .90. Numerous studies have reported similar Cronbach's alpha value with the EIS instrument (Schutte, Malouff & Bhullar, 2009). Alpha values from .70 and higher demonstrate high reliability, .51 to .69 moderate, and .50 and below show poor reliability (Salkind, 2003). Schutte et al. (1998) reported a two-week test-retest reliability of .78 for total scale scores using the EIS.

Soni (2000) reported high reliability using the Receptivity for Diversity instrument. Cronbach's alpha value for internal consistency was measure at .80 to .90. High reliability of the instrument is demonstrated when the alpha values range from .70 and higher (Salkind, 2003). The survey instrument developed by Soni (2000) and modified by Gaze

(2003) has been used to measure DR. The reliability of the Receptivity for Diversity survey instrument was proven through previous studies that have measured variables of study interest within DR (Soni; Gaze).

Data Analysis

Data analysis was accomplished using PASW (formerly SPSS) version 17 software. Descriptive statistics for all variables was generated and the samples were tested for normalcy and found to be normal. Simple linear regression was used to measure relationships and strengths of relationships. The ANOVA was used to assess similarity or differences in the findings for the identified categories, with any differences measured using independent sample t tests.

The demographic data consisted of leadership position, race, age, and gender. Descriptive statistics incorporated included frequency, mean, and standard deviation for continuous variable data. Descriptive statistics used to arrange data, explain data, and describe the tendency of a dispersion of scores (Salkind, 2003). The intent of this study was to determine if a correlation between EI and DR exists. To examine the relationship, three research questions were posed and two sets of hypotheses were tested.

R1 examined whether or not a relationship existed between EI and DR. The hypothesis for R1 was tested using correlation/regression analysis to determine the relationship between EI and DR. The data was first tested for normality, using descriptive statistics (skewness and kurtosis) and visual assessment. As the assumptions of normality were met, Pearson's r was used. Alpha was set at 0.05.

The hypotheses for R2 and the exploration of R3 were accomplished using ANOVA to assess if statistical differences existed on the results by the variables of leadership level

(R2) and by demographic or control variables (R3). ANOVA is an appropriate statistical analysis when the purpose of research is to assess if mean differences exist on one continuous dependent variable between two or more discrete independent groups (Lind et al, 2008). The ANOVA assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance/covariance matrices were assessed using the Kolmogorov Smirnov (KS) test for normality and Levene's test for homogeneity. The .05 level of significance was used.

<div align="center">Summary</div>

The goal of the quantitative descriptive correlational research study, using the Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte et al., 1998) and the Receptivity for Diversity survey (Gaze, 2003), was to investigate if a relationship existed between a leader's emotional intelligence and DR. The appropriateness of quantitative research methods for the current study was aligned with the intent of the study, which was to examine the relationship of variables. Quantitative research was used for "testing objective theories by examining the relationships among variables" (Creswell, 2008, p. 4). All 190 employees within the pay grade of GS-13 to SES level position in Washington, D.C. served as the population for the study.

Internet-based surveys were used to gather the data from the studied population. For simplicity, ease of use, and the perception of brevity, the two survey instruments were combined into one instrument to increase population participation. Research parameters were introduced to include informed consent, confidentiality, and geographic location. A discussion on validity and reliability centered on the appropriateness, consistency, and the trustworthiness of the results based on the instrument used.

A discussion and justification of the statistical descriptions, regression analysis, and ANOVA was included as evidence of appropriateness of the study. Two validated research instruments were used and proved the best instruments for the study. Chapter 4 describes a complete statistical evaluation of the current research study.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

The purpose of this quantitative correlational research study was to examine the relationship between leaders' EI and diversity receptiveness (DR). A federal government agency in Washington, D.C. was selected for this study. The study was performed on various mid-level and senior leadership positions within the agency selected. This chapter discusses descriptive demographic synopsis, data collection, data analysis, and a summary of key findings. The key findings are organized and evaluated by research question.

Demographics Synopsis

The population for the current study was a large federal government agency in Washington, D.C. The agency is a sub-agency within the U.S. Department of Transportation and employs over 1000 employees nationwide. The target participant population was selected based on pay grade position that ranged from the GS-13 to Senior Executive Service (SES).

A total of 190 employee positions in the mid-level to senior leadership ranks were eligible to participate but only 69 ($n = 69$) responses were received. Of the survey responses received, 17% were from GS-13, 24% from GS-14, 21% from GS-15, and 7% from SES positions (see Table 3). The responses received also indicated that 59.4% of the population was not in a supervisory position and 40.6% were (see Table 4).

Table 3

Position Grades

Position Grades			
Grade	*f*	*%*	*Cumulative %*
GS-13	17	24.6	24.6
GS-14	24	34.8	59.4
GS-15	21	30.4	89.9
SES	7	10.1	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Table 4

Supervisory Position

Supervisory Position			
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
No	41	59.4	59.4
Yes	28	40.6	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Further examination of the demographic data revealed that 46% of the respondents were White, followed by Black at 15%, Hispanic at 4%, mixed-race at 3%, and one respondent who did not answer for 1.4% (see Table 5). Male respondents accounted for 60.9% and female respondents accounted for 39.1% (see Table 6). The majority of responses were from White males.

Table 5

Race

	Race		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
No Answer	1	1.4	1.4
White	46	66.7	68.1
Black	15	21.7	89.9
Hispanic	4	5.8	95.7
Mixed	3	4.3	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Table 6

Gender

	Gender		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
Female	27	39.1	39.1
Male	42	60.9	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

As shown in Table 7, the education level for respondents was reported as, 4.3% with a High School degree, 5.8% with Associates, 37.7% with Bachelor's, 40.6% with Master's, and 11.6% with a Doctoral degree. Over 89% of the respondents had a Bachelor's or

advanced degree. The respondents ranged in age from 28 to 67 years. The median for age was 48 years and the median for years served with present agency was 6 years. The years with present agency ranged from less than one year to 36 years.

Table 7

Academic Degree

	Academic Degree		
	f	%	Cumulative %
High School	3	4.3	4.3
Associates	4	5.8	10.1
Bachelors	26	37.7	47.8
Masters	28	40.6	88.4
Doctoral	8	11.6	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

A demographic comparison of the studied population with the general population was not conducted. The size of the population available for the study was not sufficiently large to collect a broad sample for detailed analysis by demographic. The request of the additional demographic information from the participating federal agency fell beyond the time constraints of the study and was not available for comparison.

Data Collection

The target audience for the collection of data was 190 employees who worked for a sub-agency within the U.S. Department of Transportation in Washington, D.C. A total of 69

responses were received. Of the 69 employees who responded, only one respondent failed to provide complete demographic data. Using the formula to determine the sample size of a proportion (Lind, et al., 2008), it was estimated 127 surveys needed to be returned for results to be significant at $a = .05$ with a confidence interval of ±5.

