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Emotional intelligence and racial identity's impact on academic achievement in American multiracial high school students

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND RACIAL IDENTITY'S IMPACT ON ACADEMIC

ACHIEVEMENT IN AMERICAN MULTIRACIAL HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirement for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organization Change

by

Mary Ann Freeman

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Kay Davis, Ed.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

This dissertation, written by

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under the guidance of a Faculty Committee and approved by its members, has been submitted to and accepted by the Graduate Faculty in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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DEDICATION

To family, friends, colleagues, and committee members, whose unwavering support,

encouragement, and enthusiasm, allowed me to pursue this work. Thank you!

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This dissertation is dedicated to my family, friends, and colleagues who are a continuous

source of inspiration:

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- All, who in ways great or small, helped me achieve this milestone

VITA

Mary Ann Freeman has dedicated her professional life to public service with the aspiration of improving the lives of others by creating trust and shared understanding through dialogue, education, and public diplomacy. She has worked at home and internationally for U.S. federal agencies, including the Departments of State, Defense, Justice, Agriculture, Interior, Energy, and NASA. Her educational background includes a Master of Arts in Education from the University of Redlands and a Bachelor of Arts in Communications from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. She is passionate about observing global trends in demographics, technology, culture, education, media, science, and economics, in order to anticipate potential implications for individuals, communities, businesses, and nations.

ABSTRACT

Minorities reached 50.4% of the American population, representing a majority for the first time, and those self-reporting as multiracial grew by a larger percentage than those reporting a single race (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Millennials born after 1980 are the most racially diverse generation (Pew Research Center, 2014). This study investigated how racial identity and emotional intelligence might impact academic achievement among U.S. Millennial multiracial adolescents of African descent. Research suggests a student's racial identification has a significant impact on academic performance (Herman, 2009) and minority youth struggle academically (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2014). The theoretical framework included the construct of racial identity for youth of African descent, who experience high levels of actual or perceived discrimination (Parham, 2002; Sellers, Linder, Martin & Lewis, 2006; Sellers & Shelton, 2000). This secondary analysis consisted of existing survey responses and standardized academic achievement scores for 32 California high school students who self-reported as multiracial of African descent. Data included responses from the Emotional Quotient (EQ-i: YV[s]) survey, which measures emotional competencies; the Cross Racial Identity survey, which measures racial identity attitudes for those of African descent; and the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. Research questions asked whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence competencies, racial identity attitudes, and academic achievement. Findings revealed a statistically significant relationship between the Emotional Intelligence scale score of adaptability and academic achievement (Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient $r = .378$, $n = 32$, $p = .033$; Spearman's rank correlation coefficient $\rho = .368$, $n = 32$, $p = .038$). A second statistically significant relationship was found between the racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores (Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient $r = .413$, $n = $

32, p = .014). Findings support research suggesting adaptability is important for multiracial youth, involving cultural, ethnic, nationality, language, and socioeconomic issues, and a relationship exists between racial identity and academic achievement. Multiracial students represent a demographic, which should be recognized as distinct and varied, and multiracial students are at-risk. Recommendations include expanded research to inform classroom practice, enlightened educational policies, and greater social investment to support an increasingly diverse student population.

Chapter 1: The Problem

American student scores are falling behind students from many developed nations in high-level math and reading skills—the skills needed in for jobs in the future economy (Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 2013). One of society's fundamental obligations is to prepare young adults to lead productive lives. This preparation includes teaching literacy, numeracy, and thinking skills to develop responsible citizens, capable of attaining their career goals and participating in lifelong learning (Carnevale & Rose, 2011).

The OECD released the 2012 Program for International Student Assessment exam results, which showed Asian students get the top scores while American students stagnate in the middle (OECD, 2013). The Program for International Student Assessment exam is given to 15- to 16-year-old students from 65 countries. According to Andreas Schleicher, OECD deputy director for education and skills and special advisor on education policy to the OECD's Secretary-General, observed that a country's education level predicts their future economic success (Coughlan, 2013).

At the same time, American student demographics are changing. Minorities, including Hispanics, Blacks, Asians, and those of mixed race, reached 50.4% of the population, representing a majority for the first time in the 2010 Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Of this group, multiracial youth are the fastest growing segment. The 2010 Census showed 2.9% of the U.S. population checked more than one racial-ethnic category, a 32% increase since 2000 (Humes, Jones, & Ramirez, 2011). One in five Americans will likely claim multiracial heritage by 2050 (Lee & Bean, 2004).

Education experts struggle to understand why African American and Hispanic-Latino students exhibit low academic achievement even when they are socioeconomically advantaged

(Sirin, 2005). This discrepancy exists despite research that shows improved academic achievement benefits individuals, leads to better paying careers, increases participation in society, and maintains interest in lifelong learning (McMahon, 2009).

Experts claim the majority of jobs require at least some postsecondary education. By 2018, the economy will create 46.8 million openings of which 63% will require workers with at least some college education (Carnevale, Smith, & Strohl, 2010). Researchers predict the lifetime income of workers with a high school diploma is approximately $973,000 while the lifetime income of an employee with a professional degree (e.g., typically lawyers and doctors) is $3.6 million (Carnevale, Rose, & Cheah, 2011).

Postsecondary education or training is no longer the preferred pathway to middle-class jobs—it is, increasingly, the only pathway (Carnevale et al., 2010). Beyond income levels, Individuals with higher levels of education have better starting salaries, are more likely to be employed, and have higher earnings as they age (Baum, Ma, & Payea, 2013).

This purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the effects emotional intelligence dimensions and racial identity attitudes have on the academic achievement of American multiracial high school students of African descent. Students responded to the Cross Racial Identity total score, a 30-item questionnaire with six factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the Emotional Quotient (EQ-i YV[s]) total score, a 30-item self-survey with 15 competencies (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Their responses were analyzed to determine if relationships exist between emotional intelligence and racial identity attitudes on academic achievement scores.

Changing Demographics

The 2010 Census shows that people who reported multiple races grew by a larger percentage than those reporting a single race. According to the 2010 Census, the population

reporting multiple races (9.0 million) grew by 32.0% from 2000 to 2010, compared with those who reported a single race, which grew 9.2% (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011).

Minorities, including Hispanics, Blacks, Asians, and those of mixed race, reached 50.4% of the population, representing a majority for the first time in the 2010 Census data (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Because of immigration, a combination of more deaths and fewer births among whites and an explosion of minority births, the U.S. will become a nation where the former minority population will be the majority population much sooner than expected (Frey, 2011).

Frey observed that for younger people, like the Millennials born after 1980, who are the most racially diverse of any generation, the evolution into a more multiracial and multiethnic society is accelerating. Although some urban school systems have begun to adapt to student populations of different cultural backgrounds and languages, the sheer numbers mean all school systems across the nation will need to adapt their institutions to meet the demands of a new customer base (Frey, 2012).

Low Academic Achievement

For the past 2 decades, educators have struggled to understand why an achievement gap continues between White and minority youth. Minority students, who have the most to gain by completing college, are the least likely to graduate (KewalRamani, Gilbertson, & Fox, 2007). Between 2006 and 2010, bachelor's degrees were awarded to 40% Asian/Pacific Islander, 18.5% White, 15.8% Two or more races, 11.6% Black, 8.9% Hispanic, 8.7% American Indian/Alaskan Native, and 7.1% Other Race (U.S. Census Bureau, 2012a). At the same time, the 2010 U.S. Census reported the U.S. population included 72.4% White, 16.3% Hispanic 12.6% Black or African American, 6.2% Other Race, 5% Asian/Pacific Islander, 2.9% Two or more races, and 0.9% American Indian/Alaskan Native (Humes et al., 2011).

Experts looked at socioeconomic status, low teacher expectations, access to social capital and family values regarding formal education (Brown & Rivas, 1993; Bean, Bush & McKenry & Wilson, 2003). A child's academic achievement determines their success as adults: whether and where they go to college, what professions that they enter, and how much they are paid (Reardon, 2011). Unfortunately, many disadvantaged children start kindergarten with significantly lower cognitive skills and are placed in low-resource schools, magnifying the initial inequality (Lee & Burkam, 2002).

According to O'Connell (2007), former California State Superintendent of Public Instruction, data show minority student achievement differences cannot be attributed strictly to poverty. O'Connell explained that African American and Hispanic-Latino student low academic achievement exists even when these students are socioeconomically advantaged. He said all groups of students have the ability to succeed, so we must remove the barriers holding back these students.

Similarly, the president of the University of Maryland claims the persistent achievement gap should motivate policymakers to find new ways to increase students' performance. Hrabowski (as cited in Dillon, 2009) stated, "Even middle-class students are unfortunately influenced by the culture that says it's simply not cool for students to be smart" (p. A1). Creative programs could model positive ethnic identity and inspire students to achieve academic excellence, he concluded.

Researchers are seeking better ways to reach minority youth, who constitute the future majority U.S. adult population. In a related development, Mayer and Salovey (1997) and Goleman (1995) identified social and emotional abilities as critical components for a successful life.

Conceptual Foundation of the Study

This research explores how racial identity and emotional intelligence associated with life-coping skills might impact academic achievement among Millennial Generation multiracial adolescents of African descent in the United States. Scholars define racial and ethnic identity as the meaning of race to an individual's self-concept (Phinney, 1996; Sellers, Smith, Shelton, Rowley, & Chavous, 1998). Race and ethnicity are only two of a number of factors (e.g., gender, educational and socioeconomic, etc.) impacting identity. Because ethnicity is a multidimensional construct, cultural norms and group belonging need to be identified and measured to determine the effects of ethnicity on behavioral outcomes (Phinney, 1996).

Genetic research is challenging how race may be defined in the future as scientists have determined individuals are more genetically diverse (85.4%) than their comparative geographic origin/ancestral groups, often referred to as racial groups (Lewontin, 1972, 2006). However, race is used as a basis for important medical, educational, economic and other public policy decisions (Ali-Khan & Daar, 2010; Hauskeller, 2014). At the same time, race is a valuable contextually-based social construct as developmental predictions made by racial-ethnic identity theorists have been supported by longitudinal research with consistent, normative and gradual, increases in racial-ethnic identity exploration and identification during early adolescence (Quintana, 2007).

For example, theorists such as Parham (2002) and Sellers & Shelton (2003) oppose recent trends in ethno-cultural research to remove the racial construct for those of African descent and focus only on ethnic and cultural identity. Parham (2002) and Sellers and Shelton (2003) believe individuals of African descent in the United States, regardless of ethnicity, education, socioeconomic status, or worldview, might potentially experience the vestiges of the American

history of slavery reflected in society, economics, justice, and politics. Therefore, the racial construct is a critical component of identity.

Sellers et al. (2006) note dimensions of racial identity are important for adolescents of African descent to compensate for and protect against the experiences of perceived discrimination they are subject to. Similarly, Parham (2002) advocates that any legitimate understanding about the identity Americans of African descent must include the characteristics of Afrocentric values (i.e., spiritualism, collectivism), but also must include the possibility of discrimination or marginalization.

On the other hand, Parham (2002) cautions against reducing people of African descent to their pigment, race or racial identity because their worldview and culture are central to their existence. Consequently, Americans of African descent require both racial and cultural constructs in order to find balance and congruence.

Because the students in this sample identified themselves as multiracial Americans of African descent, they indicate their worldview is Afrocentric. Therefore, this study's scope of inquiry is limited to racial identity for American multiracial students of African descent and does not consider the students' other ethnic or cultural aspects. Americans are only one group in a global diaspora of persons of African descent. People who migrated, whether voluntarily as immigrants, or involuntarily through slavery, war, or disaster, will manifest different cultural adaptations: some will maintain cultural connections, others blend former and new cultural constructs, and still others reject any association with their African heritage (Fisher, 2005; Ogbu & Simons, 1998).

Parham (2002) stresses any of these choices are valid as they represent the reality people currently embrace. Yet, cultural identity can be fluid because the desire to adapt or return to

one's culture is another choice. In any event, it is important to understand a student's current worldview, even in flux, as well as his or her cultural inheritance.

The challenge is to learn more about influence of racial identity for multiracial students of African descent who may exhibit low academic achievement even when they are socioeconomically advantaged with well-educated parents. This study is an attempt to understand how a student's worldview and cultural identity, viewed through the prism of racial identity constructs and emotional intelligence, might account for this discrepancy and what might be done to improve academic achievement for these students.

Conceptual Framework of the Study

The conceptual framework includes racial identity for African Americans, racial identity for multiracial Americans of African descent, emotional intelligence, and academic achievement.

Conceptual area 1: Racial identity for African Americans. Racial identity for African Americans is examined using the key studies of Cross's Nigrescense Theory, a 5-phase developmental model of acquisition of Black identification, and Ogbu's Academic Disengagement Theory. Ogbu's theory discusses students of African descent losing interest in academic achievement as a result of a youth culture allowed to flourish unchallenged by parents and teachers.

Conceptual area 2: Racial identity for multiracial Americans of African descent. Racial identity for multiracial Americans of African descent (Parham, 2002; Sellers, Smith et al., 1998) is viewed with Parham's Skills Identification Stage Model and Sellers's Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity.

Conceptual area 3: Emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence depends on the ability to identify and change the emotions in oneself, others individuals, or teams to increase

performance. Goleman (2011) believes emotional intelligence is both innate and teachable. Bar-On and Parker (2000) developed the emotional intelligence trait survey for adolescents used in this study.

Dependent variable: Academic achievement. Academic Achievement includes an overview the history of achievement testing in the U.S., ongoing research about the academic achievement gap (Ferguson, 2002; Walser, 2006), and the 2012 National Assessment of achievement gap (Ferguson, 2002; Walser, 2006), and the 2012 National Assessment of Educational Progress Assessment, commonly called The Nation's Report Card.
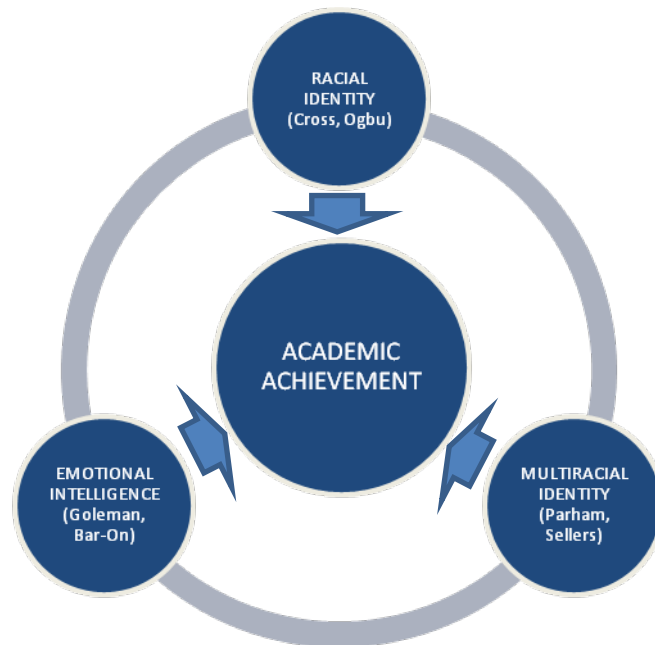
Figure 1. Conceptual model of influences on academic achievement for multiracial students of African descent.

Purpose of the Study

This study proposes three research questions to explore emotional intelligence dimensions and racial and multiracial identity attitudes on the academic achievement of multiracial Millennial Generation high school students of African descent. The research

questions ascertain whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence and racial and multiracial identity attitudes on academic achievement using both Spearman's rank correlation coefficient and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Both Pearson's r and Spearman's rho were used because of the small sample size and to capture both potential linear trends and/or the strength of association between variables.

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores?

2. Is there a relationship between the racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores?

3. Is there a relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores?

Hypotheses to be Explored

To answer the research questions, three primary research hypotheses were explored:

H_1: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores.

H_2: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores.

H_3: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores.

Research Question 1

The first research question evaluates the correlation between emotional intelligence, as established by the EQ-i, a 30-item self-survey with five factors that have been adapted for youth

(EQ-i: YV), to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. The EQ-i: YV survey measures emotional intelligence for five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

H1. Research Hypothesis

The first research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between five emotional intelligence factors and academic achievement. Five null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H1-H_{O1}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{O2}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{03}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{04}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{05}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{06}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{07}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{08}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{09}**:** There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{010}**:** There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Research Question 2

The second research question evaluates the correlation between the Cross Racial Identity scale score, a 30-item questionnaire with factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version [EQ-i YV] scale score, a 30-item self-survey (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The second research question and general hypothesis is that there is a relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score. One null hypotheses was tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H2-H_{011}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H2-H_{012}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Research Question 3

The third research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between the racial identity attitudes, based on the Cross Racial Identity Scale, to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. Six null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas to test for relationships between each of the six racial identity attitude scale scores and academic achievement scale score.

H3-H_{013}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{014}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{015}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{016}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{017}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{018}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{019}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{020}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{021}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{022}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{023}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{024}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Definition of Terms

Academic Achievement: In this study, academic achievement is defined by the 2009 California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts.

Adaptability: (a.k.a. change management) The emotional intelligence competency includes reality testing: to validate objectively one's feelings and thinking with external reality, flexibility: to adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations, and problem solving: to effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

American Indian or Alaskan Native: American Indian or Alaska Native refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of North and South America (including Central America) and who maintains tribal affiliation or community attachment. This category includes people who indicated their race(s) as American Indian or Alaska Native or reported their enrolled or principal tribe, such as Navajo, Blackfeet, Inupiat, Yup'ik, or Central American Indian groups or South American Indian groups (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Asian: Asian refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of the Far East, Southeast Asia, or the Indian subcontinent, including, for example, Cambodia, China, India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Pakistan, the Philippine Islands, Thailand, and Vietnam. It

includes people who indicated their race(s) as Asian or reported entries such as Asian Indian, Chinese, Filipino, Korean, Japanese, Vietnamese, and Other Asian or provided other detailed Asian responses (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Baby Boom Generation: Includes the following criteria: born from 1946 to 1964, age in 2014 is 50 to 68 years, comprise 32% of adult population, and represent 72% of non-Hispanic Whites (Pew Research Center, 2014).

Black or African American: Black or African American refers to a person having origins in any of the Black racial groups of Africa. It includes people who indicated their race(s) as Black, African American, or Negro or reported entries such as African American, Kenyan, Nigerian, or Haitian (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Emotional Intelligence: This study defined emotional intelligence competencies using five factors are: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

General Mood: (a.k.a. self-motivation) Includes optimism: to be positive and look at the brighter side of life, and happiness: to feel content with oneself, others, and life in general (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

Generation X: Includes the following criteria: born from 1966 to 1980, age in 2014 is 34 to 49 years, comprise 27& of adult population, and represent 61% of non-Hispanic Whites (Pew Research Center, 2014).

Greatest Generation: Includes the following criteria: born from 1901 to 1925, age in 2014 is 85 years and older, comprise .5% of adult population ages 85 to 95 years, and represent 90.2% of non-Hispanic Whites.

Immersion-Emersion Anti-White (IEAW): Individual wrestling with and coming to terms with being Black, often with the concomitant development of anti-White attitudes (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Internalization Afrocentric (IA): Individuals who highlight the importance of using Afrocentric values as a foundation for living (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Internalization Multicultural Inclusive (IMCI): Individuals who combine pro-Black feelings with positive attitudes toward all other cultural groups, including members of the majority culture (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Interpersonal: (a.k.a. social awareness and interpersonal relationship) Includes empathy: to be aware of and understand how others feel, social responsibility: to identify with one's social group and cooperate with others, and interpersonal relationships: to establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

Intrapersonal: (a.k.a. self-awareness and self-expression). Includes self-regard*:* to perceive accurately, understand and accept oneself, emotional self-awareness: to be aware of and understand one's emotions, assertiveness: to express effectively and constructively one's emotions and oneself, independence: to be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others, and self-actualization: to strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

Millennial Generation: Includes the following criteria: born after 1980, age of adults in 2014 is 18 to 33 years, comprise 27% of the adult age population, represent 57% of non-Hispanic Whites, and are America's most racially diverse generation with 43% are non-White members (Pew Research Center, 2014).

Monoracial: Monoracial refers to those who, regardless of genetic composition, identify themselves exclusively with only one racial category: White, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander. While these respondents are not included in this study, they are mentioned in the research.

Multiracial of African Descent: Multiracial respondents in this study are persons having origins in more than one race where one of their ancestral origins is of African descent.

Multiracial or Some Other Race: The Some Other Race category is a U.S. Census Form racial category not included in White, Black or African American, American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, and Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander racial categories. Respondents reporting as multiracial, mixed, interracial, or a Hispanic ethnic (e.g., Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, or Spanish) would have chosen the some other race selection in the 2010 U.S. Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander: Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Hawaii, Guam, Samoa, or other Pacific Islands. It includes people who indicated their race(s) as Pacific Islander or reported entries such as Native Hawaiian, Guamanian or Chamorro, Samoan, and Other Pacific Islander or provided other detailed Pacific Islander responses (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Preencounter Assimilation (PA): Individuals likely to downplay the importance of race in the United States (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Preencounter Miseducated (PM): Individuals who believe the negative stereotypes about African Americans (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Preencounter Self-Hatred (PSH): Individuals who express self-loathing and anti-Black sentiment because of beliefs of negative stereotypes (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Silent Generation: Includes the following criteria: born from 1928 to 1945, age in 2014 is 69-86 years, comprise 12% of adult population, and represent 79% of non-Hispanic Whites (Pew Research Center, 2014).

Race as Genetic Marker: Genetic research is challenging how race may be defined in the future as scientists have determined individuals are more genetically diverse (85.4 percent) than their comparative geographic origin/ancestral groups, often referred to as racial groups (Lewontin, 1972, 2006). Studies indicate individuals can be partitioned into genetic clusters that match major geographic subdivisions of the globe, with some individuals from intermediate geographic locations having mixed membership in the clusters that correspond to neighboring regions (Rosenberg et al., 2005).

Race as Social Construct: Race is a valuable contextually-based social construct as developmental predictions made by racial-ethnic identity theorists have been supported by longitudinal research with consistent, normative, and gradual increase in racial-ethnic identity exploration and identification during early adolescence (Quintana, 2007). Race is used as a basis for important medical, educational, economic and other public policy decisions (Ali-Khan & Daar, 2010; Hauskeller, 2014).

