

Pepperdine University

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

DIVERSITY CONGRUENCY WITHIN ORGANIZATIONS: THE RELATIONSHIP  
AMONG EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, PERSONALITY STRUCTURE, ETHNIC  
IDENTITY, ORGANIZATIONAL CONTEXT AND PERCEPTIONS OF  
ORGANIZATIONAL DIVERSITY

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction  
of the requirements for the degree of  
Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

By

David Hurlic

April, 2009

Doug Leigh, Ph.D. – Dissertation Chairperson

UMI Number: 3350471

Copyright 2008 by  
Hurlic, David

All rights reserved

#### INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI<sup>®</sup>

---

UMI Microform 3350471  
Copyright 2009 by ProQuest LLC  
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against  
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

---

ProQuest LLC  
789 East Eisenhower Parkway  
P.O. Box 1346  
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

This dissertation written by

David Hurlic

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

March 25, 2008

Faculty Committee:

---

Doug Leigh, Ph.D., Chairperson

---

Mary Pat McEnrue, Ph.D.

---

J. L. Fortson, Ed.D.

---

June Schmieder-Ramirez, Ph.D.  
Associate Dean

---

Margaret J. Weber, Ph.D.  
Dean

© Copyright by David Hurlie Spring (2008)  
All Rights Reserved

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
DEDICATION.....	x
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS.....	xi
VITA.....	xii
ABSTRACT.....	xvi
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
Problem Statement.....	4
Purpose of the Study.....	5
Research Questions.....	5
Research Model.....	9
Definition of Terms.....	10
Affirmative Action.....	10
Diversity.....	10
Diversity Congruency.....	10
Emotional Intelligence.....	11
Ethnic Identity.....	11
Organizational Context.....	11
Personality Structure.....	12
Importance of Study.....	13
Assumptions and Limitations of Study.....	14
Assumptions.....	14
Limitations.....	14
Chapter 2: Literature Review.....	17
Trait Theory Background and Development.....	17
Development of Personality Psychology.....	17
Defining and Organizing Personality.....	19
Identifying and Mapping Traits.....	21
How Personality Impacts Perceptions.....	22
Background on Emotional Intelligence.....	24
The Creation and Development of Emotional Intelligence.....	24
Emotional Intelligence as a Precursor for Life Success.....	25

	Page
Operationalization of Emotional Intelligence.....	27
Emotional Intelligence and Learning.....	28
Linking Emotional Intelligence and Employee Development.....	29
Measuring Emotional Intelligence.....	31
Content Validity.....	32
Construct Validity.....	32
Face Validity.....	33
Predictive Validity.....	33
External Validity.....	34
Reliability.....	34
Emotional Intelligence's Influence on Perceptions and Behaviors ...	34
Perception and Appraisal (PA).....	41
Facilitate Thinking (FA).....	43
Understand Emotion (UE).....	44
Regulate Emotion (RE).....	46
Background on the Five-Factor Model.....	47
Critical Issues and Perspectives of the Five-Factor Model of Personality.....	49
Five-Factor Model of Personality's Influence on Perceptions and Behaviors.....	50
Extroversion.....	51
Agreeableness.....	53
Conscientiousness.....	54
Neuroticism.....	56
Openness to Experiences.....	58
Background on Ethnic Identity Theory.....	59
Background on Organizational Context.....	61
Defining Organizational Context.....	62
Leadership.....	63
Alignment.....	64
Follow-Up.....	65
Affirmative Action and Diversity.....	67
Affirmative Action.....	67
Diversity.....	70
Conclusion.....	71
 Chapter 3: Method.....	 72
Restatement of Research Questions.....	73
Research Design.....	74
Population.....	74
Sampling Frame.....	75
Research Subjects.....	76
Analysis Unit.....	76

	Page
Sampling Methods .....	77
Procedure .....	77
Human Subjects Considerations .....	79
Instrumentation .....	81
Measures .....	82
Emotional Intelligence .....	82
The Big-Five Inventory Test.....	83
Multi-Ethnic Identity Measure.....	83
Organizational Context.....	84
Perception of Affirmative Action and Diversity Programs and Policies.....	85
Demographic Data .....	86
Social Desirability Scale.....	86
Data Analysis .....	86
 Chapter 4: Results .....	 88
Overview of the Data Collection Process .....	91
Description of the Data .....	92
Demographic Analysis by Group.....	92
ANOVA Analysis .....	97
Reliability Analysis.....	99
Correlation Analysis .....	100
Hypothesis 1.....	100
Hypothesis 2.....	100
Hypothesis 3.....	101
Hypothesis 4.....	101
Hypothesis 5.....	102
Hypothesis 6.....	102
Hypothesis 7.....	102
Hypothesis 8.....	103
Hypothesis 9.....	103
Regression Analysis.....	103
Hypothesis 10a.....	104
Hypothesis 10b.....	104
Hypothesis 11a.....	104
Hypothesis 11b.....	105
Items of Interest .....	105
Correlation Analysis .....	105
Summary .....	106

	Page
Chapter 5: Discussion .....	108
Research Question #1 .....	109
Research Question #2 .....	110
Research Question #3 .....	112
Research Question #4 .....	113
Research Question #5 .....	116
Research Question #6 .....	117
Research Question #7 .....	119
Research Question #8 .....	121
Research Question #9 .....	123
Research Question #10 .....	125
Research Question #11 .....	127
Post Hoc Discussion .....	129
Utility and Implications of Results .....	132
Personality and Ethnic Identity .....	133
Emotional Intelligence .....	134
Organizational Context .....	135
Leadership .....	135
Alignment .....	136
Follow-Up .....	136
Limitations .....	137
Generalizability .....	129
Suggestions for Future Research .....	140
Conclusion .....	141
REFERENCES .....	142
APPENDIX A: Diversity Congruency Model .....	163
APPENDIX B: Pepperdine University IRB Approval .....	164
APPENDIX C: Pepperdine University Consent Form .....	166
APPENDIX D: Cal State University of Los Angeles IRB Approval .....	169
APPENDIX E: Cal State University of Los Angeles Information Form .....	170
APPENDIX F: Loyola Marymount University IRB Approval .....	172
APPENDIX G Loyola Marymount University Information Form .....	174
APPENDIX H: Diversity Congruency Survey .....	175



	Page
APPENDIX I: Permission to use the M-C1 Instrument .....	182
APPENDIX J: Permission to use the EQSDI Instrument.....	183
APPENDIX K: Permission to use the BFI Instrument .....	184
APPENDIX L: Permission to used the MEIM Instrument.....	185
APPENDIX M: The Organizational Context Perception Instrument (OCPI) .....	186
APPENDIX N: The Affirmative Action/ Diversity Perception Instrument (AA/DPI).....	188
APPENDIX O: OCPI and AA/DPI Reviewers .....	190

## LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1. Survey Variables and Scales.....	82
Table 2. Means and Correlations of Study Variables .....	89
Table 3. Regression Results of Diversity/Affirmative Action Policies .....	90
Table 4. Moderated Regression Results for Perceptions of Diversity/Affirmative Action Policies .....	91
Table 5. Demographic Characteristics of the Study's Respondents .....	95

## DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to my Family, The Young-Hurlics. From an early age I was inspired by my mother, Patricia J. Hurlic and my paternal Grandfather, Joseph William Hurlic Sr. to nourish my passion and love for knowledge. From my Father, Joseph William Hurlic Jr., I learned the importance of perseverance and tenacity to never give up. From my brother and sister, Kevin and Leah, I received the strength and belief that my goals could be attained. From my daughters, Dawn, Lindsay, and Alysa, I received the love and validation that's so important to a parent.

Finally I want to thank the person who believed in me from the very beginning, my love, my mate, my muse, Angela M. Young. Without her, I would be lost. What ever I needed, she provided: time, conversation, love, compassion, and confidence. This document is a testament to her beauty and passion.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to acknowledge the following people who made this document possible. Dr. Doug Leigh, my committee chair, Dr. J.L Fortson and Dr. Mary Pat McEnrue, my committee members, Dr. Stewart Flieg for his guidance and input, Pepperdine, Loyola Marymount , and California State Los Angeles Universities, Dr Charlie Vance, David Robertson, Leah Madrid, Dr. J Piankoff and Christy Dailo.

Also I would like to thank the many individuals who have supported my academic goals and dreams: my co-workers at the Southern California Gas Company , especially Pamela Bernier and Pat Bligen, the Faculty of Pepperdine’s Graziadio School of Business and the Graduate School of Education and specifically the faculty and staff of the Doctoral program in Organizational Leadership and the BSM program, and finally the faculty and staff of California State University of Los Angeles, School of Business and Economics.

I am the product of your help, guidance and support,

Thank You.

## VITA

David Hurlic

### EDUCATION

Ed.D in Organizational Leadership (2008)  
Pepperdine University (Graduate School of Education and Psychology), Los Angeles, CA  
Concentration in Leadership, Organizational Change, Ethics and Diversity issues.

Dissertation: Diversity Congruency within Organizations: The Relationships among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity

Certificate in Operational Management-CSULA (July 2002)  
California State University of Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA  
Concentration in Service Design and Development.

MBA Degree (Dec 2000)  
California State University of Los Angeles, Los Angeles, CA  
Concentration in Human Resource Management and Operations Management

Bachelor of Science in Business Management (May 1998)  
Pepperdine University (The Graziadio School of Business), Los Angeles, CA

### CAREER HISTORY

Southern California as Company  
Los Angeles, CA 1983-Present

Sr. Business Analyst (Aug 2005 to Present)

Responsible for coordinating and developing the annual budget for Customer Services segment of the utility (\$248 million). Perform full spectrum of financial planning, financial analysis, budgeting and accounting assignments including preparation, monitoring and reporting of business and regulatory issues. Provide support to business unit operation departments and areas in financial consulting, process costing, process improvement and performance measurement support and analysis. Support the development of business unit financial forecasts  
Business Analyst (Apr 1998 to Aug 2005)

Responsible for coordinating, leading, implementing and analyzing diverse company projects which included: Marketing Publication Development, Technology and Infrastructure Reengineering, Operations and Procedure

Analysis, Strategic Forecasting, End-to End process assessment and redesign, Cost Benefit Analysis and Post Project Analysis.

## TEACHING EXPERIENCE

Adjunct Professor, Loyola Marymount University January 2007 – Present

Course examined important HRM topics that are closely involved in the successful formulation and implementation of strategy within organizations for achieving competitive advantage, including strategic human resource planning and staffing, organizational culture and leadership, communication, compensation and reward systems, managing organization change and development, employee relations, and building learning organizations.

Adjunct Professor, California State University-Los Angeles March 2007 – Present

Course examined principles, methods, and processes for creating and managing positive relationships with individual unionized and non-unionized employee at all levels of an organization, and with employees who are members of labor organizations (unionized and nonunion) through legal compliance, effective labor relations, and managing diversity.

## WHITE PAPERS FOR SCG

SDGE Vehicle Take-Home Policy Analysis (2004)

Evaluation and analysis of the use of paper orders in the field training process: A perception of quality, efficiency, and costs (2004)

Form follows function: An analysis of The Gas Company's Dispatching Units and the decision to Centralize or Decentralize (2003)

Analysis of the creation and use of Paper Orders in SCG (2002)

## RESEARCH

Refereed Proceedings and Presentations

Hurlic, D. Young A.M. 2008. Building diversity congruency: The relationship between emotional intelligence, personality structure, ethnic identity, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. To be printed in the Proceedings of the Western Academy of Management.

Hurlic, D. (2006). What they see is what you get: Diversity congruency within organizations. To be printed in the Proceedings of the Institute of Behavioral and Applied Management.

Young, A.M. & Hurlic, D. (2006). Genderneering at work: The importance of gender and gender-related behavior to person-group fit and person-organizational fit on career decisions. To be printed in the Proceedings of the Institute of Behavioral and Applied Management.

Hurlic, D. (2005). Affirmative action and Diversity as moral and ethical issues: An argument for an ethically based training approach for organizations. *Proceedings of the Institute for Behavioral and Applied Management*, pp. 453-458.

#### Publications

Journal of Managerial Psychology

Young, A.M. & Hurlic, D. (2007). Gender enactment at work: The importance of gender and gender-related behavior to person-group fit and person-organizational fit on career decisions. Vol. 22, 2, pgs 168-187.

#### PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

Reviewer, Western academy of Management, 2008

Discussant, Western Academy of Management, Mar 2008

Reviewer, Human Resource Development Review, 2006

Reviewer, Southwest Academy of Management, Feb 2006

Discussant, Southwest Academy of Management, Feb 2006

Reviewer, Institute for Behavior and Applied Management, June 2005 – June 2006.

Discussant, Institute for Behavior and Applied Management, Oct. 2005 and Oct. 2006

#### AWARDS

Graduate Honors Recognition, California State University, 2000

Cum Laude, Pepperdine University, 1998

Dean's List, West Los Angeles Community College, 1996-1997

President's Cup, Southern California Gas Company, 1992

#### TRAINING EXPERIENCE

- Creation and Development of a Non-Profit Corporation

Ascension Lutheran Church, Los Angeles (2004)

Worked directly with the Pastor and Church Directors to create and develop a 501 (c) (3) corporation. Researched and wrote marketing, financial, and feasibility reports regarding grant and residential development projects.

- Human Resource Management Seminar

Asian Pacific Business Institute, California State University of Los Angeles (2003)

Conducted seminars covering the entire range of the human resource management. The focus of the seminar was the role of human resource management in the organization and effective management of the human resource functions including recruiting, selection, compensation, training and development, and employee relations. Relevant and practical issues such as legal compliance, strategic management of human resources, and the relationship between organizational goals and objectives and human resource management practices are studied through current practitioner-oriented and academic articles, group discussion, and research.

- Concepts of Management

First AME, Community Development Program, Los Angeles (2000)

Conducted seminars of general management principles and application of individual and organizational management concepts to small business entrepreneurs for local community Development Corporation.



## ABSTRACT

This study explores the relationship among Emotional Intelligence (EI) (consisting of perception and appraisal, facilitating thinking, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions), Personality Structure (FFM) (consisting of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experiences), Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context (OC), and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity. It is hoped that by examining the impact of individual personality structures, as well as, ethnic identity and organizational context as precursors to individual perceptions between EI, Personality Structure, and diversity and affirmative action, a more coherent method of analysis is created allowing organizations to identify specific factors contributing to affirmative action and diversity program acceptance or rejection by employees.

Using a sample consisting of graduate and undergraduate students from three local universities, this study examines the relationship between an individuals' level of emotional intelligence, personality characteristics, ethnic identity strength, perceptions of their organizational affirmative action and diversity context, and their overall perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

The data collected for this study was analyzed using the following statistical tests: a) Descriptive analysis was performed on all demographic variables, b) Reliability estimates were calculated for each continuous variable, c) Correlation analysis was used to identify relationships between the continuous variables, d) ANOVA analysis was used to identify mean difference between demographic groups' perception of diversity and affirmative action, and e) Regression analysis was performed, to verify the existence of the moderating effect of ethnic identity and organizational context.

The results of the study indicated that there is a significant relationship between perceptions of diversity and affirmative action and a) the emotional intelligence dimensions of facilitating thinking, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions, and b) the BFI dimensions of agreeableness and openness. The results of the regression tests found that both ethnic identity and organizational context have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between the independent variables of EI and BFI, and the dependent variable of perceptions of diversity and affirmative action.

Even though this investigation did not provide support for all hypotheses presented in the study, it does provide solid evidence for the continuing investigation of the relationships between the variables identified and analyzed in this study.

## CHAPTER 1

### Introduction

Organizations deal with the impact and effect of affirmative action and diversity policy, laws and regulations as everyday facts of doing business in today's competitive environment. Gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religion, age, and physical limitations are just a few of the categories that classify and differentiate individuals who work for and do business with companies.

While many authors examine the way organizations try to conform to the realities of the social, legal and political aspects of affirmative action and diversity (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Meyerson & Martin, 1987), there is an important dynamic that appears to be overlooked: that organizations are made up of individuals who hold beliefs, values and perspectives that span the full continuum of motivational commitment (unwavering support to utter rejection) to organizational policies. One could infer that if organizations want to begin the process of facilitating a corporate environment that supports the spirit of the concepts promoted by affirmative action and diversity, then more emphasis must be placed on the individual's ability to reconcile personal perspectives with organizational objectives (Smith, Wokutch, Harrington, & Dennis, 2004).

Any technique used to reconcile personal perspectives with organizational objectives must identify and then modify attitudes and behaviors within individuals so that organizations can initiate the process of educating employees, and bridging the potential gap between individual perception and organizational practices (Smith et al, 2004). However, what approach should organizations adopt to facilitate their effort to

identify individual characteristics that will allow them the opportunity to influence or modify an employee's attitude and fundamental perception of its affirmative action and diversity policies and practices? One possible approach is to examine personality and other constructs that various authors (Arond-Thomas, 2004; Carmeli, 2003; Goleman, 1995; Herkenhoff, 2004; Kunnanatt, 2004; Moberg, 1998, 2001; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) believe allow individuals the opportunity to learn new behaviors that could potentially influence and therefore modify their individual values and perceptions.

For example, many authors have identified Emotional Intelligence (EI) as being a valid construct that influences organizational effectiveness (Bar-On & Parker, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2000). From making good decisions, influencing relations between employees, and coping with organizational change, emotional intelligence is associated with the individual's ability to perceive and understand the emotional effect of change in themselves and others (Cherniss & Adler, 2000).

The Five-Factor Model of personality (FFM) is another theoretical context of understanding human personality (Costa & McCrae 1985; Goldberg, 1990). The FFM, as the name suggests, synthesizes the infinite number of personality attributes into five specific dimensions that provide researchers a framework for describing behavior, though not necessarily explaining that behavior (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). In addition, like EI, the FFM relies on the person-perception expertise of the participants in the study (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). Even though Block (1995) posited that there are better judges of personality structures and dynamics (clinicians, teacher, scholars), the FFM should be

considered a compliment rather than a competitor to other productive methods of personality research (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996).

EI and the FFM both measure various forms of self-awareness but give no corroborated data showing as to what factors contribute to those constructs. Even when we can identify the personality and emotional characteristics that influence an individual's perception of affirmative action and diversity policies, there are additional dimensions that must be explored.

Examining the way individuals form Ethnic Identity has become an accepted method of identifying moderators that influence an individual's perception of other groups. Many authors (Phinney, 1996; Ponterotto, Gretchen, Utsey, Stracuzzi, & Saya, 2003; Roberts et al., 1999) have examined the way ethnic identity is formed and its impact on individual identity. Specifically, Phinney (1996) examined the way ethnic or racial identity forms through a process of exploring and questioning preexisting attitudes about race and searching past and present experiences to help the individual gain a level of awareness that could lead to a positive perception of their own ethnic identity.

This positive perception of ones' own ethnic identity is vital to the acceptance of self that translates into possible acceptance of other groups. One could surmise that this acceptance of others could have a relationship with various dimensions that are part of EIQ and the FFM (Herkenhoff, 2004). For example, understanding how individual identity is shaped, by exposure to various external factors, one could discern the influence of the self-awareness and empathy dimensions of EI an individual's perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

A corresponding dynamic that should be considered along with Ethnic Identity, when examining moderators that affect individual perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity programs, is the organizational context (internal environment) of the programs themselves. Many authors have examined various issues (success and failure) surrounding the implementation of Affirmative Action and Diversity programs (Bergan, Soper & Foster, 2002; Cox, 2001; Easley, 2001; Mathews, 1998; Miller & Roney, 1999), each with evidence supporting their specific perspective. Other authors examine the process of managing diversity (Dass & Parker, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Lorbiecki, 2001), providing literature that addresses the various dimensions and organizational environments (context) that need to be examined and understood prior to design and implementation. By using the model identified by Dass and Parker (1999) and enhanced by the work of Lorbiecki (2001) a new framework has evolved linking the specific variables identified in this study that will test the connection between individual perceptions and organizational context.

#### Problem Statement

When organizations design and implement affirmative action and diversity policies and programs there is an important dynamic that appears to be commonly overlooked in the process: organizations are made up of individuals that hold beliefs, values and perspectives that influence their perceptions and acceptance of the organization's affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. If organizations want to understand the process of facilitating a corporate environment that supports their affirmative action and diversity programs and policies, then a focus on the individual and

his or her ability to reconcile personal perspectives with organizational programs and policies must be examined.

### Purpose of the Study

It is the aim of this dissertation to explore the relationship among: EI (consisting of perception and appraisal, facilitating thinking, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions); Personality Structure (consisting of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experiences), Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context, and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity. It is hoped that by examining the impact of individual personality structures, ethnic identity and organizational context as precursors to individual perception, a more coherent method of analysis is created allowing organization to identify specific factors contributing to affirmative action and diversity program acceptance or rejection by employees.

### Research Questions

The nature of the following relationships is reflective in the research question below, again, based on the individual's perceptions:

1. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of perception and appraisal of his or her own and other individuals' emotions, and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
2. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's ability to use emotions in facilitating and thinking (i.e. change perspective, aid judgment, problem solving), and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?

3. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of emotional understanding and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
4. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's ability to regulate emotions, within himself and others, and his perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
5. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of extroversion and her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
6. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of agreeableness (the ability to be sympathetic, warm and compassionate about others) and his perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
7. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of conscientiousness (the capacity to be deliberate, achievement striving, and self-discipline) and her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
8. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of neuroticism (the frequency and intensity of feeling fear and anger) and his perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
9. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of openness (the ability to think of different possibilities and to empathize with others in other circumstances) and her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?



10. To what extent, if at all, does an individuals' degree of ethnic identity moderate the relationship between the four EI and five FFM variables, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
11. To what extent, if at all, do the activities that take place within an individual's organization (organizational context) moderate the relationship between the four EI and five FFM variables, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?

The following Hypotheses derive from the research questions:

- H<sub>1</sub>: An individual's level of perception and appraisal, of his and her own and other individuals' emotions will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>2</sub>: An individual's level of facilitating thinking, using emotions (i.e. change perspective, aid judgment, problem solving), will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>3</sub>: An individual's level of emotional understanding will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>4</sub>: An individual's level of regulating emotion, in himself and others, will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

- H<sub>5</sub>: An individual's level of extroversion will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>6</sub>: An individual's level of agreeableness (the ability to be sympathetic, warm and compassionate about others) will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>7</sub>: An individual's level of conscientious (the capacity to be deliberate, achievement striving, and self-disciplined) will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>8</sub>: An individual's level of neuroticism (the frequency and intensity of feeling fear and anger) will be negatively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>9</sub>: An individual's level of openness (the ability to think of different possibilities and to empathize with others in other circumstances) will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>10a</sub>: An individual's degree of Ethnic Identity will moderate the relationship between the four EI variables and perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

H<sub>10b</sub>: An individual's degree of Ethnic Identity will moderate the relationship between the five FFM variables and perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

H<sub>11a</sub>: The degree of an organization's context will moderate the relationship between the four EI variables and perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

H<sub>11b</sub>: The degree of an organization's context will moderate the relationship between the five FFM variables and perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

#### Research Model

The model presented for this dissertation promotes the theory that there is a relationship between an individual's EIQ and FFM self-reported competencies and his or her perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity program and policies. Ethnic identity and organizational context are identified as moderating factors that influence perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies (Appendix A).