A restriction placed upon the respondents by the participating agency may have hindered participation, leading to a response rate of 36%. The low response rate had no impact on the confidence level, which remained at 95% for the analysis; however, using the worst-case scenario formula (Lind et al., 2008), the confidence interval changed from ±5 to ±9.44. Confidence interval analysis of responses revealed no results with a confidence interval higher than the original desired ±5.

Data Analysis

Survey responses were downloaded from SurveyMonkey into an Excel spreadsheet and checked for input accuracy. The textual elements of the responses were removed, leaving only raw numerical data. The finalized Excel spreadsheet was imported into PASW (formerly SPSS) for Windows, Version 17. Analysis of missing data and error checking were conducted and discrepancies resolved.

Of the usable surveys, only one respondent failed to provide complete demographic data, choosing to leave race unanswered. This response was not used in the subsequent exploratory analysis of race. There were only eight instances of missing data in the survey section, with two responses being left blank by two individuals and one each by four other respondents. These missing elements were resolved by entering the numerical value for the mean response of the other participants (Schutte et al, 2009).

When the analysis of missing data was completed and the error correction activities were resolved, descriptive statistics were produced. Frequency and percentages for nominal (categorical/dichotomous) data, and means and standard deviations for continuous (interval/ratio) data were created. The examination of variance and skewness provided another opportunity for verification of errors in the data collection process. The descriptive statistics and frequency tables for the relevant data are included in Appendix I.

Findings

Research Question 1 (R1)

Research question 1 examined how levels of emotional intelligence (EI) are related to DR for leaders in a U.S. government transportation agency. The research question was based on the belief that individuals with higher levels of EI would also have higher levels of DR, thus the alternate hypothesis assumed there would be a positive relationship between levels of EI and DR in leaders.

Because R1 required an examination of the relationship between EI and DR, a regression analysis was performed to reveal dependence between variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2005; Creswell, 2005). The two data sets were examined and conditions of normality were met with skewness and kurtosis within tolerable limits. When conditions of normality are met, Likert-type scales "produce interval level data" (Cooper & Schindler, p. 339). The appropriate test was the standard regression analysis (Pearson's *r*). The descriptive statistics for the EI and DR data set for is shown in Table 8. The test results are depicted in Table 9 and Table 10. Figure 1 shows the visual relationship between the two variables.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for EI and DR for all Leaders

Description	*M*	*SD*	*N*
EI	132.67	15.73	69
DR	67.91	8.88	69

Table 9

Intercorrelations between EI and DR for all Leaders

Variable	EI	DR
Managers (*n* = 69)		
EI	-	.50**
DR	.50**	-

**$p < .01$

Table 10

Regression Summary for EI and DR (n = 69) for all Leaders

Variable	*B*	*SE B*	β
EI	0.28	0.06	0.50**

Note. $R^2 = .25$, adjusted $R^2 = .24$

**$p < .01$

$$y = 0.283\,x + 30.422$$
$$R^2 = 0.251$$
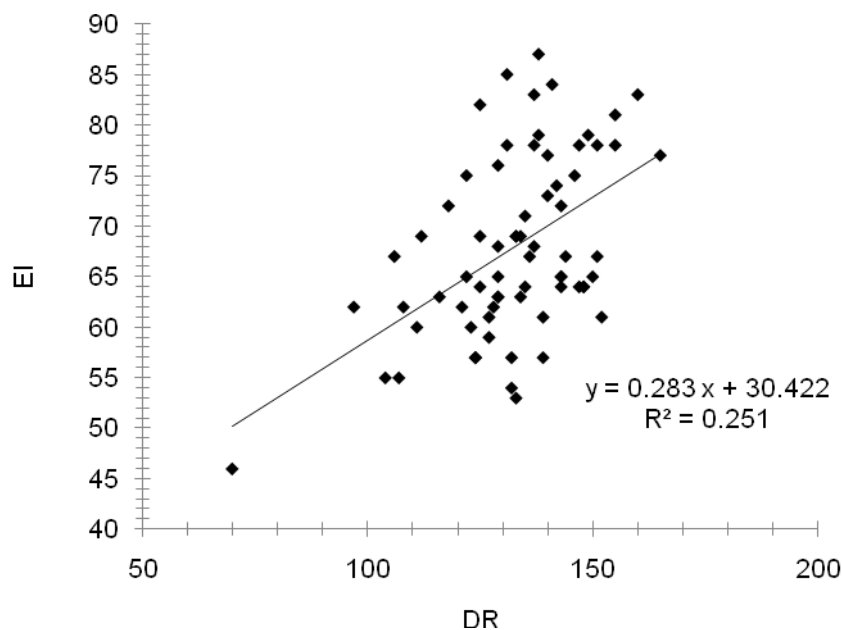
Figure 1. Linear relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and Diversity

Receptiveness (DR) for all leaders.

As show in the data and Figure 1, there was a moderately strong, direct, positive

relationship between EI and DR ($R = 0.50$, $p < .01$). The null hypothesis was rejected and

the alternate hypothesis accepted. A positive relationship existed between a manager's

emotional intelligence and the manager's DR.

Research Question 2 (R2)

Research Question 2 examined the relationship between EI and DR when using mid-

level managers versus senior managers as an examining factor. Based on assumptions

formed while reviewing the literature on both EI and DR, it was believed that as managers

progressed through the ranks, they would be exposed to more training in either or both of

the topics and they would need improved skills in both areas to be promoted to senior

levels. The assumtions led to the alternate hypothesis that there would be a significant

difference between middle managers and senior managers, with senior managers showing a strong relationship.

ANOVA was the primary statistical test used for the analysis. Since only large sample sizes render the ANOVA insensitive to violations of normality and equal variances (Lind, et al, 2008) the data sets were checked. The distributions appeared relatively homogenous in their variances. The skewness ratio was calculated for each group and was less than one for all; therefore, normality was assumed.