Racial Categories: Racial categories as delineated in the U.S. Census generally reflect a social definition of race recognized in this country and not an attempt to define race biologically, anthropologically, or genetically. In addition, racial categories include racial and national origin or sociocultural groups. People who identify their origin as Hispanic, Latino, or Spanish may be of any race. Respondents may select more than one race. The 2000 U.S. Census was the first to allow respondents to choose two or more races as a race category (Jones & Symens-Smith, 2001). The Census Bureau is considering new categories for the 2020 Census as many

multiracial groups believe they are marginalized with the current categories (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Racial Identity Attitude: This study defined racial identity attitude using the Cross Racial Identity Scale for African Americans with six factors: (a) Preencounter Self-Hatred, (b) Preencounter Miseducated, (c) Preencounter Assimilation, (d) Internalization Afrocentricity, (e) Immersion-Emersion Anti-White, and (f) Internalization Multiculturalist Inclusive (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Stress Management: (a.k.a. emotional management and regulation). Includes stress tolerance: to manage effectively and constructively emotions, and impulse control: to control effectively and constructively emotions (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

White: White refers to a person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa. It includes people who indicated their race(s) as White or reported entries such as Irish, German, Italian, Lebanese, Arab, Moroccan, or Caucasian (U.S. Census Bureau, 2014).

Summary

Chapter 1 has presented the introduction and problem statement, conceptual foundation, purpose of the study, research questions, and definition of terms. Chapter 2 will review the related literature regarding academic achievement, racial attitudes, and emotional intelligence. Chapter 3 includes the methodology and procedures used to gather data for this study. Chapter 4 reviews the analyses and any findings that emerge from the study. Chapter 5 concludes with a summary of the study and findings, conclusions, limitations, a discussion about considerations, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 2: Review of the Literature

This chapter reviews key published research in four conceptual areas: (a) Racial identity for African Americans, (b) Racial identity for multiracial Americans of African descent, (c) Emotional intelligence, and (d) Academic achievement.

Conceptual Areas

Conceptual area 1: Racial identity for African Americans. *The African American experience.* African American racial identity research was initially focused on cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes that Blacks undergo in order to achieve a healthy racial identity. Called the Nigrescence racial identity models, which translates as the process of becoming Black, the phrase was coined by Cross (1971). Key theorists include Akbar (1979), Baldwin (1980, 1981, 1984), Cross (1971, 1978, 1991, 1995), Cross and Fhagen-Smith (1996), Helms (1989, 1990, 1994, 2007), Helms & Parham (1996), Helms and Piper (1994), Jackson (1997), Jackson and Kirschner (1973), Kambon (1996), and Myers et al. (1991).

Racial identity scholars noted African American adolescents experience greater racial discrimination than adolescents from other races or ethnicities. More research is needed in this area since adolescence is a time of transition when self-esteem and group acceptance present great challenges (Fisher, Wallace, & Fenton, 2000; Romero & Roberts, 1998). Later, researchers found specific racial identity attitudes and beliefs might give individuals resilience to perceived racial discrimination and buffer them from any negative consequences (Neblett, Shelton, & Sellers, 2004; Neblett et al., 2008; Sellers, Caldwell, Schmeelk-Cone, & Zimmerman, 2003).

Subsequently, Sellers et al. (2006) noted dimensions of racial identity are important for adolescent African American youth to compensate for and protect against experiences of perceived discrimination. While theorists such as Parham (2002) pushed against the move from

racial to strictly ethnic and cultural identity because they believe a fuller understanding of

African American identity must include the characteristics of Afrocentric values (i.e.,

spiritualism, collectivism) as experienced in the environment of American society.

The Cross Nigrescence theory. Cross (1971) developed a 5-phase developmental theory

of acquisition of Black identification. He called this theory Nigrescence, which is translated from

Latin meaning to become Black. The five stages progress as Preencounter (one is unaware of his

or her race or racial implications), Encounter (first occurrence of racial awareness), Immersion

(often in response to racial encounter, one takes on all the identifying elements of his or her

race), Emersion (one values relationships with members of other races), and Internalization

(achieving comfort with one's own race as well as the race of those around oneself). Individuals

may flow from one stage back to another, but this is the way individuals integrate and internalize

the stages more deeply.

Cross (1995) revised his original concept of Nigrescence and simplified theory to reflect

three stages: *Preencounter, Internalization,* and *Immersion-Emmersion* attitudes.

Relevant definitions. Three groups are defined and labeled as Preencounter,

Internationalization, and Immersion-Emersion in the Cross Model (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Preencounter attitude. In general, these individuals believe race does not matter, do not

identify with their racial group membership, group-esteem could be positive or negative, but

exploration is very low (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

- Preencounter—placement of either a low or negative salience on being Black.

- Preencounter Miseducated—believe the negative stereotypes about African
  Americans and express self-loathing and anti-Black sentiment result from beliefs of
  negative stereotypes.

- Preencounter Assimilation—downplay the importance of race in the United States.

Internalization attitude. Individuals with Black acceptance (high positive race salience), confident, proud of their identity, and have a positive group-esteem (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

- Black Nationalist—concentrates energy to empower the Black community.

- Biculturalist—shows Black self-acceptance and focus on one other cultural orientation (e.g., gender, nationality, and sexual orientation). Biculturalists build coalitions beyond the Black community.

- Multiculturalist—focus actively on two or more salient cultural identities. Multiculturalists build coalitions beyond the Black community.

Immersion-emersion attitude. This attitude group struggles and come to terms with being Black, often with the concomitant development of anti-White attitudes. Two specific characterizations are seen within this attitude (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

- Intense Black Involvement—intense Black involvement described by an overromanticized immersion into the Black experience.

- Anti-White Stage—rejection of everything White, to the point of demonizing Whites and their culture.

The Ogbu theory of academic disengagement. Ogbu's (2003) Theory of Disengagement states many African American youth are disengaged from academic achievement because they embrace the negative aspects of popular street culture or a hybrid African American culture, while losing sight of the positive aspects of their African culture. The scholar studied African American high school students in an affluent Ohio school district and observed even students with professional parents and upper middle class homes were not interested in pursuing education of a life of acting white. Ogbu (2004) believed the students' desire to be cool and popular and a lack of understanding that better education equals better life choices. He wrote to parents, communities, and schools need to intervene against the negative effects of popular culture immediate gratification and escapism.

The view that public schools are a vehicle for cultural transmission is challenged by Ogbu (2003) who considers schools as institutions that prepare students for their future adult cultural tasks and roles in society. The researcher concluded immigrant minorities believe public schools should prepare students for social and economic upward mobility, while nonimmigrant minorities are not sure education is the key to success. While he notes both minority groups experience conflict with White Americans and mistrust them, nonimmigrants are more concerned with how they are treated in schools and whether teachers like them instead of demanding that schools provide adequate knowledge and skills so students can succeed in their careers and future lives.

A Nigerian immigrant to the United States, Ogbu (2003) felt American pop culture transmitted negative messages devaluing achievement and individual self-worth. Although Ogbu (2003) encountered some African American students and their families who don't trust Whites based on prior cultural mistreatment or negative work experiences, he encouraged students to see teachers as knowledge experts and schools as a means for future social and economic success.

Ogbu (2003) maintained African American students and their parents need to take more responsibility to improve academic achievement. He recommends, among other things, greater parental involvement, culturally responsive teaching, and enhanced student recognition about the link between schools and employment opportunities, and greater choice over schools and teacher quality.

Conceptual area 2: Racial identity for multiracial Americans of African descent. Racial Identity for Multiracial Americans of African Descent is viewed with Parham's Skills Identification Stage Model (Parham, 2001) and Sellers' Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity (Sellers et al., 1998).

Multiracial theory for Americans of African descent. Recent minority racial identity research stressed multiracialism-multiculturalism by parsing out racial identity and emphasizing only ethnic and culture aspects as critical constructs and focusing on how people construct meaning between diverse racial-cultural groups (Ivey, D'Andrea, Ivey & Simek-Morgan, 2007) and within the same racial-cultural groups (Sue & Sue, 2012).

As stated earlier, Parham (2002) and Sellers et al. (2006) oppose recent trends in ethno cultural research to remove the racial construct and focus only on ethnic and cultural identity when considering Americans of African descent. Parham (2002) and Sellers et al. (2006) believe any person of African descent in the United States, regardless of ethnicity, education, socioeconomic status, or worldview, might potentially experience the vestiges of the American history of slavery reflected in society, economics, justice, and politics. Therefore, the racial construct is a critical component of identity.

The Parham Skills Identification Stage theory. Parham (2002) questions how practitioners or organizations (e.g., teachers or schools) can effectively support students of African descent if the practitioners do not understand the African worldview. For people of African descent, racial identity development is a lifelong, continuously changing, process (Parham, 1989).

The nature of African people is divine, which means they aspire to be God-like (Parham, 2002). He writes the psyche of African descent people is composed of a soul alongside personal-tribal-social-physical aspects of the self. Parham questions how practitioners or organizations (e.g., teachers or schools) can effectively support students of African descent if they do not understand the African worldview.

Parham (2002) developed his Skills Identification Stage Model to help psychologists and counselors reflect on how better to serve ethno culturally diverse individuals. He developed a foundation of five principles practitioners should reflect on when working with clients. His complete model considers five ethno cultural groups (e.g., African American, Latino/a American, Asian American, American Indian-Alaska Native, and Middle Eastern American) vis-à-vis five issues (e.g., Ontology, Axiology, Cosmology, Epistemology, and Praxis).

For the focus of this study, Parham's (2002) model considered five issues salient for African Americans and categorized to enhance culturally adaptive counselling (Gallardo, Yeh, Trimble & Parham, 2011).

1. Ontology: (e.g., Reality perceived as an interconnected universe). Townsend and McWhirter (2005) state connectedness takes into account the economic, political, cultural, ethnic, and social forces that impact the lives of people. In other words, counselors cannot adequately assess a situation and help students achieve academically if they are not able to consider these aspects of a student's world.

2. Axiology: (e.g., Values include collective survival, emotional vitality, and harmony with the past and present community). The struggle to achieve balance or congruence regarding identity is at the core of the identity struggle (Parham, 1993). Franklin (1999) writes that African Americans face a series of sociocultural challenges in addition to normal life struggles that make it difficult to maintain that harmony. Franklin notes that repeated exposure to discrimination, feeling either invisible or singled out for scrutiny, and needing to overcome again and again stereotypes held by others about members of your community is especially difficult for young people who are still developing their sense of who they are.

3. Cosmology: (e.g., Divine nature-spirit as represented in the physical world by people, seasons, etc.). The African-centered worldview encompasses the spiritual realm, where spiritual awareness is the essence of one' humanity (Parham, 1999). For Parham, this entails a belief that any healing-change requires a focus on the spiritual connection to cognition and behavior, both for an individual and a community.

4. Epistemology: (e.g., Nature and validity of knowledge valued through direct experience). Includes valuing the knowledge gained by ancestors, acknowledging unseen forces in the world, and being open to the information transmitted through the senses or intuition.

5. Praxis: (e.g., Moral laws and principles that guide human conduct). Parham (1999) notes when basic needs and personal affirmation are not met, individuals might become less risk averse in an effort to meet those needs. Therefore, when counselors-teachers notice inappropriate behavior, they should first work with a student to identity the unmet need. Then, they should work with the student to develop socially acceptable ways to meet those needs and reduce the negative consequences of pursuing ineffective and risky strategies.

The Sellers Racial Identity Multidimensional theory. The Multidimensional Model of

Racial Identity proposes a conceptual framework for understanding the heterogeneity in African

Americans' attitudes regarding the importance and meaning that they attach to race (Sellers et al.

1998). Within the model, four dimensions of racial identity are proposed: Salience, Centrality,

Regard, and Ideology.

1. Salience: Refers to the extent to which race is relevant to the self-concept at a particular point in time or in a particular situation. Unlike the other three dimensions, Salience is likely to change as a function of context.

2. Centrality: Defines the extent to which an individual normatively emphasizes racial group membership as part of their overall self-concept.

3. Regard: Describes whether an individual feels positively or negatively about African American group membership and is divided into two sub dimensions: *Public* and *Private.*

   - Public regard: Defines the extent to which an individual feels that others view the African American community in a positive or negative manner.

   - Private regard. Refers to the extent to which an individual feels positively or negatively toward the African American community as well as how she or he feels about being a member of this community.

4. Racial ideology: Defines one's philosophy about the ways that members of the African American community should act. It is composed of four subcomponents: Nationalist, Oppressed Minority, Assimilationist, and Humanist (Sellers et al., 1998).

   - Nationalist ideology: Emphasizes the uniqueness of being African American and is characterized by the support of African American organizations and preference for African American social environments.

   - Oppressed minority ideology: Refers to the similarities between the experiences of African Americans and other oppressed minority groups.

- Assimilationist ideology: Addresses the similarities between African American and mainstream American society.

- Humanist ideology: Speaks to the similarities among all people regardless of race.

Sellers et al. (2006) noted dimensions of racial identity are important for adolescent African American youth to compensate for and protect against experiences of perceived discrimination.

Racial identity for adolescents. Although the majority of research utilizing the Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity has been conducted with college student or adult community samples, two studies have used the Centrality and Regard subscales of the Multidimensional Model of Racial Identity with African American high school students (Rowley, Sellers, Chavous, & Smith, 1998; Sellers, Caldwell, Schmeelk-Cone, & Zimmerman, 2003. Although both studies reported information regarding the internal consistency of the Centrality and Regard subscales, neither study provided information regarding the construct validity of the subscales within their samples.

There are important developmental differences between college students (emerging adults) and adolescents that call into question the appropriateness of a single measure of racial identity for both age groups (Arnett, 1999; Arnett & Taber, 1994; Eccles, Templeton, Barber, & Stone, 2003). Adolescents live in a different social environment than college students. The struggle for autonomy is an important developmental life task for all stages of adolescence. However, teens in early and middle adolescence are doing so under their parents' or other adult authority figures' supervision. Although peers can be an increasingly important socializing role, for most teens in early and middle adolescence, the family is the primary racial socializing agent (Hughes et al., 2006).

Racial identity as an academic risk-factor approach. Scholars define racial and ethnic identity as the meaning of race to an individual's self-concept (Phinney, 1996; Sellers et al., 1998) and central to adolescent development among minority youth (Cross & Cross, 2010). Racial identity (i.e., race-related beliefs and experiences) affects the academic achievement of minority youth in positive or negative ways, depending on the ethnic identity beliefs or self-constructed meanings associated with being a member of an ethnic group (Charmaraman & Grossman, 2010).

New teachers often believe it is more important to treat all students as individuals and not consider race as part of a student's personal identity (Markus, Steele, & Steele, 2002; Rousseau & Tate, 2003). This teacher orientation means learning takes place in a sterile and artificial environment where minority students must pretend to have White middle-class values in order to be seen as a positive learner. The additional pressure on minority students can make learning more difficult (Delpit, 1995; Ladson-Billings, 1995; McAllister & Irvine, 2000).

Other researchers believe ethnic identity interferes with academic achievement in the United States. The crux of this research maintains minority students disengage because their ethnic group(s) is cast in a negative light (Crocker & Major, 1989; Osborne, 1997). Tension and frustration affect their motivation to achieve and other behaviors necessary for scholarly success because students have to resist the negative stereotyping of their ethnic group(s) while trying to learn.

Negative emotions and fear about one's ethnic group succeeding in academic subjects can affect a student's ability to learn and study, and over time, undermine a student's academic success by eroding opportunity with doubt, procrastination, and underachievement. Individuals who perceive discrimination for their ethnic group disengage with the educational process, while

those who emphasize their ethnic identity are particularly vulnerable to barriers to academic achievement (Aronson, 2002; Steele, 1997).

Research on U.S. minority students from the 1980s to 2000 focused primarily on the academic achievement gap between Black and White students, and 2000 to present studies include achievement levels among White, Black, Latino, Asian, and multiracial students. Scholars searched for various explanations from genetic inferiority (Herrnstein & Murray, 1994; Jensen, 1969), structural and environmental factors (Boykin, 1986; Noguera, 2003; Oakes, 1985; Perry, Steele, & Hilliard, 2003), reproduction (Bourdieu, 1986; Bowles & Gintis, 1976, 2002), opposition (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986), and resistance (Cummins, 1996; Giroux, 1983; Kohl, 1994).

Qualitative research emerged to give voice to minority students about student performance (Bergin & Cooks, 2002; Carter, 2003; Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Hemmings, 1996; Nieto, 2004). Additionally, researchers analyzed teaching techniques for cultural relevance to diverse student groups (Gay, 2000; Hale, 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Ladson-Billings & Tate, 1998).

Cultural and educational processes were analyzed to determine why the achievement gap between minorities and White students continues. Scholars examined minority student assimilation regarding values, beliefs, and norms of the larger culture to see if these contrasts created educational tension for diverse students (deMarrais & LeCompte, 1999; Nieto, 2004). Researches explored the melting-pot concept and this approach provided the salient knowledge and skills students needed (Appleton, 1983). Ogbu (2003) contends Black students' admiration for athletes, sports heroes, and famous entertainers comes at the expense of interest in the lives of scientists, engineers, writers, academics, lawyers, and other professions that require advanced

education. As a result, educators are challenged to inspire students who are immersed in a popular culture that devalues the formal education that leads to upward mobility (Noguera, 2003).

One aspect of cultural adaptation for Black students is the use of both White standard English and Black standard English, known as code (Smitherman, 1995), and suggests middle-class Blacks, who speak standard White English, perform better in school, attain higher education, and have cultural capital. However, middle-class Blacks, who can also speak standard Black English, build effective social networks and benefit from social capital (Carter, 2003). Thus code-switching, similar to being able to speak and translate a foreign language, is a linguistic skill that advantages Black students who are able to speak in both English dialects (Bergin & Cooks, 2002; Hemmings, 1996).

Navigating through adolescence and education present daunting challenges. Some African American students reject behaviors perceived as White even though these behaviors might lead to better academic achievement in a Euro-Anglo-based society. For example, issues such as speaking White Standard English, enrolling in honors and advanced placement classes, or completing homework, etc. (Ainsworth-Darnell & Downey, 1998; Carter, 2003; Cook & Ludwig, 1998; Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Harpalani, 2002; O'Connor, 1997). Part of adolescent development includes constructing a general sense of identity and values—developing how to think and act appropriately. During this phase, adolescents also differentiate their various social identities—the self-constructed definitions of who they are in relation to their social groups.

At the same time, research shows promising students can succeed under the right circumstances. Teachers matter and need to be recruited from the top of the talent pool and credentialed in the subjects they are teaching, which is frequently not the case in poor or

minority schools. Teachers need to believe minority students can and will achieve by setting high standards and giving extra support when needed. Finally, teachers need to be supported by the community with decent salaries and working conditions (Haycock, 2013). Teachers need ongoing professional development experiences to assist them in recognizing and developing students with mathematical and scientific promise, especially identifying gifted students to be inclusive of different cultures, races, and economic circumstances (Adams et al., 2009).

Suburban Black students from privileged families continue to underperform academically, according to Ferguson (as cited in Walser, 2006), an Economics professor at Harvard University and founder of Tripod Project, an initiative to measure student engagement by race and gender. Ferguson, who researched students in 95 schools representing 15 school districts, compared students from different racial groups with parents of comparable education. His concern is why Black students with college educated parents have lower average test scores than White students whose parents have college degrees.

An ethnographic study of Black and White students from an upper-middle class high school in Shaker Heights, Ohio, showed Black students are disengaged as a result of complex historic and cultural reasons. Ogbu (2003) believes schools can improve minority academic achievement by understanding how their organizations treat minority students and how those students interpret that treatment. This understanding is critical if schools are to develop strategies to engage and inspire these youth to excel academically. Ogbu (2003) studied the academic performance of immigrants' and nonimmigrants' (i.e., voluntary and involuntary, such as slavery, respectively) children for several decades and found involuntary nonimmigrants had more difficulty adapting to the host country culture.

Minority students' achievement or oppositional attitudes are not learned in the community but in schools under certain conditions, according to Duke University public policy professor William (Sandy) Darity, Jr. (as cited in Kemp, 2004). The researcher believes ant achievement attitudes can develop when gifted minority children feel socially isolated in advanced placement classes. He observed ant achievement attitudes, which are prevalent in high school, are almost nonexistent in elementary school.

Within several well-known theoretical models, ethnic minority identity has been posited to place individuals at risk for decreased academic engagement. This results from the influence a heightened awareness of their racial group's negative status in society (Aronson, 2002; Fordham, 1988; Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Mickelson, 1990; Steinberg, Dornbusch, & Brown, 1992). The cultural-ecological framework of ethnic minority achievement Fordham and Ogbu (1986) offered, for instance, asserts that because African American populations immigrated to the United States under conditions of oppression and opportunity constraint, they developed a collective group identity that rejects institutions that are dominated by the oppressive mainstream culture, including the American education system. As a consequence, youth's identification with a Black identity came to entail a rejection of a proachievement orientation, including attitudes and behaviors associated with being successful in school.

Fordham (1988) expanded on this framework, positing that sustained school success for high-achieving African American students entails minimizing their connectedness to their racial identity in exchange for mainstream attitudes and values that are better aligned with an academic identity, a process termed becoming race-less. A similar theme within education research is the notion that having a colorblind perspective is the best way to ameliorate racial group differences in achievement. Within the education field, the majority of teachers are White, from backgrounds

that differ from those of students of color, and often have had limited multicultural training (Ford & Harris, 1996).

     Ethnic identity promoting academic achievement. Previously, experts believed minority youth with a strong identification to their ethnic identity had lower academic achievement. Researchers believe youngsters with strong and positive ethnic identity are at less risk for decreased academic engagement. In fact, a strong, positive sense of racial identity relates to more positive achievement values and can facilitate the development of positive academic motivation. Recent studies show when minority students get positive affirmation, they feel more confident and are able to reframe challenges as temporary rather than permanent barriers to success (Sherman et al., 2013).