## Definition of Terms

### *Affirmative Action*

Affirmative Action is defined as “public or private actions or programs that provide or seek to provide opportunities or other benefits to persons on the basis of, among other things, their membership in a specific group” (Jones, 1985, p. 103). Depending on the specific program being debated, proponents of affirmative action believe that affirmative action is the best method of overcoming inequities created by historical discrimination (Eisaguirre, 1999). For the purpose of this study, perceptions of this construct will be measured using an instrument designed by the author entitled, The Affirmative Action and Diversity Perception Instrument (AADPI).

### *Diversity*

The term diversity has many interpretations (Cox, 2001). In a general sense, it could mean any difference between people and in a restricted sense; it could be applied to differences of gender or race (Cox, 2001). For the purpose of this dissertation, diversity is defined as “the variations of social and cultural identities among people existing together in a defined employment or market setting” (Cox, 2001, p.3). For the purpose of this study, perceptions of this construct will be measured using the AADPI.

### *Diversity Congruency*

Diversity congruency is a term used in this study, refers to the consistency between an individual’s perception of an organization’s affirmative action-diversity programs and policies and the motivation to support or reject the programs and policies. For the purpose of this study, perceptions of this phenomenon will be measured using the AADPI.

### *Emotional Intelligence*

Matthews, Zeidner & Roberts (2004) define EI as “the competence to identify and express emotions, understand emotions, assimilate emotions in thought, and regulate both positive and negative emotions in oneself and others” (p. xv). For the purpose of this study, EI will be measured using Emotional Intelligence Self-Description Inventory (Groves, McEnrue & Shen, 2008).

### *Ethnic Identity*

Ethnic identity as defined by Casas (1984) refers to a “group classification of individuals who share a unique social and cultural heritage (custom, language, religion) passed on from generation to generation” (p.787). Ethnicity is not biologically defined and so cannot be synonymous with race. This means that different racial groups could belong to the same ethnic group. This perception is supported by contemporary social science literature in the area of mental health, where blacks are typically examined without regards to ethnicity while whites are examined without regards to race (Helms, 1990, 1994). For the purpose of this study, Ethnic Identity will be measured using the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (Phinney, 1992).

### *Organizational Context*

Traditionally, organizational context has been defined and studied using a structural-contingency approach (Pennings, 1975), which focused on identifying the contextual correlates of structural dimensions that lead to organizational effectiveness (Kabasakal, Sozen, & Usdiken, 1989). For example, external factors such as competitive environment, technology, external markets influence the way organizations grow and

evolved (Choi, 2002; Kabasakal, et al., 1989). In other words, organizations develop the internal environments or systems that support organizational success.

For this dissertation, organizational context is defined as the organizational response to various external (legal, political, social, and economic) and internal (organizational demographics, culture, goals, technology and strategy) factors (Daft, 2004) surrounding issues of affirmative action and diversity that support organizational success. For example, Cox (2001) identified myriad factors that support organizational success with regards to affirmative action and diversity objectives: leadership, employee education, development of measurement plans, organizational system and practices alignment, and follow-up. Cox's description linking leadership, alignment, and follow-up provides a sound basis for defining organizational context for this study. For the purpose of this study, this term will be measured using the Organizational Context Perception Instrument (OCPI).

### *Personality Structure*

The term personality structure is defined as a collection of overarching domains of personality traits within which large numbers of specific instances (behaviors and actions) can be understood in a simplified way by creating an acceptable taxonomy to facilitate the accumulation and communication of empirical findings by offering a standard vocabulary, or nomenclature (John & Srivastava, 1999). For the purpose of this study, this phenomenon will be measured using the Big Five Inventory Scale (John, 1990).

## Importance of Study

Over the last decade affirmative action and diversity have become concepts that many corporations use to signify their desire to promote a more open and accessible environment for individuals. For example, many authors have confirmed the growing interest organizations have shown in “managing diversity” (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Hopkins & Hopkins, 2001; Lorbiecki, 2001). Even when companies are successful at promoting organizational diversity, the outcomes created by affirmative action and diversity programs can produce a level of resentment in some employees.

As the reality of demographic changes in society start to effect organizations, individuals begin to feel a need to modify their behavior, thereby affecting their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. This creates a type of incongruence or dissonance while they try to adjust their behaviors to interact with a diverse workforce (Smith, et al., 2004). This study takes the first step in understanding some of the factors that contribute to the way individuals perceive affirmative action and diversity programs and policies in organizations. By examining individual dimensions of EI, personality characteristic, and ethnic identity, along with the internal context created by the organization to advance affirmative action and diversity objectives, it is hoped that a more comprehensive approach to diversity management will be discovered.

## Assumptions and Limitations of Study

As with any study, certain assumptions are made and several limitations exist. In this section of the chapter an examination of these aspects are examined.

### *Assumptions*

Since this study involves the use of self-reporting instruments and measures, it is assumed that each participant will answer honestly. In addition, the study assumes that each of the participants is able to understand and respond to the study's questions. With regards to the participants, the study assumes that the organizations identified as possible sources for participants will allow access to participants. Finally, it is assumed that the data gathered in this study will support the purpose of the study, protect the confidentiality of the study's participants, and add to the knowledge and understanding of organizational and individual effectiveness. Every effort will be made by the author to address each assumption and successfully fulfill the goal and objectives of this study.

### *Limitations*

As in every study, there are inherent factors that generate particular limitations. Despite the potential theoretical and practical advantages of the model presented in this study, relevant questions about the use of self-report instruments exist. Similar reservations expressed in the assumptions section also create comparable limitations. Furthermore, the subjects of affirmative action and diversity are sensitive matters to many individuals. As such, respondents could provide answers to the survey questions in a self-serving manner to project a favorable image of themselves. To control for the possibility of respondents providing answers that are socially acceptable the study will make use of the Strahan-Gerbasi short-form scale MC-1 ( Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) Social Desirability Scale, which uses the Marlowe-Crowne scale as its basis (Crowne & Marlowe, 1960).



Another limitation, in this study, is created by the use of a Likert scale to analyze the data collected for this study. McCall (2001) identified several challenges in using a Likert scale. First, there is the question of the labeling the data itself. For example, should the data result be interpreted as an interval (a variable) or ordinal scale (an attribute)? Hence, McCall provides some guidance in the use of the Likert Scale: a) The scale is ordinal in nature, b) Numerical Values, assumed on an interval scale, can be assigned to the individual item responses, c) The numerical values of the items on the scale can be summed to arrive at an overall or average score for those items considered as addressing the same underlying construct, and d) For those items that have been summed or averaged a validity analysis has demonstrated that they are associated with the same underlying construct, as well as a reliability analysis.

Another limitation created by the use of a Likert scale exists in the labeling or description of the scale. One must accept the possibility, when using a five-point scale that ranges from strongly agree to strongly disagree, with the middle point stating neither agree or disagree, that there is a chance that the middle label could be interpreted differently by the respondent and therefore the researcher. For example, it could be interpreted exactly as the question infers, or it could be that the respondent is uncooperative or has decided that he or she knows little about the subject being asked about (McCall, 2001). This means that there is a possibility that providing a middle option could raise or lower the averages of the respondents and have a negative impact on the analysis.

Even with the limitations of using self-reporting instruments and using the Likert scale there are steps that can be taken to minimize the impact of the limitation

identified. For example, there is a certain level of expectation that by identifying a population of respondents that actually possess the information sought by the study, useful data will be collected. In addition, by surveying individuals at local colleges that attend school in the evening, and away from work, it is hoped that the data received will accurately reflect the genuine opinion of the respondent. Additionally, by identifying the criteria for inclusion and exclusion of the respondents, as well as the decision rules to be used, it is anticipated that some of the limitation, inherent in this study will be negated. Concerning the sample size used to accomplish this study, while sampling is practical and economical; an effort will be made to ensure that there will be minimal bias and error in the result by selecting a sample large enough to meet the requirements for reliability. Finally, due to limited resources, this study will only be able to collect data on a partial number of respondents and from that sample make inferences to support or reject the hypotheses presented.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review

The following literature review examines various categories that support the proposed model, with themes that are carried throughout the dissertation. The first concept to be addressed is EI and its impact on individual perceptions. The second is The FFM of personality and its impact on individual perceptions. The third is Ethnic Identity, which includes how ethnic self-awareness impacts individual perception. The fourth is Organizational Context, or how organizations provide the internal structures that influences or shapes individual perceptions. The literature leads to eleven hypotheses, which are presented throughout the chapter in context.

Since the two primary antecedents of the Diversity Congruency Model - EI and The FFM of personality - have roots in the field of Trait Theory, a brief overview and background of the theory will be provided to establish a firm basis for the literature review.

#### Trait Theory Background and Development

While most psychological theories attempt to understand the development of personality, trait theorists tend to talk very little about development. Traits are what make us who we are and are relatively permanent (Sanford & Wrightsman, 1970). According to McCrae and Costa (2003), traits can be defined as “dimensions of individual difference in tendencies to show consistent patterns of thoughts, feelings, and actions” (p.25).

#### *Development of Personality Psychology*

To understand Trait Theory one must examine the development of personality psychology. There are numerous schools of psychology that have been reflected in

theories of personality: Psychoanalytic, Psychodynamic, Trait, Behaviorist, Humanistic and Cognitive (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Personality theories and typologies have always commanded the attention of scholars and students. As in any attempt to label or identify a person with some degree of accuracy, psychologists use observation or conduct some type of psychological test or assessment (Sanford & Wrightsman, 1970).

When it comes to identifying and creating a typology that describes personality traits a psychologist must follow a rigorous set of rules regarding the ways he or she observes or tests, and the ways he or she interprets the results. In addition, various authors (Lamiell, 1997; McAdams, 1997; Murphy, 1932; Sanford, 1963; Winter & Barenbaum 1999) believe that personality psychology involved two related but opposing endeavors: a) the study of individual differences, or how individuals differ from each other, and b) the study of individuals as unique, integrated wholes. These two perspectives are sometimes referred to as analytical versus structural, or quantitative versus qualitative (Winter & Barenbaum, 1999).

When focusing on the theory of personality traits, specifically individual differences, we begin to see the development of a process that studies the intercorrelations of separate personality traits as elements of personality (Murphy, 1932). The practical outcome of personality research using this analytical or quantitative approach was to predict, modify, and control behavior, with individual differences seen as coefficients that can then be used in linear or predictive equations (Winter and Barenbaum, 1999). In contrast to the individual difference perspective, psychologists that supported the study of individuals as unique and integrated wholes (e.g., Adler, Freud,

Jung, & Young) sought to expand the meaning of personality by introducing diverse areas such as the unconscious, ego, and dissociation.

Winter and Barenbaum (1999) held that from a historical perspective the analytical-quantitative approach was well established in psychology by the time that personality emerged as a separate field so that the perspective of individual difference became the dominant approach in formulating personality topography. This trend continues today. Understanding the approach used to define personality psychology helps to identify the direction of the field, with regards to research and literature, but how did Trait Theory evolve from this approach?

### *Defining and Organizing Personality*

Various authors (Danziger, 1990; Parker, 1991) credit Allport and Allport (1921) with the first review in the psychological literature of personality and character in the early 1920's. Allport's article was responsible for differentiating personality and character, two terms that until Allport's review were used interchangeably by American psychologist (Winter & Barenbaum, 1999). Although personality research was growing in its application, various authors (Allport, 1937; Murphy, 1932; Vernon, 1933) felt that there was a lack of interest in the development of a personality theory.

Allport's (1937) survey of existing definitions of personality, and methods of studying it, is credited with emphasizing the term trait as the essential element of classification for personality interpretation. Besides this primary contribution of the term trait, Allport and Odbert (1936) were involved in the lexical studies of traits, which some authors (John & Robins, 1993) consider the forerunner of the Five-Factor Model of personality.

Another contributor in the development of personality psychology, from a trait perspective, was Cattell (1946). Cattell, using factor analysis, was the first researcher to distinguish among different types of data. In addition, like Allport, Cattell adopted the use of the term trait as the fundamental conceptual unit of personality. Cattell's work using factor analysis identified 16 characteristics, which became the basis of his 16 PF questionnaire (Digman, 1996). Winter and Barenbaum (1999) believe that Cattell introduced and established many concepts and techniques, which are part of contemporary personality psychology, specifically concerning Trait Theory.

Although the research on Traits Theory spans the entire 20<sup>th</sup> century, a representative example of the use of Trait Theory can be seen in the work of Stogdill (1948, 1974) who analyzed and synthesized over a hundred leadership traits in studies done between 1904 and 1947 (Northouse, 2001). Trait Theory's strengths lie in the research done to support the theory and its ability to provide a method of benchmarking various personality roles (e.g. leaders, mentors).

One important criticism of the Trait Theory approach is that it fails to consider situations. For example, an individual might exhibit one trait in a specific situation, but fail to exhibit that trait in other situations (Northouse, 2001). One could suppose that based on this situational inconsistency; it is difficult to identify a universal set of specific traits associated with a specific role. This inconsistency creates a need to develop a process that examines situations as an integral part of trait development and identification, and allows individuals the opportunity to acquire or build on specific attributes, two aspects promoted by Emotional Intelligence (Goleman, 1998).

### *Identifying and Mapping Traits*

While there are inherent conflicts among the various personality theories (McCrae & Costa, 2003), there still exists the common challenge of providing a psychological account that helps psychologist define the specific traits possessed by each individual. In addition, the task of identifying and mapping human personality encountered two scientific challenges: a) a procedure for sampling human attributes, and b) a method for structuring that sample of attributes (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). With the formulation of the lexical hypothesis, a method of structuring a sample of attributes used to describe personality, and the development of factor analysis, a statistical tool that has the capacity to sort and group items based on similarity of response, a clear connection between language, behavior and attributes begins to emerge (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996).

Even as this personality map begins to take shape there are critics who express the belief that the lexical hypothesis is no more than a method used by novices in personality descriptions (Block, 1995). Other authors (Allport, 1961; Kelly, 1992) believed that even if the hypothesis or approach may be imperfect, it appears to be an effective tool that scientists should not discard, due to its philosophic and linguistic beginnings.

Saucier and Goldberg (1996) deal with recent criticisms of the lexical hypothesis (Block, 1995; McCrae, 1990; Stagner, 1994) by offering a coherent set of principles that clearly define the foundations of the lexical approach and make clear that the hypothesis is aligned with common practices of good science, but the authors suggest that, “the lexical perspective does have a finite scope and is not intended to provide a complete or exhaustive theory of personality” (p.24).

When examining the history of the lexical approach, various factors that influence the development of a personality typology emerge; factors that later evolved into what could be categorized as Trait Theory (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). Through the development of a vocabulary of personality, provided by the lexical model, we begin to discern a process that provides a description, but not an explanation, in other words the development of terms that can be classified as traits. This distinction is relevant due to the impact of Trait Theory as it applies to the development of personality characteristics. Whereas Trait Theory assumes that personality characteristics are relatively stable over time and situations, the lexical perspective does not make the same assumption (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). Once again, this supports the need to identify a theory that compensates for the inflexibility of a pragmatic perspective such as Trait Theory. This is where supporters of the Emotional Intelligence model offer their approach as a possible alternative to the Trait Theory approach.

#### *How Personality Impacts Perceptions*

According to Saucier and Goldberg (1996), personality theories appear to share three functions. First, they answer questions about human nature. Second, personality theories define the scope and limits of personality psychology, identifying the variables and the phenomena to be explained. Finally, personality theories serve as reservoirs for insights about psychological mechanisms and human characteristics. Most of the classic personality theories include discussions of individual differences with some type of method for measuring the various constructs identified. It is the final function - insights about psychological mechanisms and human characteristics - that provides the link between personality and perceptions.



Individuals with specific needs, interests and attitudes, strive to organize and make sense of their perceived environment, once structured they act or react to their environment (Sanford & Wrightsman, 1970). A variety of methods have validated the perspective that events cannot be analyzed for meaning unless they have been identified and thought about on a conscious and unconscious level (Erickson, 1960; Marcel, 1983).

For example, decades ago many authors examined the connection between needs and perception (Keys, Brozek, Henschel, Mickelsen, & Taylor, 1950; Levine, Chein & Murphy, 1942), interest and perceptions (Solomon & Postman, 1952), and attitude and perceptions (Bruner & Goodman, 1947; Postman, Bruner & McGinnies, 1948). If aspects of need, interest, and attitude influence perceptions, is it unrealistic to believe that personality traits can influence the way an individual perceives their environment or others?

The link between personality traits and perceptions finds strong support in the literature. For example, Robins, Nofle, Trzesniewski, and Roberts, (2005) found a link between personality change over time, and perceptions of change with regards to achievement and adjustment in college by students. Caprara and Zimbardo (2004) found that in elections people tended to vote for individuals who shared or matched their own personality traits.

The influence of personality traits on perceptions is not a one-way street. Chia, Allred, Grossnickle, and Lee, (1998) found a reciprocal relationship between personality traits and perceptions in their research by examining the effects of attractiveness on academic success. The authors found that people use physical appearance as a basis for drawing inferences about academic performance and attributions of ability and effort.

Based on this literature, one could infer that the process of perceiving and organizing diverse inputs or stimuli is directly related to the characteristics of the individual's personality (traits) regardless of whether they are biologically, emotionally or intellectually driven.

### Background on Emotional Intelligence

EI is a relatively new and developing area of behavioral inquiry (Gardner, 1983; Sternberg, 1985). EI's theoretical construct is a product of two areas of psychological research: the interface between emotions and thought (Bower, 1981; Isen, Shalke, Clark & Karp, 1978) and the expansion of the definition of intelligence to include various classifications of intelligence (Gardner, 1983; Sternberg, 1985). To provide a perspective regarding the transition of EI from a theory-based concept to application-based tool, an examination of significant phases in its development and application is provided. Next, an investigation of EI's validity and reliability is examined. Finally, the link between learning new behaviors or improving upon specific EI dimensions, and their influence on perceptions, is investigated.

### *The Creation and Development of Emotional Intelligence*

Some authors have linked the origin of EI to the field of social intelligence (Bar-On, 2000; Cantor & Zirkel, 1990; Goleman, 1995; Zirkel, 2000). The foundation of social intelligence is found in the work of Kelly (1955), Rogers (1961), and Rotter (1966, 1975) where we see the development of a model and approach that places emphasis on understanding the way individuals perceive opportunities in their environment. This approach is particularly relevant in that it shifted researcher's questions that focused on understanding the individual in context of the situation only, to examining what the

individual sees as possible for herself or himself in that situation and how that can help the researcher understand the individual (Zirkel, 2000). Zirkel (2000) writes that, “this perspective is also found in the work of Thorndike (1905) who’s ‘law of effect’ is an important aspect of social intelligence: the focus is less on the behavior itself and more on the effect it is designed to produced” (p. 5).

The first formal mention of EI appears in a German article by Leuner (1966) entitled “Emotional Intelligence and Emancipation.” The article hypothesized that low emotional intelligence led some women to reject their social roles. The first time the term “emotional intelligence” is used in an English paper is in an unpublished doctoral dissertation by Payne (1986). It was not until 1990 that EI was formally described (Salovey, et a.l, Brackett and Mayer, 2004). Next, Mayer, DiPaolo and Salovey (1990) demonstrated that EI could be tested and that individuals could integrate emotion and cognition and use them to process information about their environment. Early reference to EI created little interest in either academia or society and it was not until the mid 1990s that we saw a significant growth in scientific journals and publications’ articles that covered the topic (Matthew, et al, Zeidner & Roberts, 2004).

#### *Emotional Intelligence as a Precursor for Life Success*

From an academic and social perspective, the public relatively underappreciated EI until Goleman’s 1995 book, *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ* (Matthews et al., 2004). The proposition that people differ in EI has flourished because of a number of convergent dynamics, including cultural trends and developments (Matthews et al., 2004). First, society has developed an interest in self-development that has latched on to the EI perspective that individuals can learn or improve upon various EI

constructs in different social frameworks (e.g. educational, organizational and relational). In addition, many believe that personal and societal benefits will come from time and resources invested in improving EI (Matthews et al., 2004). Also, EI has gained a boost in popularity and use from the claim that it can play a role in society by contributing to real-life outcomes beyond the customary factors of intelligence and personality (Goleman, 1995; Saarni, 1999).

An additional factor identified by Matthews et al. (2004) that appears to contribute to the popularity of EI exist in the growth of resentment or antagonism towards intellectual intelligence and the tests that measure it. This resentment, according to the authors, has led to a level of antipathy about people with high IQs in our culture, which has led to claims made by the proponents of EI that the benefits of general intelligence (IQ) are overstated and EI may be more important in attaining personal and professional success. Anecdotally, the authors offer examples of high-IQ individuals being mocked and viewed negatively through the media. These perspectives are also supported by Goleman (1995) and Epstein (1998) who believe that many high-IQ adults are socially inept and are resented by modern society.

Another aspect proponents of EI advance is the term itself. Emotional intelligence denotes a subtle interaction between two terms that for many represent polar opposites (Salovey, et al, 2001). In essence, EI promotes the best aspects of two different psychological forces (Matthews et al., 2004). One could conclude that this balance (between intellect and emotions) is a reflection of current society's cultural values of equity and objectivity.

By combining the perception of EI's equity and objectivity with the notion that EI can be trained and improved upon in various social contexts, EI theory and application moves from the halls of academia to the personal book collections of business and non-academic readers. This perception is supported by the popularity of Goleman's (1995) book on EI, which focuses on issues of character and features of self-control (e.g. instant gratification, toleration, and regulation of impulses), which appear to have found a willing population seeking alternatives to the self-centered, ends-justifies-the-means 1990s.

### *Operationalization of Emotional Intelligence*

While Goleman popularized EI, Bar-On (1997, 2000) equally influenced the growth of the concept in the late 1990s (Matthews et al., 2004). Bar-On's construction of the first commercially available operational index for assessing EI is not substantially divergent from Goleman's, because both models identify and map establish personality traits (Matthews et al., 2004).