The initial test independently examined the relationship of the two managerial grade levels for the results of the EI test and the DR test. While not necessary to test the hypothesis, the analyses were conducted to ensure there were no differences in the relationship of managerial level to either EI or DR that might influence hypothesis testing. Levene's test for homogeneity of variances confirmed the variances for EI and DR were homogenous, $F(1, 67) = 0.25$, $p = .874$, for EI and $F(1, 67) = 0.63$, $p = .432$ for DR. Descriptive statistics are shown in Table 11, with the results for EI in Table 12 and the results for DR in Table 13.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for EI and DR by Managerial Level

Description	*M*	*SD*	*N*
EI			
Middle Manager	134.68	15.08	41
Senior Manager	129.71	16.48	28
Total	132.67	15.73	69
DR			
Middle Manager	67.29	8.30	41
Senior Manager	68.82	9.75	28
Total	67.91	8.88	69

Table 12

Analysis of Variance for EI by Managerial Level

Source	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	η^2_p	*p*
Between Groups	410.74	1	410.74	1.68	.024	.158
Within Groups	16422.59	67	245.11			
Total	16833.33	68				

Table 13

Analysis of Variance for DR by Managerial Level

Source	SS	df	MS	F	η^2_p	p
Between Groups	38.88	1	38.88	0.49	.007	.487
Within Groups	5326.60	67	79.50			
Total	5365.48	68				

As both EIS and the Diversity Scale use the same Likert-type measurement scale, the scores for EI and DR were standardized, then aggregated and averaged to create a single variable for analysis (Webb, 2009). Levene's test for homogeneity of variances confirmed homogeneity, $F(1, 67) = 0.03$, $p = .856$. The results of this analysis are shown in Table 14

Table 14

Analysis of Variance for Consolidated EI/DR by Managerial Level

Source	SS	df	MS	F	η^2_p	p
Between Groups	0.09	1	0.09	0.11	.002	.738
Within Groups	50.93	67	0.76			
Total	51.02	68				

As shown in the ANOVA results in Table 14, supported by the independent examinations of both EI and DR, with the obtained $F(1,67) = 0.11$, $p > .05$, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. No difference existed in the relationship between EI and DR based on managerial level.

Research Question 3 (R3)

Research Question 3 explored the relationship between EI and DR when using the population demographics of age, race, and gender as examining factors. This research question was prompted by a lack of discussion in the literature about relationships or differences between these factors and levels of emotional intelligence and levels of DR. No hypotheses were established for R3 as there were no a priori assumptions that any relationships or differences existed.

Age. The age of participants ranged from 28 through 67 years, with a mean of 47.84 years. The data consisted of one ratio level variable and one interval-level variable for each category examined. Conditions of normality were met with skewness and kurtosis both less than one; therefore the appropriate test was regression analysis (Pearson's *r*). Regression analysis revealed no significant differences between age and EI + DR, $r = 0.03$, $p > .05$. (Figure 2). No additional analysis of this factor was conducted.
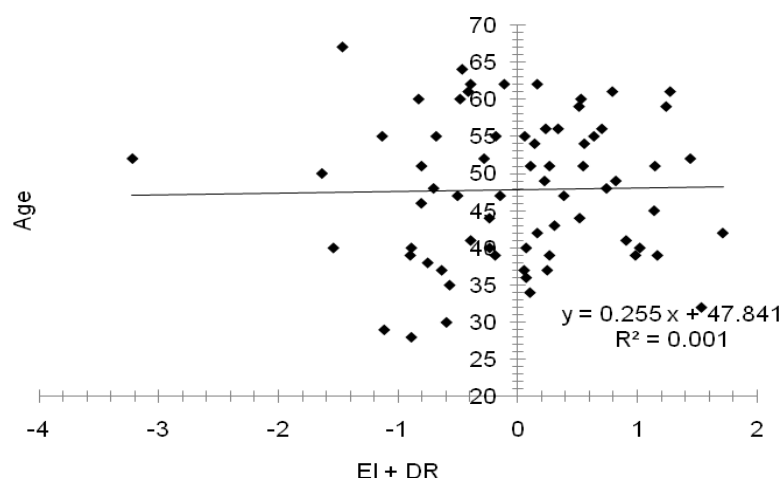
Figure 2. Linear relationship between age and EI +DR (*z*-scores).

Gender. The 69 participants included 27 females and 42 males. As discussed previously, EI and DR were interval-level variables and required an examination of the correlation between the two as mitigated by gender; therefore, regression analysis was the appropriate test. The data sets for both males and females were examined and conditions of normality were met with skewness and kurtosis both less than one; thus the appropriate test was standard regression analysis (Pearson's *r*). Both genders showed moderately strong direct, positive relationships between EI and DR, *r* = 0.54, *p* < .01. The results are depicted in table 15.

Table 15

Regression Summary for EI and DR Mitigated by Gender

Gender	*B*	*SE B*	β
Female	0.31	0.10	0.54**
Male	0.32	0.79	0.54**

Note. R^2 = .29 for both; *n* = 27 females, 42 males

****p* < .01

The gender-based data were further analyzed to determine if there were any differences between the two groups. The EI + DR variable was examined using independent samples *t*-test. There was no difference between females (*M* = 0.14, *SD* = 0.70, *n* = 27) and males (*M* = -0.09, *SD* = 0.95, *n* = 42), *t*(67) = 1.07, *p* = .29 (two-tailed).

Race. One of the participants did not self-identify race, leaving 68 respondents. Two of the categories held less than five respondents each (Hispanic = 4 and Mixed = 3). The remainder included 46 self-identified as White and 15 as Black. Skewness and kurtosis were less than one for both White and Black, meeting conditions for normality, thereby allowing

standard regression analysis (Pearson's *r*) to be employed. Both White and Black reflected similar moderately strong relationships with *r* = 0.50, *p* < .01 for White and *r* = 0.43, *p* < .01 for Black. Table 16 shows the results of the analysis.

Table 16

Regression Summary for EI and DR Mitigated by Race (White and Black only)

Gender	*B*	*SE B*	β
White	0.28	0.74	0.50**
Black	0.42	0.24	0.43

Note. R^2 = .22 for White, *n* = 66; R^2 = .12 for Black, *n* = 15

**p < .01

The race-based data were further analyzed to determine if any differences between White and Black existed. The EI + DR variable was examined using independent samples *t*-test. There was no difference between White (*M* = -0.13, *SD* = 0.85, *n* = 46) and Black (*M* = 0.27, *SD* = 0.67, *n* = 15), *t*(67) = 1.65, *p* = .11 (two-tailed).

Summary

Chapter 4 presented the results of the data analysis that was collected from the 69 survey responses received. Research Question 1 (R1) was formed based on the belief that individuals with higher levels of EI would also possess higher levels of DR. The alternate hypothesis assumed there would be a positive relationship between levels of EI and DR in leaders. There was a moderately strong, direct, positive relationship between EI and DR (*R* = 0.50, *p* < .01). The null hypothesis was rejected and the alternate hypothesis accepted.

Research Question 2 (R2) examined the relationship between EI and DR when using mid-level managers versus senior managers as an examining factor. The alternate

hypothesis indicated that there would be a significant difference between middle managers and senior managers, with senior managers showing a stronger relationship. The ANOVA results reported in Table 14, supported by the independent examinations of both EI and DR, with the obtained $F(1,67) = 0.1$, $p > .05$, the null hypothesis could not be rejected. No difference in the relationship between EI and DR existed based on managerial level.