     Ethnic minority identity also has been conceptualized as an important psychologically protective set of beliefs that individuals have developed to buffer the impact of racial discrimination and stigmatized status, although the identity-as-risk approach has received a great deal of attention (Cross, Parham, & Helms, 1998). Researchers have begun to conceptualize racial-ethnic identity as an important resilience resource in the normative development of African American youth (Cross, Strauss, & Fhagen-Smith, 1999; Spencer, Cunningham, & Swanson, 1995; Spencer, Dupree, & Hartmann, 1997). This view of ethnic identity, while recognizing the significant challenges that confront African American youth, also acknowledges that many youth are resilient in the face of those challenges.

     A strong, positive sense of ethnic identity promotes achievement and is consistent with a historic view of both Black and Hispanic immigrant communities. Although these groups were denied opportunities for education and advancement (during and after slavery for African

Americans or after immigration for Hispanic and Asian Americans), they placed importance on education as the means for upward mobility (Chavous et al., 2003).

Thus, ethnic identity can relate to a meaning-making process that affords members of historically oppressed ethnic minority groups an opportunity to define their racial membership in such a way that academic success can be seen as valuable despite structural- and individual-level barriers (such as stigma and racial discrimination) to academic success. For instance, African American middle school students closely connected to a Black identity that values achievement are more academically motivated and performed better than youth who identified less with their ethnic group and don't value achievement (Altschul, Oyserman, & Bybee, 2006).

Chavous et al. (2003) also found that African American high school students who had a strong ethnic group identity accompanied by group pride and awareness of societal discrimination had more positive academic attitudes and showed higher academic persistence and postsecondary educational attainment than youth who deemphasized their ethnic identities, felt less group pride, and who were less conscious of the potential for bias against their group. For instance, Sellers et al. (2006) found that Black youth having an ethnic identity characterized by feelings of strong group connection and group pride showed more positive psychological well-being when experiencing racial discrimination compared to those adolescents with less strong feelings of connection to and positive attitudes about their ethnic group. Wong, Eccles, and Sameroff (2003) found that African American adolescents who had a strong connection and pride in being Black were protected from any negative impact on academic attitudes and performance while experiencing racial discrimination at school relative to those with less of a strong, positive connection with their ethnic group.

Researchers Fisher et al. (2000) noted adolescents experience increased racial cleavage, social comparison, and a heightened awareness of racial and ethnic stereotypes in high school. In addition, a minority adolescent's level of academic engagement is influenced further by his or her own ethnic identity. Research suggests ethnic identity can cut both ways: It might serve as a risk factor and lower academic motivation and achievement or serve as a source of pride and promote academic motivation and achievement.

A sense of ethnic identity becomes salient for many ethnic minority adolescents as they explore the significance of their heritage. Some minority students have disengaged or ambivalent attitudes toward their racial-ethnic backgrounds because other aspects of identity related to self-concept, such as gender or sexual orientation, are more important in defining who they are (Phinney, 1990; Spencer & Markstrom-Adams, 1990).

Ethnic identity is not a monolithic structure, but an intricate web constructed of many elements, including how a culture defines meaning, how important ethnicity is to an individual, and an individual's perceived meaning in the world. Charmaraman and Grossman (2010) define ethnic identity as either a label (descriptive), an emotional self-perception (affective), or a rigid one-size-fits-all definition (prescriptive). Thus, adolescents' awareness of social identity influences their adaptation and response in situations in which those identities are important.

Altschul et al. (2006) define Racial Ethnic Identity as: (a) connectedness to one's racial-ethnic group, (b) awareness of racism, and (c) embedded achievement or feeling one's in-group is characterized by academic attainment. Their research of urban high school students found commonalities in racial ethnic identity among African American and Latino youth. Students with high scores in both racial ethnic identity connectedness and racial ethnic identity embedded achievement attained better grade point averages.

Asians are an outlier minority group regarding academic achievement, as this group outperforms Whites. A study of American, Taiwanese, and Japanese students shows Asian parents believe effort is more important than ability in academic achievement while American parents believe ability and effort are equal for success (Stevenson, Lee, & Stigler, 1986). Similarly, another study revealed 60% of Chinese and Japanese students said studying hard was critical to mastering mathematics compared to only 30% of American students who believe this is true (Stevenson, Chen, & Lee, 1993). Although researchers observed superior academic achievement with Asian students, Asians remain underrepresented in the hierarchy of U.S. organizations. Scholars speculate a lack of emotional intelligence-related skills, not related to motivation and self-control but related to social skills in American culture, might account for this.

Immigrant children were studied to determine whether race-ethnicity, national origin, or generation were advantages or disadvantages. The researchers discovered acculturation was a complex process, with immigrant families assimilating at different rates, depending on their access to human and financial capital, education, host community support, the social conditions experienced prior to immigration, and cultural patterns (i.e., values, family relations, and social ties). Regardless of country of origin, first-generation immigrant children showed stronger initiative, self-control, attachment, good behavior, emotional competence, and maturity than either nonimmigrant or subsequent generations of immigrant youth (Feyter & Winsler, 2009).

Social identity cannot be separated from the complications of history and culture (Huddy, 2001). Nuances in identity choice, subjectivity, strength, and stability are important. Huddy cautions against social identity studies performed only in controlled laboratory settings when identities are held with varying degrees of strength and are subject to change over time. More

exploration about the formation and development of identity is needed to understand how identity is acquired and why it becomes strong or weak. Huddy believes strong groups have values linking them to historic moments and/or cultural practices.

Racial and ethnic identities, which are rooted in the study of culture, are exhibited by lifeways (ethno cultural group-specific ways of living and being) and thought ways (ethno cultural group-specific ways of thought). It is important to understand how someone frames his or her identity within the historical development of racial identity constructs (Trimble, 2007).

Phinney, a California State University researcher, revised her Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure, a model for ethnic identity in minority adolescents originally developed in 1992. While working with Anthony Ong from Cornell University, the researchers determined most ethnic measures focus only on group identity. Individual ethnic identity in the U.S. is dynamic, changing, and evolving. One must grasp an individual's self-concept as well as the emotional significance and value of maintaining group membership. Phinney and Ong (2007) recommend future research explore ethnic identity as a multidimensional construct. Understanding an individual's sense of self is central and is composed of group-specific values, attitudes, and behaviors in a social context over time.

Conceptual area 3: Emotional intelligence. *The Goleman Emotional Intelligence theory*. The model Goleman (1995) introduced focuses on emotional intelligence as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines five main emotional intelligence constructs:

1. Self-awareness—the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, values, and goals, and recognize your impact on others.

2. Self-regulation—involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

3. Social skill—managing relationships to move people in the desired direction.

4. Empathy—considering other people's feelings especially when making decisions.

5. Motivation—being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement.

Goleman (1995) includes a set of emotional competencies within each construct of emotional intelligence. Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. Goleman's model of emotional intelligence has been criticized in the research literature as mere pop psychology (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008).

Recent advances in neuroscience demonstrate emotional intelligence abilities are located in specific sections of the brain and permit scientific testing of cognitive abilities. As a result, scholars understand emotional competency skills (i.e., self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness, and social skills) are physically hardwired in the brain and cannot be dismissed as simply theoretical constructs. As a result of these medical advances, neuroscientists understand how emotional intelligence capabilities are critical for achievement and goal attainment. Researchers have used this information to propose emotional intelligence includes empathy, including attunement, empathic accuracy, and social cognition, and social facility, comprising synchrony, self-presentation, influence, and concern (Goleman, 2011).

Goleman (1998) asserts we need the emotional intelligence abilities, such as adaptability in the face of change, self-confidence to make sound decisions, innovativeness to seek fresh ideas from different sources, empathy to understand customer needs, mentors to lead others, and effective communication, to provide the adaptability and team-building skills necessary to thrive in a changing world. In his latest research, Goleman (2013) ponders the loss of focus as ever-

present technology allows us to freedom to leave the present moment and cater to a seemingly endless stream of distractions. This unbridled technology can both help and hinder students trying to achieve while coping with rapid technological, social, and global change.

The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory. The Bar-On (1997) model provides the theoretical basis for the EQ-i, which was originally developed to assess various aspects of this construct as well as to examine its conceptualization. According to this model, emotional-social intelligence is a cross-section of interrelated emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators that determine how effectively we understand and express ourselves; understand others and relate with them; and cope with daily demands. The emotional and social competencies, skills, and facilitators referred in this conceptualization include the five key components described above, and each of these components comprises a number of closely related competencies and skills.

The EQ-i was the first measure of its kind to be published by a psychological test publisher (Bar-On, 1997), the first such measure to be peer-reviewed in the *Buros Mental Measurement Yearbook* (Plake & Impara, 1999), and the most widely used measure of emotional-social intelligence to date (Bar-On, 2004).

In brief, the EQ-i contains 133 items in the form of short sentences and employs a 5-point response scale with a textual response format ranging from very seldom or not true of me to very often true of me or true of me. The EQ-i is suitable for respondents 17 years of age and older and takes approximately 40 minutes to complete.

The participant answers create a total EQ score and scores on the following five composite factors:

- *Intrapersonal* (comprising Self-Regard, Emotional Self-Awareness, Assertiveness, Independence, and Self-Actualization);

- *Interpersonal* (comprising Empathy, Social Responsibility, and Interpersonal Relationship);

- *Stress Management* (comprising Stress Tolerance and Impulse Control);

- *Adaptability* (comprising Reality-Testing, Flexibility, and Problem-Solving); and

- *General Mood* (comprising Optimism and Happiness).

Problems in coping with one's environment are thought by Bar-On (2004) to be especially common among those individuals lacking in the adaptability factor subscales of reality testing, problem solving, stress tolerance, and impulse control.

In every society, parents want their children to be educated in a holistic way. While they want children to be literate in language, mathematics, science, and able to sustain themselves economically, they also want children to be caring people who respect others, have ethics, morals, and good character (Elias, 2006). Although the concept of educating the whole child is not a new discovery but part of ancient culture, it can be a challenge in a fast-paced society no longer centered on family, extended families, and cultural traditions. Today, what we call social-emotional learning means giving children a foundation of character, discipline, citizenship, and emotional competencies to complement academic rigor and allow students to develop, contribute to society, prosper and enjoy their lives (Elias, 2006).

Initial research. The subject of emotional intelligence gained national attention when Goleman (1995) published his best-selling book titled *Emotional Intelligence*. In actuality, scholars had been investigating the subject of social intelligence for decades (Chapin, 1942; Doll, 1935; Moss, Hunt, Omwake, & Ronning, 1927; Thorndike & Stein, 1937). Charles Darwin might have written the earliest study of emotional-social intelligence in 1872, when he described how emotional expression is crucial for survival and adaptation (as cited in Hess & Thibault, 2009).

Research regarding social intelligence evolved from merely cataloging descriptions of social intelligence to seeking how interpersonal behavior effects adaptation (Zirkel, 2000). Early work on social intelligence influenced the progression of study on emotional intelligence, leading to several conceptual models. The most prominent are Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model, an ability-based measure to perceive understand and manage emotions; Goleman's (1998) model, an array of capacities and skills to drive managerial performance; and Bar-On's (1997) model, a self-reporting measure to identify a range of interrelated emotional and social competencies.

Another way to define emotional intelligence is in three distinct branches (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005). The first two branches draw on Mayer and Salovey's (1997) work and define emotional intelligence as a set of interrelated emotional abilities, such as perceiving and managing emotions, in order to attain goals. The first branch uses ability-based emotional intelligence tests such as the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence Test (Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso 2004) and the Diagnostic Analysis of Nonverbal Accuracy (Nowicki, & Duke, 2001). The second branch uses self-assessments or other reports of emotional intelligence behavior, such as the Workgroup emotional intelligence Profile (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002).

The third branch defines emotional intelligence more widely as an array of dispositions, competencies, and perceptions related to the management of emotions seen in self-awareness, empathy, positive mood, decision making, etc. The third branch uses self-assessments such as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (Bar-On, 1997) and the Emotional Competence Inventory (Wolff, 2005).

During the past 10 years, brain researchers have made significant medical advances. Specifically, great progress has been made in understanding the parts of the brain that control various aspects of human adaptation. Goleman (2011) believes these medical advances quantify his ongoing research on emotional intelligence. The emotional intelligence framework contends self-management, self-awareness, social awareness, and relationship management are required to learn, adapt, and thrive and neurological research confirms discrete areas of the brain correspond to certain emotional intelligence competencies.

Bar-On (2006) developed the Bar-On Model of Emotional-Social Intelligence to understand the role of interpersonal behavior in effective adaptation; for example, Bar-On studied the capacity of an individual to act purposefully with self-awareness, social awareness, stress tolerance, adaptability, and self-motivation with a general mood of optimism and contentment. While working with neurosurgeons, Bar-On discovered distinct brain circuitry showing emotional intelligence resides in parts of the brain distinct from cognitive areas (academic, math, verbal spatial, and IQ) or personality traits. The emotional intelligence regions help people resolve personal and interpersonal problems such as managing impulses, expressing feelings, and relating to others. Further, Bar-On developed a test to evaluate self-mastery, including self-awareness and self-management, to help people in four distinct areas: (a) managing emotions (b) drive to achieve, (c) adaptability, and (d) initiative. Each of these four capacities is required for academic achievement.

Emotional intelligence as promoting academic achievement. Goleman (1995) maintained that success by American standards is a result of 80% emotional intelligence and 20% IQ. Goleman believes emotional intelligence skills can be taught. A lack of emotional intelligence in minority adolescents can be observed in reduced self-awareness, communication

skills, and self-discipline, behaviors that hinder academic achievement. Goleman asserted that emotional intelligence skills can be taught, and later medical breakthroughs in neurosurgery verified his thesis (Goleman, 2011).

Goleman and several others founded the Collaborative for Academic, Social and Emotional Learning at the University of Illinois at Chicago to advance science and evidence-based practice of social and emotional learning and establish emotional intelligence as part of a national school curriculum. Since then, several hundred studies using experimental designs with control groups have documented the positive effects of social and emotional learning programming on children of diverse backgrounds from preschool through high school in urban, suburban, and rural settings (Durlak, Weissberg, & Pacham 2010; Greenberg et al., 2003).

Although research demonstrates emotional intelligence can improve academic performance on standardized tests, so far, Illinois is the only state with free-standing, comprehensive standards at the K-12 level. However, more states are moving in this direction, with 42 states and two territories in the process of adopting the Common Core Standards in English Language Arts, which contain standards on communication (especially speaking and listening), cooperation skills, and problem solving (Dusenbury, Zadrazil, Mart, & Weissberg, 2011). State core curriculums should design programs to merge social and emotional learning skills because academic skills develop with them. For instance, schools should emphasize social and emotional learning skills in literacy, civics, and social studies with academic achievement (Jones, & Bouffard, 2012).

Emotional intelligence as promoting leadership development. Walter, Cole, and Humphrey (2011) in an Academy of Management Perspectives article on emotional intelligence, recommend future studies evaluate cross-cultural implications of emotional intelligence and

neuroscientific evidence that individuals can develop emotional intelligence through experiential training. The article concludes that emotional intelligence can help scholars understand leadership emergence, behavior, and effectiveness.

Organizational development practitioners have successfully used emotional intelligence theory to improve leader, team, and individual capacity in the workplace for many years. Emotional intelligence skills help adults cope with rapid technological, social, and global changes by developing skills such as adaptability, self-confidence to make sound decisions, innovativeness to seek fresh ideas from different sources, empathy to understand customer needs, mentor others, and communicate effectively (Goleman, 2011).

Conceptual area 4: Academic achievement in U.S. schools. *Standardized* t*est scores matter*. In many schools, student grade promotions are based on standardized test scores as well as criteria for admission to gifted and talented programs and specialized high schools. Additionally, a portion of teachers' evaluations, school funding, and accreditation are determined by student scores. As a result, these tests are not taken whimsically or casually but with the sobering knowledge that so much rides on the results of the tests scores for the future of the students, teachers, and schools.

History of the U.S. academic test model. Early learning evaluation in the U.S. began with Edward Thorndike, who developed the CAVD Intelligence Test, which became the foundation for modern intelligence tests. Called the father of modern educational psychology, the Thorndike Handwriting Scale was the first standardized achievement test widely used in public schools.

Alfred Binet devised the first intelligence test in 1905 and Stanford professor Lewis Terman published a revised edition known as the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test in 1916. The

Rockefeller Foundation awarded Terman a grant to develop a national intelligence test for children in 1919. Within a year, almost 500,000 tests were given in public schools. Together, Thorndike and Terman initiated the large-scale use of standardized tests that would become an evolving and, at times, contentious debate about how to measure achievement, who to measure, what to measure, and what the potential implications would be for the students, teachers, schools, and ultimately, society, depending upon student performance.

In the 1950s, Americans became concerned about U.S. students falling behind overseas students in academic performance. Flesch (1955) believed U.S. student academic performance trailed their counterpart European students because American students did not read well. An Austrian-born naturalized American, Flesch wrote *Why Johnny Can't Read*. The bestselling book explained that European children used phonics to sound out words and often were reading by first grade. By contrast, American children memorized whole words, making reading a more difficult and slow process. Additionally, U.S. children were unable to teach themselves new words by hearing how the word was spoken, which is how language is naturally learned.

Congress passed the National Defense Education Act in 1958 in response to the Soviet Union's launch of Sputnik, which ignited a national movement to raise standards in mathematics and science as both an economic and national security issue. The act funded more than $880 million for college loans, fellowships, and research in math, science, and foreign languages (Flattau, 2007).

During the 1960s, Congress passed the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965) in response to President Johnson's War on Poverty Program. Billions of dollars have been allocated since to support schools, communities, and children of underserved populations. Programs such as Head Start, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act, and

the No Child Left Behind Act increased federal support with programs administered at the state level.

By 1969, the Carnegie Foundation started the National Assessment of Educational Progress, also known as the Nation's Report Card, which is a Congressionally mandated project administered by the National Center for Education Statistics. The report is the largest continuous national assessment of American student scores in core subjects.

By the 1980s, President Reagan convened the National Commission on Excellence in Education to investigate the quality of education in America's schools. The result was the 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform,* which recommended the establishment of a common core curriculum and national academic standards. The report initiated numerous local, state, and federal education reforms. Later, President Clinton signed the Improving America's Schools Act in 1994, which required the states to develop performance standards, included help for disadvantaged students, promoted charter schools, promised safe and drug-free schools, and increased bilingual and immigrant education funding.

Subsequently, President Bush signed the No Child Left Behind legislation, which required states that receive Title 1 federal funds to participate in National Assessment of Educational Progress (aka, the Nation's Report Card) assessments in reading and mathematics at Grades 4 and 8 every 2 years. The assessments do not provide individual student scores.

Common Core State Standards Initiative is a state-led effort coordinated by the National Governor's Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers. Rigorous education standards establish a set of shared goals and expectations for what students should understand and be able to do in Grades K-12 in order to be prepared for success in college and the

workplace. The standards are research and evidence based and internationally benchmarked. They have been voluntarily adopted by 45 states and the District of Columbia.

President Obama observed approximately 12% of America's schools produce 50% of America's dropouts (Obama, 2010). Under the President Obama's education policy, failing schools compete for School Improvement Grants. States identify the lowest-performing schools in economically challenged communities and use the Title I School Improvement Grants to transform the selected schools (U.S. Department of Education, 2014).

Schools receiving grants must implement one of four school improvement models: turnaround, restart, close-consolidation, or transformation: (a) Turnaround: Replace the principal, rehire no more than 50% of the staff, and give the new principal freedom to make changes; (b) Restart: Convert or close and reopen a school under a charter school operator or education management organization; (c) Close-Consolidation: Close a school and enroll the students other district schools with better performance; or (d) Transformation: Either (a) replace the principal and increase teacher effectiveness, (b) institute comprehensive instructional reforms, (c) create community-oriented schools, or (d) provide operational flexibility and sustained support.

On the state level in California, students in Grades 2 through 11 take a series of tests each spring through the Standardized Testing and Reporting program. The testing program consists of standards-based tests designed to show how well California students are mastering the grade-level content standards established by the state board of education. In Grades 2 through 11, the California Standards Tests covers English-language arts and Mathematics.

***Gap for African American students*.** In the 1970s and 1980s, this achievement gap was cut in half; however, since 1988 the gap has widened (Haycock, 2001). Many class-based

analyses of the Black-White achievement gap would lead one to believe that middle-class Black students should enter school with the cultural and social capital needed to succeed, based on family socioeconomic status. However, Economist Ferguson's (2002) research, which included students in 95 schools across 15 school districts, suggests that many suburban Black students continue to underperform, even though they come from relatively privileged families.

A senior research associate at Harvard's Kennedy School of Government and the director and faculty cochairman of the Achievement Gap Initiative at Harvard University, Ferguson (2002) created the Tripod Project for School Improvement, a professional development initiative that uses student and teacher surveys to measure classroom conditions and student engagement by race and gender. The findings inform strategies to raise achievement and narrow achievement gaps.

Ferguson's (Walser, 2006) research focuses on the achievement gap between students of different racial groups whose parents have the same level of education. Ferguson expressed concern about changing patterns that show Black students with parent having college degrees often have lower test scores than White students whose parents have college degrees.

Other researchers believe stereotype threat effects explain a wide variety of performance gaps among minorities, who are targeted by negative stereotypes that create a self-fulfilling prophecy (Gonzales, Blanton, & Williams, 2002). Stereotype threat occurs when there is a discrepancy between our positive concept of our own skills and abilities and the negative stereotypes that suggest poor performance. These discrepancies create stress and anxiety, and these emotions make it harder to perform well on the task.

When stereotypes are activated, children with low socioeconomic status perform more poorly in math than do those with high socioeconomic status, and psychology students perform

more poorly than do natural science students (Brown, Croizet, Bohner, Fournet, & Payne, 2003); Croizet & Claire, 1998). Even groups that typically enjoy advantaged social status can experience stereotype threat (Aronson, Lustina, Good, Keough, & Steele, 1999).

Stereotype threat can be overcome if the self-doubts are replaced with affirmations about positive characteristics about the self or one's social group (Marx, Ko & Friedman, 2009; Taylor, Lord, McIntyre, & Paulson, 2011. Just the awareness that a stereotype threat exists can help alleviate its negative impact (Johns, Schmader, & Martens, 2005).

According to a 2013 National Center for Education Statistics report, 12th grade students designated as White or Asian/Pacific Islander scored higher in reading and mathematics assessments than students designated as Two or More races, Black, Hispanic, or American Indian/Alaska Native students (U.S. Department of Education, 2013).