With the establishment of his Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) Bar-On's research has focused primarily on validating the instrument against other criteria. For example, Bar-On has used his model to support his contention that emotional and social intelligence is a collection of interrelated emotional, personal, and social abilities that influence an individual's ability to constructively cope with stress (Bar-On, 2000). Even though the EQ-i is the first instrument of EI to be published by a psychological test publisher, it is still a self-reporting instrument that measures emotional and social competence behaviors (Bar-On, 2000). This is an important, due to the verity that the

EQ-i was developed not to measure personality traits or cognitive abilities, but the construct of EI only (Dawda & Hart, 2000; Derksen, Kramer & Katzko, 2002).

### *Emotional Intelligence and Learning*

The next examination of a recent EI construct involves the model developed by Salovey and Mayer (1990). The authors defined EI as, “the subset of social intelligence that involves the ability to monitor one’s own and others’ feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use the information to guide one’s thinking and actions” (p.5). Salovey and Mayer believed that all mental abilities are intercorrelated and, as such, it is not contradictory to say that EI, like IQ, can be measured.

Salovey and Mayer’s approach evolved from the work done by Leeper (1948) who viewed emotion as an organizing agent that adaptively focuses cognitive activities and subsequent actions. Leeper supported the idea that emotions are motivating forces that generate, nourish and guide human behavior and activity (Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Various authors have supported this perspective, of EI organizing cognitive activities, over the years (Mandler, 1975; Simon, 1982). Other authors believe that the full expression of emotions appear to be a primary human motive and should be considered from a functionalist perspective (Izard & Buechler, 1980; Plutchick, 1980; Tomkins, 1962).

Out of the initial theoretical concept initiated by Salovey and Mayer (1990), the development of an extensive conceptual model and operational indices by Mayer et al. (2000) begin to take shape (Matthews et al., 2004). The main objective of the authors’ research is to validate the perspective that EI, as a valid intelligent system, should resemble central aspects of well-established intelligence systems (e.g. IQ), as such

Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2002) suggest performance-based measures similar to those found in the intelligence literature, a necessary tactic, if EI is to be considered a legitimate form of intelligence (Matthews et al., 2004).

From a practical perspective the Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2000) model is notably different from Goleman's (1995) and Bar-On's (1997) models in its distinctiveness in the way it measures EI and the way it describes what it means to be emotionally intelligent (Matthews et al., 2004). There is a special challenge each of the EI models, considered in this section, must confront in their effort to describe and score EI. In the next section of this chapter, we examine the inherent weaknesses of the various EI models from a practical and statistical perspective.

#### *Linking Emotional Intelligence and Employee Development*

Current EI measures have demonstrated low to adequate reliability and validity, though even with these limitations, there appears to be a wide range of training and development application for EI measures (Conte, 2005; Matthews et al., 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2006). It is from this perspective, training and development, that we examine the work of Groves et al.(2008). The authors have developed a 24-item report measure, based on the work of Mayer and Salovey's (1997) model of emotional intelligence, that offers ample support for use in academic studies and organizational applications (e.g., training and development).

Examining the EI measures of numerous authors (Barsade, 2002; Goleman, 1995; Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002; Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2003; Staw & Barsade, 1993 ), Groves et al. (2008) identified four general themes in the study of emotions: a) the expression and management of emotions, b) the extent to which

emotions predict individual, team, and organizational performance, c) the effects of trait affectivity or affective disposition on individual performance, and d) the key predictors and consequences of moods and emotions in organizations. Taken as a whole, the growth in the number of EI measures and the inclination of academia and organizations to comprehend EI has led, “to an increase in the study of emotion and its role in understanding and predicting important workplace phenomena” (p.3).

The Groves et al. (2008) instrument, The Emotional Intelligence Self Description Inventory (EQSDI), overcomes some of the basic limitations (validity and reliability) and criticisms faced by the various EI models (e.g. MSCEIT, EC-2, and EO-i) now in use. The authors have answered the call for an EI instrument that meets both the psychometric and practical standards for employee assessment and development applications.

The EQSDI with its four-factor solution – a) Perception & Appraisal, b) Facilitating Thinking, c) Understanding Emotion, and d) Regulating Emotions - links the ability to ascertain at what level an individual uses EI to aid judgment and decision-making in an organizational environment with the process of measuring and assessing the development and or improvement of the specific behaviors associated with positive EI activities. This link bridges the gaps normally found in other EI measures and models. For example, under recent examination (Palmer, Gignac, Manocha, & Stough, 2005), Salovey and Mayer’s (1990) MSCEIT could only support a three-factor solution excluding the facilitating thinking dimension. In addition, Groves et al. (2008) found that the MSCEIT’s lack of face validity makes the instrument utility questionable with regards to employee development, with no empirical evidence that the MSCEIT can be used to increase an individual’s EI abilities, from a development perspective.



From an employee development perspective the EQSDI has additional benefits when compared to other EI instruments. For example, three of the most popular EI measures (MSCEIT, ECI-2, and EQ-i) consist of over 70 questions. According to Groves et al. (2008), employee development practitioners tend to prefer tests that measure a few things very well versus more things less well (Tett, Guterman, Bleier, & Murphy, 2000). Test specificity, consisting of a) High Fidelity-the extent to which the training environment is similar to the work environment, b) High Interpretability-the level of effort needed to analyze test results, and c) Narrow Bandwidth-the number of questions used to determine or measure developmental support or growth, is highly favorable for employee development and other human resource application, in which one could surmise, includes the ability to accept, or reject organizational programs and policies surrounding affirmative action and diversity (Groves et al., 2008). Additionally, the authors emphasize the need to adopt a multi-level approach in conducting EI research. Other authors (Ashkanasy & Zerbe, 2005; Huy, 1999; Zhou & George, 2003) also support this multi-level perspective.

### *Measuring Emotional Intelligence*

Under traditional methods of developing a model, theory precedes measurement, but in the process of developing an individual constructs for EI, researchers started by assembling some initial descriptors or conceptualizations of the attributes associated with the EI prior to the development of the measures (Matthews et al., 2004). It is in this regard that we find that there are various challenges to the validity and reliability of EI.

According to various authors (Conte, 2005; Matthews et al., 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2008) EI tests in general should minimally satisfy certain criteria to attain

acceptance as valid and reliable: a) Content Validity, 2) Construct Validity, b) Face Validity, c) Predictive Validity, d) External Validity, and e) Reliability. When we examine EI tests using these criteria we discover some interesting details.

### *Content Validity*

A measure has content validity when its items accurately represent the thing being measured (Vogt, 1999). In the case of the many EI instruments (e.g. EIC, EQ-i, EIQ, and MSCEIT), we find that content validity is difficult to ascertain because many EI tests measure ill-defined personality traits. For example, some authors (Conte, 2005; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004) have found that many EI tests measure aspects of personality rather than emotions. In addition, to date, one of the primary methods used to ascertain content validity - consensual judgment of experts in the field - has not been utilized (Matthews et al., 2004). This lack of content validity has created a gap, with regards to deciding what traits should be assessed as components of EI and what traits should be excluded from EI.

### *Construct Validity*

Construct validity refers to whether a concept is empirically related to other concepts theoretically similar to it and is empirically independent from those different from it (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). Convergent and discriminate validity are used as tests to confirm construct validity. Various authors (Conte, 2005; Matthew et al., 2004; McEnroe & Groves, 2008) have found that popular EI tests such as the Emotional Competency Index (ECI; Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2002), the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i; Bar-On, 1997), and the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (EIQ;

Dulewicz & Higgs, 1996a, 1996b) are related to existing personality tests (e.g. FFM, MBTI and Type-A).

The Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional test (MSCEIT; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso, 2002) appears to be one of the few EI tests to demonstrate both discriminate and convergent validity, based on research done by McEnrue and Groves (2006). The authors state that the MSCEIT has a small positive relationship with IQ coefficient and p value, is moderately related to personality traits like extroversion and agreeableness, and correlates low with other tests of EI.

#### *Face Validity*

Logical or conceptual validity, or whether, on the face of it, does a measure seem to make sense, determines face validity (Vogt, 1999). With regards to various EI tests this specific criteria is unknown. Numerous authors (Conte, 2005; Matthews et al., 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2006) examining the face validity of various EI test have reported that many of the EI tests developers identified so far in this section (e.g. ECI, EQ-i, MSCEIT, & EIQ) have provided little, if no data on the face validity.

#### *Predictive Validity*

Predictive validity refers to the extent to which a test, scale, or other measurement predicts subsequent performance or behavior (Vogt, 1999). Once again various authors (Conte, 2005; Matthews et al., 2004) have found that many of the EI tests (ECI, EQ-I, EIQ) rate low in predictive validity. The one exception is the MSCEIT, which McEnrue and Groves (2006) found evidence (Daus, Rubin, & Cage, 2004) that the test predicted a range of meaningful organizational outcomes.

### *External Validity*

External validity refers to the extent to which the findings of the study are relevant to subjects and setting beyond those in the study. McEnrue and Groves (2006) found that many of the accepted EI instruments (ECI, EQ-I, MSCEIT, and EIQ) have low to moderate external validity due to the use and application of the data. For example, scoring on the MSCEIT is based on North America data while the ECI does not include normative data for the test. Bar-On's (1997) EQ-i instrument does report significant gender and age differences and even though the test has been translated into over 30 languages, no comparative research has been published (McEnrue & Groves, 2006).

### *Reliability*

Reliability denotes the consistency or stability of a measure or test from one use to the next (Vogt, 1999). Various authors (Conte, 2005; Matthews et al., 2004), feel that the reliability evidence for EI instruments exceeds its validity evidence. For example the MSCEIT has internal consistency reliabilities between 0.68 for consensus scoring and 0.71 for expert scoring (Conte, 2005) while the self-assessment ECI scales range from 0.61 to 0.85 (Conte, 2005). The EQ-i demonstrates adequate to high test-retest reliability (Conte, 2005; Matthews et al., 2004), while the reliability of the ECI subscales is marginal, ranging from 0.578 for trustworthiness, to 0.817 for conscientiousness (Matthews et al., 2004).

### *Emotional Intelligence's Influence on Perceptions and Behaviors*

This study investigates the effects of EI on employee perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. To understand how

that cause and effect occurs an examination of the various EI models, dimensions, and scales must be made.

Goleman's (1998) original theoretical framework identified five high-order clusters, but through a cluster analysis performed by Boyatzis, Goleman and Rhee (2000) a number of competencies were combined reducing the cluster from five to four (Matthews et al., 2004). These clusters, along with the competencies comprising them are:

- *Self-awareness* - Consisting of emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, and self-confidence.
- *Self-management* - Composed of emotional self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, achievement drive and initiative.
- *Social awareness* - Consisting of social awareness, empathy, service orientation, and organizational awareness.
- *Relationship management* - Composed of influence, communication, conflict management, leadership, change catalyst, building bonds, teamwork and collaboration, and developing others.

There are various authors who take issue with Goleman's EI theoretical model, referring to his construct as a "mixed model" of EI (Matthews et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 2000). For example, Goleman's conceptualization of EI has various aspects of cognition, personality, motivation, emotions, neurobiology, and intelligence measures (Matthews et al., 2004). The diverse characteristic of Goleman's model could explain some of the deficiencies in measuring the various scales in his EI construct. For example, Goleman's claims that his scale has a higher predictive validity for performance in the workplace

than other traditional measures of intelligence (Druskat & Wolff, 2001), though there is no published evidence supporting this claim (Matthews et al., 2004). Some authors (Matthews et al., 2004; Mayer et al., 2000) consider Goleman's model nothing more than a précis of current scientific research for public and commercial consumption, not a genuine scientific theory, and as such, for this study, Goleman's model is insufficient.

While Goleman's (1995) construct and scales are usually identified as one of the first theoretical models, he admits that the work of Salovey and Mayer (1990) influenced his research (Matthew et al., 2004). Salovey and Mayer's (1990) theoretical approach in constructing an EI model is well grounded in the literature. Besides being the first authors to publish EI articles in peer-reviewed psychological journal, they remain the most productive authors in scientific journals (Matthews et al., 2004).

Mayer and Mitchell (1998) defined an intelligence system as the process of being able to input information, and process the information through both immediate manipulations of symbols and reference to expert knowledge. The Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2002) Emotional Intelligence test, or MSCEIT is constructed with the goal of measuring EI as if it were an intelligent system that processes information. Accordingly, Matthew et al. (2004) stated that Mayer and Salovey's (1997) work bridges the gap between the cognitive and emotional systems and at the same time is unitary and multi-dimensional. The MSCEIT is subdivided into four dimensions or scales:

- *Perception, appraisal and expression of emotion* - involves the perceiving and encoding information from the emotional system.

- *Emotional facilitation of thinking* - involves further processing of emotion to improve cognitive processes with the objective of using the information to solve complex problems.
- *Understanding and analyzing emotional information* - concerns cognitive processing of emotions.
- *Regulation of emotion* - concerns the control and regulation of emotion in the self and others.

The theoretical foundation that created Mayer, Salovey and Caruso's (2002) model is described as complex, and without any operational measurements, principles, or procedures for assessing the four scales, the model would be just another theoretical abstract of EI with no utility (Matthew et al., 2004). When comparing the MSCEIT against other EI instruments (EQ-i, ECI-2, and EIQ), McEnrue and Groves (2006) found that the MSCEIT is the only instrument that tests EI by evaluating self-reported scores against expert and consensus opinion.

There are some questions about the MSCEIT, specifically concerning face, predictive and external validity. McEnrue and Groves (2006) stated that while research done by Day and Carroll (2004), and Mayer, Salovey, and Caruso (2003), proposed that the MSCEIT factor structure is equivalent with the original four dimension scale instrument define by Mayer et al. (2002), other researchers (Palmer et al., 2005) have only found support for only three of the factors and no support for emotional facilitation of thinking dimension. Additionally, the authors stated that there appears to be a gap between the model and what the test measures.

Finally, even though some authors (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005) have found that the MSCEIT scales independent from personality variables and behavioral preferences, questions exist whether the instrument truly measures the full range of EI, since the test omits emotional expression and management of emotions (McEnrue and Groves, 2006). Furthermore, even though Mayer et al. (2002) declare that their model is able to predict job performance, only two published studies on relation to job performance have been completed (Bradberry & Greaves, 2004; Pusey, 2000) with mixed results (Matthews et al., 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2006).

The MSCEIT, in the words of Matthews et al. (2004), “is the most original and intriguing test of emotional intelligence yet devised” (p.20), but because of its tenuous predictive, face and content validity one must question its utility specifically in the area of human resource development (HRD). McEnrue and Groves (2006) identified various weaknesses in the MSCEIT as it applies to employee development. First, the number of test items in the MSCEIT could possibly necessitate HRD practitioners to spend more time educating employee about the strategic importance of the relationship between EI and Job Performance. Secondly, the MSCEIT scales do not map all of the abilities included in the model (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). These weaknesses increased resources for pre-test preparation, test delivery and coaching (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). These HRD drawbacks make the use of the MSCEIT, for this study problematic, since EI is used as a primary antecedent.

So far this section of the chapter has examined, two models, the ECI, considered the most commercially popular EI test (Matthews et al., 2004), and the MSCEIT, currently the best test for research purposes (McEnrue & Groves, 2006). For example,



Groves et al.(2008) have described the two tests as two ends in a continuum of EI measures with each test having its own strengths and weaknesses.

For this study, a new EI measure has been identified that combines the simplicity and directness of the ECI with the research strength of the MSCEIT but with an added dimension: the ability to integrate the psychometric and practical standards for employee assessment and development applications. The Emotional Intelligence Self Description Inventory (EQSDI), created by Groves et al.(2008), was constructed with training and development in mind. The EQSDI, in the words of the authors:

Was developed to provide scholars with a practical tool to assess and develop emotional intelligence, capture the dimensions and skills of emotional intelligence incorporated in the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model, demonstrate acceptable content, construct, face, discriminate, and convergent validity in comparison with existing measures, and provide a practical instrument for employee development application (p.11)

Groves et al. (2008), employed a thorough systematic process that included the development of EI scales using independent verification and input from subject matter experts, which then was used to develop a questionnaire that was then administered it to 270 participants. Next, the authors performed two rounds of factor analysis to identify the eventual 24 items in the EQSDI. For example, the initial factor analysis identified 10 factors with an eigenvalue greater than unity. After examining the factor loading of the initial 10 factors, the authors determined that the first four factors with the largest eigenvalues were consistent with their four hypothesized EI dimensions. To improve the instrument's psychometric properties the authors selected only six items in each of the

four factors and performed a second factor analysis reaching a clear four-factor solution that was closely aligned to the four dimensions of Mayer and Salovey (1997).

Groves et al. (2008), draw a distinction between the EQSDI and other EI measures based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model because the EQSDI and its items noticeably single out the use of emotions to aid judgment and decision-making. These aspects of the EQSDI allow the measure to be utilized in an organizational context, specifically with regards to determining how an individual uses his or her emotions to aid decision-making. One could conclude that for this study the EQSDI should facilitate a clearer understand of an individual's perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. Therefore, with regards to this study, the following four dimensions of the EQSDI along with the competencies comprising them are:

- *Perception and Appraisal of Emotions (PA)*-People's ability to perceive and responds to their own, as well as others, emotions.
- *Facilitating Thinking with Emotions (FT)*-The ability to use emotional events to facilitate and assist intellectual processing.
- *Understanding Emotions (UE)*-The ability to understand the relationship between various emotions and the cause and consequences of emotions.
- *Regulations of Emotions (RE)*-The ability to regulate one's own as well as others' emotions to meet particular goals and objectives.

When we examine the EQSDI model, what scales and dimension (and therefore behaviors) can we anticipate will lead to positive perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs? Using the study's model as a map, this section of the chapter will offer some support for the various hypotheses

created for this study, organized using the four dimensions identified by Groves et al. (2008).

#### *Perception and Appraisal (PA)*

Emotional intelligence is impossible without perception and appraisal (PA) ; (Lane, Quinlan, Schwartz, Walker, & Zeitlin, 1990; Mayer et al., 2002; Saarni, 1990, 1999). Emotional perceptions involves the registering, attending to, and interpreting of emotional messages, in ourselves and those provided by the people we come in contact with everyday (Salovey et al., 2002). In addition, other authors (Lane et al., 1990; Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2000) have written that this dimension of EI gives individuals the ability to use emotional information in a constructive and adaptive manner. Unlike the self-awareness dimension of Goleman's (1995) model, the perception and appraisal dimension described by Mayer and Salovey (1997) and used in Groves et al. (2006) model expands the application of EI from an intrapersonal transaction that is limited to self, to an interpersonal transaction.

This means that one could propose that various attributes found in self-awareness could be part of perception and appraisal. For example, Updegraff (2004) highlighted the role that self-awareness plays in helping the individual acknowledge not only the desirable in themselves but the undesirable. The author supports the idea that individuals are powerless to affect any kind of beneficial change until they have awareness of what drives their decisions and actions. Updegraff's approach is supported by England (2002) who found the concept of self-awareness central to personal transformation

Other authors (Aronson-Thomas, 2004; Goleman, 2004; Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo, & Hoffman, 2003) go even further, identifying self-awareness, and therefore

perception and awareness, as the main component of EI that gives individuals the ability to deal effectively and successfully with environmental and organizational change brought about by issues of diversity, affirmative action, and cultural interactions. For example, Shipper et al. (2003) found that individuals who have high self-awareness were positively associated with high managerial effectiveness.

It stands to follow that individuals with high PA create the foundation for pro-social interactions and should have the ability to discern the moods, intentions, and desires of others, basic components of social-awareness (Goleman, 1998; Matthews et al., 2004). Goleman (1998) identifies three particular attributes of social-awareness that have a direct connection to issues of affirmative action and diversity with regards to how individuals respond to the current political and social environments of the organization: a) Leveraging diversity, which means cultivating opportunities through diverse people; b) Political awareness, which is the ability to read the political and social currents in the organization; and c) Empathy, which is the ability to be attentive to the emotional cues and show sensitivity and understanding for other people's perspectives.

By understanding how we perceive and appraise our own, as well as others', emotions we can explore and question various assumptions and beliefs we hold that limit our personal and professional development and begin the process uncovering our unrealized potential and maximizing our emotional capability.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>1</sub>: An individual's level of perception and awareness will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

### *Facilitate Thinking (FA)*

Facilitation of thinking (FA) consists of the impact of emotional intelligence on cognitive activities (Mayer et al., 2002). Specifically, this dimension focuses on how emotions can be harnessed for more effective problem-solving, reasoning, decision-making, and creative activities (Mayer et al., 2002). Emotions can influence the cognitive process in both positive and negative ways. For example, emotions such as fear and anxiety can disrupt the cognitive process, but those same emotions can also organize, prioritize and drive the cognitive system to act on the most important activity first (Easterbrook, 1959; Mandler, 1975; Simon, 1982). This also includes the ability to focus on what an individual does best in a given mood or emotions (Palfai & Salovey, 1993; Schwarz, 1990).

This interaction between emotions and cognition creates a constant state of change in attitude and behaviors and, therefore, an environment that forces the cognitive system to view things from different perspectives, creating a cognitive shift between skepticism and acceptance (Mayer et al., 2002). So, how can this interaction, between emotions and cognition, be leveraged with regards to organizational policies and programs surrounding affirmative action and diversity? When an individual's point of view or perspective shifts between skepticism and acceptance the individual can recognize the value of multiple vantage points, and therefore think about problems, challenges, changes, and problems more deeply and creatively (Mayer et al., 2002).

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>2</sub>: An individual's level of facilitating thinking, using emotions (i.e. change perspective, aid judgment, problem solving) will be positively related to

his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

### *Understand Emotion (UE)*

Understanding emotions (UE) reflects the fact that there are many complex emotions that have to be integrated and understood by a person (Salovey et al., 2003). The process of understanding and integrating is specifically accomplished through a lexical approach. For example, Mayer et al. (2002) identify a lexical approach in which words are linked with emotions in specific groups or patterns. An individual high in UE would be able recognize that the words used to describe emotions are arranged into unambiguous groups and families that form fuzzy sets (Ortony, Clore & Collins, 1988). This means that specific emotional terms or words would be consistently redefined depending on the how those terms were grouped. Unless people have the ability to understand emotions within this context, their meaning, how they interact when combined, and how the meaning of the interaction changes over time, it would be very difficult to recognize the causes and relationships of emotions (Mayer et al., 2002, 2003).

The ability to understand emotions is crucial to interpreting emotional cues and reading the authentic personal significance of an encounter and acting accordingly (Matthews et al., 2004). Parker (2000) though his research found a link between a low rating in this EI dimension and difficulties in generating internal representations of emotions that facilitate adaptations to external demands. This means that a person low in understanding emotions would find it difficult to perceive external events and then interpret them in an accurate way so that he or she could use those perceptions to facilitate positive outcomes, personally or socially. One could conclude that a person's

perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity programs and policies would be effected by their level of understanding emotions.