Research Question 3 (R3) explored the relationship between EI and DR when using the population demographics (age, race, and gender) as examining factors. No hypotheses were established for R3 as there were no a priori assumptions that any relationships or differences existed. For the population demographic of age the regression analysis revealed no significant differences between age and EI and DR. For gender there was no difference between females ($M = 0.14$, $SD = 0.70$, $n = 27$) and males ($M = -0.09$, $SD = 0.95$, $n = 42$), t $(67) = 1.07$, $p = .29$ (two-tailed). For the race demographic there was no difference between White ($M = -0.13$, $SD = 0.85$, $n = 46$) and Black ($M = 0.27$, $SD = 0.67$, $n = 15$), $t(67) = 1.65$, $p = .11$ (two-tailed). All other reported races (Hispanic, Asian, and Mixed) had less than five respondents each and were not included in the analysis.

Chapter 5 finalizes the current study with the conclusions and recommendations section framed with the research questions and hypotheses. Implications of the findings and significance to leadership are also introduced. Chapter 5 concludes with a section on recommendations for further research and a conclusion.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) estimated that U. S. organizations spent $134.39 billion on employee learning and development in 2007 (Laff). O'Leonard (2009) estimated U. S. corporate training expenditures for the same period were $58.5 billion, of which $200 to $300 million was on diversity training (Vedantam, 2008). Chernis, Goleman, Emmerling, Cowan, and Adler (1998) conservatively estimated that one-fourth of the annual corporate training budget was spent on emotional competence training. The expenditures for both EI and diversity are based on the underlying premise that both can be taught and that both need to be taught as part of leadership development (Anbu, 2008; Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik & Roberson, 2008; Kunnanatt, 2004; Ornstein & Nelson, 2006; Weis & Arnesen, 2007).

The general problem is that the need for the training programs may be clashing with their costs. Nearly 60% of training professionals reported they were under significant or intense pressure to show return on investment for their training programs (Laff, 2008). The specific problem is that many organizations try to develop EI and DR in leaders without fully understanding if the two are linked (Davenhill, 2009; De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill, 2007; Stokley, 2008).

The purpose of this quantitative correlational descriptive research study was to examine the relationship between a leader's EI and diversity receptiveness (DR). Chapter 4 presented a detailed examination of the data collection, analysis, and research findings. Chapter 5 finalizes the current study with the conclusions and recommendations section, implications of the findings and significance to leadership, a section on recommendations for further research, and a conclusion.

Findings and Interpretation

In recent years, EI research has become one of the most researched topics concerning organization performance and effectiveness (Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). Recent EI scholarship correlates EI to transformational leadership and other inspirational theories (Stokley, 2008). Other research suggests that leaders rated with a high EI index are more apt to understand the dynamic of resonating positive leadership, organizational disharmony, individual, and group needs (Seal, 2006; Stokley). Whichever EI theory construct is used, ability-based or competency-based, a leader rated with a high EI index can increase organization sustainability and profitability (Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2008; Stokley).

The findings from the current study support the value of EI and the strength of the relationship when paired with DR. The study revealed that there is a positive relationship between a manager's emotional intelligence and the manager's DR. The relationship between EI and DR seem to transcend managerial and leadership levels within an organization.

The current study revealed that no difference existed in the relationship between EI and DR based on managerial level. The exploration of the demographics of age, race, and gender, in the current study, supported the concept that all employees, as well as the organization, can benefit from the link between EI and DR. The results from the current study indicated that there was no difference between the population demographics of age, race, and gender and EI and DR.

Current Framework for EI and DR

An evaluation of the literature review revealed that the current frameworks for EI

and DR are separate and distinct frameworks. Limited research exists in the literature toward understanding the relationship between diversity receptiveness and emotional intelligence (EI). A closer examination of EI and DR literature revealed that both share similarities in self-awareness, behaviors, beliefs, empathy, attunement to others by listening, caring, respecting, and trusting others (Forbes, 2008; Goldsmith, 2006; Hultman, 2006; Kress, 2008; Kunnanatt Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Pitts, 2009; Pless & Maak, 2004). Both EI and DR emphasize the importance of self-awareness, organizational relationships, and the sharing of information as essential to leadership ability (Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Callahan, 2008; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Hultman, 2006). Many researchers implied a direct, positive link between EI and diversity (e.g. Ashkanasay, 2002; Hopkins, O'Neil, & William, 2007; Litvin & Betters-Reed, 2005; Robertson, 2007; Schyns & Meindl, 2008), but the connection was not strongly supported by scholarly research.

Leadership success in both diversity and EI is founded on the leaders' ability to relate to people (Gaze, 2003; Hayashi, 2004; Landale, 2007; Roberge, 2007; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Usowicz, 2008). Scholars and practitioners could take advantage of the link between EI and DR because both EI and DR share common strengths in improving organizational effectiveness and performance (Goleman et al., 2002; Gottleib, 2006; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Piel, 2008; Robbins, 2005). EI and DR have been recognized as vital elements of effective leadership (Anand & Winters, 2008; Barbuto & Burbach, 2006; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Goleman et al., 2001; Hite & McDonald, 2006; Holladay and Quiñones, 2008; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Sen, 2008).

Extending the Framework for EI and DR

The EI and DR frameworks are based on personal interactions and relationships as

evidenced in the literature review (Forbes, 2008; Goldsmith, 2006; Hultman, 2006; Kress, 2008; Kunnanatt Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Pitts, 2009). The combination of EI and DR, into one training module, could prove useful in the development of training programs that improve organizational relationships, effectiveness, and performance. A successful training program that enhances the strengths of EI and DR could augment the sharing of information, induce favorable cultural receptiveness throughout the organization, improve individual self-awareness, and enhance organizational relationships (Goleman et al., 2002; Gottleib, 2006; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Piel, 2008; Robbins, 2005; Tetteh, 2008). Organizations struggle to show a return on investment for their training programs (Laff, 2008). The positive link between EI and DR could save organizations millions of training dollars and at the same time deliver effective EI and DR culture changing and awareness training programs.

Refuting Claims Against EI and DR

Some arguments against EI center on the ideal that EI is mainly about employees feeling good and that EI is not scientific and cannot be accurately measured (Dulewicz, Higgs & Slaski, 2003; Jaegar, 2004; Locke, 2005). Arguments against DR center on the ideal that DR programs cater to the preference of particular minority groups (Bell & Kravitz, 2008; Flores & Rodriguez). Other critics argue that redressing past documented workplace injustices introduces the creation of unwarranted racial quotas (Jones, 2007; MacGillivray, Beecher, & Golden, 2007).

The current study on the relationship between EI and DR has found that the strong positive relationship between EI and DR can potentially benefit all levels of a hierarchy within an organization. The relationship between EI and DR is not restricted to a certain

level of leadership. The current study indicated that race, age, and gender proved to be insignificant in the development of EI and DR.