Haycock (2001), president of The Education Trust, an organization that promotes closing achievement gaps, declared a looming crisis in American education if the achievement gap cannot be closed for minority students, who are becoming the majority student population.

Conceptions of equity and our measures of inequality are seen as creating and maintaining the achievement gaps among White and African American and Latino students (e.g., Jencks & Phillips, 1998). Equity is seen in funding disparities between wealthy and poor school districts, urban and suburban schools (e.g., Kozol, 1992), smaller versus larger teacher-student ratios, experienced versus inexperienced and not credentialed teachers (Grubb, 2006). However, what really counts for many dimensions of adult life is dynamic inequality—the inequality that develops among students throughout the long years of elementary, secondary, and the postsecondary education.

Small differences between Black-White students at the kindergarten level, explained by some simple socioeconomic status variables, increase over the period until the spring of third grade (Fryer & Levitt, 2006). Likewise, those initial Black-White differences are roughly doubled by the end of 12th grade (Phillips, Crouse, & Ralph, 1998).

Researchers have studied the achievement gap for decades (Jencks & Phillips, 1998) with no conclusive answer. Many theories about the cause include environmental factors such as socioeconomic status (Brooks-Gunn, Klebanov, Smith, Duncan, & Lee, 2003; Fordham & Ogbu, 1986) and resistance (Cummins, 1996; Giroux, 1983; Kohl, 1994).

A growing body of qualitative research draws upon African American students' own voices to understand these students' performance in U.S. schools (Bergin & Cooks, 2002; Carter, 2003; Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Hemmings, 1996; Mehan, Hubbard, & Villanueva, 1994; Nieto, 2004).

Although student achievement is important for education policy, practice, and research, there is no one definition for academic achievement. Therefore, student achievement is defined differently by policy makers, teachers, parents, and researchers (Guskey, 2007). However, there is general agreement that academic achievement can be divided into three broad categories: cognitive, affective, and psychomotor.

In the U.S., Common Core State Standards are cognitive goals broken into subjects, standards of learning, and skill sets that can span across the domains of reading, writing, language and mathematics (Common Core State Standards Initiative, 2010). For example, cognitive skills, which include problem solving and critical thinking, are the foundation of formal education (Bloom, Englehart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956).

Affective goals refer to students' attitudes and beliefs about what they are studying and include emotional-social intelligence skills such as self-regulation, empathy, motivation, and self-confidence. These skills are more emphasized in elementary school curriculum (Guskey & Bailey, 2009).

Finally, psychomotor learning involved students performing or demonstrating skills or behaviors. Researchers believe academic achievement is related within these three areas. For instance, some researchers believe students successful at cognitive tasks are more likely to feel confident and engage in subsequent related learning experiences (Creemers & Kyriakides, 2010).

Both in the U.S. and internationally, academic achievement is measured using student standardized test scores or grades. There are tradeoffs to both measures. While teacher-based grades can be subjective, standardized tests do not assess the higher-order learning tasks that require critical thinking and analysis. Additionally, testing for learning skills such as critical thinking are more expensive and time-consuming to score (Robelen, 2009).

Hiss & Frank's (2014) recent study reviewed the value of colleges using standardized tests as admission criteria. The researchers looked at the outcomes of optional standardized testing policies at 33 public and private colleges and universities, based on cumulative grade point average and graduation rates during a 3-year period. The study found few significant differences between standardized test takers and those observed using only cumulative grade point averages and graduation rates, despite significant differences in Scholastic Assessment Test-American College Testing (SAT-ACT) scores. Minority students with low SAT-ACT scores might decide not to apply for college based on low test results. The authors noted the tragic irony of talented minority students, the very ones colleges want to recruit, being dissuaded from applying to certain colleges or deciding to forego college completely because of test scores.

Additional criticism of using standardized tests as proof of scholastic potential appeared in a New York Performance Standards Consortium report titled Education for the 21st Century (New York Performance Standards Consortium, 2012). For example, 86% of African American and 90% of Latino male graduates of consortium schools were accepted to college while the national averages are only 37% and 43%, respectively. Of consortium grads 93% remain enrolled in 4-year colleges after the first two years, compared with an average of 81% nationally. The students are graded using a portfolio system, which includes oral and written components. Each student must complete four performance-based graded projects: an essay, research paper, science experiment, and applied mathematics problem.

For minority students, standardized tests have been barriers to academic achievement and continued education. For example, the SAT has been shown to be both culturally and statistically biased against African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans. Freedle (2003) argued for a corrective scoring method, the Revised-SAT, to address the nonrandom ethnic test bias patterns found in the SAT. The Revised-SAT, which scores only the hard items on the test, is shown to reduce the mean-score difference between African American and White SAT test takers by one third.

Although Freedle's theory has been challenged by Wainer (2009) as a statistical fluke, other researchers believe standardized assessments for selection purposes, such as the SAT, are instructionally insensitive. For example, SAT and similar selection assessments are more strongly associated with student social and economic status. Contrast this with proficiency assessments, the type normally given in a classroom for a specific subject accreditation, which focus on knowledge and skill (Barton & Coley, 2010).

Low academic success has generally been attributed to child attributes such as low self-control, parent behavior such as low achievement aspirations, and group membership, including social class, ethnicity, and gender (Hill & Tyson, 2009; Poropat, 2009). In the U.S., minority students who were oppressed and involuntarily assimilated into American society tend to have low achievement levels attributable to overcrowded schools, lack of educational resources, and less qualified teachers (Bergin, 2002).

Social and demographic change. Falling U.S. student achievement scores, especially for minority youth, foreshadow difficulties as these students will compete in a global world. Graduating from high school or secondary-level education is increasingly important in all countries as the labor market requires knowledge-based workers. In 2011, 43% of 25- to 34-year-old Americans had attained a tertiary (i.e., all postsecondary education including college and vocational-level) training—above the OECD average of 39% but far behind Korea, with a 64% tertiary attainment rate among this age group. The United States ranks 12th among 37 OECD and partner countries in this measure (OECD, 2013).

Lower academic achievement was thought to result from lower household income levels. However, research shows minority students underperform White students academically even when household incomes are equal. As a result, educators are calling for more study to determine the underlying reasons for this educational disparity and determine appropriate solutions. Educators must grapple with this reality with the increase in the number of minority students. At the same time, educators realize varied resolutions will be needed to meet the needs of students with different racial identities, cultures, and socioeconomic backgrounds in a changing, global society (O'Connell, 2007).

Minority youth have increased almost 50% since 2000, making it the fastest growing youth group in the country, according to the 2010 Census (as cited in Saulny, 2011). The U.S. has reached a demographic tipping point at which school-age children will increasingly be multiracial and multiethnic, according to Frey (2011). Since Whites are aging and having fewer children, their percentage of the population is decreasing. Conversely, because minority groups have higher birth and immigration rates, their overall numbers are increasing in the United States.

The changing demographics underscore the need for improving educational attainment in minority groups as they ascend and become the majority. Higher educational achievement is even more critical for life success, as these students must compete in an information- and technology-driven economy requiring advanced skills (Frey, 2011).

The gap in academic achievement. Educational achievement for Black and Hispanic students has not improved in 40 years. According to a U.S. Department of Education's (2012) *Trends in Education Report*, attempts to improve minority academic achievement, such as the 2001 No Child Left Behind and other large-scale efforts, have not made significant progress. The report shows elementary and middle school students score higher in reading and mathematics, but these gains are lost when students reach high school.

Although Latinos score slightly higher than African Americans on academic tests, Latinos are at a higher risk for dropping out of high school and never attending college (Harvey, 2003). Additionally, while 41% of White students at the fourth-grade level score at or above proficient, only 15% of Latinos reached this level (Donahue, Daane, & Grigg, 2004). Latinos are underrepresented in gifted and talented classes and a complaint was filed with the U.S. Department of Education claiming the students were systematically excluded because of

language. The department report noted the projected percentage of students needing English-as-a-second-language services for 2007 was estimated to be 9.53%, indicating almost one in 10 students in the nation needs language support (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Education enhances earning power, research shows disparities exist. For instance, Whites out earn African Americans and Latinos regardless of the level of education attained. Also, those in math- or science-based careers out earn every other occupational category (Carnevale et al., 2011).

Studies show a student's positive self-perception affects classroom behavior, such as focus, participation, and interest. In other words, seeing oneself as smart and capable of learning helps a student stay enthusiastic about learning (Connell, Spencer, & Aber, 1994; Garcia & Pintrich, 1994). Student self-perception, in turn, fuels curiosity, involvement, and discipline, which leads to better study skills and, ultimately, improves academic achievement. Basically, positive self-perception creates a self-fulfilling process for success, as the students believe they can attain something and then put it into place, which are the very steps that lead to that successful outcome (Garcia & Pintrich, 1994).

According to Brandwein (1995), more students could benefit from gifted and talented programs and add to the science talent pool if inspired teaching focused on special aptitudes and encouraged a student's self-identification of talent. A facilitating teaching style creates a climate of science by teaching students the substance (i.e., knowledge) and style (i.e., problem finding, concept seeking, forming, etc.) of science.

Summary

In this chapter, the published literature was reviewed regarding four *Conceptual Areas*: (a) Racial identity for African Americans, (b) Racial identity for multiracial Americans of

African descent, (c) Emotional intelligence, and (d) Academic achievement. Chapter 3 includes the methodology and procedures used to gather data for this study. Chapter 4 reviews the analyses and any findings that emerge from the study. Chapter 5 concludes with a summary of the study and findings, conclusions, limitations, a discussion about considerations, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

This study proposes three research questions to explore emotional intelligence dimensions and racial identity attitudes on African American multiracial high school students' academic achievement. The research questions ascertain whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence, racial identity attitudes, and academic achievement using both Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (i.e., Spearman's rho) and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (i.e., Pearson's *r*).

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores?

2. Is there a relationship between the racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores?

3. Is there a relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores?

Hypotheses to be Explored

To answer the research questions, three primary research hypotheses were explored:

H_1: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores.

H_2: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores.

H_3: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores.

Research Design

The study conducts secondary analysis on an existing data set, collected by Drati (2010), in a cross-sectional, nonexperimental study. Secondary analysis has benefits, including the advantage of a new investigator with a different perspective viewing the data, as well as being an efficient and cost-effective means of conducting research (Glass, 1976). The three research questions ascertain whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence, racial identity attitudes, and academic achievement using both Spearman's rho and Pearson's r.

Original Targeted Population

The population of interest in the initial study was African American high school students enrolled in urban schools in a Central California public school district (Drati, 2010). The district was selected because of its diverse student population—approximately 80,000 students representing more than 75 different languages and cultures. Drati gathered data from 165 students who self-identified as either African (born in Africa), first-generation African American (one or both parents born in Africa), African American, Mixed Race, or West Indian-Caribbean. All data were collected with university, school district, parental, and student consent. Once data were processed, all identifying information was removed from the data set. This present study focuses exclusively on the 35 African American high school students in the data set who self-identified as multiracial.

Subject Data Set for Secondary Analysis

The data of interest for this study is the data from 35 participants who self-identified as African American multiracial. The original researcher (Drati, 2010) granted permission to use an electronic Excel spreadsheet of the 35 participant responses with no personal identifying information. Data include the Cross Racial Identity Scale Scores; Emotional Quotient Scale

Scores, 2008–2009; California Standards Tests English Language Arts scale scores; and self-reported demographic responses for grade, gender, school ethnicity, and community ethnicity.

Cross Racial Identity Scale

The Cross Racial Identity Scale is a 30-item tool that measures racial identity attitudes. Three groups are defined and labeled as Preencounter, Internationalization, and Immersion-Emersion in the Cross Model (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

Preencounter attitude. In general, these individuals believe race does not matter, do not identify with their racial group membership, group-esteem could be positive or negative, but exploration is very low (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

- Preencounter—placement of either a low or negative salience on being Black.

- Preencounter Miseducated—believe the negative stereotypes about African Americans and express self-loathing and anti-Black sentiment result from beliefs of negative stereo types.

- Preencounter Assimilation—downplay the importance of race in the United States.

Internalization attitude. Individuals with Black acceptance (high positive race salience), confident, proud of their identity, and have a positive group-esteem (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

- Black Nationalist—concentrates energy to empower the Black community.

- Biculturalist—shows Black self-acceptance and focus on one other cultural orientation (e.g., gender, nationality, and sexual orientation). Biculturalists build coalitions beyond the Black community.

- Multiculturalist—focus actively on two or more salient cultural identities. Multiculturalists build coalitions beyond the Black community.

Immersion-Emersion attitude. This attitude group struggles and comes to terms with being Black, often with the concomitant development of anti-White attitudes. Two specific characterizations are seen within this attitude (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

- Intense Black Involvement—intense Black involvement described by an over romanticized immersion into the Black experience.

- Anti-White Stage—rejection of everything White, to the point of demonizing Whites and their culture.

Table 1 shows Nigresence Stages and Identities.

Table 1

Race Identity Attitude Subscales

Race Identity Attitude	Race Identity Attitude Definition
Preencounter Attitude	Individual placement of either a low or negative salience on being Black.
Preencounter Self-Hatred (PSH)	Individuals who express self-loathing and anti-Black sentiment because of beliefs of negative stereotypes
Preencounter Miseducated (PM)	Individuals who believe the negative stereotypes about African Americans
Preencounter Assimilation (PA)	Individuals likely to downplay the importance of race in the United States.
Immersion/Emersion Attitude	
Anti-White (IEAW)	Individual wrestling with and coming to terms with being Black, often with the concomitant development of anti-White attitudes
Internalization Attitude	
Internalization Afrocentric (IA)	Individuals who highlight the importance of using Afrocentric values as a foundation for living.
Internalization Multicultural Inclusive (IMCI)	Individuals who combine pro-Black feelings with positive attitudes toward all other cultural groups, including members of the majority culture.

Note. Adapted from Nigrescence theory and measurement: Introducing the Cross Racial Identity Scale (CRIS), by W.E. Cross and B.J. Vandiver, 2001. In J.G. Ponterotto, J.M. Casas, L.A. Suzuki & C.M. Alexander (Eds). *Handbook of multicultural counseling* (2nd ed.). Sage Publications.

Table 2 shows the Cross Racial Identity Survey Legend.

Table 2

Cross Racial Identity Survey Legend*

Pre-Counter	Item
Self-Hatred (PSH)	3, 8, 13, 19, 29
Miseducated (PM)	2, 9, 15, 21, 26
Assimilation (PA)	1, 7, 14, 20, 25
Immersion-Emersion	Item
Anti-White (IEAW)	5, 11, 17, 22, 28
Internalization	Item
Afrocentricity (IA)	6, 10, 16, 23, 27
Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	4, 12, 18, 24, 30

* Survey items listed in Table 2 are located in APPENDIX A.

Emotional Quotient (EQ-i:YV[s])

The EQ-i:YV(s) is a 30-item self-reported measure with five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Table 3 displays EQ-i five factors and corresponding 15 subscales with related competency descriptions.

Table 3

The EQ-i Factors and What They Assess

EQ-i Factors and Subscales	Emotional intelligence competencies and skills assessed by each factor
Adaptability	Change management:
Reality testing	To objectively validate one's feelings and thinking with external reality
Flexibility	To adapt and adjust one's feelings and thinking to new situations
Problem solving	To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature
Intrapersonal	Self-awareness and self-expression:

(*continued*)

EQ-i Factors and Subscales	Emotional intelligence competencies and skills assessed by each factor
Self-regard	To perceive accurately, understand and accept oneself
Emotional self-awareness	To be aware of and understand one's emotions
Assertiveness	To express effectively and constructively one's emotions and oneself
Independence	To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others
Self-actualization	To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one's potential
Stress management	Emotional management and regulation:
Stress tolerance	To manage effectively and constructively emotions
Impulse control	To control effectively and constructively emotions
General mood	Self-motivation:
Optimism	To be positive and look at the brighter side of life
Happiness	To feel content with oneself, others, and life in general
Interpersonal	Social awareness and interpersonal relationship:
Empathy	To be aware of and understand how others feel
Social responsibility	To identify with one's social group and cooperate with others
Interpersonal relationship	To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others

Note. Adapted from *Bar-On emotional quotient inventory: Youth version* [Technical Manual]. By R. Bar-On & J.D.A. Parker, (2000). Toronto, ON, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.

Table 4 shows EQ-i five factors and corresponding survey items.

Table 4

EQ-i Survey Legend*

EQ-i Factor	Item
Adaptability	Items 10, 13, 16, 19, 22, 24
Intrapersonal	Items 2, 6, 12, 14, 21, 26
Stress Management	Items 5, 8, 9, 17, 27, 29
General Mood	Items 3, 7, 11, 15, 20, 25
Interpersonal	Items 1, 4, 18, 23, 28, 30

* Survey items listed in Table 4 are located in APPENDIX B.

Research Questions

1. Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores?

2. Is there a relationship between the racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores?

3. Is there a relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores?

Hypotheses to be Explored

To answer the research questions, three primary research hypotheses were explored:

H_1: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores.

H_2: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores.

H_3: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores.

Research Question 1

The first research question evaluates the correlation between emotional intelligence, as established by the EQ-i, a 30-item self-survey with five factors that have been adapted for youth (EQ-i: YV), to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. The EQ-i: YV survey measures emotional intelligence for five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

H1. Research Hypothesis

The first research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between five emotional intelligence factors and academic achievement. Five null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H1-H_{O1}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{O2}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{03}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{04}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{05}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{06}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{07}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{08}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{09}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{010}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Research Question 2

The second research question evaluates the correlation between the Cross Racial Identity scale score, a 30-item questionnaire with factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version [EQ-i YV] scale score, a 30-item self-survey (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The second research question and general hypothesis is that there is a relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score. One null hypotheses was tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H2-H_{011}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H2-H_{012}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Research Question 3

The third research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between the racial identity attitudes, based on the Cross Racial Identity Scale, to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. Six null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas to test for relationships between each of the six racial identity attitude scale scores and academic achievement scale score.

H3-H_{013}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{014}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{015}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{016}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{017}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{018}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{019}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{020}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{021}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{022}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{023}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H$_{024}$: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Human Subject Considerations

The study conducted secondary analysis of public-access and anonymous data sets, and meets the Institutional Review Board exemption requirements as per 45 CFR 46.101(b)(4). Permission to use the data was obtained from Dr. Ben A. Drati. Data were in an electronic spreadsheet with no personal identifying information. Approval was granted by Pepperdine University, GPS for this secondary analysis study (See Appendix G).

Summary

This study attempts to ascertain whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence, Racial Identity Attitudes, and Academic Achievement among African American multiracial students using both Spearman's rank correlation coefficient (i.e., Spearman's rho) and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (i.e., Pearson's r). Chapter 4 reviews the analyses and any findings that emerge from the study. Chapter 5 concludes with a summary of the study and findings, conclusions, limitations, a discussion about considerations, and recommendations for further study.

Chapter 4: Results

This study evaluates the correlation between emotional intelligence, as established by EQ-i: YV(s), a 30-item survey (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) with five factors; racial identity attitudes, based on the Cross Racial Identity Scale in a 30-item questionnaire with six factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001); and academic achievement, as defined by California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts and Mathematics. Descriptive statistics are used to provide a detailed profile of 35 self-identified multiracial students of African descent attending high school in Central California.

Descriptive Statistics

The students participating in the voluntary study self-reported as a multiracial student of African descent as opposed to African (born in Africa), first-generation African American (one or both parents born in Africa), African American, or West Indian-Caribbean. Students were from three high schools in Central California. First, the students completed a brief demographic survey self-reporting gender, grade, community ethnicity, and school ethnicity. Next, the students completed a Cross Racial Identity Scale 30-item questionnaire with answers recorded using a 7-point Likert scale. Then, the students completed the EQ-i: YV(s) 30-item survey, which was recorded using a 4-point Likert scale. Finally, students recorded their California Standards Test scores for English-Language Arts, which are used as an indicator of academic achievement.

Gender

There were 11 males and 21 females students in the sample, which round off to 34% and 66% respectively. Figure 2 shows the percentage of males versus females in the study.
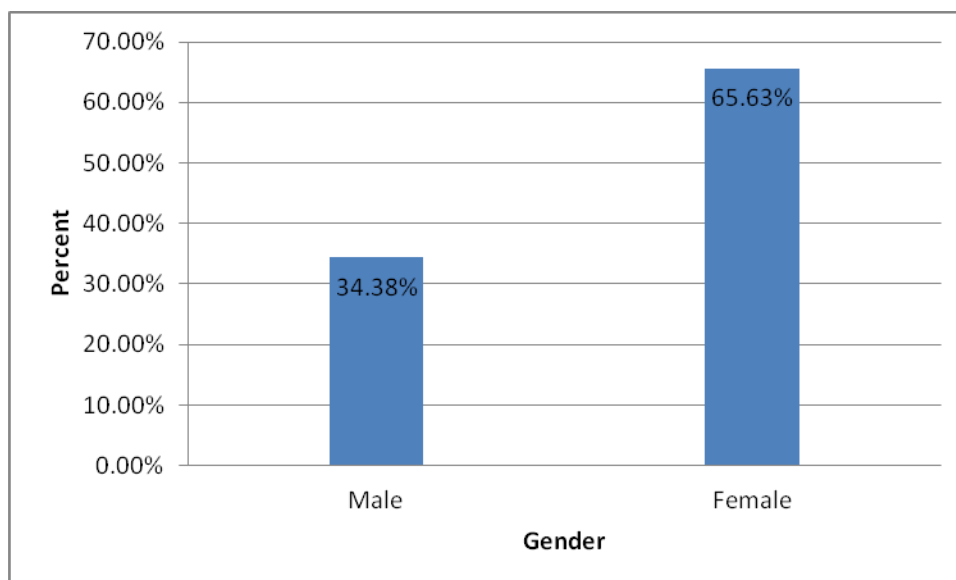
Figure 2. Percentage of male versus female participants.

Grade

The students self-reported their grade at the time of the survey. Table 5 shows student

distribution by grade. Grade 9 had three students; Grade 10 had 12 students; Grade 11 had nine

students; and Grade 12 had three students.