There is at least one caveat worth noting-UE, as designed by Mayer et al. (2000) should be used to assess an individual's capability to understand the implications of emotional words, without reference to personal goals and objectives (Matthews et al., 2004). It is the objective of this study to extend the application of this dimension to real-world transactions and to investigate a possible link between understanding emotions and organizational goals and objectives.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>3</sub>: An individual's level of understanding emotion will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

#### *Regulate Emotion (RE)*

Numerous authors (Ciarrochi, Forgas & Mayer, 2001; Goleman, 1998; Matthews et al., 2004; Topping, Holmes &, Bremmer, 2000) would define regulating emotions (RE) as the ability to keep disruptive emotions and impulses in check. The self-regulation of emotions include numerous competencies such as restraining and controlling impulses, dampening down distress, effectively channeling negative affect and eliciting and sustaining pleasant and unpleasant emotions (Matthews et al., 2004). For example, Matthews et al. (2004) view individuals who possess high EI, in this area, as having the ability to experience high positive affect and low negative affect, while Goleman (1998) viewed this aspect of EI as a major prerequisite for successful job performance.

When we examine this trait from an organizational point of view, we find that there are a couple of perspectives to consider. The first is the ability to effectively handle and regulate negative emotions and impulses that can impair an individual's ability to think and behave (Matthews et al., 2004). One could conclude that a person who does not necessarily support affirmative action or diversity personally will be more likely to make a personal sacrifice, as it applies to affirmative action or diversity issues that involve the company, when the organization's need for acceptance is apparent and if he or she is high in RE (Matthews et al., 2004). Abraham (1999) believed that the RE component of EI contributes to positive organizational citizenship.

The second aspect of RE, with regards to an organizational perspective, is the ability to adapt to change, innovation and challenges (Goleman, 1998). Many authors (Herkenhoff, 2004; Shipper et al., 2003) cite EI attributes, like RE, as essential to an individual's ability to deal effectively with change and issues of cross-cultural management. Once again, one could assume that RE helps individuals deal with the realities of affirmative action and diversity, specifically with regards to the changing demographics nationally (U.S. Census, 2000) and the increase of multi-national corporations and markets globally (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2005).

If we examine more closely the ability to deal with organizational change, we also see some connection to the issue of stress management. Salovey, Bedell, Detweiler, and Mayer (2000) focused on an individual's level of RE and his or her ability to adapt and cope with stress at work brought about by organizational change. Other authors (Matthews et al., 2004) highlighted the ability of high RE individuals having the ability to



experience less stress when faced with the need to be more flexible in the workplace, as well as, viewing others and situations less stereotypically.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>4</sub>: An individual's level of regulating emotions will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

#### Background on the Five-Factor Model of Personality

The Five-Factor Model of personality (FFM) or the "Big-Five" has given researchers and writers a conceptual scheme for uniting a field that, until the 1980's, appeared to be disorganized (Digman, 1996). Even though there is little mention of the model in textbooks and journals there is evidence that the model made its first appearance over 70 years ago (Digman, 1996).

Many researchers (Cattell, 1933; Garnett, 1919; Spearman, 1904; Webb, 1915) had worked on methods of describing personality characteristics. For example, Webb (1915) building on the work of Spearman (1904) identified characteristics like perseverance and conscientiousness when describing individuals with a tendency not to abandon a task. Garnett (1919), using Webb's (1915) research, isolated a third factor, cleverness. Garnett's (1919) descriptor, after further investigation and analysis, becomes extroversion. By 1919 there were three broad personality factors accounting for individual differences, intellect, conscientious, and extroversion.

Cattell (1933) moves closer to a Big-Five scheme through his analysis of temperament traits or non-intellective traits independent of Spearman's (1904) *g*-factor (Digman, 1996). Cattell's research verified the *w*-factor (conscientious), and Garnett's *c*-

factor (extraversion), and introduced a fourth, maturity (*m*). Along with Cattell's research, Thurstone (1934), using factor analysis was able to synthesize 60 adjectives used by subjects to describe well-known acquaintances into five independent common factors (Digman, 1996). Comparing Cattell's model with Thurston's five-factor solution, a couple of differences become apparent. First, Cattell's model, which consisted of four factors, would have added Spearman's *g*-factor as a broad aspect of intellect. Second, Cattell's four-factor solution appears to be closer to the contemporary Five-Factor Model of personality than Thurstone's construct (Digman, 1996).

Fiske (1949), using Cattell's findings, identified his five factors as, social adaptability, conformity, emotional control, inquiring intellect, and confident self-expression. The first four factors are directly related to today's Five-Factor Model of personality constructs of Extraversion, Agreeableness, Emotional Stability and Intellect (Digman, 1996). The fifth factor was not as clear-cut, and by today's standard would be considered a second Extroversion factor that incorporates variables not found in the first Extroversion factor identified by Fiske (Digman, 1996). One advantage Fiske's five-factor solution had over the work of Cattell was that the model appeared to be stable across three distinctive dimensions of evaluation, self-rating, peer rating, and supervisor rating. Years later, Tupes and Christal (1961, 1992) making use of Cattell's scales identified five-factors that were stable across replications (Digman, 1996). Tupes and Christal's meta-analysis is considered the beginning of serious interest in the five-factor model (Digman, 1996).

With the growing interest in the FFM in the 1980's we began to see it become operationalized with substantial application across cultures (Church & Katibak, 1989),

media (Costa & McCrae, 1988), age groups (Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981) and as a possible tool in unifying the field of personality attributes (Goldberg, 1993). The FFM is not a complete theory of personality and there are many questions still to be addressed. For example, in this study we examine the possibility of a connection between an individual's FFM score and perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and program. Digman (1996) suggest that the FFM could be used in examining social learning theory and then used to explain individual differences in the five dimensions. In the next part of this section, we investigate some of the methodological issues of the FFM and examine each of the five factors with respect to this study.

#### *Critical Issues and Perspectives of the Five-Factor Model of Personality*

There appears to be a number of noteworthy issues to consider when examining the FFM. As with any descriptive taxonomy that organizes numerous scientific trait concepts into a single classificatory framework, the FFM has its limitations (John & Srivastava, 1999). For example, many authors have argued that the FFM does not provide a complete theory of personality (Block, 1995; Eysenck, 1997; John & Srivastava, 1999; McAdams, 1992; Pervin, 1994). In essence, the FFM is primarily descriptive rather than explanatory: emphasizes regularities in behavior rather than conditional dynamics and developmental processes: focuses on variables rather than on individuals or types of individuals, and similar to EI there is a question of how stable is the FFM findings over time and situations (John & Srivastava, 1999). Digman (1990) identifies the debate over person versus situation as a methodological issue bearing scrutiny.

Another critical issue involves the distinction between personality and self-concept (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Epstein (1979) suggested that there is a difference between personality and the self-concept; between what we are really like and what we believe, we are like. For example, psychologists and sociologists have known that an individual's self-concept seems to guide his or her behavior (Epstein, 1979; McCrae & Costa, 2003). It is from this self-concept framework of ourselves that we draw our description of our behavior. There has been disagreement about how individuals develop a self-concept, and whether or not self-concepts are accurate or can change over time, specifically in adulthood (McCrae & Costa, 2003). One could reason that if an individual's self-concept is set early in life there is a high expectation that it will not change over that person's remaining years.

Finally, external validity and predictive utility are topics usually receiving little attention from researchers working in the FFM tradition (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Of the numerous claims made by the supporters of FFM, the primary attribute most identified is the model's success in predicting outcomes in people's lives (McCrae & Costa, 2003). For example, as cited in McCrae and Costa (2003), the work of John, Caspi, Robbins, Moffitt, and Stouthamer-Loeber, (1994) and Robbins, John, and Caspi (1994) suggest that the FFM can help researchers understand social, professional and personal life outcomes.

#### *Five-Factor Model of Personality's Influence on Perceptions and Behaviors*

This study examines the link between various aspects of the FFM and perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. Various authors (Brand, 1984; Digman, 1990; Goldberg, 1981; Hogan, 1983; John, 1989) have contributed to the effort to organize the various five-factor solutions into a single

acceptable framework. With regards to this study the following five dimensions along with the competencies comprising them are:

- *Extroversion* - Consist of social adaptability, assertiveness, sociability, ambition, and positive emotionality.
- *Agreeableness* - Composed of likeability, sociability, conformity, nurturance, caring, emotional support and altruism.
- *Conscientiousness* - Will to achieve, dependability, prudence, task interest, and self-control.
- *Neuroticism* - Consist of emotional control, anxiety, affect, and adjustability.
- *Openness to Experiences* - Culturally aware, intelligent, openness, independent.

When we examine the FFM, what clusters and competencies, and therefore behaviors, can we anticipate will lead to positive perceptions of affirmative action and diversity policies and programs? Using the study's model as a map, this section of the chapter will offer some support for the various hypotheses created for this study, organized using the primary five dimensions identified by Goldberg (1990) and Digman (1990).

### *Extroversion*

How is extroversion connected to perception and ultimately behavior? McCrae and Costa (2003) believe that extroversion can be subdivided into three interpersonal and three temperamental traits. For example, warmth, gregariousness, and assertiveness are interpersonal attributes that contribute to the individual's ability to socialize and create relationships. The temperamental traits of activity, excitement seeking, and positive emotions are synergistic in nature and allow the individual to actualize his interpersonal

traits to form behaviors that can be interpreted as personality. One could conclude that an individual high in extroversion should have a number of advantages when trying to cope or adapt to the organizational issues of affirmative action and diversity.

For example, Moberg (1999) examined the relationship between FFM and organizational virtue and found that there is a relationship between extroversion and courage. This could infer that extroverts handle stressful events much more adaptively than introverts. Taking this concept further, extroverts should experience more positive emotions about contentious issues like affirmative action and diversity. This link between the individual and the organization, with regards to extroversion and its effect on how an individual perceives organizational policies, procedures and change, could be manifested in how employees accept or reject company policies and programs that create possible stressful or disruptive situations in the workplace.

Tidwell and Sias (2005) provide another example of positive behaviors exhibited by individuals high in extroversion. The authors believe that individuals high in extroversion exhibit proactive behaviors in their effort to seek information and reduce their uncertainty about the organization and its culture. This observation is supported by Witt, Burke, Barrick, and Mount (2002) who found that individuals high in extroversion tend to interpret the organizational climate to their benefit and are able to modify their behavior in such a way as to support positive perceptions of their performance by their supervisor, specifically in organizational climates that are politically charged. One could surmise that individuals high in extroversion would be able to collect information about the organization, synthesize that information, and adjust their behaviors accordingly.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>5</sub>: An individual's level of extroversion will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

### *Agreeableness*

Of the five dimensions of the FFM, agreeableness appears to include the more compassionate aspect of humanity (Digman, 1990). Some authors (Guilford & Zimmerman, 1949) believe that a primary characteristic of this dimension is friendliness. Other authors (Digman, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992; Wiggins, 1996) identify altruism, or the concern with others' interests, and empathy for their conditions as the primary motivational driver of agreeable individuals. However, what is the link between this dimension and life outcomes, specifically concerning social issues that revolve around affirmative action and organizational diversity?

Research on the FFM has found that individuals low in agreeableness experience problems throughout their lives (John & Srivastava, 1999). For example, John et al. (1994) and Robins, John and Caspi (1994) found that juveniles low in agreeableness experience high juvenile delinquency. Other authors (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Mount, Barrick & Stewart, 1998) found that agreeableness along with neuroticism predicted performance in jobs that involved groups. As such, the ability to interact successfully with groups is of primary interest to organizations specifically about issues of maximizing organizational diversity.

Graziano, Jensen-Campbell, and Hair (1996) examine the relationship between agreeableness and an individual's ability to perceive and react to conflict. The authors,

using multi-method studies, found that agreeableness is an integral aspect of social cognition and is part of the dispositional explanation for interpersonal relations. In other words, agreeableness plays an important role in how individuals form singular or group relationships.

When we examine the ability of creating or not creating relationships from a different perspective, anti-social behavior, Lee, Ashton and Shin (2005) found that individuals low in agreeableness exhibited anti-social behaviors directed at co-workers. Other authors (Colbert, Mount, Harter & Witt, 2004; Cote & Moskowitz, 1998) have also examined the affect of low agreeableness and interpersonal behavior. For example, Cote and Moskowitz (1998) found that agreeableness was negatively related to quarrelsomeness. Colbert et al. (2004) found those individuals low in agreeableness are more likely to exhibit interpersonal deviant behavior. One could conclude that individuals with low agreeableness will lack the intrapersonal constraints needed to avoid negative or destructive behaviors that affect the organization.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>6</sub>: An individual's level of agreeableness will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

### *Conscientiousness*

Conscientiousness, as defined by Wiggins and Trapnell (1996), is related to actions controlled or done according to conscience, which according to the authors suggest a communal connotation. Additional authors (Botwin & Buss, 1989; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae & John, 1992) also viewed conscientiousness in this communal manner.



However, other authors (Digman, 1963; Digman & Inouye, 1986; Digman & Takemoto-Chock, 1981) found a relationship between conscientiousness and performance, which created an alternative identification of conscientiousness as the will to achieve. This dyadic-interactional perspective of conscientiousness led various authors (McCrae & Costa, 1987; McCrae & John, 1992) to make a distinction between the two manifestation of conscientiousness as being inhibited and proactive (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996).

McCrae and John (1992) suggest that these divergent perspectives are in essence facets of self-discipline in pursuit of very different outcomes. For example, the authors believe that the proactive person pursues resources, power or social status (agency), while the inhibited person pursues social relations (communion). The ability to meld these two facets create individuals that are rational, informed, and think of themselves as competent with an acknowledgement that their success results from their organization and others, which makes them efficient at work (McCrae & Costa, 2003). Nevertheless, how does conscientiousness effect an individual's perception of affirmative action and diversity and therefore his or her support of the organization's policies and programs?

Costa & McCrae (1998) believe that conscientious people are inhibited and hold fast to their moral precepts. In other words, they have a strong sense of duty. This dutifulness extends not only to their personal goals, but also to the goals of the organization. The authors concluded that a person high in conscientiousness behaves ethically, is dependable, responsible and productive in the pursuit of their own personal aspirations. This perspective finds support in the work of Moberg (1999) who believed that individuals high in conscientiousness are principled, scrupulously diligent and purposeful.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>7</sub>: An individual's level of conscientiousness will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

### *Neuroticism*

From a lexical perspective, the factor of neuroticism has been considered small in relation to extraversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness. However, in the field of psychology and psychiatry, neuroticism is counted among extraversion and anxiety as one of the three concepts given the greatest emphasis (Wiggins, 1968).

The cluster of negative affects and cognitions that constitute neuroticism tend to be more correlated than those in other factors of the FFM (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). For example, within the area of psychopathology there has been an effort to distinguish the components of anxiety and depression (Dobson, 1985). The challenge of sorting out these two traits have focused on their differential attributions or beliefs (Lazarus, 1966), their differential relations with positive affect (Tellegen, 1985), and their differential secondary loading on other Big Five factors (Hofstee, De Raad, & Goldberg, 1992).

Another issue central to understanding neuroticism, as a dimension of the FFM, is the challenge of identifying the social contexts in which the negative affects are manifested (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). For example, to accurately identify aspects of depression, anxiety, and anger one must be able to clearly discern the social contexts that are sufficiently specified to be clear about what or whom one is depressed, anxious, or angry (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996).

An example of this effort to understand the various factors contributing to anxiety, depression, and anger is found in a study by Snell, McDonald, and Koch (1991) who examined the impetus of the anger-provoking experiences. The authors developed a three dimensional model that included a clear dimension of agentic frustration and two communal frustration dimensions. The first dimension, agentic frustration, is derived from the term “agency,” and denotes the primary source of frustration as an intrapersonal event (Bakan, 1966). An example of agentic frustration would be disappointment over thwarted ambitions and goals, which decreases feelings of self-esteem. The second and third dimensions, categorized as communal frustrations, involve situations of interpersonal events, such as disrespect and exploitation, which destroys trust that eventually leads to decreased feelings of security (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996).

Certainly, neuroticism is an aspect of personality most relevant to adjustment, and those high in this dimension are likely to show evidence of maladjustment at all ages (McCrae & Costa, 2003). For example, individuals high in neuroticism are more likely to use ineffective coping mechanisms such as hostility, passivity, and self-blame (McCrae & Costa, 2003). It is proposed that a person high in neuroticism will not support an organization’s affirmative action and diversity program and policies. Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>8</sub>: An individual’s level of neuroticism will be negatively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization’s affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

### *Openness to Experiences*

The most extensive debate taking place about the FFM revolves around the openness to experience characteristic (Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996). Numerous authors debate whether openness reflects social judgments of intellectual ability (Goldberg, 1981; Peabody & Goldberg, 1989; Saucier, 1992) or openness to experiences (Digman, 1989; Goldberg, 1990; McCrae, 1990; 1994; McCrae & Costa, 1985). Both intellect and openness share a focus on cognitive dispositions, specifically related to divergent thinking (e.g. curiosity, creativity imagination).

Trapnell (1994) provides a central difference between the two perspectives for researchers, whereas social judgments and intellect ability emphasizes competence, openness to experience stresses motives, interests and egalitarian values associated with tolerance. It is from the openness characterization, as defined by Trapnell that this study will focus its examination.

Rogers (1961) believed that openness to (inner and outer) experiences in general was the foundation to an acceptance of other individuals. As a person moves to being able to accept his own experiences, he also moves towards the acceptance of the experiences of others. Various authors (Burk & Witt, 2002; George & Zhou, 2001; Whitbourne, 1986) support this perspective. The ability to be open to new or different experiences or changes not only gives the individual the ability to recognize and implement the change, but also gives him the capacity to be supportive of the change experience.

For example, George and Zhou (2001) found that individuals high in openness were sensitive to aesthetics, curious, independent thinkers and amendable to new ideas,

experiences and unconventional perspectives. This viewpoint is supported by various authors (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae, 1994) who believe that people high in openness have greater access to a variety of feelings, thoughts, and perspectives, and may be more adaptable to changing circumstances. One could surmise then that a person high in openness would be open to other cultures and therefore be supportive of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

Therefore, a hypothesis is as follows:

H<sub>9</sub>: An individual's level of openness will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

#### Background on Ethnic Identity Theory

Understanding oneself is crucial to personal awareness. EI and the FFM measure self-awareness but give no corroborated data as to what factors contribute to it (Matthews et al., 2004). Even when we can identify the individual traits that influence the perception of affirmative action and diversity policies there are additional dimensions that must be explored. For example, how individuals define themselves ethnically or at what frequency do individuals interact with other groups that are ethnically different? This section of the chapter examines the role and impact of ethnicity on moderating the perceptions of individuals.

Various authors have linked much of the research on ethnic identity to the framework of social identity as conceptualized by social psychologist (Barak, Cherin, & Berkman, 1998; Phinney, 1990). Lewin (1948) stressed that individuals need a strong sense of group identification in their quest of maintaining a sense of well-being. Lewin's

perspective is supported by the work of Tajfel and Turner (1979) who found that being a member of a group provides individuals with a sense of belonging that contributes to a positive self-concept.

Identity, according to social identity theory, consists of two factors: a) a personal component derived from distinctive characteristics such as personality, physical and intellectual traits, and b) a social component, derived from salient group membership, such as sex, race, class, and nationality (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Barak et al., 1998; Tajfel, 1982). Social identity is a perception of oneness with a group of persons (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). It involves a process of self-categorization along with an attachment of value to the particular social category creating social identity (Barak et al., 1998).

Many authors (Chrobot-Mason, 2004; Phinney, 1996; Ponterotto et al., 2003; Roberts et al., 1999) have examined the way ethnic identity is formed and its impact on individual identity. For example, Phinney (1996) examined the way ethnic identity forms through a process of exploring and questioning preexisting attitudes about race and searching past and present experiences to help the individual gain a level of awareness that could lead to a positive sense of their identity. While Chrobot-Mason (2004) examined the impact of ethnic identity concerning how minority employees perceive management support at their organization. In both cases, it was found that individuals high in ethnic identity took the time to explore their ethnic background and consciously thought about racial issues and how to effectively deal with conflict.

One could gather from the work of Phinney (1996) and Chrobot-Mason (2004) that a high sense of ethnic identity is vital to the acceptance of self, which then can translate into possible acceptance of other groups. Additionally, one could further infer

that this acceptance of others moderates the relationship between EI, the Five-Factor Model of personality and perceptions (Herkenhoff, 2004). For example, understanding ethnic identity and how that identity is shaped by exposure to other individuals could influence the self-awareness and empathy elements of EI and have an impact on that individual's perception of affirmative action and diversity programs.

Therefore, hypotheses are as follows:

H<sub>10a</sub>: An individual's degree of Ethnic Identity will moderate the relationship between the four EI variables and his or her perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

H<sub>10b</sub>: An individual's degree of Ethnic Identity will moderate the relationship between the five FFM variables and his or her perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

#### Background of Organizational Context

The alignment between external environments and organizational structure provides an established method of defining organizational context, but, about issues of diversity and affirmative action, can this approach be used when an extensive aspect of organizational context involves issues that only exist internally? For example, there are numerous strategies or approaches organizations can utilize that are formed and shaped not by legal, social, and political external pressures but by the vision of internal stakeholders and leaders (Cox, 2001).

In addition, one must examine the organization's strategy with regard to defining its response to external and internal forces. Various authors (Ely and Thomas, 2001, Dass & Parker, 1999; Lorbiecki, 2001) have created specific approaches to analyzing the

various strategies and approaches that companies use to create and implement a diversity or affirmative action strategy. For the purpose of this study a more dynamic and flexible definition is offered below.

### *Defining Organizational Context*

For this study it is proposed that organizational context is not only shaped by the organizational response to various external factors (i.e. legal, political, social, and economic), but also by internal factors that surround issues of affirmative action and diversity unique to the organization (i.e. leadership, policies, procedures and activities). For example, Cox (2001) identified the following internal factors that support organizational success concerning affirmative action and diversity objectives: leadership, employee education, development of measurement plans, organizational system and practices alignment, and follow-up. Cox's approach supports the organizational context definition utilized in this study. However, are there other factors or dimensions that need to be considered to correctly distinguish the study's use of organization context and the more formal definition and approach?