The strength of EI lies in a leader's social skill ability to manage interpersonal relationships by understanding: what people feel, need, and what people are concerned with (Sen, 2008). The increase in diversity of the workforce mandates a higher order of interpersonal, social, and emotional skills necessary to execute organizational goals successfully (Fisher et al., 2005). Leadership without the management of the emotional dimension is framing leadership within the context of a failed leadership venture (Callahan Hasler, & Tolson, 2005). The current study supports the theory behind EI and DR.

Implications and Significance to Leadership

The current research demonstrated the existence of a strong and positive relationship between EI and DR among leaders regardless of the leadership or management position. The findings can be interpreted to mean that higher levels of EI have a positive relationship with leaders embracing and being receptive to organizational diversity. The current study contributes new knowledge to the field of diversity because findings can respond to the growing need of implementing diversity programs and sustaining commitment within organizations (Bohara, 2007; James, 2008; Konrad, 2006; Lopez-Rocha, 2006; Marques; O'Leary & Weathington, 2006; Weigand, 2007). The study adds to the existing body of knowledge in EI and diversity by addressing the gap of the limited research in the literature. The results of the data from this study can provide a foundation on which other scholars and practitioners may build further studies.

The significance of the current study to leadership is that it can provide a greater understanding of the relationship between EI and DR among leaders in organizations. Since

the hypothesis (H1) was supported, the understanding can be used as the foundation for improving DR through EI training. According to Latif (2004), the EI quotient of leaders can be raised through targeted training.

The findings of the current research study can also serve as a stimulus for leaders to develop training programs that increase other leaders' EI. The increase of EI levels could serve the purpose of DR and diversity success in organizations. The findings from this current study can provide a more applicable role of EI in relation to DR and the successful implementation of diversity initiatives and organizational leadership development programs. The potential impact of the strong relationship between EI and DR can mean that organizations will able to save training money. The potential training savings can occur by taking advantage of the link between EI and DR and in the combination of EI and DR training.

<div align="center">Recommendations for Leaders</div>

There are several actions organizations can take to benefit from the advantage of the link between EI and DR. Leaders desiring to expand the potential benefits of EI and DR in the organization can (a) secure organizational commitment to EI and DR, (b) combine EI and DR training, (b) expand EI and DR training to all organizational participants, (c) make EI and DR training part of the organizational training requirement, and (d) develop a candidate screening method to assess potential future leaders in the recruitment process. The positive correlations between EI and DR identified in the current study and supported by the research results make the case for implementation of the recommended actions. The research results do support the claim that EI and DR may increase organizational performance and potentially with the recommended action. The recommendations identified

are not exhaustive of all actions organizations could take and benefit from the link between EI and DR.

<center>Recommendations for Further Research</center>

Leadership is a social and behavioral phenomenon that has not only enlightened but also has been the cause of debate for researchers and practitioners (Bass1990). Understanding and instilling a successful leadership model within an organization is both important and a complex affair (Brown & Moshavi, 2005). The management and awareness of emotions in leading has sparked an interest in the growing dynamic of EI as a humanized form of leading (Hartley, 2004; Pauchant, 2005).

The current study addressed the relationship of EI and DR and included how population demographics of age, gender, and race, might influence EI and DR. The study was limited to one federal agency in the Washington, D.C. area. The total target population was small and the response rate was significantly less than 50%. The delivery method of the survey proved to be effective, but the constraints imposed by the participating agency made the response rate low.

Study Limitations

The response rate of 36% was achieved with a degree of difficulty. The participating agency agreed to participate in the study but the respondents were prohibited from using work hours or government furnished equipment to respond to the survey. Anyone wishing to participate in the study had to do so from their homes using their own personal computers. Many potential participants expressed that such a restriction complicated the effort to complete the survey because at home there are many distractions. The restriction dissuaded many from taking the survey.

The current research was conducted with a quantitative correlational descriptive research method and was appropriate for this study. The use of qualitative and mixed-methods, as alternate research methods, could provide additional findings in the subject of EI and DR and add to the body of knowledge in leadership. Mixed-method and qualitative research can provide knowledge that explores the divide that may be experienced in perceptions between leaders and subordinates (Webb, 2009). Mixed-method or qualitative research might also be helpful in clarifying the extent to which training given in EI and DR is perceived to be helpful in developing or strengthening EI and DR skills.

The many limitations imposed on the study warrants additional future research. The first recommendation is to conduct an assessment on the level of diversity existent in the organization. A diversity assessment on the participating organization will reveal which demographic group can potentially be excluded because of the low representation rate for a particular demographic group. A replication of this current study that captures the demographic data for other minority groups is recommended.

Using a larger audience, perhaps including offices in several large metropolitan areas, to capture a larger population within the mid-level to senior level leaders is also recommended. Future research of EI and DR should include the number of employees supervised by the mid-level to senior level leaders. The relationship between EI and DR may be affected depending on the number of employees being supervised by a manager or senior leader. A recommendation for future research on EI and DR should incorporate measuring the relationship of the varying leadership styles of managers and senior leaders with EI and DR. New information could be added to the existing body knowledge by

discerning which leadership style provides the best advantage for organizational EI and DR sustainability.

Negotiation with the participating organizations is very important in securing privileges. The recommendation for the participating organization to allow employees to take the 15-20 minute survey during work hours is highly recommended as this could lead to much higher response rates. The findings from this study could be used as the foundation for additional studies using other research methods. Qualitative and mixed-methods could be used to explore the perceptions, or other factors, of EI and DR on different leadership styles.

An interesting area where additional research on EI and DR could be performed is students before they enter the workforce. Studies in EI have convinced educators that strategies in education that serve to enhance EI competencies assist student achievement and quality of life (Taylor, 2009). If students are trained and educated in EI and DR before joining the workforce then the potential for increasing EI and DR will be a benefit to the hiring organization. The benefit of EI and DR education can increase if the student occupies a position of leadership in the organization.

Educators understand the value of linking EI in the academic setting (Taylor, 2009). EI in the classroom setting can help students produce behaviors that lead to characteristics of empathic and caring leaders (Taylor). Since EI competencies are related to emotions and relationships, the significance of coursework development in diversity education and multicultural understanding is very important for promoting behavioral changes (Taylor).

Conclusion

Organizational effectiveness models that ignore the EI and diversity may be limited

in achieving the desired performance sought (Anbu, 2008; Goleman, 1998; Homan, van Knippenberg, Van Kleef & De Dreu, 2007; Kulik & Roberson, 2008; Ornstein & Nelson, 2006; Weis & Arnesen, 2007). McCuiston, Wooldridge, and Pierce (2004) indicated that organizational transformation will take place by end of 2009, when approximately 50% of the U.S. workforce will "be individuals traditionally classified as minorities; specifically, women, people of color, and ethnic minorities" (p. 73). With the increase in diversity, it will be important for leaders to be receptive of the differences employees bring to the workplace. These differences can bring a competitive advantage to the organization, which can come in the form of innovation (Bohara, 2007). Equally important will be the ability to manage the differences through the leadership intelligence of EI (Marques, 2007).