Table 5

Grade-Level Population Distribution

Grade	Percentage
9	24%
10	35%
11	26%
12	15%

School and Community Ethnicity

In addition, the students self-reported their school and community ethnicity at the time of

the survey. Table 6 shows student distribution by school and community ethnicity.

Table 6

School and Community Ethnicity Population Distribution

	Mostly Black	Mixed	Mostly White
School Ethnicity	19%	79%	2%
Community Ethnicity	21%	63%	16%

Dependent Variable: Academic Achievement

For the purpose of this study, the California Standards Tests for English language arts represent the academic achievement score. California Standards Tests are administered only to California public schools students in Grades 2 to 11. All questions are multiple-choice. California Standards Tests for English language arts evaluate word analysis, reading comprehension, literary response and analysis, writing strategies, and writing convention. Student scores are ranked in performance levels:

1. Advanced: This category represents a superior performance. Students demonstrate a comprehensive and complex understanding of the knowledge and skills this assessment measures, at this grade, in this content area.

2. Proficient: This category represents a solid performance. Students demonstrate a competent and adequate understanding of the knowledge and skills this assessment measures, at this grade, in this content area.

3. Basic: This category represents a limited performance. Students demonstrate a partial and rudimentary understanding of the knowledge and skills this assessment measures, at this grade, in this content area.

4. Far Below-Below Basic: This category represents a serious lack of performance. Students demonstrate little or a flawed understanding of the knowledge and skills this assessment measures, at this grade, in this content area.

Independent Variables: Racial Identity and Emotional Achievement

  Racial identity. Racial identity is defined in responses to the Cross Racial Identity Scale, a 30-item tool that measures racial identity attitudes. Six subscale scores are identified as: (a) Preencounter Assimilation, (b) Preencounter Miseducation, (c) Preencounter Self-Hatred, (d) Immersion-Emersion Anti-White, (e) Internalization Afrocentricity, and (f) Internalization Multiculturalist Inclusive. Each subscale is rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale with reliability coefficients ranging from .65 to .90 (Cross & Vandiver, 2001).

  The Race Identity Attitude Subscales are listed in Table 1 in Chapter 3.

  The Race Identity Survey Legend is listed in Table 2 in Chapter 3.

  The survey items for the Cross Racial Identity Scale are in APPENDIX A.

  Emotional intelligence. The EQ-i:YV(s) is a 30-item self-reported measure with five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

  Each EQ-i: YV(s) scale is tested by specific items in the survey. The five factors are: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal and the items associated with the scales.

  The EQ-I Scales and what they assess are listed in Table 3 in Chapter 3.

  The EQ-I Survey Legend is listed in Table 4 in Chapter 3.

  The survey items for the EQ-i scales are in APPENDIX B.

  This study proposed three research questions designed to explore emotional intelligence dimensions and racial identity attitudes on multiracial high school students' academic

achievement. The research questions attempt to ascertain whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence, Racial Identity Attitudes, and Academic Achievement.

Research Questions

4. Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores?

5. Is there a relationship between the racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores?

6. Is there a relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores?

Emotional Intelligence Scale and Academic Achievement

The first research question evaluated the correlation between emotional intelligence, as established by the EQ-i: YV(s), a 30-item self-survey (Bar-On & Parker, 2000) with five factors, to academic achievement. The survey measures the emotional intelligence five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89.

Cross Racial Identity Scale and Emotional Intelligence Scale

The second research question evaluated the correlation between Cross Racial Identity total score and the Emotional Quotient total score. The results were analyzed using both Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the academic score of English Language Arts. While Pearson's correlation measures the strength of the linear relationship between two variables, Spearman's correlation measures the strength of any monotonic relationship between two variables. The first value in each cell is the correlation coefficient, r for

Pearson's correlation coefficient and ρ for Spearman's correlation coefficient, the second number

is the *p*-value for the hypothesis test that the correlation is zero, and the last number, *N*, is the

sample size for that cell.

Cross Racial Identity Scale and Academic Achievement

The third research question evaluated the correlation between racial identity attitudes,

based on the Cross Racial Identity Scale in a 30-item questionnaire with six factors Cross, W. E.,

Jr. (1995) et al., 2001) to academic achievement, as defined by California Standards Test Scores

in English-Language Arts. The Cross Racial Identity Scale has six factors: (a) Preencounter Self-

Hatred, (b) Preencounter Miseducation, (c) Preencounter Assimilation, (d) Internalization

Afrocentricity, (e) Immersion-Emersion Anti-White, and (f) Internalization Multiculturalist

Inclusive. Each factor consists of five items rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale with reliability

coefficients ranging from .65 to .90. The Race Identity Attitude Subscales are listed in Table 1 in

Chapter 3. Table 7 describes the results from testing the emotional intelligence and Racial

Identity scales using both Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho.

Table 7

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for Racial Identity Subscales and EQ-i
Factors With Academic Achievement

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Adaptability	r = .378 *p* = .033 *N* = 32	ρ = .368 *p* = .038 *N* = 32
		(*continued*)

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Intrapersonal	r = .241 $p = .184$ $N = 32$	$\rho = .167$ $p = .362$ $N = 32$
Stress	r = -.125 $p = .496$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.152$ $p = .407$ $N = 32$
General Mood	r = -.073 $p = .691$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.044$ $p = .812$ $N = 32$
Interpersonal	r = -.022 $p = .906$ $N = 32$	$\rho = .029$ $p = .874$ $N = 32$
PSH	r = -.243 $p = .181$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.289$ $p = .108$ $N = 32$
PM	r = -.205 $p = .261$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.224$ $p = .217$ $N = 32$
PA	r = -.132 $p = .470$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.174$ $p = .341$ $N = 32$
IA	r = -.118 $p = .519$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.107$ $p = .561$ $N = 32$
IEAW	r = -.113 $p = .537$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.122$ $p = .506$ $N = 32$
IMCI	r = .104 $p = .570$ $N = 32$	$\rho = .101$ $p = .584$ $N = 32$

Note: Table shows Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (column 2) and Spearman's rho for Racial Identity Subscales (column 3) and EQ-i Factors With Academic Achievement (column 1).

Hypotheses Explored

To answer the research questions, three primary research hypotheses were explored:

H_1: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between emotional intelligence and

academic achievement scale scores.

H$_2$: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores.

H$_3$: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores.

A total of 12 null hypotheses were tested with both the five emotional intelligence factors and six racial identity subscales using Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho. The seventh hypothesis tests for linear or monotonic relationships between the racial identity attitude total scale score and the emotional intelligence total scale score. Each possible relationship was tested independently, resulting in a total of 24 null hypotheses.

Overview

Of the 35 multicultural students, 32 students, or 91.43% of the population, were used in the computation of the correlation between the Adaptability scores and English scores. There was insufficient data to support the research findings because the relationships are weak and the sample was small. However, there are three statistically significant findings and two findings of interest listed.

Among 24 hypotheses, three were rejected and 21 were not rejected. The rejected hypotheses were H1-H$_{O1}$: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, H1-H$_{O2}$: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement Spearman's rank correlation coefficient, and H2-H$_{011}$: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. All three rejected hypotheses

had statistically significant results at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Hypotheses not rejected lacked sufficient evidence to demonstrate a linear or monotonic relationship between the tested variables.

Research Question 1

The first research question evaluates the correlation between emotional intelligence, as established by the EQ-i, a 30-item self-survey with five factors that have been adapted for youth (EQ-i: YV), to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. The EQ-i: YV survey measures emotional intelligence for five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

H1. Research Hypothesis

The first research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between five emotional intelligence factors and academic achievement. Five null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H1-H_{O1}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The test results of the Pearson's correlation (English) is r = .378, $p = .033$ is statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypotheses are rejected, and there is evidence of a linear (and monotonic) relationship between academic achievement and Adaptability emotional intelligence scale score.

H1-H_{O2}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The test results of the Spearman's rho is $\rho = .368$, $p = .038$ and is statistically significant at the $\alpha =$

.05 level. Therefore, the null hypotheses are rejected, and there is evidence of a linear (and monotonic) relationship between academic achievement and Adaptability emotional intelligence scale score. Table 8 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score.

Table 8

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Emotional Intelligence Adaptability Scale Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Adaptability	$r = .378$	$\rho = .368$
	$p = .033$	$p = .038$
	$N = 32$	$N = 32$

H1-H_{03}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The test results of the Pearson's correlation is not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

H1-H_{04}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The test results of the Spearman's rho is not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected. Table 9 shows Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal Scale Score.

Table 9

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Emotional Intelligence Intrapersonal Scale Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Intrapersonal	$r = .241$ $p = .184$ $N = 32$	$\rho = .167$ $p = .362$ $N = 32$

H1-H_{05}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The test results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H1-H_{06}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The test results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 10 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Stress Management Scale Score.

Table 10

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Emotional Intelligence Stress Management Scale Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Stress Management	$r = -.125$ $p = .496$ $N = 32$	$\rho = -.152$ $p = .407$ $N = 32$

H1-H_{07}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficient. The test results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H1-H_{08}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The test results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 11 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence General Mood Scale Score.

Table 11

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Emotional Intelligence General Mood Scale Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
General Mood	$r = -.073$	$\rho = -.044$
	$p = .691$	$p = .812$
	$N = 32$	$N = 32$

H1-H_{09}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The test results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

H1-H_{010}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The test results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 12 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Interpersonal Scale Score.

Table 12

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Emotional Intelligence Interpersonal Scale Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Interpersonal	$r = -.022$	$\rho = .029$
	$p = .906$	$p = .874$
	$N = 32$	$N = 32$

Research Question 2

The second research question evaluates the correlation between the Cross Racial Identity scale score, a 30-item questionnaire with factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version [EQ-i YV] scale score, a 30-item self-survey (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The second research question and general hypothesis is that there is a relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score. One null hypotheses was tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H2-H_{011}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The test results of the Pearson's correlation is statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

H2-H_{012}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The test results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 13 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for Racial Identity versus emotional intelligence scores.

Table 13

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for Racial Identity Versus Emotional Intelligence Total Scores

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
Racial Identity Versus Emotional Intelligence	r = .413 $p = 0.014$ $N = 35$	$\rho = .523$ $p = 0.001$ $N = 35$

Research Question 3

The third research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between the racial identity attitudes, based on the Cross Racial Identity Scale, to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. Six null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas to test for relationships between each of the six racial identity attitude scale scores and academic achievement scale score.

H3-H_{013}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H3-H_{014}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 14 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for Preencounter Self-Hatred Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Table 14

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for Preencounter Self-Hatred Racial Identity Attitude Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
PSH	r = -.243	ρ = -.289
	p = .181	p = .108
	N = 32	N = 32

H3-H_{015}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the α = .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H3-H_{016}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the α = .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 15 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for Preencounter Miseducated Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Table 15

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for Preencounter Miseducated Racial Identity Attitude Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
PM	r = -.205	ρ = -.224
	p = .261	p = .217
	N = 32	N = 32

H3-H_{017}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H3-H_{018}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 16 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for Preencounter Assimilation Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Table 16

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for Preencounter Assimilation Racial Identity Attitude Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
PA	r = -.132	ρ = -.174
	$p = .470$	$p = .341$
	$N = 32$	$N = 32$

H3-H_{019}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H3-H_{020}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 17 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the Internalization Afrocentric Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Table 17

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Internalization Afrocentric Racial Identity Attitude Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
IA	r = -.118	ρ = -.107
	p = .519	p = .561
	N = 32	N = 32

H3-H_{021}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The results of the Pearson's correlation are not statistically significant at the α = .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H3-H_{022}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the α = .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 18 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Table 18

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White Racial Identity Attitude Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
IEAW	r = -.113	ρ = -.122
	p = .537	p = .506
	N = 32	N = 32

H3-H_{023}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score

using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Pearson's correlation results are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected.

H3-H_{024}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. The results of the Spearman's rho are not statistically significant at the $\alpha = .05$ level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is not rejected. Table 19 shows the Pearson's correlation coefficient and Spearman's rho for the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Table 19

Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's Rho for the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive Racial Identity Attitude Score

	Pearson's Correlation Coefficient (English)	Spearman's rho (English)
IMCI	$r = .104$ $p = .570$ $N = 32$	$\rho = .101$ $p = .584$ $N = 32$

Summary

The 32 students in the sample demonstrated a statistically significant positive linear relationship between their Adaptability scores and English scores and racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence. While adaptability involves an individual's ability to respond to various difficult situations by devising solutions, mitigating social conflict, adapting to change, and solve problems with methodology and discipline, emotional competencies are learned capabilities to achieve outstanding performance. Chapter 5 presents a summary of the study, findings as related to the literature, study limitations, recommendations for further research, and concluding remarks.

Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusion

The Issue

American student scores are falling behind students from many developed nations in high-level math and reading skills – the skills needed in for jobs in the future economy (Organization for Economic Co-Operation and Development [OECD], 2013). One of society's fundamental obligations is to prepare young adults to lead productive lives. This preparation includes teaching literacy, numeracy, and thinking skills to develop responsible citizens, capable of attaining their career goals and participating in lifelong learning (Carnevale & Rose, 2011).

The OECD released the 2012 Program for International Student Assessment exam results, which showed Asian students get the top scores while American students stagnate in the middle (OECD, 2013). The Program for International Student Assessment exam is given to 15- to 16-year-old students from 65 countries (OECD, 2013). According to Andreas Schleicher, OECD deputy director for education and skills and special advisor on education policy to the OECD's Secretary-General, observed that a country's education level predicts their future economic success (Coughlan, 2013).

At the same time, American student demographics are changing. Minorities, including Hispanics, Blacks, Asians, and those of mixed race, reached 50.4% of the population, representing a majority for the first time in the 2010 Census (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Of this group, multiracial youth are the fastest growing segment. The 2010 Census showed 2.9% of the U.S. population checked more than one racial-ethnic category, a 32% increase since 2000 (Humes et al., 2011). One in five Americans will likely claim multiracial heritage by 2050 (Lee & Bean, 2004).

Education experts struggle to understand why African American and Hispanic-Latino students exhibit low academic achievement even when they are socioeconomically advantaged (Sirin, 2005). This discrepancy exists despite research that shows improved academic achievement benefits individuals, leads to better paying careers, increases participation in society, and maintains interest in lifelong learning (McMahon, 2009).

Experts claim the majority of jobs require at least some postsecondary education. By 2018, the economy will create 46.8 million openings of which 63% will require workers with at least some college education (Carnevale et al., 2010). Researchers predict the lifetime income of workers with a high school diploma is approximately $973,000 while the lifetime income of an employee with a professional degree (e.g., typically lawyers and doctors) is $3.6 million (Carnevale et al., 2011).

Essentially, postsecondary education or training is no longer the preferred pathway to middle-class jobs—it is, increasingly, the only pathway (Carnevale et al., 2010). Beyond income levels, Individuals with higher levels of education have better starting salaries, are more likely to be employed, and have higher earnings as they age. (Baum, Ma, & Payea, 2013).

This purpose of this quantitative study was to explore the effects emotional intelligence dimensions and racial identity attitudes have on the academic achievement of American multiracial high school students of African descent. Students responded to the Cross Racial Identity total score, a 30-item questionnaire with six factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the Emotional Quotient (EQ-i YV[s]) total score, a 30-item self-survey with 15 competencies (Bar-On & Parker, 2000). Their responses were analyzed to determine if relationships exist between emotional intelligence and racial identity attitudes on academic achievement scores.

Conceptual Support

This research explores how racial identity and emotional intelligence associated with life-coping skills might impact academic achievement among Millennial Generation multiracial adolescents of African descent in the United States. Scholars define racial and ethnic identity as the meaning of race to an individual's self-concept (Phinney, 1996; Sellers et al., 1998). Race and ethnicity are only two of a number of factors (e.g., gender, educational and socioeconomic, etc.) impacting identity. Because ethnicity is a multidimensional construct, cultural norms and group belonging need to be identified and measured to determine the effects of ethnicity on behavioral outcomes (Phinney, 1996). Additionally, Millennial Generation youth are the most racially diverse generation with 43% non-white members (Taylor, & Keeter, 2010).

Genetic research is challenging how race may be defined in the future as scientists have determined individuals are more genetically diverse (85.4%) than their comparative geographic origin/ancestral groups, often referred to as racial groups (Lewontin, 1972, 2006; Barbujani, Magagni, Minch & Cavalli-Sforza, 1997). However, race is used as a basis for important medical, educational, economic and other public policy decisions (Ali-Khan & Daar, 2010; Hauskeller, 2014). At the same time, race is a valuable contextually-based social construct as developmental predictions made by racial-ethnic identity theorists have been supported by longitudinal research with consistent, normative and gradual, increases in racial-ethnic identity exploration and identification during early adolescence (Quintana, 2007).

The African American experience. Racial identity research for many decades in the United States focused mainly on the African American experience. Scholars evaluated cognitive, affective, and behavioral processes that Blacks undergo in order to achieve a healthy racial identity. Cross (1971) developed the Nigrescence racial identity model to describe the process of

becoming Black. Of particular note, scholars observed that adolescents of African descent experience greater racial discrimination than adolescents from other races or ethnicities. However, researchers found specific racial identity attitudes and beliefs might give individuals resilience to perceived racial discrimination and buffer them from any negative consequences (Chavous, Bernat, Schmeelk-Cone, Caldwell, Kohn-Wood, & Zimmerman, 2003; Sellers, & Shelton, 2003).

Scholars studying youth of African descent challenged the minority racial theory movement away from racial identity to ethnic and cultural identity. For instance, dimensions of racial identity are still viable for adolescents of African descents to compensate for and protect against experiences of perceived discrimination (Sellers et al., 2006). Likewise, Parham (2002) believes a fuller understanding of students of African descent includes characteristics of Afrocentric values (i.e., spiritualism, collectivism) as experienced in American society, a context in which those of African ancestry were involuntary immigrants with historic and societal implications.

Emotional Intelligence theory. The model introduced by Goleman (1995) focuses on emotional intelligence as a wide array of competencies and skills that drive leadership performance. Goleman's model outlines five main emotional intelligence constructs:

1. Self-awareness—the ability to know one's emotions, strengths, weaknesses, values, and goals and recognize your impact on others.

2. Self-regulation—involves controlling or redirecting one's disruptive emotions and impulses and adapting to changing circumstances.

3. Social skill—managing relationships to move people in the desired direction.

4. Empathy—considering other people's feelings especially when making decisions.

5. Motivation—being driven to achieve for the sake of achievement.

Emotional competencies are not innate talents, but rather learned capabilities that can be developed to achieve outstanding performance. Goleman (1998) posits that individuals are born with a general emotional intelligence that determines their potential for learning emotional competencies. Additionally, emotional intelligence capabilities are critical for achievement and goal attainment.

Goleman (1998) asserts we need the emotional intelligence abilities, such as adaptability in the face of change, self-confidence to make sound decisions, innovativeness to seek fresh ideas from different sources, empathy to understand customer needs, mentors to lead others, and effective communication, to provide the adaptability and team-building skills necessary to thrive in a changing world.

In his latest research, Goleman (2013) ponders the effects of technology in our society. One effect is to make communications global and relatively racially-ethnically blind if one chooses, which may make an unconscious paradigm shift to consider the message and not dwell on extraneous identity markers about the sender (i.e., race, nationality, gender). On the other hand, this freedom and open-mindedness may not have yet evolved to the street where personal interactions occur. Another effect is to allow the individual to be in a moment and not be mentally present through the use of technological advances such as mobil phones, iPads, iPods, etc. While technology may be a distraction, enjoyment, or escape, it can make us absent from the daily discussions that provide opportunities for people to share, reflect, resolve, and grow. For students, unbridled technology can both help and hinder, as they are able to access information easily while simultaneously being tempted to wander away from their long-term goals with the click of a mouse.

Academic achievement. Academic achievement in this study is represented by annual California state-wide standardized tests known as the Standardized Testing and Reporting program in English language arts. The standards-based tests are designed to show how California students are mastering the grade-level content standards established by the California State Board of Education. The California Standards Tests annually evaluate attainment of prescribed English-language arts standards of learning for Grades 2 through 11.

Method

This study proposes three research questions to explore emotional intelligence dimensions and racial and multiracial identity attitudes on the academic achievement of multiracial Millennial Generation high school students of African descent. The research questions ascertain whether relationships exist among emotional intelligence and racial and multiracial identity attitudes on academic achievement using both Spearman's rank correlation coefficient and the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Both Pearson's r and Spearman's rho were used because of the small sample size and to capture both potential linear trends and/or the strength of association between variables.

Research Questions

7. Is there a relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores?

8. Is there a relationship between the racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores?

9. Is there a relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores?

Hypotheses to be Explored

To answer the research questions, three primary research hypotheses were explored:

H_1: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement scale scores.

H_2: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence scale scores.

H_3: There is a linear or monotonic relationship between racial identity attitude and academic achievement scale scores.

Research Question 1

The first research question evaluates the correlation between emotional intelligence, as established by the EQ-i, a 30-item self-survey with five factors that have been adapted for youth (EQ-i: YV), to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. The EQ-i: YV survey measures emotional intelligence for five factors: (a) Adaptability, (b) Intrapersonal, (c) Stress Management, (d) General Mood, and (e) Interpersonal. Each factor is rated with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89 (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

H1. Research Hypothesis

The first research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between five emotional intelligence factors and academic achievement. Five null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H1-H_{O1}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{O2}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{03}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{04}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{05}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{06}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Stress Management scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{07}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{08}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence General Mood scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{09}**:** There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H1-H_{010}**:** There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Interpersonal scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Research Question 2

The second research question evaluates the correlation between the Cross Racial Identity scale score, a 30-item questionnaire with factors (Cross & Vandiver, 2001) and the Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version [EQ-i YV] scale score, a 30-item self-survey (Bar-On & Parker, 2000).

The second research question and general hypothesis is that there is a relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score. One null hypotheses was tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

H2-H_{011}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H2-H_{012}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Research Question 3

The third research question and general hypothesis is that there are relationships between the racial identity attitudes, based on the Cross Racial Identity Scale, to academic achievement, as defined by the California Standards Test Scores in English-Language Arts. Six null hypotheses were tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas to test for relationships among each of the six racial identity attitude scale scores and academic achievement scale score.