Dass and Parker (1999) identified four strategic responses for managing diversity in organizations: a) Reactive, which the authors categorized as resistance activities that are characterized by organizational denial, defiance, or avoidance; b) Defensive, where the organization views affirmative action and diversity issues as problems to be solved and results in organizational tactics which include, negotiating with, balancing, and pacifying various interest groups; c) Accommodative, an approach that can be defined as inclusive in nature and values differences, but is still adopted due to social or legal mandates; and d) Proactive, which includes the development of a learning organization



that focuses on important similarities and difference, creativity, and the long term benefits derived through affirmative action and diversity.

By examining the work of Cox (2001), Dass and Parker (1999), and Loden (1996) three important and recurring themes that provide a firm foundation in the creation and development of an organizational context for affirmative action and diversity are revealed: a) Leadership, which applies to the individual(s) responsible for the overall affirmative action and diversity strategy of the organization; b) Alignment, between the organizational structure, policies and procedures, and practices; and c) Follow-up, a long-term commitment to ensure that the change brought about affirmative action and diversity become part of the organization's culture. Each of these factors contributes, in a positive way, to the organization's effort to manage and influence the perceptions of employees about affirmative action and diversity (Cox, 2001; Loden, 1996).

### *Leadership*

From an affirmative action and diversity perspective, leadership not only applies to an individual but also to numerous members of the organization. For example, various authors (Ely & Thomas, 2001; Cox, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Lorbiecki, 2001) specifically identify leadership as a management philosophy, organizational vision or mission, and a communication strategy. Granted, individual leadership is important with regards to initiating organizational change, but one person does not an organization make. Regardless of how strong or influential a leader is, to move truly beyond the awareness stage of initiating affirmative action and diversity programs and policies numerous

leaders, in an organizational sense, are needed to address systemic issues and substantive change challenges (Loden, 1996). In essence a collaborative effort is required

Loden and Rosener (1991) defined this collaborative process of leadership as pluralistic leadership. Pluralistic leadership relies on empowerment and employee involvement and assumes that the organization's culture must view issues of affirmative action and diversity as a true asset of the organization. Through their research, the authors identified six leadership dimensions, which include vision and values, ethical commitment to fairness, broad knowledge and awareness about diversity, openness to change, mentoring of diverse employees, and an ongoing model and catalyst for organizational change. The authors discovered that although employees believe that these six dimensions were important, the same employees found little evidence of them in their organization. One could conclude from the work of Loden and Rosener (1991) that employees can discern when a leader or organization does not value affirmative action or diversity strictly through their observation and perceptions.

### *Alignment*

For organizations to survive they must constantly scan the external environment and adjust their structure to maximize their efficiency and effectiveness and therefore their profitability (Daft, 2004). With regards to diversity, nothing alters that approach. For example, Wentling and Palma-Rivas (1998) identified four major reasons why organizations manage diversity; improving productivity and remaining competitive, forming better work relations, enhancing social responsibility, and addressing legal concerns. One hundred percent of the respondent to their survey identified improving

productivity and remaining competitive as the primary drivers of creating organizational diversity.

Various authors (Cox, 2001; Easley, 2001; Grant & Kleiner, 1997; Miller, 1998) believe that due to dramatic shifts in the demographic make-up of the labor pool and markets, organizations must adjust their structure, policies and practices to remain intact, viable and profitable. For example, Easley (2001) posited that organizations must redesign their processes of identifying, recruiting and retaining diverse individuals. Where as Cox (2001) believes that companies must modify their training and development departments, as well as their compensation and benefit programs, to reflect the organization's intentions with regards to affirmative action and diversity programs and policies.

The need to align organizational structure with policies, procedures and activities is a basic aspect of organizational theory (Daft, 2004). For example, by scanning the external environment and ascertaining the internal situations (i.e. strengths and weaknesses) specific to the company, and integrating the defined vision, mission and goals for the organization, management should have the ability to design the appropriate structure for the company, including the policies, controls, and culture (Cox, 2001; Daft, 2004).

#### *Follow-Up*

The final aspect of organizational context is follow-up or how management responds to employees' questions, activities, and behaviors after implementation of the policy or program. Cox (2001) believes that follow-up overlaps with the other two components (Leadership and Alignment) but has more of a link to implementation and

establishing accountability for results. Many leaders deal with issues of affirmative action and diversity by only communicating a set of values and expectations (Cox, 2001, Loden, 1996). By focusing on data-driven change, organizations accomplish a number of residual benefits. Firstly, by using credible and current data about the company's diversity efforts an organization communicates that its program is trustworthy and reliable (Loden, 1996). Secondly, it gives the company valuable information about the success or failure of the various activities used to support its affirmative action and diversity strategy, which allows the organization the flexibility to adjust or improve specific programs (i.e. training, recruitment, and compensation). Finally, follow-up provides valuable information in the area of knowledge management, retention and transfer (Cox, 2001). By formally measuring and documenting various objectives and key factors of a successful diversity strategy, the organization will be able to share knowledge more effectively and improve the execution of future programs and initiatives (Cox, 2001, Loden, 1996).

Therefore, hypotheses are as follows:

- H<sub>11a</sub>: The degree of an organization's context will moderate the relationship between the four EI variables and his or her perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.
- H<sub>11b</sub>: The degree of an organization's context will moderate the relationship between the five FFM variables and his or her perception of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

## Affirmative Action and Diversity

In this section of the chapter an examination of affirmative action and diversity is done. Initially, a brief history of the creation and implementation of affirmative action is provided investigating the social and political reasons for and reactions to affirmative action as it exists today. Next, Diversity, and its impact on organizations, is investigated with an emphasis on diversity management.

### *Affirmative Action*

Affirmative action, as we know it today, is a product of a legal evolution that began with President F. D. Roosevelt's effort to remove governmental barriers to the use of minorities in obtaining defense contracts during the Second World War (Gutman, 2000). Roosevelt's efforts were manifested using his power as president by issuing three executive orders (EO 8802, 9001 and 9346) prohibiting discrimination based on race, creed, color, or national origin.

In 1961, President Kennedy issued Executive Order 10925, which contained the first mention of using "*affirmative actions*" as a mean to ensure that employees are hired and treated, during their employment, fairly without regards to their race, creed, color or national origin (Eisaguirre, 1999; Gutman 2000). In addition, President Kennedy created The Committee on Equal Employment Opportunity, which used the term affirmative action to refer to measures design to achieve nondiscrimination (Eisaguirre, 1999).

Executive Order 11246, issued by President Johnson in 1965, is the act that created what we know today as affirmative action (Eisaguirre, 1999). Johnson's EO maintained Kennedy's affirmative action provision, but strengthens the application of rules by dismantling the committee and empowering the Department of Labor to write

regulations so that various federal agencies could directly impose sanctions and penalties (Gutman, 2000).

Following President Kennedy's assassination, Title VII was enacted as part of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, seeking to end discrimination by large private employers whether or not they had government contracts and establishing the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (Eisaguirre, 1999; Gutman 2000). The commission was charged with enforcing the various laws designed to prevent discrimination and resolve discrimination complaints.

As affirmative action laws became codified on the federal level they extended into state and local jurisdictions, the private sector, and finally, into the funding process of educational institutions (Eisaguirre, 1999; Gutman 2000). As a result, in the 1970s, Republican and Democratic administrations in Washington, the judicial system, and some private businesses used race and gender "conscious" remedies to end deep-rooted discrimination (Eisaguirre, 1999; Gutman 2000). For example, federal courts ordered affirmative action solutions to remedy violations of Title VII and developed, on a parallel track with the executive order program, other remedial effort to stop or end discrimination, with the courts focusing their review in the employment area (Eisaguirre, 1999).

In the 1970's a backlash against affirmative action began to develop in various sectors of society (Deslippe, 2004; Green, 2004). Concurrent with the election of Ronald Reagan, by the 1980's the stage was set for a counter-revolution (Eisaguirre, 1999). Along with the appointment of two conservative Supreme Court justices opposed to affirmative action, Reagan cuts the budget for EEOC and the Office of Federal Contract

Compliance (OFCC) limiting the agencies ability to pursue discrimination and affirmative action claims (Eisaguirre, 1999).

Some authors have placed the erosion of affirmative action policy squarely on the door of the Supreme Court (Lee, 1999; Schuck, 2002). The Adarand decision in 1995 held that all governmental (federal, state, and local) affirmative action plans had to meet a strict scrutiny test and must promote a compelling state interest and be necessary or “narrowly tailored” to be approved by the court (Eisaguirre, 1999).

This judicial redefinition of affirmative action created a ripple effect in society. In the same year as Adarand, the Fifth Circuit Court of Appeals in Hopwood v. State of Texas struck down the University of Texas Law School’s affirmative action plan (Eisaguirre, 1999). Then in 1996, the state of California passed a state initiative to end affirmative action in employment, hiring, and contracting in the state (Eisaguirre, 1999). In 1998, voters in Houston, Texas defeated a similar referendum, while voters in the state of Washington passed an anti-affirmative action initiative (Eisaguirre, 1999).

Even though most of these reactionary events affect state and local jurisdictions there appear to be additional challenges to affirmative action on the federal level. Some authors concluded that this growing sentiment reflects a belief that affirmative action harms more people than it helps (D’Souza, 1991; Easterland, 1997). Other authors believe that affirmative action has failed society and the institutions it is meant to support and improve (Bernhardt, 1993; Guernsey, 1997). However, are these perspectives valid or are they mere arguments that rely on anecdotes, personal biases and assumptions, or strictly political and social opinions (Eisaguirre, 1999)?

If affirmative action characterizes the process that companies and institutions (private and public) used to determine the extent they integrate people into the organization, then diversity describes the results and approach used to maximize human capital created by affirmative action. Even at a time when the federal government's interest in and support of affirmative action was waning, many companies found affirmative action good for business (Cox, 1993, Eisaguirre, 1999).

### *Diversity*

Diversity is a term that denotes differences between people (Loden & Rosener, 1991; Sonnenschien, 1999). But when used in an organizational context, it takes on a new meaning of opportunity, innovation, and profitability (Cox, 2001). Organizations deal with the impact and affect of affirmative action and diversity policies, laws and regulations as an everyday fact of doing business in today's competitive environment. Gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, religion, age and physical limitations are just a few of the categories used to catalog and define individuals that work for and do business with companies. While organizations try to conform to the realities of the social, legal and political aspects of affirmative action and diversity, there is one detail that appears to be overlooked - that organizations are made up of individuals that hold beliefs, values and perspectives that span the full continuum of motivational commitment (unwavering support to utter rejection) to those organizational policies.

Many authors explore the cultural and individual change brought about by issues of diversity (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Friday & Friday, 2003; Kulik & Bainbridge, 2006; Miller, 1998; Pless & Maak, 2004). For example, Dass and Parker (1999) examined the linkage between executive's perspectives and priorities to managing



workforce diversity, organizational conditions and performance. Dass and Parker's (1999) work helped identify the relationship between management decisions and cost/benefits but only validates that there is no single "best way" to manage a diverse work force. This perspective (no "best way") is supported by numerous authors (Easley, 2001; Richards & Johnson 2001; Weech-Maldonado, Dreachslin, Dansky, De Souza, & Gatto, M., 2002), whose research focused on the organization's response or strategy. Finally, Kulik and Bainbridge (2006) examine the convergence between the cognitive processes that underline perceptions and the impact of individual attributes and organizational diversity. This is the primary goal of this study. To truly understand the effectiveness of an organization's efforts concerning affirmative action and diversity, an examination of the individual's level of emotional intelligence, personality characteristics, and ethnic identity must be understood so that organizations can successfully create and implement their affirmative action and or diversity strategy.

### Conclusion

Faced with the reality of demographic changes taking place in our nation and the growth of global markets, organizations must be able to manage and maximize the diverse individuals that work for them. Understanding why an individual supports or discards the organizational goals and policies about affirmative action and diversity should be as important as understanding how organizations achieve their affirmative action and diversity objectives and goals. It is proposed that the interaction between Emotional Intelligence, Personality Characteristics, Ethnic Identity and Organizational Context supports the practicability of identifying an individual's perceptions of the company's affirmative action and diversity policies and program.

## Chapter 3

### Method

This chapter describes the approach and methods employed to study the primary dimensions associated with the Diversity Congruency Model. A description of the research subjects and the rationale for choosing this sample is included along with particulars about the study design. A discussion is offered about the instrumentation and main variables being tested. This chapter also includes a description of the approach taken to data analysis.

#### Restatement of the Research Questions

The following research questions will be addressed in this study:

1. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of perception and appraisal of his or her own and other individuals' emotions, and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
2. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's ability to use emotions in facilitating and thinking (i.e. change perspective, aid judgment, problem solving), and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
3. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of emotional understanding and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
4. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's ability to regulate emotions, within himself and others, and his perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?

5. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of extroversion and her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
6. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of agreeableness (the ability to be sympathetic, warm and compassionate about others) and his perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
7. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of conscientiousness (the capacity to be deliberate, achievement striving, and self-discipline) and her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
8. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of neuroticism (the frequency and intensity of feeling fear and anger) and his perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
9. To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's level of openness (the ability to think of different possibilities and to empathize with others in other circumstances) and her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
10. To what extent, if at all, does an individuals' degree of ethnic identity moderate the relationship between the four EI and five FFM variables, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?
11. To what extent, if at all, do the activities that take place within an individual's organization (organizational context) moderate the relationship between the four EI and

five FFM variables, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?

### Research Design

The study is a cross-sectional, exploratory, quantitative analysis based upon deductions made from the results of the administration of questionnaires. College students currently attending classes at various universities and working in paid or unpaid positions within organizations (profit or not-for-profit), or who had worked in companies (profit or not-for-profit) in the past six months were asked to participate.

Correlation, regression, multiple regressions, and analysis of variance (ANOVA) will be used to identify possible relationships between the variables identified in this study. Factor Analysis will not be used to confirm a hypothetical model or to explain the cause or effect of the variables identified in the study.

### Population

The population for this study consisted of undergraduate and graduate students working full or part-time and currently enrolled at the following universities: California State University at Los Angeles, Loyola Marymount University, and Pepperdine University.

California State University at Los Angeles (CSULA) was founded in 1957, is located in East Los Angeles and will celebrates its' 50<sup>th</sup> anniversary on 2007.

Approximately 20,000 attend the university, with 75% of the students in undergraduate programs. The student population breakdown is:

- 62% Female and 38% Male

- 52% Latino, 22% Asian, 16% White Non-Hispanic, 9% African American, and <1% Native American
- 80% U.S. Citizens, 14% Immigrant, and 6% Non-Resident Alien

Loyola Marymount University (LMU) was founded in 1911 by three Catholic communities. Eight thousand students attend the university with 56% of the student attending undergraduate classes. The student population breakdown is:

- 57% Female and 43% Male
- 19% Hispanic, 7% Asian, 54% White Non-Hispanic, 7% African American, and 1% Native American.
- 98% U.S citizen and 2% Non-Resident Alien

Pepperdine, an independent university, was founded in 1937. It currently has over 8,000 students enrolled in five colleges, with 35% of the student population attending undergraduate programs. The student population breakdown is:

- 57% Female and 43% Male
- 10% Hispanic, 10% Asian, 50% White Non-Hispanic, 7% African American, and 1% Native American
- 94% U.S citizen and 6% Non-Resident Alien

#### Sampling Frame

The sampling frame consisted of 182 students currently enrolled in business and educational degree programs at: California State University at Los Angeles, Loyola Marymount University, and Pepperdine University, and who are working in paid or unpaid positions within companies (profit or not-for-profit), or who had worked at a company (profit or not-for-profit) within the past six months. Participants from LMU and

CSULA were drawn from undergraduate (BS, BA) and graduate (MBA) business management programs, while students drawn from Pepperdine University, were in postgraduate educational programs (EDOL).

### Research Subjects

Representation from this population was drawn from undergraduate and graduate students who are working while currently enrolled in degree programs at three Universities: Pepperdine University, Loyola Marymount University, and California State University at Los Angeles.

The purpose in selecting these subjects is three-fold. First, little research on this subject matter has been collected from working individuals. The subjects identified in this study represent a wide range of job levels and positions actually involved in workplace settings. Second, the sample identified for this study should provide individuals who hold a wide range of organizational positions, responsibilities or authority. Finally, using subjects in an educational setting should garner a large number of individual who work for diverse organizations and who are themselves diverse in terms of their attitudes, backgrounds, personalities, and competence (i.e. education and skills).

### Analysis Unit

The unit of analysis for this study is the perceptions of a single undergraduate or graduate student who is working while currently enrolled in a degree program at one of three universities: Pepperdine University, Loyola Marymount University, and California State University at Los Angeles.

## Sampling Methods

A convenience sample was used for this study due to the limited accessibility of the research subjects and the time constraint of the study itself. Since this study examines the relationship between EIQ, FFM, Ethic Identity, Organizational Context and perceptions of organizational affirmative action and diversity programs and policies, the data will be used to generalize and understand any relationships that may exist between the variables identified in this study.

The sample size utilized for this study is large enough to establish statistical power. Green (1991) and Cohen (1992) support the use of effect-size indexes to determine effect (sample) size. Using Green's (1991) tables, it was determined that this study, which includes eleven predictors, should have a minimal sample size of 138.

## Procedure

Access to the universities and research subjects used in this study was fillicitated through a faculty member at each of the educational institutions. An IRB application was submitted to each institution prior to data collect to gain permission to administerd the survey instrument to the prospective subjects. In addition, as part of the application process, a request for exemption was also submitted. In each case a faculty sponser at each specific institution was required to sign the application along with the primary researcher. One of the institutions (Pepperdine University) required a signed Informed Consent Form (Appendix B and C), while the other two institutions (CSULA & LMU) approved the request for exemption (Appendix D, E, F and G). After gaining IRB approval at each institution, the primary researscher contacted instructors at the three institution via e-mail and phone calls to solicit access to classes to administer the survey.

Once access to the class was granted, the primary researcher provided an overview of the study to prospective participants and invited students to voluntarily participate by filling out the 30 minute survey. Students that volunteered were given an Informed Consent Form or Informational Form when required. The primary researcher stressed the right not to participate and assure participants that their answers would be anonymous.

In addition, the primary researcher explained to each participant that no individual score will be calculated, that their individual scores would be added to other participants to create an aggregated score for each dimension of the study. Also, participants were told that they could access the results of the study through the primary researcher.

Finally, since issues and feelings about affirmative action and diversity can cause some individuals a certain level of anxiety, the primary researcher stressed the point that each participant had the right to not answer any question that made them feel uncomfortable or to even end their participation at any point they felt uncomfortable. The primary researcher was available to any participant that wanted to talk about the survey for any follow-up question or concern.

When applicable, the primary researcher collected the Informed Consent forms and placed them in a separate envelope for storage and provided a copy of the Informed Consent Form to the participant for their record, and then passed out the survey to participants for completion. In other instances, where only an Information Form was required, participants that volunteered were given a survey to complete. In both cases, after completing the survey participants were asked to place the completed survey in an envelope located at the front of the class to maintain anonymity.



## Human Subjects Considerations

A verbal description of the survey was given to the participants prior to commencement of the data collection. A full disclosure and informed consent or an informational document was provided containing all elements required by federal guidelines disclosing the nature of the research and the subject's participation including; a) description of the research, b) possible risk, c) possible benefits, d) alternatives, e) confidentiality, f) contact information, and g) the right not to participate.

The surveys were anonymous with no identifying numbers or coding. The primary researcher will maintain the completed surveys and consent forms in a securely locked file cabinet for the duration of the study and for a period no less than five years after completion of the study. Participants will not be able to access their individual results but can review the cumulative results of the study by contacting the primary researcher through a contact channel identified on the consent form.

Due to the use of human subjects the study needed to be approved by the Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB), as well as the additional universities used in this study. Issues and factors for consideration by the review board include the following:

1. Risks to the subjects are minimized and are reasonable in relationship to anticipated benefits of the research. Risk is defined as:
  - a. Physical risk. The survey would not make use of any methods or procedures that result in physical discomfort, pain, illness injury or disease.

- b. Social-economic risk. The survey would maintain the highest level of anonymity by minimizing and or eliminating any social embarrassment or negative repercussions. There are no economic risks associated with this study.
  - c. Legal risk. The study contains no methods or procedures that would jeopardize or compromise the subject's legal rights nor persuade or influence the subject to engage in criminal behavior
  - d. Psychological risk. There is low to minimum psychological risk associated with the survey due to anonymity of each participant.
2. Selection of subjects is equitable given the purpose and setting of the research. Since students used in this study selected the specific graduate program and classes prior to the study, a reliable level of equity in selection is attained. Participation is voluntary and no coercion, incentive or reward will be used.
  3. Appropriate informed consent was sought from each participant. An informed consent form will be required prior to participation in the study. The form will meet all federal requirements for research involving human subjects.
  4. The research plan made appropriate provisions for the privacy, anonymity and confidentiality of each subject. Data monitoring provisions will be designed to ensure the privacy, anonymity and confidentiality of each subject. For example, the surveys will be given anonymously with no identifying numbers or coding. The primary researcher will maintain the completed surveys and consent forms in a securely locked file cabinet for the duration of the study and for a period no less than five years after completion of the study.

Participants will not be able to access their individual results, but can review the cumulative results of the study by contacting the primary researcher through a contact channel identified on the consent form.

#### Instrumentation

A battery of seven quantitative self-report questionnaires was used to gather data for this study (see Table 1). Demographic data was collected which included: gender, age, marital status, education, income, and ethnicity. Survey questions related to the various parts of the model consisted of instruments currently used by researchers and questions adapted from the literature (see Appendix H).

The subjects of affirmative action and diversity are sensitive matters to many individuals, as such; respondents could provide answers to the survey questions in a self-serving manner to project a favorable image of themselves. To control for the possibility of respondents providing answers that are socially acceptable the study will make use of the Strahan-Gerbasi short-form scale MC-1 (1972). The MC-1 scale will be used as a control for the study and supplement the demographic section of the survey instrument. Permission to use the MC-1 Scale is provided in Appendix I. Finally, due to limited resources, this study will only be able to collect data on a partial number of respondents and from that sample make inferences to support or reject the hypotheses presented.

## Measures

Table 1

*Survey Variables and Scales*

Survey	Items	High	Low
Emotional Intelligence (EQSDI)	24	5	1
Five-Factor Model of Personality (BFI)	44	5	1
Ethnic Identity (MEIM)	15	5	1
Organizational Context (OCPI)	16	5	1
Perceptions of Affirmative Action and Diversity (AADPI)	20	5	1
Demographic Data	17	N/A	N/A
Social Desirability Scale	10	N/A	N/A

### *Emotional Intelligence*

The EQSDI measure consists of 24 items and will use a response scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). The scores of the instrument will be interpreted based on the scale used in the survey. Permission to use the EQSDI is provided in Appendix J.