This current study adds to the body of knowledge by addressing the problem that many organizations try to develop EI and DR in leaders without fully understanding how and if the two are linked (Davenhill, 2009; De Meuse, Hostager & O'Neill, 2007; Stokley, 2008). EI and DR may affect organizational learning, performance, and effectiveness. If training developers can devise an effective training approach that combines EI and DR then organizational training and learning effectiveness may be achieved for enhanced organizational performance.

The goals of every EI training program is to engender self-awareness, create a vision of clarity, and to foster behaviors that are aligned with purpose, goals, and values (Weis & Arnesen, 2007). Diversity education and training is effective in increasing awareness and modifying behaviors, attitudes, and perceptions related to diversity (Kulik & Roberson, 2008). The results of this study may provide a more applicable role of EI in relation to DR that may lead to the successful implementation of diversity initiatives and organizational

leadership development programs. Leadership scholars and practitioners wishing to further

the study on leadership might find the results of the current useful.

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APPENDIX A. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE SCALE (EIS)

Part I consists of demographic data and Part II is the EIS survey. Please answer the questions listed on the questionnaire as accurately and honestly as possible. Your answers will be kept confidential and not shared with any other party in a manner that identifies you as the study participant. There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

Part I Demographic Data

1. What is your pay grade? _____GS-13 _____GS-14 _____GS-15 ____SES

2. Is this a supervisory position? ___yes ____no

3. Please fill in the blanks next to these demographic indicators.

    A.   Age: ____

    B.   Years with present agency : ____

    C.   Years you have served as a supervisor: ____

    D.   Gender: Male ____ Female____

    E.   Race: _____

    F.   Highest academic degree completed: _____

    G.   Years in present position: _____

Part II Instructions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the "1" if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the "2" if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, "3" if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the "4" if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the "5" if you strongly agree that this is like you.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = somewhat agree

5 = strongly agree

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others. 1 2 3 4 5

2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I face similar obstacles and

overcame them. 1 2 3 4 5

3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try. 1 2 3 4 5

4. Other people find it easy to confide in me. 1 2 3 4 5

5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people. 1 2 3 4 5

6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate

what is important and not important. 1 2 3 4 5

7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities. 1 2 3 4 5

8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living. 1 2 3 4 5

9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them. 1 2 3 4 5

10. I expect good things to happen. 1 2 3 4 5

11. I like to share my emotions with others. 1 2 3 4 5

12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last. 1 2 3 4 5

13. I arrange events others enjoy. 1 2 3 4 5

14. I seek out activities that make me happy. 1 2 3 4 5

15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others. 1 2 3 4 5

16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others. 1 2 3 4 5

17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.   1 2 3 4 5

18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people

    are experiencing.   1 2 3 4 5

19. I know why my emotions change.   1 2 3 4 5

20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5

21. I have control over my emotions.   1 2 3 4 5

22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.   1 2 3 4 5

23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.   1 2 3 4 5

24. I compliment others when they have done something well.   1 2 3 4 5

25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.   1 2 3 4 5

26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or

    her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself.   1 2 3 4 5

27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5

28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe

     I will fail.   1 2 3 4 5

29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.   1 2 3 4 5

30. I help other people feel better when they are down.   1 2 3 4 5

31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles. 1 2 3 4 5

32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of

    their voice.   1 2 3 4 5

33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do. 1 2 3 4 5

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX B: RECEPTIVITY FOR DIVERSITY SURVEY

Confidentiality: The information you provide on this survey will be used for academic and process improvement efforts only. Your responses will be reported in aggregate statistical form, which will be kept secure, private and confidential at all times. This survey does not contain any identifying information.

Instructions: Listed below are a number of statements that could be used to describe an individual's receptivity (for example, attitude or perception) to diversity and receptivity to diversity to diversity management. Although there are many definitions, receptivity to diversity is simply appreciating all those things that make human beings similar and different. Receptivity to diversity management relates to supporting established policies and programs that benefit everyone in order to achieve better performance for the organization.

Using a 5-point scale, please circle the number directly under the rating that represents your feelings about each opinion below. **Complete confidentiality will be maintained in regard to your answers.**

1. I work with people who are different from me in their race and gender identity.

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

2. Most people in this organization think about their attitude on diversity.

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

3. The concept of diversity should be emphasized in the workplace.

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

4. Greater representation of persons from diverse racial and gender groups make it more comfortable for me to work at this organization.

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

5. Diverse employees bring new perspectives to the organization.

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

6. Focusing on diversity will benefit everyone.

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

7. White males are <u>not</u> concerned about reverse discrimination in this organization.

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

8. Cultural differences do <u>not</u> cause conflict in this organization.

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

9. The organization's directors and senior leadership clearly communicate their vision about diversity.

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

10. I would welcome information about working effectively in a diverse workforce.

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

11. The responsibility for creating diversity rests with everyone.

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

12. Increased diversity will require the organization to invest more resources in teaching staff how to deal with cultural differences.

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

13. All staff can benefit from effective diversity management.

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

14. Diversity management is necessary for tapping the contributions of all employees.

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

15. The organization does enough to address various diversity issues.

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

16. This organization is spending enough time and money on diversity issues.

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

17. Diversity management is not the current terminology used to describe affirmative action.

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

18. Attention to diversity management is <u>not</u> as a result of perceptions of discrimination by women and minorities.

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

19. The organization's directors and senior leadership practice what they preach about diversity management.

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

20. Most leaders in the organization set a positive example of how to effectively manage diversity.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3		5

APPENDIX C: CONSOLIDATED SURVEY INSTRUMENT

This survey consists of three parts. Part I asks for demographic data, Part II addresses emotional intelligence, and Part III addresses diversity receptiveness. Please answer the questions listed on the questionnaire as accurately and honestly as possible. Your answers will be kept confidential and not shared with any other party in a manner that identifies you as the study participant. There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

Part I Demographic Data

1. What is your pay grade? _____GS-13 _____GS-14 _____GS-15 ____SES

2. Is this a supervisory position? ___yes ____no

3. Please fill in the blanks next to these demographic indicators.

    A.   Age: ____

    B.   Years with present agency : ____

    C.   Years you have served as a supervisor: ____

    D.   Gender: Male ____ Female____

    E.   Race: _____

    F.   Highest academic degree completed: _____

    G.   Years in present position: _____

Part II Instructions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please select the "1" if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the "2" if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, "3" if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the "4" if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the "5" if you strongly agree that this is like you.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = somewhat agree

5 = strongly agree

This scale will be visible at all times during the survey. Please refer to it as often as necessary.

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.

2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I face similar obstacles and overcame them.

3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.

4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.

5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.