H3-H_{013}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{014}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Self-Hatred racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{015}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{016}: There is no statistically significant relationship between the Preencounter Miseducated racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{017}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{018}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Preencounter Assimilation racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{019}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{020}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Afrocentric racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{021}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{022}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{023}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

H3-H_{024}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive racial identity attitude scale score and academic achievement scale score using Spearman's rank correlation coefficient.

Limitations

This study was limited to a small number of multiracial high school students of African descent and is a snapshot of a single point in time. A single study excluding influences during elementary and postsecondary school is by its nature limited because adolescence is such a transformation and sometimes tumultuous period of human development. For instance, studies show racial identity changes during a lifetime (Herman, 2008) and emotional identity increases with maturity (Goleman, 1998).

Pertinent information about the participants' other cultural-ethnic background(s) were not disclosed. As a result, we do not know if one or more of the participants' other racial-ethnic identities included other minorities involuntarily assimilated into American culture (e.g. In addition to heritage of Africans brought to the U.S. as part of the slave trade, these students also represent indigenous American Indians or Hispanics displaced from their native homeland by settlers). Studies show minorities involuntarily assimilated into American culture are more likely to experience stress from discrimination and have less academic success; this effect is compounded for students having two or more of these racial identities. For example, Herman (2004) found multiracial students of African or Hispanic descent have lower grades than multiracial students who self-identify as White or Asian. In addition, students in this study did not reveal if English is a second language, what age they learned English, or what language is spoke at home, which can impact academic achievement.

A further limitation comes from using self-report instruments to rate racial identity and emotional intelligence. Some scholars believe self-reported responses reflect only an individual's subjective view at the moment (Matthews, Zeidner, & Roberts, 2001). Other researchers contend the EQ-i test is highly susceptible to faking (Day & Carroll, 2008; Grubb & McDaniel, 2007).

Key Findings

There was insufficient data to support the research findings because the relationships are weak and the sample was small. However, there are three statistically significant findings and two findings of interest listed in this section for further discussion and consideration at the end of this chapter.

Emotional intelligence adaptability competency. There was a statistically significant relationship between the emotional intelligence scale scores of Adaptability and academic

achievement for two hypotheses: H1-H$_{O1}$ and H1-H$_{O2}$. H1-H$_{O1}$ states there is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is r = .378, n = 32, p = .033. H1-H$_{O2}$ states there is no linear or monotonic relationship between the emotional intelligence Adaptability scale score and academic achievement Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient is p = .368, n = 32, p = .038. The competency of Adaptability includes skills such as adaptability, reality testing, flexibility, and solving problems.

Adaptability is the skill to size up and respond to a wide range of difficult situations in which success involves grasping problems and devising effective solutions, such as how to deal with and resolve conflicts within families and social groups (Goleman, 1998). Prior research corroborates that a student's racial identification has a significant impact on academic performance (Herman, 2009). Herman found because multiracial adolescents can choose racial identity, they have the option of choosing the identity that improves academic achievement. This research is in alignment with prior research that shows adaptability as an important competency for multiracial youth who must finesse complex social interactions potentially involving cultural, ethnic, national, language, religious, historical, and socioeconomic issues (Rockquemore & Brunsma, 2002). Thus, multiracial teens of African descent can move fluidly as insiders of the ethnicities they represent and outsiders to view their situations with an external awareness because they simultaneously belong to many different realities. The identity of multiracial youth of African descent in the United States is further complicated by the turbulent history of slavery, which made race a legal definition with implications for freedom, human rights, education, occupation, etc. (Davis, 1995). Reality testing is the ability to determine the difference between

what's experienced and what objectively exists. The emphasis is on pragmatism, objectivity, the adequacy of your perception, and authentication of ideas and thoughts. In simple terms, reality testing is the ability to accurately size up (Goleman, 1998,) the immediate situation.

Reality testing is important for multiracial adolescents as they often change their self-reporting of racial identity as their racial self-concept evolves (Brown, Hitlin & Elder, 2006). Additionally, Altschul, Oyserman, & Bybee (2006) consider how minority students with high academic achievement hold dual identities, allowing them to be simultaneously a member of a minority group and a member of a larger group (e.g., student body, American teenager, Bostonian, etc.). The ability to move from one perspective to another and the power to distance themselves from negative stereotypes about their minority group(s) is essential, as multiracial minority students have multiple identities in other racial-ethnic groups in addition to social organizations.

Flexibility involves the ability to adjust emotions, thoughts, and behavior to changing situations and conditions and adapt to unfamiliar, unpredictable, and dynamic circumstances. Flexible people are agile, synergistic, and capable of reacting to change. These people are tolerant of different ideas, orientations, ways, and practices. Their capacity to shift thoughts and behaviors is in concert with shifting the feedback they are getting from their environment (Goleman, 1998). Multiracial people see racial groups as flexible, socially constructed groups (Shih, Sanchez & Peck, 2007; Shih & Sanchez, 2009) rather than fixed, unmovable structures. Therefore, multiracial minorities are less susceptible to academic failure as a result of stereotype threat than other minorities (Remedios, 2013). Flexibility has advantages, such as not perceiving stereotypes as barriers. However, a potential disadvantage is these students might dwell too much on how they are perceived while they sort out conflicting signals (Townsend, Markus &

Bergsieker, 2009). Additionally, Flores and Huo (2013) note while multiracial students see racial groups as flexible, socially constructed entities, these adolescents might be misperceived by others and, therefore, not accurately judge other's reactions. For example, multiracial students may encounter youth from other racial groups who prefer socializing only with others who are singularly accurate to their racial-cultural background.

Problem solving is the ability to identify and define problems as well as to generate and implement potentially effective solutions. Problem solving is associated with being conscientious, disciplined, methodical, and systematic in persevering and approaching problems. This skill is also linked to a desire to do one's best and to confront problems, rather than avoid them (Goleman, 1998). Research shows multiracial people dislike being incorrectly categorized as members of the wrong racial, ethnic, or cultural group (Flores & Hou, 2013). While it is not clear if multiracial people are miscategorized more than other groups culturally, it is clear that multiracial people often encounter confusion about their race (Townsend, 2009). During adolescence, a time of deep transformation and identity discovery, multiracial teens must deal with social identity threats, which encompass being categorized in a way incongruent with one's own self-perception (Barreto, Ellemers, Scholten, & Smith, 2010).

During adolescence, multiracial teens must simultaneously deal with other important aspects of identity, including family, peer group, gender, socioeconomic status, religion, and online communities (e.g., Facebook, Twitter, etc.). As a result, problem solving is an ability multiracial students need to thrive.

Racial identity attitude and emotional intelligence. A third statistically significant relationship is between the racial identity attitude total score and the emotional intelligence scale score. H2-H_{011}: There is no linear or monotonic relationship between the racial identity attitude

scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is $r = .413$, $n = 32$, $p = .014$). The second research question and general hypothesis is that there is a relationship between the racial identity attitude scale score and the emotional intelligence scale score. One null hypotheses was tested using both Pearson's and Spearman's formulas.

Interestingly, recent studies show the presence of a strong single ethnic identity is not a benefit for multiracial-multiethnic students of African descent, although it is a benefit for African American students who recognize only African heritage. Combined with the statistically significant importance of the emotional intelligence competency of adaptability detailed earlier in this study, it appears multiracial-ethnic students benefit from the ability to move within several racial-ethnic groups without having to identify exclusively with only one race-ethnicity. One conjecture is multiracial students have learned to balance between two or more racial-ethnic groups as a survival skill (Kim, DeCoster, Huang, & Chiriboga, 2011). When faced with racial hostility, multiracial students can engage in frame-switching (Roccas & Brewer, 2002) to protect themselves from feeling or behaving in a culturally negative manner. In contrast, African American adolescents benefit from maintaining a strong racial-ethnic identity with the Black community because close ties of racial socialization and family support develop a protective resiliency against potential negative behaviors resulting from the stress of discrimination, which can undermine academic performance (Fisher et al., 2000).

Emotional intelligence intrapersonal competency. Intrapersonal competency includes the ability to perceive accurately, understand, and accept oneself; self-regard; emotional self-awareness; assertiveness; independence; and self-actualization (Goleman,1998) Test results show Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is $r = .241$, $n = 32$, $p = .184$.

While not statistically significant, intrapersonal competency is another interesting finding for multiracial youth. Intrapersonal skill is important for multiracial youth for whom racial self-identification is a more complex aspect of self-identification than for other youth (Hitlin, Brown & Elder, 2006). For multiracial youth, racial self-categorization is a profound and reflective process leading to a deeper understanding and acceptance of who one is and not a superficial choice as socioeconomic status and racial identity are important social criteria in the United States (Stephan & Stephan 2000).

Further, research shows mindfulness is an important ability to implement and integrate emotional intelligence. Goleman (2013) discovered the need for mindfulness, the cognitive control and executive function for self-awareness and self-management, as the critical link for student attainment of academic success. The old psychological model separated academic (cognitive) skill from social-emotional (noncognitive) skill. The new thinking is mindfulness, the ability to be aware of oneself and pay attention, and is the lynchpin for learning. The key is to self-correct focus in order to enhance learning.

Racial identity attitude preencounter self-hatred. The racial identity attitude of preencounter self-hatred is one of two Anti-Black orientations in the Cross Racial Identity model (Cross & Vandiver, 2001). Cross describes preencounter self-hatred individuals as holding anti-Black sentiment because of beliefs of negative stereotypes about their racial group. The results show the Spearman's rho is $\rho = -.289$, $p = .108$, and $N = 32$.

Although these results are not statistically significant, researchers note African Americans had higher scores on some subscales of perfectionism (e.g., Parental Expectation, Other Oriented Perfectionism, Self-Oriented Perfectionism) and maladaptive perfectionism may be influenced by societal values and one's racial identity orientation stage (Elion et al., 2012).

For example, Black individuals who strongly reject another race may impose undue pressure on themselves which may lead to self-criticism further exacerbated by perceived discrimination or experienced stereotype threat (Elion et al., 2012). While needing further inquiry, multiracial youth of African descent with fluid racial identity may experience this to a lesser degree.

Discussion 1

Multiracial students are a new demographic group needing to be recognized as a distinct and varied group. This research began against the backdrop of changing American demographics with increasing minority student populations, especially multiracial youth, and decreasing academic achievement for U.S. students. The focus of this study is how racial identity and emotional intelligence, specifically indices associated with life-coping skills, may impact academic achievement among multiracial adolescents of African descent living in the United States.

Minorities reached 50.4% of the population in the 2010 Census, representing a majority for the first time. Of this new majority, those who self-reported as multiracial grew by a larger percentage than any other racial group (U.S. Census Bureau, 2011). Likewise, a 2014 Annie E. Casey Foundation (AECF) report cites the following demographic trends: more children of color were born in the United States than white children in 2013, and the majority of workers in the U.S. labor force will be people of color by 2030, and no single racial group will be a majority group by 2050. The AECF report stated profound demographic shifts, technological advances and global competition create daunting challenges for our society. Researchers concluded, regardless of one's own racial and socioeconomic makeup, every American child needs the opportunity to succeed because the will be the key contributors to and architects of our nation's future (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2014).

Multiracial youth are breaking racial, national, cultural, ethnic, and in some cases, religious boundaries by their very existence. They are societal game changers as they straddle two or more racial/ethnic identities. As outsiders and insiders, they have a unique view of multiple heritages. They are uniquely poised to be global citizens with the adaptability, flexibility and fluidity of identity to meet our society's future challenges.

Prior research corroborates a student's racial identification has a significant impact on academic performance and differences exist between what is effective for multiracial youth versus other racial groups (Herman, 2009). Herman found multiracial adolescents can self-identify with the racial identity likely to increase academic achievement and remove societal barriers to scholastic advancement. This research is in alignment with prior research showing adaptability is an important competency for multiracial youth, who finesse complex social interactions involving cultural, ethnic, national, linguistic, historical, and socioeconomic issues on a daily basis (Rockquemore & Brunsma, 2001). Thus, multiracial teens can move fluidly as insiders within any of the ethnicities to which they belong. In this way, they are able to view their world from multiple perspectives simultaneously as they mature and evolve their own identity.

This study showed multiracial youth exhibit strong emotional intelligence competencies for adaptation, change management, flexibility, and problem solving—all important skills for success in our dynamic, complex, and changing world. These competencies may partially result from multiracial youth believing race is a social construct rather than a rigid, fixed identity.

Multiracial youth perform better academically when they keep their racial identity fluid. While African American youth in general have better academic performance if they maintain a strong identity Black race and culture, multiracial youth of African descent do not perform as

well academically if they maintain a strong identity with Black race and culture (Herman, 2009). For multiracial students, it appears fluidity and choice of racial identity liberates them from accepting an either-or label or needing to defend their heritage so they can focus on other broader interests, like academic achievement and career preparation.

Researchers (Pew Research Center, 2014) found more than 10 million Americans changed their race or Hispanic-origin category from the 2000 census to the 2010 census. Multiracial Americans, Hispanics, American Indians and Pacific Islanders made the most racial or ethnic changes in the census. Researchers believe people change their racial or ethnic origin categories due to evolving self-identity or perceived benefits from identifying with specific groups.

Considerations

Create awareness about multiracial identity as a worldwide phenomenon with historic, economic, social, technological, geographic, and political underpinnings. The topic of multiracial identity should be integrated across the curriculum to teach students about Diasporas and immigration as related to history, geography, and sociology while emphasizing the need for understanding, tolerance, and appreciation for human diversity. Perhaps, improved global relations, enhanced diplomacy, and lasting peace may result for coming generations because of this type of education.

Develop a strategy and actions to support multiracial students' needs at every level: policy, academic, school district and local school. Strategy is creating the desired futures for those who engaged in it (Brown, 2001). Large scale strategy should consider whether educational institutions, and society-at-large, are adapting to the new reality of minority as majority student populations with the fastest growing segment being multiracial, multiethnic

youth. At the local level, education leaders should seize this opportunity as a teaching moment to better understand who we are and are becoming as a community, a country, and a world. If minority students are underperforming academically, we have to understand who these students are, what their needs are, and how to better serve their needs. After all, student success is ultimately our shared success as a society and Nation.

Acknowledge the contributions of multiracial people so multiracial students can feel valued and included. Because ethnic and historic celebrations focus exclusively on the accomplishments of specific racial groups, multiracial people have not been part of our collective history or consciousness. Until 2000, multiracial people could choose only between 5 separate racial categories in the U.S. Census, a major chronicler of U.S. demographics and information resource for governments, historians, sociologists, ethnographers, economists, scholars, writers, and others.

Incorporate into the curriculum already available multiracial/multiethnic resources in films: *Belle* (Jones & Asante, 2014), television programs *Key & Peele* (Key & Peele, 2014), Internet blogs: *Multicultural Familia* (Chatz, 2012) or *Neither/Both: my mixed race experience* (Neither/Both LLC, 2014), Web sites: *Mixed Race Studies* (Mixed Race Studies, 2014), novels: *Take One Candle Light a Room* (Straight, 2010) or *The Latte Rebellion* (Stevenson, S.J., 2011), and documentaries: *Multiracial Identity* (Abacus & Chinhema, 2010), which explores the social, political, and religious impact of the multiracial movement and the experience of being multiracial.

Discussion 2

The multiracial student is at-risk. Minority youth struggle to succeed academically, especially multiracial students descended from minorities involuntarily assimilated into

American culture, especially African, Latino, and American Indian). According to a 2014 report, Black, Latino, and American Indian students are less successful academically than their Asian or White counterparts. The report looked at 12 key indicators of childhood success including education, family support and neighborhood. Children were ranked on a scale from one (low success indicator) to 1,000 (high success indicator) and their scores were: Asian (776), White (704), Latino (404), American Indian (387), and African-American (345). The report called the African American situation a national crisis. Sadly, the lowest score of all the groups were American Indian tribes in South Dakota who scored 185. Researchers believe a combination of poverty, drug and alcohol abuse and related fetal-alcohol syndrome contributed to the low score (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2014).

This study shows multiracial youth appear score high in adaptability. It appears the adaptation required to cope with the complexity of multiple races and ethnicities appears to give multiracial students an advantage in learning. If multiracial students keep their racial identity fluid, they enhance the development of adaptability and improve academic performance.

Conversely, multiracial students have less academic success when they identify with only one racial group (Herman, 2009). For example, multiracial youth of African descent have lower academic scores when they strongly identify with being Black. This is in stark contrast to African American youth who identify with only their African ancestry as their academic performance improves when they maintain a strong Black identity (Herman, 2009). Likewise, if multiracial youth of African descent are part Caucasian, they exhibit less academic achievement when they maintain a strong White identity (Herman, 2009). Perhaps evolving a flexible racial identity permits multiracial students the freedom to strive academically without kowtowing to the confines of any single racial or cultural perspective. In other words, their outlier status may

confer an added benefit of perspective and reflectiveness about who one is on the inside and who one represents on the outside to the world. These are weighty and deep processes, normally dealt with through literature, psychology, and the arts but even more profound when played out against the backdrop of adolescence and personal growth.

Multiracial students of African descent. Multiracial students of African descent living in the U.S. are more likely to experience stress from actual or perceived discrimination and these negative episodes have an effect on academic performance. Students of African descent live in a society with the turbulent history of slavery, which made race a legal definition with implications for freedom, human rights, education, occupation, etc. (Davis, 1995). Sellers et al. (2006) notes dimensions of racial identity are important for adolescents of African descent to compensate for and protect against experiences of discrimination which still exist.

A 2011 study (Noymer, Penner, & Saperstein, 2011) showed racial stereotypes are present even when a person dies and their race is sited on death certificates. Researchers looked at archival vital statistics records and found individuals killed in a homicide were more likely to be classified as Black while those dying from cirrhosis of the liver were more likely to be classified as American Indian despite previous race designation on prior documents. Likewise, individuals were less likely to be recorded as White if they died in prison or in poverty. Researchers determined widely held racial stereotypes influenced personnel recording data to incorrectly attribute a specific race to a specific cause of death thus perpetuating stereotypes with corroborating, albeit incorrect, statistics.

Multiracial students descended from minorities involuntarily assimilated into American culture. Special consideration should be given to minorities involuntarily assimilated into American culture (e.g., African, Latino, and/or American Indian descent) because they

exhibit lower academic performance, have higher high school dropout rates, and are less likely to complete higher education. Minority groups involuntarily assimilated into the U.S. include Africans brought to America as part of the slave trade, indigenous American Indians losing native homeland to settlers, or Hispanics displaced from once Spanish-held territories in the Southwestern U.S. to the ongoing migration and deportation struggles of today. Researchers believe this is due in part to the stress from perceived or actual discrimination.

Studies show minorities involuntarily assimilated into American culture are more likely to experience stress from discrimination and have less academic success; this effect is compounded for multiracial students having two or more of these racial identities. For example, Herman (2004) found multiracial students of African or Hispanic descent have lower grades than multiracial students who self-identify as White or Asian and a 2014 study found Asian and White students outperform all other groups (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2014). According to a 2013 National Center for Education Statistics report, 12th grade students designated as White or Asian/Pacific Islander scored higher in reading and mathematics assessments than students designated as Two or More races, Black, Hispanic, or American Indian/Alaska Native students (U.S. Department of Education, 2013).

Additionally, prior research found distinct minority subgroups with different outcomes in education. Students of African descent performed better in states with low black populations (e.g., Hawaii, New Hampshire, Utah, and Alaska), Asian students of Chinese, Indian, Japanese, or Pilipino descent did better than those from Burmese, Hmong, Laotian, Cambodian, and Vietnamese descent, Latino students of Cuban and South American descent scored higher than those from Mexico and Central America, and American Indian students of Choctaw descent were better off than those from the Apache tribe (Annie E. Casey Foundation, 2014).

Considerations

Provide professional training for teachers, counselors, and developmental staff to create the best learning environment for multiracial students and use the latest emotional intelligence training in order to improve student potential. These best practices can be communicated to parents, parent-teacher associations, students so learning can be enhanced at home and in school. Education policy makers can promote regional and national support programs to optimize learning practices that should be included in in state and national standards of learning.

Teachers and counselors could be skilled in culturally adaptive counselling so they can hear a student's narrative within a culturally and sociologically appropriate context. In a more holistic vein, teachers, counselors and all stakeholders (e.g., multiracial students, families, support groups and school organizations) must understand the differences between multiracial and other racial group requirements and the need for racial identity fluidity for multiracial adolescents.

Recruit teachers for greater diversity to inspire minority and multiracial students as role models and teach students all students the importance of diversity in our society as reflected by the varied backgrounds of teachers and staff at the school. While nonwhites comprise only 17% of the teachers, the student population is over 40% minority (Boser, 2014).

Develop a multiracial/multiethnic component across the K-12 school curriculum throughout to include multiracial, multiethnic information across the spectrum in history, literature, art, sociology, etc., to give multiracial students relevant role models. For example, *Betwixt and Between* (Daniel, 2014), one of the first college courses to deal with multiracial identity in the U.S., could be adapted for lower school grades.

Create a time for discussion and shared reflection about the complexity of racial identity for both youth from all racial groups including multiracial youth as a category to begin a dialogue, detangle myths and misunderstandings, and create a student community based on shared understanding and mutual respect.

Recommendation 1: Future Research

Racial identity. Herman's (2009) study demonstrated the importance of racial identity for multiracial students and academic achievement. Regarding academic achievement, race and racial context may be better tools for explaining achievement, particularly among multiracial students. There is a need for greater study about multiracial youth in their environments: ethnic culture, family structure, urban-rural setting, parental support, and English as a second language, if applicable. Variables such as school districts, access to specific classes within schools (e.g., advanced placement), neighborhoods, and peer groups can also have a positive or negative effect on academic achievement (Rockquemore & Brunsma, 2002).

Other important factors for academic achievement include the socioeconomic status of immediate and extended families, neighborhoods, and schools. Also, a higher education level of family members and being in a family that values education improves academic achievement. Students perform better in school if they have access to adult support (e.g., parent, guidance counselor, teacher, coach, etc.) to mentor, advise, and help fund education programs. Social capital, defined as parental involvement, expectation, and support, is important for minorities to persist in school and achieve academic success (Wagner, 2013). Moreover, students who belong to a peer group promoting behaviors conducive to learning, such as doing homework or participating in class discussions, have higher grades. Conversely, membership in a peer group

that rejects behavior promoting learning, such as study groups and maximum class attendance, typically have lower grades (Ogbu, 2004).