When evaluated against other personality dimensions, the EQSDI four dimensions were slightly correlated, ranging from  $r = .30$  to  $.48$ . This indicated that dimensions share some variance, but are not identical. Internal reliability estimates for the PA, FT, UE, and RE factors were  $.80$ ,  $.72$ ,  $.82$ , and  $.79$  correspondingly (Groves, et al., 2008). When Groves, et al. (2008) evaluated EQSDI's reliability over time, using the same test group the factors were  $.79$ ,  $.75$ ,  $.83$ , and  $.81$ , these findings give supporting proof of the

structure and scale reliability of the measure. The discriminate validity of the EQSDI among the EI scales and personality dimensions was -.20 to .34 (Groves, et al., 2008). When compared to the Big-Five dimensions the strongest means correlation was found between the EQSDI elements and the conscientiousness (.27), extraversion (.26), and openness to experience (.25) dimensions (Groves, et al., 2008). The findings of Groves, et al. (2008) provide preliminary evidence of EQSDI's discriminate validity.

#### *The Big-Five Inventory Test*

The Big-Five Inventory Test (BFI) consists of 44 items and will use a response scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). The scores of the instrument will be interpreted based on the scale used in the instrument. Permission to use the BFI is provided in Appendix K.

When evaluating the BFI we find the test has an average reliability across all five dimensions measured of 0.83, with a reliability of 0.88 for Extroversion, 0.79 for Agreeableness, 0.82 for Conscientiousness, 0.84 for Neuroticism and 0.81 for Openness (John & Srivastava, 1999). John and Srivastava (1999) found that the BFI, when compared to the Trait Descriptive Adjectives (TDA), and the NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO) has a standardized validity coefficient average of 0.92. Overall discriminate validity for the BFI is 0.20.

#### *Multi-Ethnic Identity Measure*

The MEIM measure consists of 15 items and will use a response scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). The scores of the instrument will be interpreted based on the scale used in the instrument. Permission to use the MEIM is provided in Appendix L.

The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) consists of two factors a) ethnic identity search (a developmental and cognitive component), and b) affirmation, belonging and commitment, an affective component (Phinney, 1992). Based on evidence from published studies using the Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM) the reliability alphas have ranged between 0.81 (Goodstein & Ponterotto, 1997; Phinney, 1992) to 0.92 (Taub, 1995), with a mean of 0.86 for the ethnic identity component (Ponterotto et al., 2003).

Using Factor analysis and convergence with measures of parallel constructs, Phinney (1992) identified a variance of 0.20 for the ethnic identity component in a study of high school students and a variance of 0.31 for the ethnic identity component in a study of college students. Ponterotto et al. (2003) found that Ethnic Identity scores have shown some relationship to other constructs (acculturation and ethnic self-concept).

#### *Organizational Context*

The OCPI measure (Appendix M) consists of 16 items and used a response scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). The scores of the instrument will be interpreted based on the scale used in the instrument.

Survey questions related to the Organizational Construct (OC) variable of the model were adapted from the literature. The factors, described earlier in chapter two, consist of: Leadership, Alignment and Follow-up, provide a basis for measuring organizational construct. The construct is operationalized in terms of an individual's perception of the organization's level of the three attributes identified. Sample questions include: "Does the organization has a clear affirmative action or diversity mission/vision

statement?” and “Does the organization promotes qualified individuals of diverse backgrounds?”

The questions, for the OCPI instrument were created by the primary researcher, then reviewed by academic and organizational subject matter experts, in human resource management, for content and face validity, and pilot tested using working adults from local universities and employees from local businesses located in Los Angeles who are currently enrolled in educational programs (Appendix O). A reliability test was done, using SPSS, to determine the Cronbach Alpha with a reliability estimate for the OCPI variable of 0.93.

#### *Perception of Affirmative Action and Diversity Programs and Policies*

The AADPI measure (Appendix N) consists of 20 items and uses a response scale ranging from Strongly Agree (5) to Strongly Disagree (1). The scores of the instrument will be interpreted based on the scale used for the instrument.

Survey questions related to the Perception of Affirmative Action and Diversity Programs and Policies (AA/D) variable of the model were adapted from the literature. The construct is operationalized in terms of an individual’s perception of the organization’s affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. The questions will ask the subject to respond based on their perception. Sample questions include: “Do Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies have a positive effect on productivity?” and “Do Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies benefit organizations?”

The questions, for the AADPI measure were created by the primary researcher, then reviewed by academic and organizational subject matter experts, in human resource

management, for content and face validity, and pilot tested using working adults from local universities and employees from local businesses located in Los Angeles who currently enrolled in educational programs (Appendix O). A reliability test was done, using SPSS, to determine the Cronbach Alpha of 0.74 for the AADPI variable.

#### *Demographic Data*

The demographic measure includes 27 items. This section includes basic statistical descriptor questions about the respondents: gender, education level, socioeconomic level.

#### *Social Desirability Scale*

The Strahan-Gerbasi short-form Social Desirability Scale MC-1 (1972) uses a response scale of true and false. Sample questions include: “You always try to practice what you preach?” and “You like to gossip at times?” The scores of the instrument will be interpreted based on the scale used for the instrument. According to Thomas and Phua (2005), Fischer and Fick (1993) found the Strahan-Gerbasi instrument to be most reliable among student samples and have been widely used in social science literature.

#### *Data Analysis*

This study identified correlations and relationships between different variables. All variables being measured, except for the demographic data, are interval level. Data was analyzed using SPSS statistical software. First, reliability estimates were calculated for all scales. Then descriptive statistics were calculated for all variables including means and standard deviations.

Hypotheses 1-9, created from the research questions were tested using Pearson’s bivariate correlational analysis to identify relationships between the variables. When



interpreting the product of the correlation tests the study used the guidelines offered by Cohen (1988) to describe the statistical results. Cohen used terms such as negative, positive, weak, moderate, and strong to describe the statistical significance between two variables. According to the author the use of these terms are somewhat subjective because the interpretation of the correlation coefficient depends on the context purposes.

Hypotheses 10a, 10b, 11a, and 11b were tested with regression analysis, using the perceptions of affirmative action and diversity as the dependent variable, that followed the following process: a) control variables were entered first; b) then emotional intelligence and personality factors were added; c) next ethnic identity and organizational context was then tested for direct influence; and d) finally, ethnic identity and organizational context were tested as moderators in the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality factors, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed to understand differences between groups with regards to the dependent variable used in this study.

## Chapter 4

### Results

This chapter presents the results of the data gathered to address the research questions and related hypotheses proposed by this study. The sources and description of the data, statistical tests employed, and the findings for the hypotheses are presented through out this chapter. Before the analysis was done, missing data was replaced. A number of the surveys collected from the participants had incomplete items for the continuous variables identified. Missing data, 257 (1.1%) of the 21,294 data points, were replaced using the means associated with each variable.

Reliability estimates were calculated for all scales, and a correlation matrix was calculated to better understand the relationships among the variables and to test hypotheses 1 through 9. The results are shown in Table 3.

Hypotheses 10a, 10b, 11a, and 11b were tested with regression analysis, using the perceptions of affirmative action and diversity as the dependant variable, that followed the following process: a) control variables were entered first; b) emotional intelligence and personality factors were added; c) organizational context and ethnic identify were tested for direct influence; and finally d) organizational and ethnic identify were tested as moderators in the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality factors, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. This approach is suggested by various authors (Baron & Kenny, 1986, Braten, Samuelson, & Stromso, 2004) when appraising the effect of a moderating variable between the dependent and independent variables. The results of the regression test are shown in Tables 4 and 5.

Table 2.

Means and Correlations of Study Variables (N=182) <sup>a</sup>

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	
1. DA	3.34	.44	-																			
2. BFE	3.39	.72	-.03																			
3. BFA	3.73	.55	.37**	.18**																		
4. BFC	3.78	.55	.10	.20**	.41**																	
5. BFN	2.71	.66	-.00	-.34**	-.40**	-.47**																
6. BFO	3.67	.58	-.13*	.38**	.16*	-.22**	-.18**															
7. PE	3.88	.54	.02	.26**	.23**	.24**	-.11	.32**														
8. FE	3.78	.49	.23**	.24**	.22**	.06	.05	.29**	.28**													
9. UE	3.85	.56	.12*	.24**	.23**	.16*	-.12*	.37**	.69**	.39**												
10. RE	3.96	.55	.22*	.38**	.47**	.32**	-.18**	.31**	.43**	.39**	.49**											
11. OC	3.01	.81	.30**	.07	.16*	.19*	-.03	-.02	-.03	.11	.00	.14*										
12. MEIM	3.86	.67	.21*	.08	.15*	.18**	-.17**	.15*	.11	.15*	.18**	.22**	.22**									
13. SD	N/A	N/A	-.00	.00	.02	-.02	.09	.08	.09	.17*	.11	.10	-.10	.04								
14. AGE	N/A	N/A	.16*	.05	.17*	.19**	-.12	.12*	.02	.04	.03	.19*	.19**	.03	-.03							
15. GENDER	N/A	N/A	.28**	-.10	.13*	.11	.18**	-.20**	-.00	.04	.06	.13	.12	.22**	-.00	-.03						
16. ETHNICITY	N/A	N/A	.05	.12	-.01	-.00	.13*	-.00	.00	.04	-.00	.05	.09	-.06	-.20**	.01	.14*					
17. YRS on JOB	N/A	N/A	.08	.01	.13*	.09	-.05	.02	-.04	-.05	-.01	.10	.13*	.10	-.58	.57**	-.14*	.05				
18. YRS of EXP	N/A	N/A	.10	.03	.15*	.22**	-.11	.11	.03	.02	.04	.18**	.11	.08	-.01	.79**	-.00	-.03	.52**			
19. WRK STS	N/A	N/A	-.03	-.20**	-.09	-.17*	.17*	-.14*	-.08	-.02	-.12	-.09	-.01	-.09	-.00	-.15*	-.00	-.00	-.17*	-.14*		

\* $p \leq .05$ . \*\* $p \leq .01$

<sup>a</sup> Reliability estimates are shown on the diagonal

Table 3.

*Regression Results for Perceptions of Diversity/Affirmative Action Policies*

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Variable	$\beta$	$\beta$	$\beta$
Age	.139	.090	.086
Gender	.369*	.222*	.196*
Ethnicity	-.050	-.068	-.060
Yrs in Current Job	.034	-.024	-.054
Yrs of Work Exp	-.054	-.022	.000
Work Status	.018	.034	.029
Social Desirability	.004	-.039	-.031
	$F=3.11 (7,138)$		
PE		-.169	-.141
FE		.215*	.196*
UE		-.032	.125
RE		.038	-.042
BFE		.035	.029
BFA		.355*	.346*
BFC		.040	-.010
BFN		.065	.057
BFO		-.227*	-.220*
		$F=3.779 (16,138)$	
MEIM			.037
OC			.157
			$F=3.686 (18,138)$

\* $p \leq .05$

Table 4.

*Moderated Regression Results for Perceptions of Diversity/Affirmative Action Policies*

Variable	Step 4a	Step 4b
	$\beta$	$\beta$
Age	.155	.073
Gender	.188	.259*
Ethnicity	-.040	-.046
Yrs in Current Job	-.058	-.044
Yrs of Work Exp	-.037	-.014
Work Status	.016	.026
Social Desirability	-.040	-.008
MEIM x PE	-.298	
MEIM x FE	.322*	
MEIM x UE	.252	
MEIM x RE	-.082	
MEIM x BFE	.026	
MEIM x BFA	.490*	
MEIM x BFC	-.049	
MEIM x BFN	-.011	
MEIM x BFO	-.467*	
	$F=3.726 (16,138)$	
OC x PE		-.258
OC x FE		.462*
OC x UE		.265
OC x RE		-.175
OC x BFE		-.009
OC x BFA		.690*
OC x BFC		-.225
OC x BFN		-.097
OC x BFO		-.403*
	$F=3.866 (16,138)$	

\* $p \leq .05$ 

## Overview of the Data Collection Process

The data for this study was gathered from graduate and undergraduate students attending three southern California universities. Students currently working in paid or unpaid positions within organizations (profit or not-for-profit), or who had worked in companies (profit or not-for-profit) in the past six months were asked to participate in the study. A battery of seven quantitative surveys was administered to various participants

over the course of six months during the Spring, Summer, and Fall semester/quarters at each institution. Access was granted to each student via the faculty advisor, at each institution, and the individual professor of each class. Surveys were completed by voluntary participants during the class session and were collected by the primary investigator after completion. Data was entered into SPSS, statistical software, for analysis.

### Description of the Data

The data set includes responses from 182 respondents. In many studies, similar to this one, demographic characteristics are used as control variables. The demographic data collected allows the researcher to compare differences between groups, as well as, make inferences about the data and the groups that provide the information.

The demographic data was collected to describe the characteristic of the sample. The diversity and affirmative action (AADPI), emotional intelligence (EQSDI), personality (BFI), organizational context (OCPI), and ethnic identity (MEIM) were collect to test hypotheses and making inferences.

### Demographic Analysis by Group

Descriptive statistics were calculated for all variables, as shown in Table 6, with the following results provided for each variable:

- Gender- Analysis of this demographic segment reflects the cumulative effect of the demographic breakdown of the three universities used in the study. For example, at each one of the universities the dominant gender is female. In this case, the sample consisted of responses from 182 participants with 39.1% participants reporting gender as male and 60.9% as female.

- **Ethnicity-** Regarding ethnicity, two of the institutions are predominately White-Non Hispanic, with the third institution predominantly Hispanic. Of the 182 respondents 29.8% of the participants reported ethnicity as White, 22.7% as Hispanic, 11.0% as African American, 18.8% as Asian, 7.2% selected “Mixed,” and 4.4% reported ethnicity as “Other.” There were 6.1% of respondent identifying multiple ethnicities, without marking “Mixed.”
- **Age-** As expected the largest age group was the 18-29 years old with 57.2% of respondents. Two of three universities have a majority of undergraduate students, with the third institution targeting older individuals seeking postgraduate degrees. Each of the institution schedule evening classes, this factor was reflected by the percentage of participants over the age of 30 at 42.8%.
- **Marital status-** A majority of participants (52.7%) identified themselves as unmarried, with 47.3% identified as married.
- **Number of hours worked -** The study found that 73.4% of respondents work 30 or more hours per week, with 26.6% working less than twenty hours per week.
- **Work experience-** The 89.6% respondents had four or more years of work experience, with 10.4% having three or less years.
- **Work status-** The survey found that 41.7% respondents identified themselves as employed in managerial positions with 50.6% identifying themselves as union or non-union/non-management. The smallest segments were found in the contract-consultant category 6.5% and the intern-multiple categories with .6% and .6% respectively,
- **Highest level of education-** Considering the type of participants and the institutions used for this study, it was found that 42.9% of respondents did not have an

undergraduate degree. Another 28.6% of respondents had their bachelor's degree (BA-BS), with an additional 28% of respondents having their Masters. Only 0.5 % of respondents in the survey had a Doctoral Degree.

- Religious importance- With regards to religious importance, 53.8% of respondents ranked religion as very important or important in their lives, with 23.9% as marginal and 21.7% responding that religion is marginal or not very important.
- Religious affiliation- There were 37.9% of respondents who identified themselves being Catholic, 8.6% as Protestants, 2.3% Jewish, 0.6% as Islamic, 9.8% as Buddhist, 13.2 as non-denominational, 24.1% as other and .5% as no religious affiliation.
- Income levels- With respect to annual individual income, 54.8% of respondents earn \$50K or less and 45.2% that earn over \$50K.
- Institution- A majority of respondents 59.3% were from California State University of Los Angeles. Next, was Loyola Marymount University at 23.1%, and followed by Pepperdine University at 17.6%.



Table 5

*Demographic Characteristics of the Study's Respondents*

Variable	Variable Name & Value	Percentage
Gender	Gender	
Male	1	39.1
Female	2	60.9
Ethnicity	Ethnicity	
African American	1	11.0
Asian	2	18.8
White	3	29.8
Hispanic	4	22.7
Native American	5	0.00
Mixed	6	7.2
Other	7	4.4
Multiple Selection	8	6.1
Age	Age	
18-29	1	57.2
30-39	2	25.0
40-49	3	11.1
50-59	4	5.6
60-69	5	1.1
70 or Older	6	0.0
Marital Status	MStatus	
Married	1	47.3
Single	2	34.6
Unmarried but in Relationship	3	18.1
Number of hours worked per week	Numhrswork	
Less than 10	1	3.9
11-20	2	13.8
21-30	3	8.8
31-40	4	28.7
41-50	5	37.0
More than 50	6	7.7

*(table continues)*

Variable	Variable Name & Value	Percentage
Work Status	Wrkstatus	
Manager	1	28.0
Director	2	9.5
Sr. Management	3	4.2
Union	4	16.7
Non-union/Non-Management	5	33.9
Contract-Consultant	6	6.5
Multiple Selections	7	0.6
Intern	8	0.6
Highest level of education	Highdegree	
High School Diploma	1	13.7
Associate's	2	29.1
Bachelor's Degree (BA-BS)	3	28.6
Master's Degree	4	28.0
PH.D	5	0.5
Religious importance	Religiousimp	
Very important	1	28.3
Important	2	26.1
Average	3	23.9
Marginal	4	7.8
Not very important	5	13.9
Religious affilation	Relgaffiliation	
Protestant	1	8.6
Catholic	2	37.9
Evangelical	3	2.9
Judaism	4	2.3
Islamic	5	0.6
Buddhism	6	9.8
Non-denominational	7	13.2
Other	8	24.1
None	9	0.6

(table continues)

Variable	Variable Name & Value	Percentage
Income Level	Annualsalary	
0-10,000	1	7.9
10,001-20,000	2	13.6
20,001-30,000	3	12.4
30,001-40,000	4	10.7
40,001-50,000	5	10.2
50,001-60,000	6	8.5
60,001-70,000	7	9.6
70,001-80,000	8	5.1
80,001-90,000	9	4.0
90,001-100,000	10	6.8
Over 100,000	11	11.3
Institution	Institution	
CSULA	1	59.3
Pepperdine	2	17.6
Loyola	3	23.1

#### ANOVA Analysis

Additional analysis was performed on the demographic variables using ANOVA to test for homogeneity and intergroup differences in perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. In this analysis, a number of significant dynamics were identified.

The first demographic category evaluated is gender. There was a significant difference ( $F=14.01$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), with women averaging a value of 3.4 for the diversity and affirmative action variable and men averaging 3.1. Since there were only two groups in the demographic, no post hoc analysis were performed.

With regards to the Ethnicity variable it was confirmed that there was a significant difference between the groups and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity ( $F=2.70$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ). Using the least-significant difference (LSD) test it was found

that there was a significant means difference between African-Americans (3.5), Hispanics (3.4) and Whites (3.2). The study found that there was also a significant means difference between individual that identified themselves as Mixed (3.1) and African-American and Hispanic.

The next group difference that was analyzed, using ANOVA, was Age. Once again there was a significant difference between age groups ( $F=2.74$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ), The LSD test determined that the highest means score for the DA variable existed in the 60-69 years old group (4.0) this was significantly higher than the other age groups 18-29 (3.2), 30-39 (3.2), 40-49 (3.5), and the 50-59 (3.3).

When an examination of various work factors (years of experience, salary, hours worked, and status) was performed, using ANOVA, the only significant difference found between groups was the demographic category of work status ( $F=2.18$ ;  $p \leq .05$ ), Managers had a mean average of 3.3, Directors 3.1, Sr. Management 3.5, Union employees 3.4, Non-union/Non-management 3.5, Contract/Consultant 3.1, Multiple 2.1, and Interns 3.1. No post hoc test was done because at least one group had fewer than two cases (Intern and Multiple positions).

This study also examined, using ANOVA, the possible differences between the institutions used to collect data and perspectives of DA. The study found that there was a significant difference between the three institutions ( $F=3.55$ ;  $p \leq .01$ ), When using the LSD test post hoc the study found a significant means difference between California State University of Los Angeles (3.7) and Loyola Marymount University (3.3) and Pepperdine University (2.5).

The final area of analysis using ANOVA was on religious importance. Once again there was a significant difference between groups ( $F=3.63; p \leq .01$ ), Individuals who identified religion as very important to them had means score of 3.4 while individual that identified their religious magnitude as important (3.3), average (3.2), marginal (3.1) and not very important (3.1) had significantly lower means score for their diversity and affirmative action variable.

### Reliability Analysis

Even though this study used previously developed scales for various constructs such as personality, emotional intelligence and ethnic identity, reliability estimates were still conducted to assess all measures used and confirm each scale using the Cronbach's Alpha test. Internal consistency reliability estimates for the scales are as follows:

- Big-Five Inventory had internal reliability estimates of .75 for Agreeableness, .76 for Conscientious, .79 for Neuroticism, .80 for Openness, and .85 for Extroversion
- The Emotional Intelligence Self Description Inventory had internal reliability estimates of .65 for Facilitate Thinking, .79 for Perception and Appraisal, .79 for Regulating, and .84 for Understanding Emotions
- Multi-Ethnic Identity Measure had an internal reliability estimate of .88
- Organizational Context Perception Instrument had an internal reliability estimate of .94
- Affirmative Action-Diversity Perception Instrument had an internal reliability estimate of .80

## Correlation Analysis

Hypotheses 1 through 9 were analyzed using simple correlation. Each scale's score was calculated by aggregating each respondent's score for the specific dimension and then adding the aggregated scores together for all respondents and obtaining an average for the variable. Since perceptions of affirmative action and diversity is the dependent variable in the regression section of this chapter, each hypothesis is evaluated and analyzed independently against affirmative action and diversity perceptions scores.

### *Hypothesis 1*

Hypothesis 1 stated that an individual's level of perception and appraisal, of his and her own and other individuals' emotions will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for perception and appraisal the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. Subsequently no significant correlation was found between these two dimensions ( $r = .02$ ). Therefore, this hypothesis is not supported.

### *Hypothesis 2*

Hypothesis 2 stated that an individual's level of facilitating thinking, using emotions (i.e. change perspective, aid judgment, problem solving), will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for facilitating thinking the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. A weak significant, positive correlation was found between these two variables. The Pearson Correlation coefficient representing the association between affirmative

action-diversity and facilitate thinking was  $r = .23$  with  $p \leq .01$ . Therefore, hypothesis 2 is supported.

### *Hypothesis 3*

Hypothesis 3 stated that an individual's level of emotional understanding would be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for understanding the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. A weak significant positive correlation was found between these two dimensions. The Pearson Correlation coefficient representing the association between affirmative action-diversity and emotional understanding was  $r = .12$  with  $p \leq .05$ . Therefore, hypothesis 3 is supported.