6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important.

7. When my mood changes; I see new possibilities.

8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.

9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.

10. I expect good things to happen.

11. I like to share my emotions with others.

12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last.

13. I arrange events others enjoy.

14. I seek out activities that make me happy.

15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others.

16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others.

17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me.

18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people

are experiencing.

19. I know why my emotions change.

20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas.

21. I have control over my emotions.

22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them.

23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on.

24. I compliment others when they have done something well.

25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send.

26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel

as though I experienced this event myself.

27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas.

28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail.

29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them.

30. I help other people feel better when they are down.

31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles.

32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice.

33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do.

transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, xerography, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from Nicola S. Schutte, Ph.D.

<div align="center">------ End Part II - Begin Part III -----</div>

Part III Instructions: Listed below are a number of statements that could be used to describe an individual's receptivity (for example, attitude or perception) to diversity and receptivity to diversity to diversity management. Although there are many definitions, receptivity to diversity is simply appreciating all those things that make human beings similar and different. Receptivity to diversity management relates to supporting established policies and programs that benefit everyone in order to achieve better performance for the organization. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please select the "1" if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the "2" if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, "3" if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the "4" if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the "5" if you strongly agree that this is like you.

<div align="center">

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = somewhat agree

5 = strongly agree

</div>

This scale will be visible at all times during the survey. Please refer to it as often as necessary.

1. I work with people who are different from me in their race and gender identity.

2. Most people in this organization think about their attitude on diversity.

3. The concept of diversity should be emphasized in the workplace.

4. Greater representation of persons from diverse racial and gender groups make it more comfortable for me to work at this organization.

5. Diverse employees bring new perspectives to the organization.

6. Focusing on diversity will benefit everyone.

7. White males are <u>not</u> concerned about reverse discrimination in this organization.

8. Cultural differences do <u>not</u> cause conflict in this organization.

9. The organization's directors and senior leadership clearly communicate their vision about diversity.

10. I would welcome information about working effectively in a diverse workforce.

11. The responsibility for creating diversity rests with everyone.

12. Increased diversity will require the organization to invest more resources in teaching staff how to deal with cultural differences.

13. All staff can benefit from effective diversity management.

14. Diversity management is necessary for tapping the contributions of all employees.

15. The organization does enough to address various diversity issues.

16. This organization is spending enough time and money on diversity issues.

17. Diversity management is <u>not</u> the current terminology used to describe affirmative action.

18. Attention to diversity management is <u>not</u> as a result of perceptions of discrimination by women and minorities.

19. The organization's directors and senior leadership practice what they preach about diversity management.

20 Most leaders in the organization set a positive example on how to effectively manage diversity.

APPENDIX D: E-MAIL INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A STUDY

Dear _____,

My name is John A. Bourdon and I am a student at the University of Phoenix working on a Doctoral degree. I am conducting a research study entitled Emotional Intelligence and Diversity Receptiveness of Leaders in Federal Government: A Correlational Study. The purpose of the research study is to examine the relationship between a leader's emotional intelligence (EI) and diversity receptiveness (DR). The intent of the study is to examine if higher levels of EI have a positive relationship with leaders embracing and being receptive to organizational diversity.

Your participation involves completing an online survey. The URL link is provided at the end of this invitation. When accessing the URL link, you will be taken to a consent agreement page. In order to participate in the study, you must select the "I understand the above statements and give consent for my information to be used in the study" radio button.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. 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 to yourself. 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 research, there is no foreseeable risk to you.

Although there may be no direct benefit to you, a possible benefit of your participation is being involved by helping to facilitate an understanding of how an applicable role of EI in relation to DR can lead to the implementation of diversity initiatives in organizations. As a voluntary participant the information you provide is important for the value that EI may

hold to embracing diversity within an organization can potentially have a significantly positive impact on organizational performance at all levels. If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at (███) █████████ or email me at bourja@email.phoenix.edu. I will also be available at the worksite during normal business hours to answers question or address concerns anyone may have.

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 anonymous.

3. John A. Bourdon, the researcher, has thoroughly explained the parameters of the research study and all of your questions and concerns have been addressed.

4. Data will be stored in a secure and locked area. The data will be held for a period of three years, and then destroyed.

URL Address: http//www.surveymonkey.com/

Very sincerely yours,

John A. Bourdon

APPENDIX E: INFORMED CONSENT FORM

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

INFORMED CONSENT: PARTICIPANTS 18 YEARS OF AGE AND OLDER

I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, any potential risks to me as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. Clicking on the first Radio Button below indicates that I am over the age of 18 and that I give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study.

Each respondent is required to check one of the following radio buttons:

O I understand the above statements and give consent for my information to be used in the study.

O I understand the above statements and do NOT give consent for my information to be used in the study.

APPENDIX F: PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

PERMISSION TO USE PREMISES, NAME, AND/OR SUBJECTS

(Facility, Organization, University, Institution, or Association)

U.S. Department of Transportation

███████████████████████████████

Check any that apply:

☑ I hereby authorize <u>John A. Bourdon</u>, student of University of Phoenix, to use the premises (facility identified below) to conduct a study entitled A Correlational Analysis of Emotional Intelligence and Diversity Receptiveness of Senior Leaders in a Federal Government Agency.

☑ I hereby authorize <u>John A. Bourdon</u>, student of University of Phoenix, to recruit subjects for participation in a conduct a study entitled A Correlational Analysis of Emotional Intelligence and Diversity Receptiveness of Senior Leaders in a Federal Government Agency.

☑ I hereby authorize <u>John A. Bourdon</u>, student of University of Phoenix, to use the name of the facility, organization, university, institution, or association identified above when publishing results from the study entitled A Correlational Analysis of Emotional Intelligence and Diversity Receptiveness of Senior Leaders in a Federal Government Agency.

███████████████████████   7-7-2009

Signature   Date

████████████████

Print Name

████████████████████

Title

Address of Facility: ████████████████████████

APPENDIX G: PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING EIS SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING SURVEY

Date **March 7, 2009**

Mr. John A. Bourdon
█████████████
█████████████

Thank you for your request for permission to use the Assessing Emotions Scale in your research study. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your letter at no charge with the following understanding:

- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/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 the like 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.

Best wishes with your study.

Sincerely,

Nicola Schutte

_____
Signature

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

Signed *John A. Bourdon*_____ Date **March 10, 2009**

Expected date of completion March 30, 2010

1

APPENDIX H: PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING DIVERSITY SURVEY

UNIVERSITY OF PHOENIX

PERMISSION TO USE AN EXISTING SURVEY

3/13/2009

Mr. John A. Bourdon

Thank you for your request for permission to use Receptivity to Diversity survey in your research study. We are willing to allow you to reproduce the instrument as outlined in your letter at no charge with the following understanding:

- You will use this survey only for your research study and will not sell or use it with any compensated management/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 the like 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.