Further research needs to be conducted about multiracial groups and academic achievement to establish criteria for what helps student of certain racial and ethnic groups in the context of socioeconomic, health, family values, peers, and other factors potentially influencing scholastic success. Longitudinal studies would provide a fuller accounting multiracial student achievement over time and allow for assessment of practices, processes, and case studies to determine best practices. Research would inform students, parents, and teachers and administrators about where the school success barriers are and how to remove, change, or mitigate them.

Fund research to explore the racial modalities and learning styles of youth from all racial groups to include multiracial youth. As some multiracial/multiethnic students are part Caucasian, there needs to be sufficient research about White racial modalities and learning styles to adequately assist these students. All racial/ethnic groups have subgroups and outliers with differing worldviews: (Black) Afrocuban is not the same as African American, (Hispanic) Brazilian is not the same as Mexican, (American Indian) Iroquois is not the same as Navajo, (Asian) Chinese is not the same as Hmong, and (White) German is not the same as (White) Jamaican. National and state funding should support individual districts to learn more about their unique and diverse populations. This data could inform other policy decisions from demographics in the census to health care policy.

Emotional intelligence. Most emotional intelligence research has focused on adults regarding leadership, career, and life success. However, there needs to be more research into the

relationship between emotional intelligence and youth, especially considering racial identity and other factors in quantitative and qualitative studies.

Schools need to incorporate emotional intelligence training into the elementary to high school curriculum so students acquire the adaptability and social skills needed to succeed. Emotional intelligence includes focus and mindfulness, which are increasingly undermined by the array of ubiquitous distractions technology creates. Students need to develop the discipline, habits, and focus required for academic performance.

Longitudinal studies. There is a need for longitudinal studies with large representative samples to measure racial identity, academic achievement, and emotional intelligence indices relative to behavioral outcomes. Studies beginning in elementary school through postsecondary school will enlighten researchers about the evolution of racial identity and emotional intelligence regarding academic achievement. The goal is to pinpoint the ages when barriers to academic success occur in order to develop tools for teacher, counselors, parents, and students to mitigate them. For example, teachers, counselors, and parents can find opportunities for students to develop social intelligence competencies and time for personal reflection to increase mental focus. Public policies can support these programs by funding research, professional training, and public access to information at events and online.

Adolescence is a time of change when identity, a sense of belonging, peer group acceptance, and self-expression surge at the same time students are making critical decisions affecting their futures. The ability of students to navigate successfully through this transformation has broad implications for them, their families, and society. Lengthier studies might provide greater understanding about how adolescent development is impacted by peer groups, schools, families, and the neighborhoods, especially for minority and multiracial youth

(Bromberg & Theokas, 2014, Cook & Ludwig, 1998). For instance, research suggests changing contexts and the passage of time affect the racial identification of multiracial people, so it would be interesting to learn more about what those triggers are and the circumstances when they are deployed (Herman 2004; Root 1995).

Recommendation 2: More Measures for Academic Achievement

Many researchers are critical of standardized test scores, which they believe do not measure important learning skills such as creativity, critical thinking, motivation, and persistence, although academic achievement is indicated by standardized test scores in this study (Neill, 2003). Some scholars maintain standardized tests are biased against minority youth (Medina & Neill, 1988). For instance, the SAT has been redesigned to attempt to correct for culturally and statistically bias against African Americans, Hispanic Americans, and Asian Americans (Freedle, 2003). Still, Hiss & Franks (2014) found these tests should not be used for college admission criteria as the scores are not indicative of college success.

Other measures of academic achievement are available, including creating a portfolio of student achievement in special projects, science labs or field work, research papers, book reviews, oral presentations, group projects, and/or writing a paper in a second language. These measures provide a more holistic and well-rounded evaluation of student progress and potential.

Recommendation 3: Expanded Professional Development

Teachers, counselors, and developmental staff need professional training to create the best learning environment for multiracial students and use the latest emotional intelligence training in order to enhance student potential. These best practices can be communicated to parents, parent-teacher groups, and students so student learning can be enhanced at home and in schools. Education policy makers can promote regional and national support programs so

optimum learning practices are reflected in state and national standards of learning and shared with all stakeholders.

For example, teachers and counselors need to consider the fluidity of racial identity for multiracial adolescents to develop better techniques for hearing student narratives and identifying student needs. In a more holistic vein, multiracial students, families, support groups, and school organizations must understand the needs of students from all races including multiracial students. Further, school district and public policy support is needed to fund research, professional training, and outreach to the community. This study contributes to the growing body of research about multiracial identity for those of African descent (French, Seidman, Allen, & Aber, 2006; Matsunaga, Hecht, Elek, & Ndiaye, 2010), emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2013) and academic achievement (Ferguson, 2002).

There is a greater need for research and applicable education theories for multiracial individuals and their unique situations. The dynamic changes in society require new theories while being mindful of the needs of specific groups, such as multiracial students of African descent. Students' personal narratives and critical evaluation of current research models will help inform future study.

Conclusion

This dissertation investigated how racial identity and emotional intelligence, specifically indices associated with life-coping skills, might impact academic achievement among multiracial adolescents of African descent in the United States. This study aspires to contribute to the growing body of research about multiracial identity for those of African descent (French et al., 2006; Matsunaga et al., 2010), emotional intelligence (Goleman, 2013) and academic achievement (Ferguson, 2002) and hopes to inspire inquiry into future research.

American demographics are changing. Minorities reached 50.4% of the population in 2010, representing a majority for the first time. Of this group, people who reported as multiracial grew by a larger percentage than those reporting from any single race (U.S. Census, 2011). At the same time, U.S. students' standardized test scores are declining compared to other countries. This matters because the future of our society is dependent upon the youth to become informed citizens, employable workers, contributing adults, and responsible members of a global society.

There is urgency for change. Society has always evolved but now the changes are coming faster. We need to monitor our changing situation and respond quickly or we will slide further behind countries that are adapting and educating their students more effectively. A lot is at stake. For young Americans, the minority population is the majority. With unlimited access to people around the world through technology, our diversity should give our country an advantage in a complex global environment. However, the important entry point for these youth will be competitive education and adaptable social skills. The next generation cannot capitalize on their assets without an education system able to deliver the skills needed for future success.

We live in a global world. If we adapt to the needs of our youth and celebrate their uniqueness, our society has the unlimited potential to thrive. However, we must tap into our greatest resource: our diverse people.

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APPENDIX A

Survey Items for Cross Racial Identity

Racial Attitude	Measured on a *7 point scale for agreement/disagreement
CRIS 1 Assimilation (PA)	I think of myself primarily as an American, and seldom as a member of a racial group.
CRIS 2 Miseducation (PM)	Too many Blacks—glamorize the drug trade and fail to see opportunities that don't involve crime. I think of myself primarily as an American, and seldom as a member of a racial group.
CRIS 3 Self-Hatred (PSH)	I go through periods when I am down on myself because I am Black.
CRIS 4 Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	As a multiculturalist, I am connected to many cultural groups (Hispanics, Asian American, Whites, different religions, etc.).
CRIS 5 Anti-White (IEAW)	Because of the historic and current discrimination against Blacks at the hands of White people, I have strong feelings of anger and dislike for White people.
CRIS 6 Afrocentricity (IA)	I see and think about things from an Afrocentric perspective.
CRIS 7 Assimilation (PA)	I am not so much a member of a racial group, as I am an American.
CRIS 8 Self-Hatred (PSH)	I sometimes struggle with negative feelings about being Black.
CRIS 9 Miseducation (PM)	Blacks place more emphasis on having a good time than on hard work.
CRIS 10 Afrocentricity (IA)	I believe that only those Black people who accept an Afrocentric perspective can truly solve the race problem in America.
CRIS 11 Anti-White (IEAW)	The White community is responsible for the despair and suffering among Blacks and I hate that about them.
CRIS 12 Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	I believe it is important to have both a Black identity and a multicultural perspective.
CRIS 13 Self-Hatred (PSH)	When I look in the mirror at my Black image, sometimes I do not feel good about what I see.
CRIS 14 Assimilation (PA)	If I had to put a label on my identity, it would be—American, and not African American.
CRIS 15 Miseducation (PM)	Many Blacks are too lazy to see opportunities that are right in front of them.
CRIS 16 Afrocentricity (IA)	Black people cannot truly be free until our daily lives are guided by Afrocentric values principles.
CRIS 17 Anti-White (IEAW)	If White people treated Black people fairly, Black people would be better off.

CRIS 18 Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	I embrace my own Black identity, but I also respect and celebrate the cultural identities of other groups (Hispanics, Asian-American, Whites, different religions, etc.).
CRIS 19 Self-Hatred (PSH)	Privately, I sometimes have negative feelings about being Black.
CRIS 20 Assimilation (PA)	If I had to put myself into categories, first I would say I am an American, and second I am a member of a racial group.
CRIS 21 Miseducation (PM)	African Americans are too quick to turn to crime to solve their problems.
CRIS 22 Anti-White (IEAW)	I don't want to be labeled as acting White.
CRIS 23 Afrocentricity (IA)	I respect the ideas that other Black people hold, but I believe that the best way to solve our problems is to think Afrocentrically.
CRIS 24 Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	I believe it is important to have both a Black identity and a multicultural perspective, because this connects me to other groups (Hispanics, Asian-American, Whites, different religions, etc.)
CRIS 25 Assimilation (PA)	I have developed an identity that stresses my experiences as an American more than my experiences as a member of a racial group.
CRIS 26 Miseducation (PM)	Blacks place too much importance on racial protest and not enough on hard work and education.
CRIS 27 Afrocentricity (IA)	Black people will never be free until we embrace an Afrocentric perspective.
CRIS 28 Anti-White (IEAW)	My negative feelings towards White people are intense because of the discrimination have and continue to endure because of them.
CRIS 29 Self-Hatred (PSH)	I sometimes have negative feelings about being Black
CRIS 30 Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	As a multiculturalist, it is important for me to be connected with individuals from a cultural backgrounds (Hispanics, Asian-American, Whites, different religions, etc.).

Notes. *1 = Strongly disagree to 7=Strongly agree.

APPENDIX B

Survey Items for EQi-YV Scale

Emotion Quotient	Measured on a *4 point scale for agreement/disagreement	
EQ 1	I care what happens to other people.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 2	It is easy to tell people how I feel.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 3	I like everyone I meet.	General Mood
EQ 4	I am able to respect others.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 5	I get too upset about things.	Stress Management
EQ 6	I can talk easily about my feelings.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 7	I have good thoughts about everyone.	General Mood
EQ 8	I fight with people.	Stress Management
EQ 9	I have a temper.	Stress Management
EQ 10	I understand hard questions.	Adaptability
EQ 11	Nothing bothers me.	General Mood
EQ 12	It is hard to talk about my deep feelings	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 13	I can come up with good answers to hard questions.	Adaptability
EQ 14	I can easily describe my feelings	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 15	I must tell the truth.	General Mood
EQ 16	I can come up with many ways of answering a hard question when I want to.	Adaptability
EQ 17	I get angry easily.	Stress Management
EQ 18	I like doing things for others.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 19	I can easily use different ways of solving problems.	Adaptability
EQ 20	I think I am the best in everything I do	General Mood
EQ 21	It is easy for me to tell people what I feel.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 22	When answering hard questions, I try to think of many solutions	Adaptability
EQ 23	I feel bad when other people have their feelings hurt.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 24	I am good at solving problems.	Adaptability
EQ 25	I do not have bad days.	General Mood
EQ 26	I have trouble telling others about my feelings.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 27	I get upset easily.	Stress Management
EQ 28	I can tell when one of my close friends is unhappy.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 29	When I get angry, I act without thinking.	Stress Management
EQ 30	I know when people are upset, even when they say nothing.	Interpersonal Scale

Each factoris rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89.

APPENDIX C

Cross Racial Identity Scale

Survey Items

Racial Attitude	Measured on a *7-point scale for agreement/disagreement
CRIS 1 Assimilation	I think of myself primarily as an American, and seldom as a member of a racial group.
CRIS 2 Miseducation	Too many Blacks glamorize the drug trade and fail to see opportunities that don't involve crime. I think of myself primarily as an American, and seldom as a member of a racial group.
CRIS 3 Self-Hatred	I go through periods when I am down on myself because I am Black.
CRIS 4 Multiculturalist Inclusive	As a multiculturalist, I am connected to many cultural groups (Hispanics, Asian American, Whites, different religions, etc.).
CRIS 5 Anti-White	Because of the historic and current discrimination against Blacks at the hands of White people, I have strong feelings of anger and dislike for White people.
CRIS 6 Afrocentricity	I see and think about things from an Afrocentric perspective.
CRIS 7 Assimilation	I am not so much a member of a racial group, as I am an American.
CRIS 8 Self-Hatred	I sometimes struggle with negative feelings about being Black.
CRIS 9 Miseducation	Blacks place more emphasis on having a good time than on hard work.
CRIS 10 Afrocentricity	I believe that only those Black people who accept an Afrocentric perspective can truly solve the race problem in America.
CRIS 11 Anti-White	The White community is responsible for the despair and suffering among Blacks and I hate that about them.
CRIS 12 Multiculturalist Inclusive	I believe it is important to have both a Black identity and a multicultural perspective.
CRIS 13 Self-Hatred	When I look in the mirror at my Black image, sometimes I do not feel good about what I see.
CRIS 14 Assimilation	If I had to put a label on my identity, it would be American, and not African American.
CRIS 15 Miseducation	Many Blacks are too lazy to see opportunities that are right in front of them.
CRIS 16 Afrocentricity	Black people cannot truly be free until our daily lives are guided by Afrocentric values principles.

CRIS 17 Anti-White	If White people treated Black people fairly, Black people would be better off.
CRIS 18 Multiculturalist Inclusive	I embrace my own Black identity, but I also respect and celebrate the cultural identities of other groups (Hispanics, Asian American, Whites, different religions, etc.).
CRIS 19 Self-Hatred	Privately, I sometimes have negative feelings about being Black.
CRIS 20 Assimilation	If I had to put myself into categories, first I would say I am an American, and second I am a member of a racial group.
CRIS 21 Miseducation	African Americans are too quick to turn to crime to solve their problems.
CRIS 22 Anti-White	I don't want to be labeled as acting White.
CRIS 23 Afrocentricity	I respect the ideas that other Black people hold, but I believe that the best way to solve our problems is to think Afrocentrically.
CRIS 24 Multiculturalist Inclusive	I believe it is important to have both a Black identity and a multicultural perspective, because this connects me to other groups (Hispanics, Asian American, Whites, different religions, etc.)
CRIS 25 Assimilation	I have developed an identity that stresses my experiences as an American more than my experiences as a member of a racial group.
CRIS 26 Miseducation	Blacks place too much importance on racial protest and not enough on hard work and education.
CRIS 27 Afrocentricity	Black people will never be free until we embrace an Afrocentric perspective.
CRIS 28 Anti-White (IEAW)	My negative feelings toward White people are intense because of the discrimination I have and continue to endure because of them.
CRIS 29 Self-Hatred (PSH)	I sometimes have negative feelings about being Black
CRIS 30 Multiculturalist Inclusive (IMCI)	As a multiculturalist, it is important for me to be connected with individuals from a cultural backgrounds (Hispanics, Asian American, Whites, different religions, etc.).

*1 = Strongly disagree to 7 = Strongly agree.

APPENDIX D

EQi Scale

Survey Items

Emotion Quotient	Measured on a *4 point scale for agreement/disagreement	
EQ 1	I care what happens to other people.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 2	It is easy to tell people how I feel.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 3	I like everyone I meet.	General Mood
EQ 4	I am able to respect others.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 5	I get too upset about things.	Stress Management
EQ 6	I can talk easily about my feelings.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 7	I have good thoughts about everyone.	General Mood
EQ 8	I fight with people.	Stress Management
EQ 9	I have a temper.	Stress Management
EQ 10	I understand hard questions.	Adaptability
EQ 11	Nothing bothers me.	General Mood
EQ 12	It is hard to talk about my deep feelings	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 13	I can come up with good answers to hard questions.	Adaptability
EQ 14	I can easily describe my feelings	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 15	I must tell the truth.	General Mood
EQ 16	I can come up with many ways of answering a hard question when I want to.	Adaptability
EQ 17	I get angry easily.	Stress Management
EQ 18	I like doing things for others.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 19	I can easily use different ways of solving problems.	Adaptability
EQ 20	I think I am the best in everything I do	General Mood
EQ 21	It is easy for me to tell people what I feel.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 22	When answering hard questions, I try to think of many solutions	Adaptability
EQ 23	I feel bad when other people have their feelings hurt.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 24	I am good at solving problems.	Adaptability
EQ 25	I do not have bad days.	General Mood
EQ 26	I have trouble telling others about my feelings.	Intrapersonal Scale
EQ 27	I get upset easily.	Stress Management
EQ 28	I can tell when one of my close friends is unhappy.	Interpersonal Scale
EQ 29	When I get angry, I act without thinking.	Stress Management
EQ 30	I know when people are upset, even when they say nothing.	Interpersonal Scale

Note. Each factor is rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale with reliability coefficients ranging from .84 to .89.
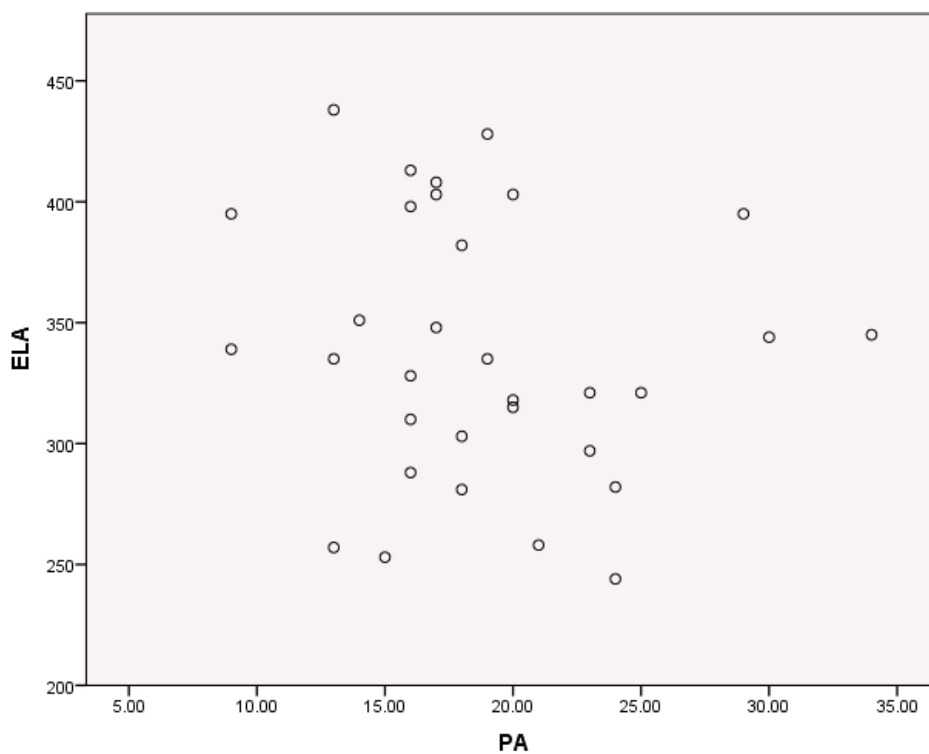
APPENDIX E