### *Hypothesis 4*

Hypothesis 4 stated that an individual's level of regulating emotion, in himself and others, would be positively related to his perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for regulating emotion the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. A weak significant positive correlation was found between these two dimensions. The Person Correlation coefficient representing the association between affirmative action-diversity and regulating emotion was  $r = .22$  with  $p \leq .01$ . Therefore, hypothesis 4 is supported.

### *Hypothesis 5*

Hypothesis 5 stated that an individual's level of extroversion would be positively related to his perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for extroversion the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. Subsequently no significant correlation was found between these two dimensions ( $r = -.03$ ). Therefore, hypothesis 5 is not supported.

### *Hypothesis 6*

Hypothesis 6 stated that an individual's level of agreeableness (the ability to be sympathetic, warm and compassionate about others) would be positively related to her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for agreeableness the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. A moderate significant positive correlation was found between these two dimensions. The Pearson Correlation coefficient representing the association between affirmative action-diversity and agreeableness was  $r = .37$  with  $p \leq .01$ . Therefore, hypothesis 6 is supported.

### *Hypothesis 7*

Hypothesis 7 stated that an individual's level of conscientious (the capacity to be deliberate, achievement striving, and self-disciplined) will be positively related to her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for conscientious the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. Subsequently no



significant correlation was found between these two dimensions ( $r = .10$ ). Therefore, this hypothesis is not supported.

#### *Hypothesis 8*

Hypothesis 8 stated that an individual's level of neuroticism (the frequency and intensity of feeling fear and anger) would be negatively related to his perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for neuroticism the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. Subsequently no significant correlation was found between these two dimensions ( $r = -.00$ ), so hypothesis 8 is not supported.

#### *Hypothesis 9*

Hypothesis 9 stated that an individual's level of openness (the ability to think of different possibilities and to empathize with others in other circumstances) would be positively related to her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. It is proposed that the higher the score for openness the higher the perception of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. A weak significant negative correlation was found between these two dimensions. The Pearson Correlation coefficient representing the association between affirmative action-diversity and openness was  $r = -.13$  with  $p \leq .05$ . Therefore, hypothesis 9 is supported.

#### Regression Analysis

As stated earlier, hypotheses 10a, 10b, 11a, and 11b were tested with regression analysis, using the perceptions of affirmative action and diversity as the dependent variable, that followed the following process: a) control variables were entered first; b)

emotional intelligence and personality factors were added; c) organizational context and ethnic identity were added to step 3 equation and tested for direct influence; and finally d) organizational and ethnic identify were tested as a moderater in the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality factors, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

#### *Hypothesis 10a*

Hypothesis 10a stated that an individual's degree of Ethnic Identity would moderate the relationship between the four EI variables and an individual's perception of affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. To test hypothesis 10a, the four-step process identified was followed. The final regression equation, testing moderation was significant ( $F(16,138) = 3.372; p \leq .05$ ); thus, Hypothesis 10a was supported.

#### *Hypothesis 10b*

Hypothesis 10a stated that an individual's degree of Ethnic Identity would moderate the relationship between the five FFM variables and an individual's perception of affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. To test the hypothesis 10b, the four-step process identified was followed. The final regression equation, testing moderation was significant ( $F(16,138) = 3.726; p \leq .05$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 10b was supported.

#### *Hypothesis 11a*

Hypothesis 11a stated that the degree of an organization's context would moderate the relationship between the four EI variables and individual's perception of an affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. To test hypothesis 11a, the four-

step process identified was followed. The final regression equation, testing moderation was significant ( $F(16,138) = 3.866; p \leq .05$ ); Thus, Hypothesis 11a was supported.

#### *Hypothesis 11b*

Hypothesis 11b stated that the degree of an organization's context would moderate the relationship between the five FFM variables and individual's perception of an affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. To test hypothesis 11a, the four-step process identified was followed. The final regression equation, testing moderation was significant ( $F(16,138) = 3.866; p \leq .05$ ). Thus, Hypothesis 11b was supported.

#### *Items of Interest*

After analyzing the data, it was evident that there existed numerous items of interest that required investigation. In this section of the chapter an examination of additional correlations found between the control variables are presented.

#### *Correlation Analysis*

Within the control variables, gender and age appeared to have a weak statistically significant positive correlation with perceptions of affirmative action and diversity, gender had an  $r = .28$  with  $p \leq .01$  and age had an  $r = .16$  with  $p \leq .05$ . Another finding that captures one's attention is the significant correlation between BFI dimension of extroversion and each of the individual elements of the BFI and the EQSDI measures. There was only three occasions (Conscientious-Facilitate Thinking  $r = .06$ ; Neuroticism-Perception-Appraisal and Neuroticism  $r = -.11$ ; Facilitate Thinking and Neuroticism  $r = .05$ ) where there was not a weak to moderate significant positive correlation between specific BFI and EQSDI dimension.

Examining the moderator variable of ethnic identity, the study found that there was a weak statistically significant relationship between ethnic identity and Agreeableness ( $r = .15$  with  $p \leq .05$ ), Conscientious ( $r = .18$  with  $p \leq .01$ ), Neuroticism ( $r = -.17$  with  $p \leq .01$ ), Openness ( $r = .15$  with  $p \leq .05$ ), Facilitate Thinking ( $r = .15$  with  $p \leq .05$ ), Understanding ( $r = .18$  with  $p \leq .01$ ), Regulating ( $r = .22$  with  $p \leq .01$ ), and Organizational Context ( $r = .22$  with  $p \leq .01$ ).

### Summary

In summary, this study employed two types of analysis to explore the relationship among emotional intelligence, personality, ethnic identity, organizational context, and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. Initially simple correlation was used to determine if a relationship existed between the variables identified. Next, regression was employed to determine the moderating effect of ethnic identity and organizational context on perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. In addition to the quantitative analysis identified above, analysis was performed on the demographic responses creating, from the primarily categorical data, descriptive and frequencies summaries for each category. Finally, a post hoc analysis was done, on the demographic data, using ANOVA to discern if there were significant differences between groups and perceptions of DA.

Results support nearly all of the proposed hypothesizes. Eight significant relationships were established by the data, and based on the individual's perceptions:

1. Agreeableness was significantly and positively correlated to DA.
2. Openness was significantly , but negatively correlated to DA
3. Facilitating thinking was significantly and positively correlated to DA.
4. Understanding emotions was significantly and positively correlated to DA.

5. Regulating emotions was significantly and positively correlated to DA.
6. Ethnic Identity was found to moderate the relationship between EI and DA.
7. Ethnic Identity was found to moderate the relationship between FFM and DA.
8. Organizational context found to moderate the relationship between EI and DA.
9. Organizational context was found to moderate the relationship between FFM and DA.

## Chapter 5

### Discussion

This study examined the relationship among several factors that were hypothesized to explain perceptions of organizational diversity and affirmative action. While attention is given to setting organizational policies and devising programs that support diversity, acceptance of such policies and programs is crucial to the success and effectiveness of an organization's diversity efforts. However, little is known about why some policies and programs are accepted and perceptions of diversity and affirmative action policies and programs must be taken into account.

This is the first study that examines the relationship among emotional intelligence, personality factors, as well as as the moderating effect of organizational context and ethnic identity between EI and personality and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. The study proposes that positive perceptions of affirmative action and diversity, as supported by it findings, will lead to greater employee acceptance of an organization's diversity and affirmative action policies and programs. As such, thirteen hypotheses were posited to explore the relationships between the constructs based upon the participants' perceptions.

A discussion of the 11 research questions and their corresponding hypotheses is provided. Also presented in this chapter are; implications, utility of results, limitations, post hoc discussion, suggestions for future research, and conclusion.

## Research Question # 1

Research question #1 asked: “To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual’s level of perception and appraisal of his or her own and other individuals’ emotions, and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?” To investigate this question we tested the hypothesis for this research question, using correlation, and found no statistically significant relationship between perception and appraisal and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. This finding was surprising because many authors (Cherniss, 2000; Goleman, 1998; Matthews, et al., 2004) support the belief that this dimension of EI gives individuals the social and emotional competence to deal with and adjust to stressful environments in the workplace, or society creating healthy outcomes. In addition, one can infer from the literature that there should be a positive correlation between all dimensions of EI and perception of affirmative action and diversity.

There could be numerous reasons for this disconnect between the perception and appraisal aspect of the EQSDI instrument and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. First, one of the abilities a person high in perception and appraisal has is the ability to discriminate between accurate/honest and inaccurate/dishonest feelings (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey, Mayer & Caruso, 2003; Salovey, et al., in press). One could infer that this ability could also discern the context or impact of diversity and affirmative action policies and program. So, if the individual perceives diversity or affirmative action outcomes within the organization as being negative, inconsistent, discriminatory and unfair, they could reject the policies and programs associated with diversity and affirmative action.

Another reason for the finding is the possibility that this dimension of EI could have no connection at all to diversity and affirmative action. In other words, emotions are emotions and programs/policies are programs/policies. This could mean that the finding is correct and there is no significant relationship between the two variables of perception and appraisal, and diversity and affirmative action.

Also, this finding, of no statistical significance between the variables, could be a product of the sample. For example, a number of respondents worked in union and non-management positions in organizations (50.6%). One could infer that due to their position within the organization, they have a limited exposure to the policy and objectives of the company's diversity and affirmative action programs. In addition, 42.8% of respondents only completed high school or received an Associate's degree. This could mean that there is a possibility that their understanding about organizational strategy influenced their perception of diversity and affirmative action, thereby supporting the finding that there is not a significant relationship between this dimension of EI and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

#### Research Question # 2

The second research question asked: "To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individual's ability to use emotions in facilitating and thinking (i.e. change perspective, aid judgment, and problem-solving), and his or her perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?" The study found a statistically significant relationship between facilitating thinking and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. This finding supports the work of numerous authors (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey et al., 2003; Salovey et al., in press) who believe that individuals high in



facilitating thinking have the ability to appreciate multiple points of view. For example, Mayer & Salovey (1997) posited that individuals high in this dimension of EI have the ability to use emotional states to facilitate problem solving and creativity. One can presume that no other societal topics like diversity and affirmative action dictate the ability to develop unique and different strategies to achieve organizational goals and objectives due to the evolving changes within our culture. Therefore, a relationship between facilitating thinking and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity is an outcome that was validated by the survey respondents.

Another area of research that this study validates is the work of Cherniss (2000), Matthew et al. (2004), and Salovey et al. (2002) who write that this dimension of EI could contribute to increase affirmative action and diversity acceptance due to individual's abilities to facilitate better judgment and memory. For example, one could infer that individuals high in facilitate thinking are able to make an unbiased decision based on their perception of the justness of diversity and affirmative action, as tools to rectify past discriminations. In other words, individual are able to merge the historical perspective of our culture's struggle for equality and opportunity for all, with the current efforts to put those strategies, through legislation and business strategies, into practice.

Organizational implications produced by this finding could create a number of possible responses, specifically in the area of employee training and development. For example, Cherniss (2000) put forward that individuals receive EI training that focuses on real-life simulations to help individuals create better decision-making processes, or role-play, to glean out aspects of unconscious biases. Another application of EI that organizations could focus on is in the area of personnel selection. Cherniss (2000)

suggested the use of behavioral event interviews to identify positive and negative workplace situations, and outcomes, to understand what individuals thought about the events. Both examples suggest that organizations help employees, through training, to understand the way emotions can influence the way they think and make decisions, and help them improve this dimension of EI.

### Research Question # 3

The relationship between individuals' level of emotional understanding and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies was found to be statistically significant. Once again, this was to be expected since individuals high in this dimension of EI have the ability to integrate their emotions and behaviors in numerous ways (Salovey et al., 2002).

For example, this study supports the work of Mayer and Salovey (1997) who believe that individuals high in understanding are able to grasp the relationship between various emotions, specifically in understanding complex feelings, and contradictory states. One could conclude that the attributes associated with this dimension of EI allow individuals to reconcile the internal and external turmoil caused by issues created by diversity and affirmative action.

This study supports the literature by validating the theory that individuals high in this dimension are able to rationalize the cognitive dissonance created by an organization that says one thing and do another (Cherniss, 2000; Matthews et al., 2004; Salovey et al., 2002). This ability not only applies to individuals in the majority, but individuals in the minority. For example, minority members would continue to hold on to their beliefs about diversity and affirmative action even though the organization just talks the talk. In

the case of individuals that are in the majority and may not necessarily support diversity and affirmative action, they could apply the information, programs, and policies provided by the organization, about the need to honestly deal with diversity and affirmative action, to begin an internal dialog that challenges their base beliefs and values that might be in conflict with the changes happening all around them.

The organizational implications cover a wide range of activities that companies can engage in to bolster employees' perceptions about affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. One area the literature specifically supports is the belief that understanding emotions is vital to how leaders are viewed by employees (Caruso et al., 2003). For example, in the implementation of any affirmative action or diversity program leaders must be aware of employees' emotions and what their feeling could lead to-in the case of this study, acceptance or rejection of the company's diversity strategy. Again Cherniss (2000) suggest the development of a process that will help discern whether individuals' don't just say they feel good about change (brought about by diversity), but also whether they make tangible and meaningful changes in their behavior in the workplace. This suggests that employees should see their leaders and managers not only say the right things but act the right way with regards to affirmative action and diversity.

#### Research Question # 4

The study found a statistically significant relationship between individuals' ability to regulate emotions, within themselves and others, and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. As predicted in hypothesis #4, individuals' level of regulating emotions, in themselves and others, is significantly related to their

perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

Once again, the study supports the supposition of various authors (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Salovey et al., 2003; Salovey et al., in press) who believe that individuals high in this dimension are thought to possess various traits that allow them to view issues, in this case surrounding affirmative action and diversity, in a positive light. For example, one could infer that individuals high in this dimension have the ability to manage their emotions and emotional relationships in such a way as to support their efforts for personal and interpersonal growth (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso & Sitarenios, 2001). As such, the study supports the inference that individuals facing cultural or organizational change, brought about by diversity and affirmative action, should have the ability to use the change as an impetus for positive personal development.

This study also supports the literature surrounding another attribute that individuals high in this dimension tend to possess, the ability to be open to feelings, both pleasant and unpleasant (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). One can suppose that this ability has an interpersonal and intrapersonal application when it comes to responding to the organizational challenges created by diversity and affirmative action. For instance, as was posited in this study, issues surrounding diversity and affirmative action are contentious at the least, if not outright uncomfortable to many individuals. When people are confronted with unpleasant circumstances, organizational and societal change for example, their ability to be open to their feelings (positive and negative) denotes an exceptional ability to be honest with themselves allowing for the possibility of an

authentic internal dialog that could lead to a type of personal transformation, thus allowing them to perceive affirmative action and diversity more positively.

Included in the regulating dimension is the ability to monitor and reflect on emotions (Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). When combined with the previous ability (open to feelings) one could conclude that an individual who rates high in this dimension possess the full breath of capabilities needed to engage in a full and honest evaluation of their emotional reaction to diversity and affirmative action.

Since this dimension of EI could affect every level of the organization, with regards to the success or failure (acceptance/rejection) of an organization's affirmative action or diversity program, what could organizations do to promote or improve this attribute? Cherniss and Goleman (2001) suggest that organizations develop cognitive approaches that include anger management classes to minimize negative feelings and teach individuals techniques to control negative thought and learn ways of sympathizing with or understand the viewpoints of others. Another variation on the same theme can be found in the work of Prochaska (1999) involving counter-conditioning. In this case, individuals are placed in situations where their negative behaviors are problematical. In both examples, organization can assist employees in developing this dimension of EI,

There is one caveat organizations must be aware of when helping employees develop this dimension of EI, not to promote over-control of emotions in the work place (Gross & Levenson, 1997). One can surmise that this especially applies to issues of affirmative action and diversity. Many authors (Cox, 1993; Goleman, 1998; Matthews, et al., 2004) warn that over-suppression/regulation of anger could lead to resentment, impaired performance, and negative social interactions.

## Research Question # 5

The relationship between an individuals' level of extroversion and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies was found not to be significant and therefore hypothesis #5 was not supported. This result was unanticipated since this study posited that extraversion and the ability to perceive the various aspects of diversity and affirmative action would have relationship.

When we examine the literature (McCrae & Costa, 2003), one aspect of the extrovert personality is the individual's desire for positive emotions. One could infer that issues of affirmative action and diversity are not always viewed positively by extroverts and therefore result in lower perception scores for diversity and affirmative action. For example, the progression of how an extrovert might process their environment, as laid out by McCrae and Costa (2003), consist of seeking some type of activity that leads to excitement, excitement leads to happiness, happy people find others that are easier to get along with and congeniality leads to leadership, a critical outcome desired by extroverts.

Applying McCrae and Costa's theory this leads to two possible reasons for the disconnect between this dimension of the BFI and perceptions of diversity and affirmative action. First, if an extrovert is striving for a leadership role and issues of diversity and affirmative action are controversial, why would they support those programs or view them more positively. Secondly, diversity by definition means diverse personalities and this means there is a high probability of some type of conflict, which extroverts tend to avoid (McCrae & Costa, 2003).

As in the first research question, this dimension of the BFI could have no connection at all to diversity and affirmative action. This could mean that the finding is

correct and there is no significant relationship between the two variables of extroversion and diversity and affirmative action.

In addition, it could be said that the finding of no significant relationship between the variables is a product of the sample. A number of respondents worked in union and non-management positions in organizations (50.6%). One could infer that due to their position within the organization, they have a limited exposure to the strategy and objectives of the company's diversity and affirmative action programs. In addition, 42.8% of respondents only completed high school or received an Associate's degree. This could mean that there is a possibility that their understanding about organizational strategy influenced their perception of diversity and affirmative action, thereby supporting the finding that there is not a significant relationship between this dimension of EI and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

#### Research Question # 6

Research question 6 asked: "Is there is a relationship between individuals' level of agreeableness (the ability to be sympathetic, warm and compassionate about others) and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?" The correlation for this inquiry was found to be statistically significant and therefore the hypothesis for this research question was supported. This finding was expected since the agreeableness trait includes several behaviors that one could infer have an affect on diversity and affirmative action perceptions, such as selflessness, elevated levels of trust, and a capacity for generosity.

The study supports the use of several traits/attributes used by various authors to describe individuals who are agreeable, such as "altruistic" (McCrae & Costa, 1996) or

“humane.” These descriptions are spot on since the true essence of valuing diversity and the spirit of affirmative action lies in the individual’s ability to treat others with respect, and ensuring that others are treated fairly (Cox, 1993; Dass & Parker, 1999).

This study also supports the premise that individuals high in agreeableness tend to be strategic cooperators, or individuals who will support specific strategies and goals of an organization (Buss, 1996). In addition, this study corroborates the work of Brandt and Devine , as cited by Moynihan and Peterson (2004), who believe that individuals high in agreeableness had a positive influence on the group dynamic when evaluating groups for compatibility. For example, groups with high compatibility, in the words of the authors, “reduce interpersonal conflict and increase the level of task-related communication” (Moynihan & Peterson, 2004, p337).

What organizational implication are relevant to the finding that agreeableness has a relationship to perceptions of affirmative action and diversity? Organization should consider the use of some type of personality testing prior to any organizational change initiatives involving diversity or affirmative action. Specifically, the study support the notion that individuals high in this aspect of EI have the capacity to respect others and focus on the various factors that create team satisfaction and success (Brant & Devine, 2000).

Another area this finding could influence is in employee selection and retention. The findings of this study support the work of Schneider (1987), as cited by Schneider and Smith (2004), who posited that “people are attracted to, selected by, and stay with organizations that fit” (Schneider & Smith, 2004, p 351). This could mean that as organizations try to create a culture of diversity, an important dynamic of their effort



must be in the process of identifying the various personality trait(s) in individuals that will support the new culture.

As a final point, the link between personality and the development of organizational culture is more pronounced as it applies to organizational leaders (Schneider & Smith, 2004). Many authors (McCrae & Costa, 1987, 1996; Spangler, House, & Palrecha, 2004) link leadership to culture, but it appears that even though leaders usually establish the culture of the organization through their beliefs, values and behaviors, the agreeableness attribute is vital to a leader who wants to transform the organization.

#### Research Question # 7

Research question 7 asked “Is there a relationship between an individual’s level of conscientiousness (the capacity to be deliberate, achievement striving, and self-discipline) and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?” To investigate this question we tested the hypothesis for this research question, using correlation coefficients, and found no significant relationship between conscientiousness and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. Therefore, the hypothesis was not supported. This finding was unanticipated. Based on the literature one could infer that there is a link between this dimension of the BFI and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity, specifically because individual conscientiousness is usually a required attribute to be successful in organizations (Costa & McCrae, 1998; McCrae & Costa, 1996; McCrae & Costa, 2003).

There could be numerous reasons for this partition between the conscientiousness aspect of the BFI instrument and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. Costa

and McCrae (1998) believe that conscientious people are inhibited and hold fast to their moral precepts. In other words, they have a strong sense of duty. This dutifulness extends not only to their personal goals, but also to the goals of the organization. The authors concluded that a person high in conscientiousness behaves ethically, is dependable, responsible, and productive in the pursuit of their own personal aspirations, within the context of an organization. This perspective finds support in the work of Moberg (1999) who believes that individuals high in conscientiousness are principled, scrupulously diligent and purposeful.

One could infer, based on this study's finding, that conscientious individuals might not accept diversity and affirmative action on a base level. For example, they could view the means to the ends as inherently unfair to some, biased in its application and outcomes, even though the programs are designed and implemented with the best of intentions. This could mean there is a possible gap between the perceived present state, within organizations, of diversity and affirmative action and the respondent's knowledge of the past events that preceded the need for the programs and objectives. This lack of historical context could denote a need for additional education programs, as part of the organizations' strategy.

Furthermore, this dimension of BFI could have no correlation at all to diversity and affirmative action. This means that the finding is correct and there is no significant relationship between the two variables of conscientiousness, and diversity and affirmative action.

The study's finding of no statistical significance between the variables could be a product of the sample. As stated previously, a number of respondents only completed

high school or received an Associate's degree (42.8%). This could mean that there is a possibility that the respondent's lack of understanding, about organizational strategy, influenced their perception of diversity and affirmative action, thereby supporting the finding that there is not a significant relationship between this dimension of EI and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

#### Research Question # 8

Research question 8 considered; "To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between an individuals' level of neuroticism (the frequency and intensity of feeling fear and anger) and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?" Hypothesis 8 posited, that an individual's level of neuroticism (the frequency and intensity of feeling fear and anger) would be negatively related to his perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. The study found no significant relationship between neuroticism and perceptions of diversity and affirmative action so the hypothesis was rejected.