Best wishes with your study.

Sincerely,

Signature

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

Signed _John A. Bourdon_   Date _3/17/2009_

Expected date of completion **March 30, 2010**

1

APPENDIX I: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Demographic Data Frequency Tables

Table I1

Age

	Age		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
28	1	1.4	1.4
29	1	1.4	2.9
30	1	1.4	4.3
32	1	1.4	5.8
34	1	1.4	7.2
35	1	1.4	8.7
36	1	1.4	10.1
37	3	4.3	14.5
38	1	1.4	15.9
39	5	7.2	23.2
40	5	7.2	30.4
41	2	2.9	33.3
42	2	2.9	36.2
43	1	1.4	37.7
44	2	2.9	40.6
45	1	1.4	42.0
46	1	1.4	43.5
47	3	4.3	47.8

Table I1 (Continued)

Age

48	2	2.9	50.7
49	2	2.9	53.6
50	1	1.4	55.1
51	5	7.2	62.3
52	3	4.3	66.7
54	2	2.9	69.6
55	5	7.2	76.8
56	3	4.3	81.2
59	2	2.9	84.1
60	3	4.3	88.4
61	3	4.3	92.8
62	3	4.3	97.1
64	1	1.4	98.6
67	1	1.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Table I2

Years with Agency

	Year with Agency		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
.00	1	1.4	1.4

Table I2 (Continued)

Years with Agency

.25	1	1.4	2.9
.50	2	2.9	5.8
1.00	6	8.7	14.5
1.50	4	5.8	20.3
1.70	1	1.4	21.7
2.00	5	7.2	29.0
3.00	4	5.8	34.8
4.00	5	7.2	42.0
5.00	3	4.3	46.4
5.50	2	2.9	49.3
6.00	5	7.2	56.5
7.00	3	4.3	60.9
8.00	3	4.3	65.2
9.00	1	1.4	66.7
10.00	1	1.4	68.1
12.00	2	2.9	71.0
13.00	2	2.9	73.9
17.00	3	4.3	78.3
18.00	1	1.4	79.7
19.00	1	1.4	81.2
20.00	2	2.9	84.1

Table I2 (Continued)

Years with Agency

21.00	4	5.8	89.9
22.00	1	1.4	91.3
23.00	1	1.4	92.8
29.00	1	1.4	94.2
32.00	1	1.4	95.7
34.00	1	1.4	97.1
35.00	1	1.4	98.6
36.00	1	1.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Table I3

Years in Present Position

	Year in Present Position		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
.00	3	4.3	4.3
.25	1	1.4	5.8
.50	4	5.8	11.6
1.00	10	14.5	26.1
1.50	4	5.8	31.9
1.70	1	1.4	33.3
2.00	12	17.4	50.7

Table I3 (Continued)

Years in Present Position

2.50	1	1.4	52.2
3.00	5	7.2	59.4
4.00	5	7.2	66.7
4.50	1	1.4	68.1
5.00	8	11.6	79.7
5.50	2	2.9	82.6
6.00	4	5.8	88.4
7.00	2	2.9	91.3
8.00	1	1.4	92.8
17.00	1	1.4	94.2
18.00	1	1.4	95.7
20.00	1	1.4	97.1
22.00	1	1.4	98.6
27.00	1	1.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Table I4

Years Supervising

	Year Supervising		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
.00	29	42.0	42.0

Table I4 (Continued)

Years Supervising

.25	1	1.4	43.5
1.00	2	2.9	46.4
1.50	1	1.4	47.8
2.00	5	7.2	55.1
2.50	2	2.9	58.0
3.00	1	1.4	59.4
4.00	2	2.9	62.3
6.00	2	2.9	65.2
7.00	2	2.9	68.1
8.00	2	2.9	71.0
9.00	1	1.4	72.5
10.00	3	4.3	76.8
12.00	1	1.4	78.3
13.00	1	1.4	79.7
15.00	2	2.9	82.6
18.00	1	1.4	84.1
20.00	3	4.3	88.4
23.00	2	2.9	91.3
27.00	1	1.4	92.8
28.00	2	2.9	95.7
28.50	1	1.4	97.1

Table I4 (Continued)

Years Supervising

35.00	1	1.4	98.6
38.00	1	1.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Diversity Receptiveness Frequency Statistics

Table I5

Diversity Questions Raw Score

	DQ - Raw		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
46	1	1.4	1.4
53	1	1.4	2.9
54	1	1.4	4.3
55	2	2.9	7.2
57	4	5.8	13.0
59	1	1.4	14.5
60	2	2.9	17.4
61	3	4.3	21.7
62	4	5.8	27.5
63	4	5.8	33.3
64	6	8.7	42.0
65	5	7.2	49.3

Table I5 (Continued)

Diversity Questions Raw Score

67	4	5.8	55.1
68	2	2.9	58.0
69	5	7.2	65.2
71	1	1.4	66.7
72	2	2.9	69.6
73	1	1.4	71.0
74	1	1.4	72.5
75	2	2.9	75.4
76	1	1.4	76.8
77	2	2.9	79.7
78	5	7.2	87.0
79	2	2.9	89.9
81	1	1.4	91.3
82	1	1.4	92.8
83	2	2.9	95.7
84	1	1.4	97.1
85	1	1.4	98.6
87	1	1.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	

Table I6

EIS Raw score

	EI - Raw Score		
	f	*%*	*Cumulative %*
70	1	1.4	1.4
97	1	1.4	2.9
104	1	1.4	4.3
106	1	1.4	5.8
107	1	1.4	7.2
108	1	1.4	8.7
111	1	1.4	10.1
112	1	1.4	11.6
116	1	1.4	13.0
118	1	1.4	14.5
121	1	1.4	15.9
122	2	2.9	18.8
123	1	1.4	20.3
124	2	2.9	23.2
125	3	4.3	27.5
127	2	2.9	30.4
128	1	1.4	31.9
129	5	7.2	39.1

Table I6 (Continued)

EIS Raw score

131	2	2.9	42.0
132	2	2.9	44.9
133	3	4.3	49.3
134	2	2.9	52.2
135	2	2.9	55.1
136	1	1.4	56.5
137	3	4.3	60.9
138	2	2.9	63.8
139	2	2.9	66.7
140	2	2.9	69.6
141	1	1.4	71.0
142	1	1.4	72.5
143	4	5.8	78.3
144	1	1.4	79.7
146	1	1.4	81.2
147	2	2.9	84.1
148	2	2.9	87.0
149	1	1.4	88.4
150	1	1.4	89.9
151	2	2.9	92.8
152	1	1.4	94.2

Table I6 (Continued)

EIS Raw score

155	2	2.9	97.1
160	1	1.4	98.6
165	1	1.4	100.0
Total	69	100.0	