Scatter Plots

Figure 1. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho
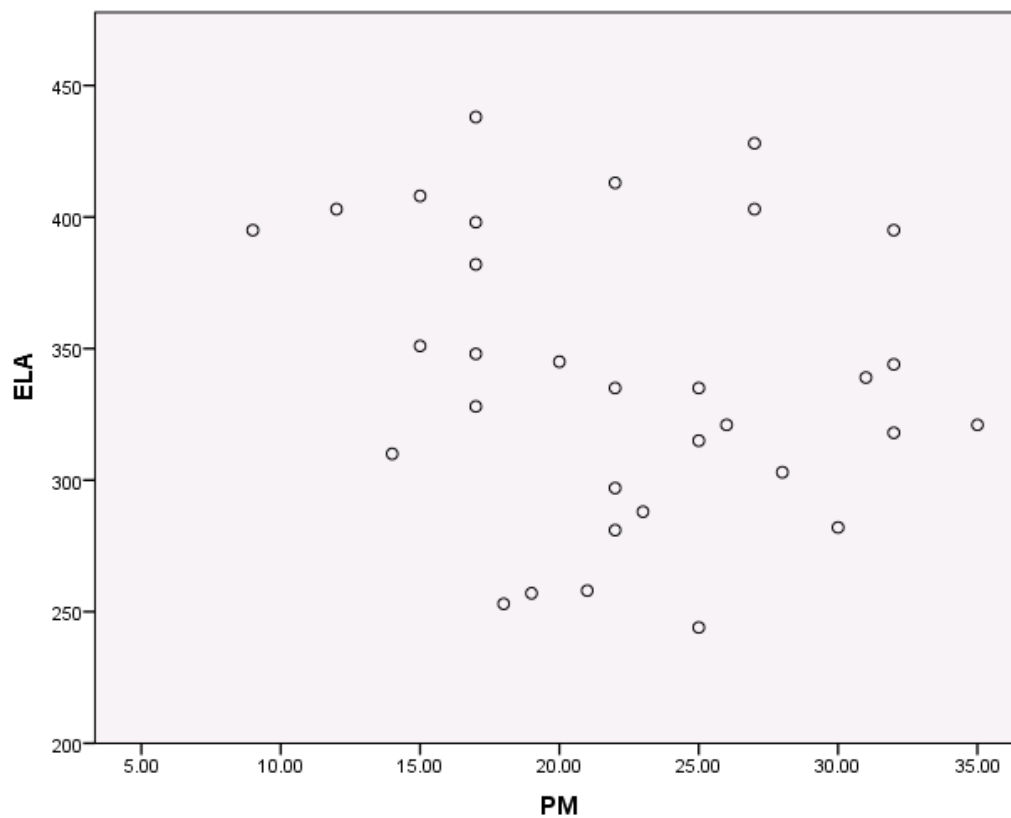for Preencounter Assimilation Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Figure 2. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho for Preencounter Miseducated Racial Identity Attitude Score.
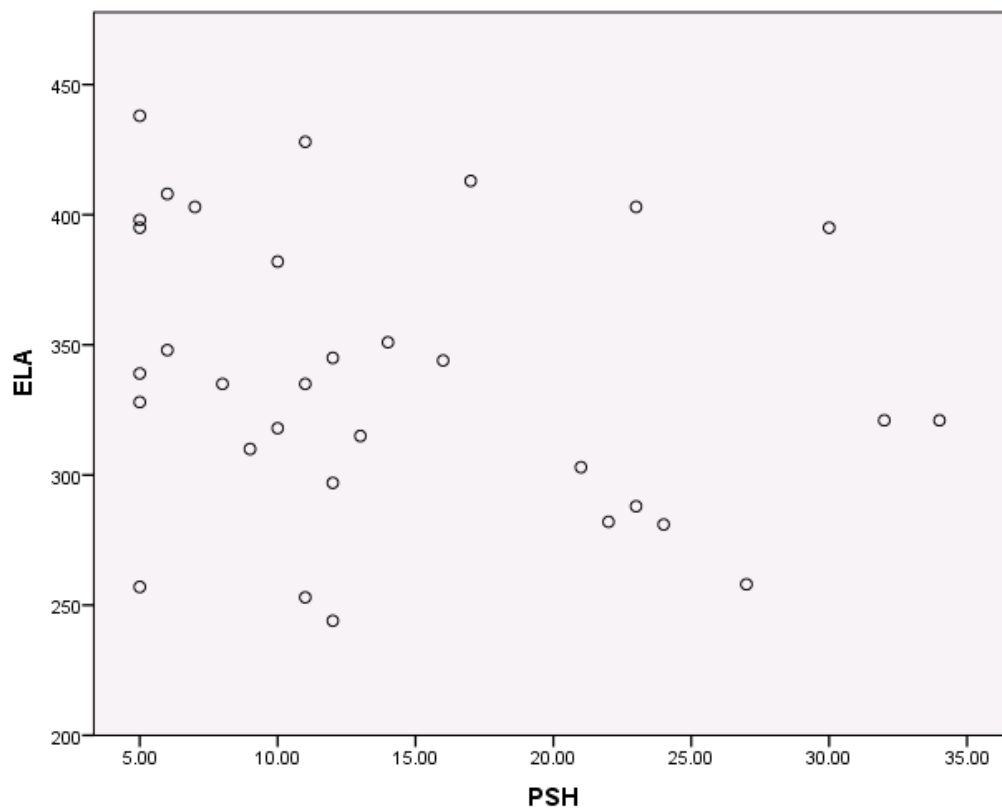
Figure 3. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho
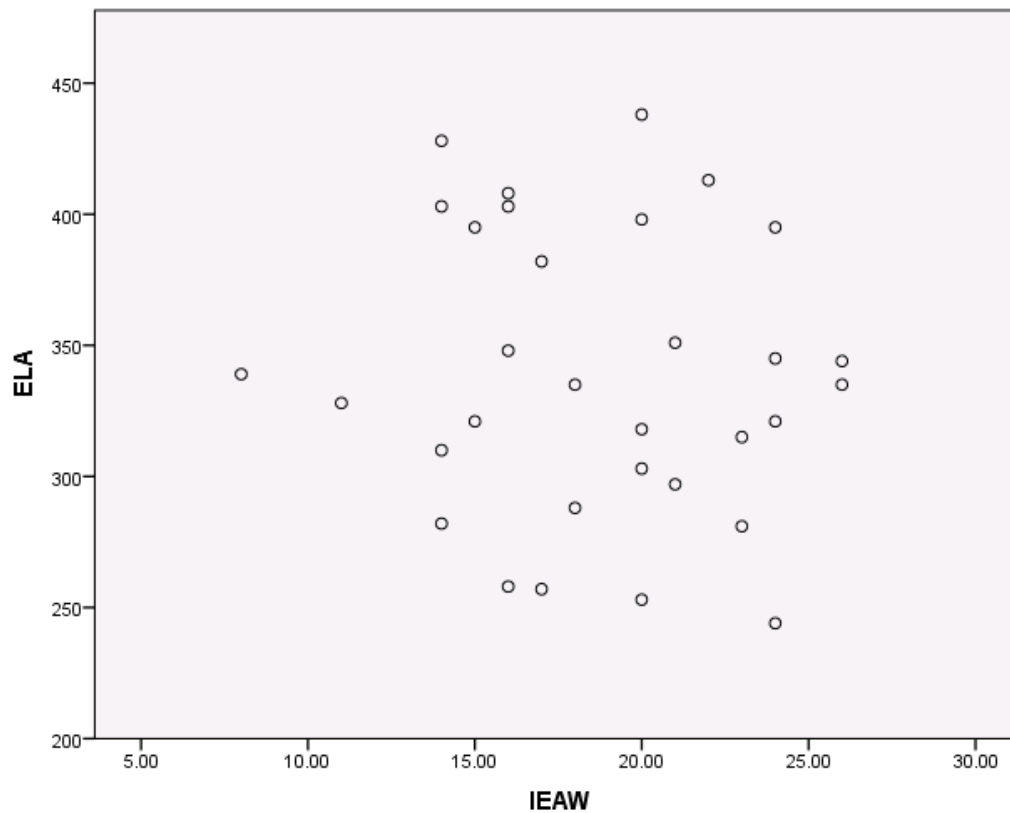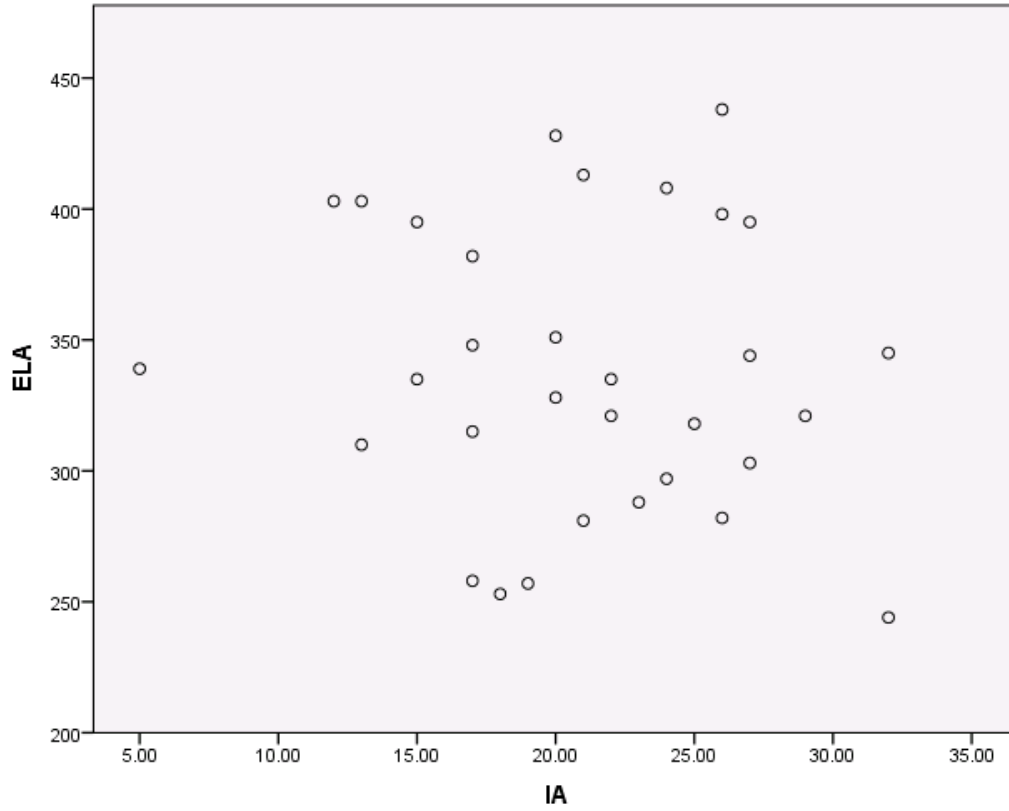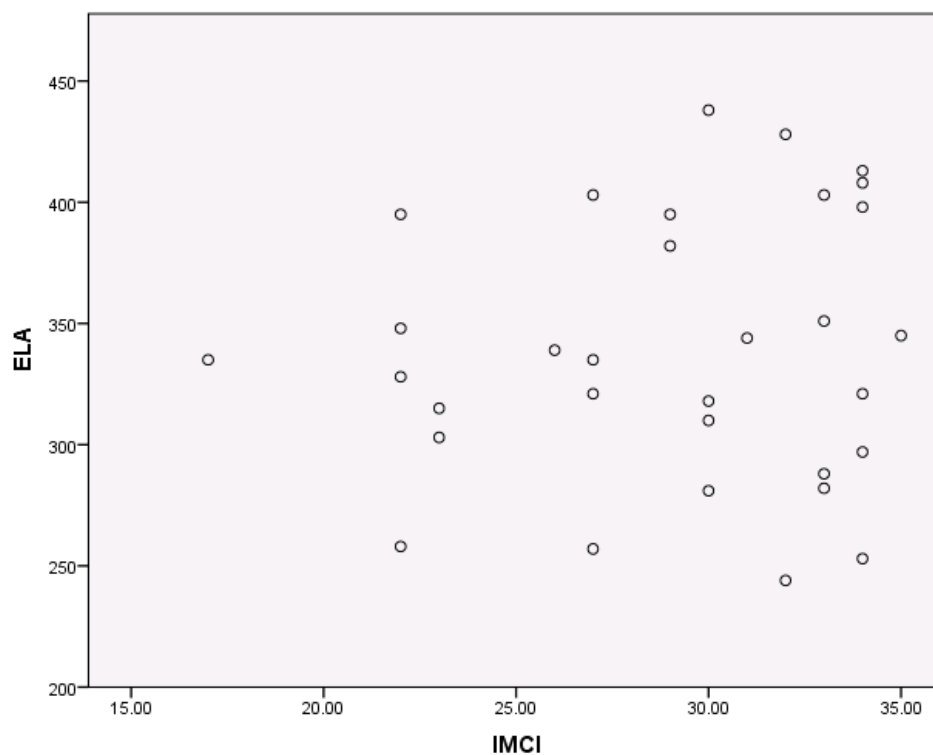for Preencounter Self-Hatred Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Figure 4. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho
for the Immersion-Emersion Anti-White Racial Identity Attitude Score

Figure 5. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho
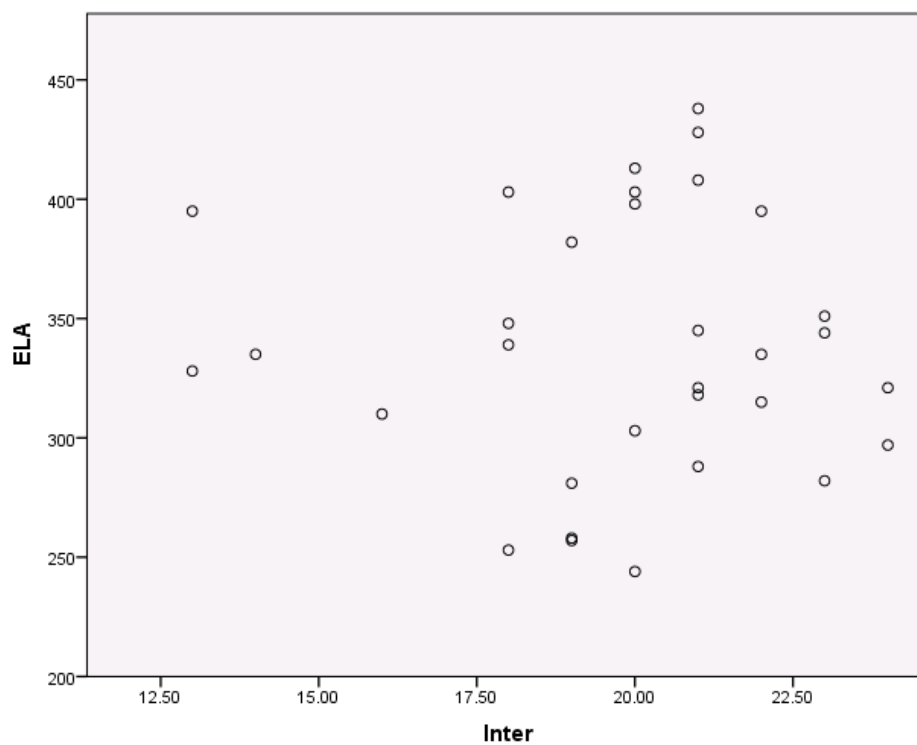for the Internalization Afrocentric Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Figure 6. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho for the Internalization Multicultural Inclusive Racial Identity Attitude Score.

Figure 7. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Interpersonal Scale Score.
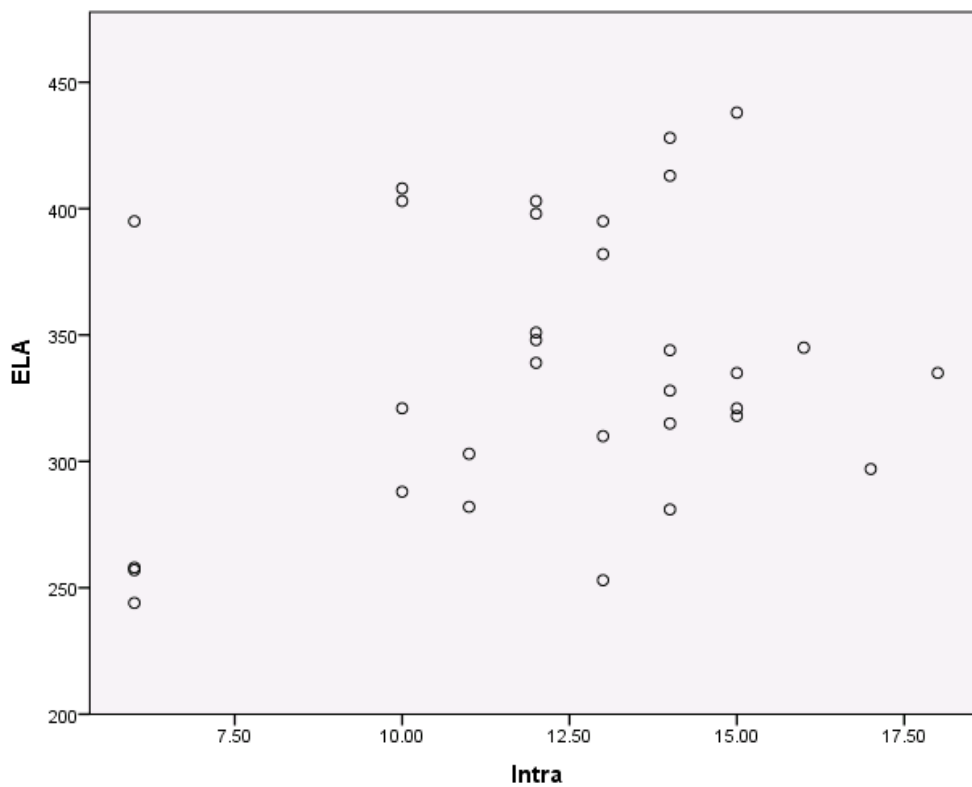
Figure 8. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Intrapersonal Scale Score.
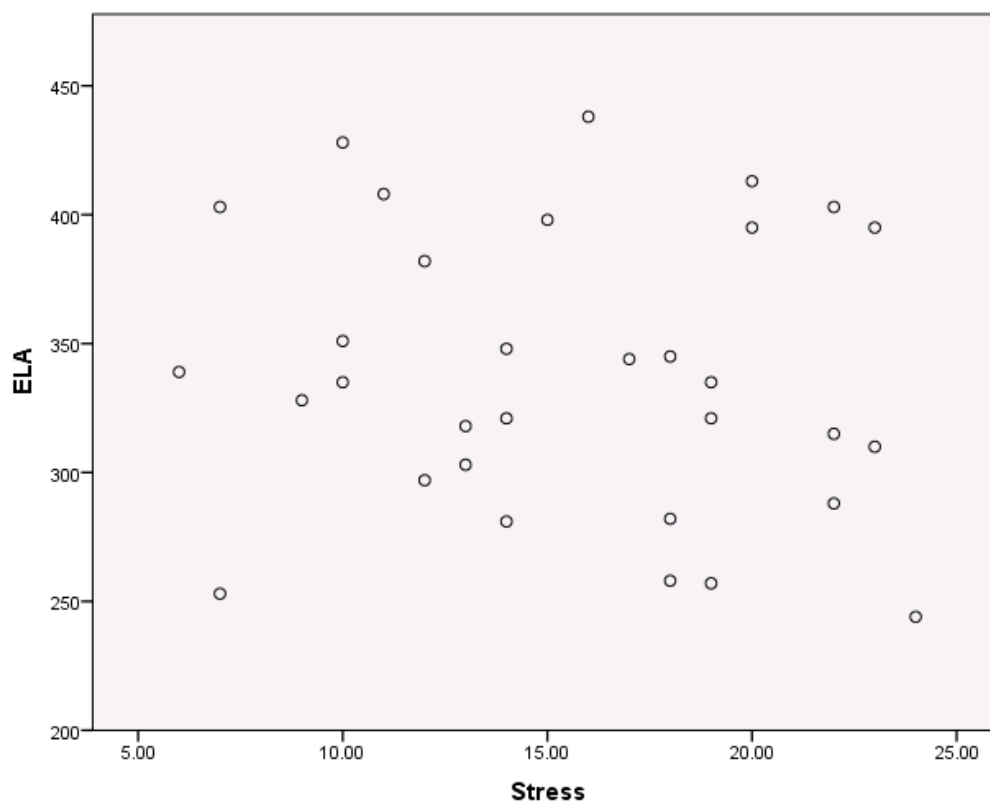
Figure 9. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Stress Management Scale Score.
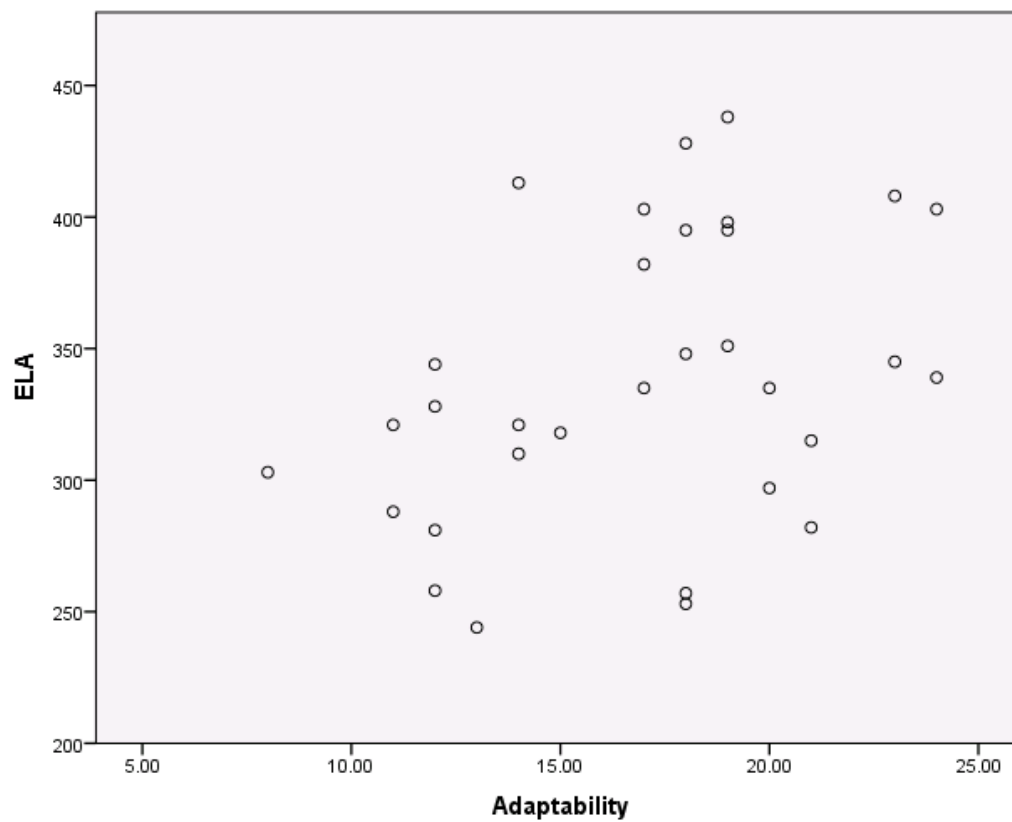
Figure 10. Pearson's Correlation Coefficient and Spearman's rho for the emotional intelligence Adaptability Scale Score.

APPENDIX F

Permission to Use Data

From: Ben Drati <BenDrati@clovisusd.k12.ca.us> [Edit Address Book]

To: "maryannfreeman@earthlink.com" <maryannfreeman@earthlink.com>

Subject: Re: Dissertation

Date: Apr 16, 2012 1:45 PM

This is Dr. Ben Amuku Drati. You have permission to use my data in my dissertation. Thanks and good luck.

Sent from my iPhone

APPENDIX G

IRB Approval Letter

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board

January 30, 2013

Protocol #: E1212D03
Project Title: Emotional Intelligence and Racial Identity's Impact on Academic Achievement in African American Multiracial High School Students

Dear Mary,

Thank you for submitting your application, *Emotional Intelligence and Racial Identity's Impact on Academic Achievement in African American Multiracial High School Students,* for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB appreciates the work you and your faculty advisor, Dr. Kay Davis, have done on the proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations (45 CFR 46 - http://www.nihtraining.com/ohsrsite/guidelines/45cfr46.html) that govern the protections of human subjects. Specifically, section 45 CFR 46.101(b)(2) states:

> (b) Unless otherwise required by Department or Agency heads, research activities in which the only involvement of human subjects will be in one or more of the following categories are exempt from this policy:

> **Category (2) of 45 CFR 46.101,** research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless: a) Information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and b) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit a **Request for Modification Form** to the GPS IRB. Because your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite our best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the GPS IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete explanation of the event and your response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the GPS IRB and the appropriate form to be used to report this information can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* (see link to "policy material" at http://www.pepperdine.edu/irb/graduate/).

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all further communication or correspondence related to this approval. Should you have additional questions, please contact me. On behalf of the GPS IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

6100 Center Drive, Los Angeles, California 90045 ▪ 310-568-5600