This finding was highly unexpected. Since many of the sub-categories of behaviors that makeup the neuroticism personality type are based in anger, anxiety and hostility , one could conclude that a person high in neuroticism would not have the capacity to view any aspect of diversity or affirmative action as positive (Buss, 1996; Costa & McCrae, 1985; McCrae & Costa, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 2003). This perspective might be especially germane for a person holding majority group status.

For example, a person in the majority group could view diversity and affirmative action initiatives as programs that undermine their self-worth, in some cases, by limiting their career potential and in other cases requiring some type of power sharing relationship

with the minority group. As such, any diversity or affirmative action program that challenges, modifies, or redistributes power could be seen as a threat.

Another ancillary effect can be found in the area of locus of control (Judge & Bono, 2001). As diversity and affirmative action programs are implemented, and the organizational culture begins to change, individuals who feel threaten, due to a perceive loss of power or status, will begin to evaluate their current position in the organization. Judge and Bono (2001) believe that a component of locus of control involves a self-examination of ones' relationship to external (organizational) events. This could mean that negative career outcomes could be viewed as being caused by others or externally driven, thereby creating a negative perception of affirmative action and diversity.

When evaluating this dimension of the BFI from the perspective of a minority group member, one could conclude that individuals high in neuroticism would possibly reject diversity and affirmative action due to several sub-dimensions of neuroticism. Various authors (Judge & Bono, 2001; McCrae & Costa, 2003; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996) have described this element of personality with words like fear, anxiety, depression and anger. One could infer that individuals in the minority group status, that score high in neuroticism would have an underlying habit to view organizational efforts in diversity and affirmative action, as having no effect on the current culture, and that nothing, within the organization, will change to create opportunity and equity for them.

In addition, this dimension of BFI could have no relationship at all to diversity and affirmative action. This could mean that the finding is correct and there is no significant correlation between the two variables of neuroticism, and diversity and affirmative action.

As stated previously, the finding of no statistical significance between the variables could be a product of the sample. For example, a number of respondents worked in union and non-management positions in organizations (50.6%). One could infer that due to their position within the organization, they have a limited exposure to the strategy and objectives of the company's diversity and affirmative action programs. In addition, 42.8% of respondents only completed high school or received an Associate's degree. This could mean that there is a possibility that their understanding about organizational strategy influenced their perception of diversity and affirmative action, thereby supporting the finding that there is not a significant relationship between this dimension of EI and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity.

#### Research Question # 9

Research question 9 examines; "To what degree, if at all, is there a relationship between individuals' level of openness (the ability to think of different possibilities and to empathize with others in other circumstances) and their perceptions of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies?" The hypothesis for this question speculates that an individual's levels of openness will be positively related to his or her perception and acceptance of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs.

The study found the relationship between the variables statistically significant, but negative. This finding was surprising since it refutes the theories of various authors who believe that the attributes of openness - sensitive to aesthetics, curious, independent thinkers and amendable to new ideas, experiences and unconventional perspectives (George & Zhou, 2001) - would lead to a positive perspective of diversity and affirmative

action. Other authors (Costa & McCrae, 1992; McCrae, 1994) believe that people high in openness have greater access to a variety of feelings, thoughts, and perspectives, and may be more adaptable to changing circumstances. One could surmise that a person high in openness would be accepting of other cultures and consequently be supportive of an organization's affirmative action and diversity policies and programs. Since this was not the case, what aspects of openness would cause a negative relationship between the variables?

One area of the literature that could support the negative relationship found in this study is the work of Trapnell (1994), which examined cognitive disposition. Trapnell (1994) posited that individual high in openness would focus more on the motive, interest, and egalitarian values of an organization. This could mean that individuals high in openness could possibly reject diversity and affirmative action programs due to a perceived injustice done to one group or develop negative perceptions revolving around the desired outcomes of the programs creating benefits for specific groups and not others.

Another author supporting possible reasons for the study's findings is McCrae (1996) who speculates that this dimension of personality allows individuals to change attitudes and values repeatedly through out life. However, according to McCrae and Costa (2003) openness does not guarantee that new opinions and attitudes will be wiser, or more in keeping with contemporary reality. One could infer that individuals high in openness with set perspectives, values and beliefs might, once again, reject diversity and affirmative action.

The finding, of a negative relationship between openness and perception of affirmative action and diversity, might call for organizations to examine their programs to

ensure that they possess a consistency between policies and procedures, and actual behaviors (Cox, 1993). For example, organizations meeting the diversity challenge of creating a truly multicultural company, must balance the interest of majority and minority members.

This could mean that organizations should educate majority members about the historical context of affirmative action prior to any implementation. For example, various authors (Cox, 1993; Ely & Thomas, 2001; Harvey, 2005) stress the need for organizations to help employees understand the cultural, historical and workplace context of diversity. When dealing with minority group members' perceptions, various authors (Cox, 1993, Dass & Parker, 1999; Lorbiecki, 2001) suggest that organizations align their activities with the message they communicate by creating a true follow-up process. This could also mean that organizations might need to educate, communicate and reward employees in a consistent manner if they want to reverse the openness – diversity/affirmative action relationship identified in this study.

#### Research Question # 10

Research question 10 asked. “ Does ethnic Identity moderated the relationship between EI and BFI, and perceptions of diversity and affirmative action?” The study found that ethnic identity had a significant influence on EI and BFI, with regards to how affirmative action and diversity were perceived. This finding was expected and is confirmed by the significant influence of ethnic identity on the relationship between facilitating thinking, agreeableness, openness and perception of diversity and affirmative action.

Once again, referring back to the literature, the study confirmed the theories of various authors (Chrobot-Mason, 2004; Phinney, 1996) that the strength of an individuals' ethnic identity allows them the opportunity to cultivate and increase their ability to accept others who might look or act differently than themselves. It appears that this ability, to accept others, extends to intangible concepts like diversity and affirmative action perceptions. As such, we find that the moderating effect of ethnic identity identifies other possible factors, or contingencies, that contribute to individual perceptions of affirmative action and diversity besides EI and personality.

Another perspective supported by the findings of this study is the work of Tajfel and Turner (1979) who believe that being a member of a group provides individuals with a sense of belonging that contributes to a positive self-concept. Could it be that as we accept who we are as individuals, through our validation of our ethnic identity, we expand the definition and therefore the constitution of the group we originally identify with? One could infer that as we feel more secure in the limited category of our own group we seek a higher order of membership, a bigger group to identify with, so that one day we are not just African-Americans, or Hispanics-Americans, or even Americans, but we are one with the world. This could mean that we, as human beings, will share a universal culture that transcends ethnicity, as we understand it today.

We can see, in society today, the beginning of this reconstitution and remaking of culture. For example, various authors (Appiah, 2005; 1998; Page, 2007) point out the fact companies are spending billions of dollars to make their organization more diverse to meet the demands of a global marketplace. With the integration of new individuals, from various cultures, ethnicities, and geographic locations into companies, the creation of a



new organizational culture is one of the many possibilities. One could ask as organizations become more diverse, in their goal of becoming global, is society that far behind? That what we perceive as contentious issues, in the past and sometimes today, surrounding the constructs of affirmative action and diversity, are just now gaining social traction and consensus after a generation of concentrated efforts to rectify past inequities.

#### Research Question # 11

It was found that organizational context had a significant influence on perceptions of affirmative action and diversity, as a moderator, in the relationship between emotional intelligence, personality and perceptions of affirmative action and diversity. This finding, that organizational context moderates individual perceptions between emotional intelligence, personality, and diversity and affirmative action, was expected and is confirmed by the significant influence of organizational context on the relationship between facilitating thinking, agreeableness, openness and perception of diversity and affirmative action. In addition, this study finds that the moderating effect of organizational context identifies other possible factors, or contingencies, that contribute to individual perceptions of diversity and affirmative action besides EI and personality.

As stated earlier in the paper, three themes were central to providing a firm foundation in the creation and development of an organizational context for affirmative action and diversity a) Leadership, b) Alignment, and c) Follow-up. Each of these factors contributes, in a positive way, to the organization's effort to manage and influence the perceptions of employees concerning affirmative action and diversity (Cox, 2001; Loden, 1996). One could infer that employees by nature tend to have a certain level of individual conscientiousness, as confirmed by the statistically significant correlation found between

organizational context and conscientiousness. The study also supports various authors (Cox, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001) who believe that leadership is the first line of setting the organizational context by proactively moderating employees' perception of the organization's commitment to diversity and affirmative action. When employee conscientiousness is combined with authentic leadership, it acknowledges the reality that employees can discern when a leader or organization values affirmative action or diversity.

This brings us to the second dimension of organizational context, the ability to align organizational structure with policies, procedures and activities. Once again this study supports various authors (Cox, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001) who hypothesize that organizations who genuinely support diversity and affirmative action through the use of proactive communication, programs, and internal structures have a substantial advantage over reactive companies that are forced to address issues surrounding diversity and affirmative action as unpleasant tasks forced on them by the government and a politically correct culture, that they believe, can't understand the true nature and goals of business. For example, various authors have researched the subject of why organizations resist affirmative action and diversity initiatives by stating that the cost of the programs are too high or that the effort to create diverse organizations decreases productivity (Dass & Parker, 1999; Kurowski, 2002), Proactive organizations don't wait for some type of legal or social backlash to happen, they design the appropriate structure for the company, including the policies, controls, and culture (Cox, 1993, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001).

Finally, organizations must follow-up on a continual basis by responding to employees' questions, creating dynamic activities to support its effort in the area of diversity and affirmative action, and rewarding behaviors after implementing diversity or affirmative action policies or program. Frequently most leaders in organizations deal with issues of affirmative action and diversity by only communicating a set of values and expectations (Cox, 2001; Loden, 1996). Organizations have to formally measure and document various objectives and key factors of a successful diversity strategy so that they will be able to share knowledge more effectively and improve the execution of future programs and initiatives (Cox, 2001, Loden, 1996).

#### Post Hoc Discussion

This post hoc discussion is generated by research questions 1-9. Since the data from the study was evaluated using simple correlation and ANOVA. The variables of EI, BFI, MEIM and OC were tested only against the diversity and affirmative action variable. In this section of the chapter, we examine the variable from multiple perspectives to identify patterns and possible relationships.

When discussing, evaluating or defending issues of diversity or affirmative action one cannot avoid three primary demographic aspects that cut across all dimensions of affirmative action and diversity: gender, age, and ethnicity. This is where we begin our discussion when evaluating the demographic results of this study.

A majority of participants in this study were female (60.9%) and between the ages of 18-29 (57.2%). These percentages are consistent with the combined demographic profiles of the universities used in the study. The same consistency existed in the ethnicity profile of respondents. Specifically, if one takes into consideration the number

of respondents from each institution we are able to recognize the impact of CSULA. Since CSULA provided the highest percentage of respondents (59.3%), its demographic profile, majority of non-white students (83%) more than off-set the demographic profiles of LMU and Pepperdine, with their White Non-Hispanic population (54% and 50%). In essence, the proportion of respondents from each university created a well balance ethnicity percentage across the board, and therefore a consistent pool of respondents that represented all ethnicities in this region of California.

One can surmise that the mixture of gender, age, and ethnicity, in this study, is a powerful predictor of how individuals perceive the contentious issues of affirmative action and diversity. For example, this study found that younger individuals viewed affirmative action and diversity less positively than older individuals did, with women, African-American, and Hispanics having a more positive view of diversity and affirmative action than males and Whites respectively.

The next area of examination revolves around three topics associated with work; work experience, work status, and salary. The study found that half of the respondents identified themselves as union or non-management, with just over forty-percent identifying themselves as working in some type of management position. Once again, the ratio of management, non-management, and union workers reflect the effect of collecting data from three institutions that are made up of distinct populations, that when combined create an accurate sample of individuals who work and live in Southern California. For example, CSULA, which had the most respondents, has the most undergraduates, and therefore has more respondents that work in non-management positions. Finally, concerning salary, over half of the respondents earn under \$50K per year. One could infer

that the number of respondents from CSULA and the number of respondents having an undergraduate degree or less influenced this finding.

When evaluating the effect of the demographic categories of work experience, status, and salary on perception of affirmative action and diversity, the study found that individuals with work experience of 14-16 years had a higher mean average in DA that was almost matched by employees with three or less years. For example, individual with 0-3 years of work experience had a mean average for DA of 3.49, while individuals with 17 or more years had a mean average for DA of 3.41.

One could infer that this finding could mean that older workers care about diversity and affirmative action due to their time on the job, while younger workers might view diversity and affirmative action more positively due to a heightened awareness of issues created by diversity and affirmative action through an educational channel created by traditional means (universities) or via company training. The finding concerning employees with less than three years of work experience conflicts with the finding concerning respondents between the ages of 18-39. Some type of external or internal factor not yet identified through this study could create a possible reason for this paradox.

Another finding of interest was in the significant differences in the means averages between the various job status levels within organizations. The study found that individuals that identified themselves as managers and above (Directors and Sr. management) had a significantly higher perception of diversity and affirmative action than non-management and union employees did. One possible reason for this finding could be that management is usually responsible for creating, implementing and monitoring diversity and/or affirmative action policies and procedure.

The final demographic category discussed in this section will be religious affiliations. The study found that over sixty-percent of respondents identified themselves as Christian. An interesting note, a number of the 24% of respondents that identified themselves “other” wrote in the word “Christian.” This response was very interesting since most of the major denominations found in society, which include; Protestant, Catholic, Evangelical, and non-denominational were accounted for in the survey instrument.

### Utility and Implications of Results

Understanding that acceptance or rejection of affirmative action and diversity programs and policies, as a question of individual perceptions, is profound in its application. Organizations usually rely on the most basic and cost effective approach when designing a diversity program or addressing an affirmative action issue. One can infer that organizations usually implement diversity and affirmative action programs in a reactive manner and some would say only as a last resort before litigation or monetary consequences. As our society changes, there must be a more proactive means of developing affirmative action and diversity programs that place organizations on a proactive path versus a reactive pit.

The implication section of the study examines three dynamics bourn out of a proactive strategy that are identified in this study: a) the need to identify and acknowledge the individual personality traits and the strength of an individual’s ethnic identity, two elements of individualism that define what we are and therefore how we perceive our surroundings; b) a process of ascertaining what aspect of emotional intelligence organization’s need to nurture and develop in employees to enhance their

ability to adjust and accept the complexity and uncertainty of the change created by diversity and affirmative action; and c) the internal structure or context required to ensure that an organizational culture is created that provides an end-to-end system for developing, implementing, assessing and improving diversity and affirmative action programs and policies. So what must organizations and individuals do to align these three areas and create diversity congruency?

### *Personality and Ethnic Identity*

It is important for organizations to understand the individuals who work for it. Because cultural diversity is growing, this study suggests that organizations include personality and ethnic identity assessments to their pre-employment screening, or prior to any organizational diversity training. This may help organizations identify individual traits and/or strengths that could have an influence on whether employees will accept or reject diversity and affirmative action initiatives practice or in use by the organization.

From an individual development perspective, one could infer that any information gained from a personality or ethnic test could assist a person in the process of self-awareness. In this day and age, where individuals strive for self-improvement, any channel of feedback that gives them the ability to understand themselves better provides the first step on the path of awareness. This could mean that organizations should provide a feedback process that integrates the results in a way that broadens the individual's ability to adjust and excel in every aspect of the organization (work, culture, change, diversity).

## *Emotional Intelligence*

The strength of emotional intelligence, as a theory over personality, lies in the belief that an individual can improve or acquire various emotional intelligence (EI) dimensions through training. This belief, that individuals can improve their EI, is at the core of the theory. However, there is a caveat, no EI test links EI to specific behaviors through an explicit training regimen (Conte, 2005; Matthew, et al, 2004; McEnrue & Groves, 2006).

This implies that organizations need to make use of EI tests that are valid and tied to employee training and development. Groves, et al.'s (2008) Emotional Intelligence Self Description Inventory (EQSDI), used in this study, was constructed with training and development in mind. Because the EQSDI and its items noticeably single out the use of emotions to aid judgment and decision-making, the authors draw a distinction between the EQSDI and other EI measures based on the Mayer and Salovey (1997) model. This feature of the EQSDI allows the measure to be utilized in an organizational context, specifically with regards to determining how an individual uses his or her emotions to aid decision-making.

One could infer that organizations, in their effort to be on the cutting edge of employee development, especially in the area of diversity, might use EI as one of the tools to initiate self-awareness. This means that organizations, in their effort to create a multicultural organization should use assessments that can be translated into specific and measurable behaviors, particularly when it comes to the use of EI instruments. By creating an end-to-end connection between instrument, assessment, and training



organizations might head off the possibility of rejection, by employees, of diversity and affirmative action programs.

### *Organizational Context*

Organizational context, as previously stated in the study, consist of; leadership, alignment, and follow-up, three areas that virtually influence ever aspect of an organization. To promote diversity congruency a conscious effort should be made by the organization, as a whole, to select the proper leadership, design the proper structure and create the proper communication channels to support its affirmative action and diversity strategy.

### *Leadership*

To lead an organization in its effort to create a diverse culture takes more than one person or leader. Loden and Rosener (1991) suggest that leadership is a collaborative process and defined the process as pluralistic leadership. Pluralistic leadership relies on empowerment, employee involvement, and assumes that the organization's culture must view issues of affirmative action and diversity as a true asset of the organization.

Through their research, Loden and Rosener (1991) identified six leadership dimensions, which includes: vision and values, ethical commitment to fairness, broad knowledge and awareness about diversity, openness to change, mentoring of diverse employees, and an ongoing model and catalyst for organizational change. One could conclude from the work of Loden and Rosener (1991) that employees can discern when a leader or organization does not value affirmative action or diversity strictly through their observation and perceptions of these six leadership dimensions.

### *Alignment*

Organizational alignment is crucial to ensuring that any diversity or affirmative action program or policy has a chance for success. For example, Wentling and Palma-Rivas (1998) identified four major reasons why organizations manage diversity: improving productivity and remaining competitive, forming better work relations, enhancing social responsibility, and addressing legal concerns.

Various authors (Cox, 2001; Easley, 2001; Grant & Kleiner, 1997; Miller, 1998) believe that due to dramatic shifts in the demographic make-up of the labor pool and markets, organizations must adjust their structure, policies and practices to remain intact, viable and profitable. For example, Easley (2001) posited that organizations should redesign their processes of identifying, recruiting and retaining diverse individuals. Cox (2001) believes that companies must modify their training and development departments, as well as their compensation and benefit programs, to reflect the organization's intentions with regards to affirmative action and diversity programs and policies.

The need to align organizational structure with policies, procedures and activities is a basic aspect of organizational theory (Daft, 2004). By scanning the external environment and ascertaining the internal situations (i.e. strengths and weaknesses) specific to the company, and integrating the defined vision, mission and goals for the organization, management should have the ability to design the appropriate structure for the company, including the policies, controls, and culture (Cox, 2001; Daft, 2004).

### *Follow-Up*

The final aspect of organizational context is follow-up, or how management responds to employees question, activities, and behaviors after implementation of a new

policy or program. Cox (2001) believes that follow-up overlaps with the other two components (Leadership and Alignment) but has more of a link to implementation and establishing accountability for results. Many leaders deal with issues of affirmative action and diversity by only communicating a set of values and expectations (Cox, 2001, Loden, 1996). Organizations should rely on data-driven change to monitor the organizational transformation brought about by diversity and affirmative action programs so that the changes ultimately becomes institutionalized (Cox, 1993).

By using credible and current data about the company's diversity efforts an organization communicates that its program is trustworthy and reliable (Loden, 1996). In addition, it gives the company valuable information about the success or failure of the various activities used to support its affirmative action and diversity strategy, which allows the organization the flexibility to adjust or improve specific programs (i.e. training, recruitment, and compensation).

Finally, follow-up provides valuable information in the area of knowledge management, retention and transfer (Cox, 2001). By formally measuring and documenting various objectives and key factors of a successful diversity strategy, the organization will be able to share knowledge more effectively and improve the execution of future programs and initiatives (Cox, 2001, Loden, 1996).

#### Limitations

From a statistical analysis perspective, an initial limitation was encountered in the analysis phase of this study. There were occurrences where respondents did not provide an answer for some of the questions to calculate a score for the dependent and independent variables. In those cases, a mean score was used for those missing answers.

It was anticipated that the selection of institutions used to collect data for this study would provide a robust cross-section of individuals that represent a wide range of organizations, at various levels of employments and experience. As stated in chapter one, even in the best cases, the use of self-report measures, in and of themselves, create the potential for bias. This applies specifically to the instruments used to measure organizational context, and affirmative action and diversity. Even though both instruments created by the primary researcher were found to be reliable, one is never certain that the respondents possess the ability to correctly decipher the many questions dealing with the complexity and structure of an organization's culture, leadership, strategy and processes.

When the dimensions of affirmative action and diversity are added to the equation, with all their social, historical, legal, and political ramifications, it becomes apparent that, due to the age, years of work experience, level of education, a portion of respondents had difficulty answering some of the questions with absolute understanding. One possible solution to the limitation, of using survey base instruments, could be the use of cognitive interviews to assess such understanding.

Moreover, because issues of diversity, affirmative action, and ethnicity are controversial at best the survey produced some interesting responses that in and of themselves identify potential limitations of the study. For example, respondents were given the opportunity to answer questions about ethnicity and religion with the choice of "other" but were asked to provide written description. In the case of ethnicity numerous individual identified themselves as other and wrote the word "White." The same type of phenomenon appeared in the religious affiliation. When the item "other" was checked,

many respondents wrote in “Christian.” These types of responses support the overall perception that limitations are naturally created by controversial and subjectively experienced matters.

Another limitation of the study was the lack of instruments on organizational context, diversity and affirmative action. For example, many authors (Cox, 2001; Dass & Parker, 1999; Loden, 1996) identify the three dimensions used to create the organizational context instrument, but the literature only provided a description. In the case of affirmative action and diversity, the questions were designed in such a way as to link affirmative action and diversity together due to the belief that a majority of people view the items one in the same. The reliability scale for this measure validated this perspective.

#### Generalizability

Even though the literature on the several variables identified and used in this study imply various relationships, and causes and effects, this study promotes the theory that there is a connection between emotional intelligence, personality, ethnic identity, organizational context, and individuals’ perceptions of diversity and affirmative action. This theory was supported by the data gathered from the sample population identified for this study.

Because an effort was made to identify a representative cross-section of workers from different organizations and different industries, the decision was made to solicit participant from evening classes at three institutions that have programs geared towards working individuals. Another factor considered, when selecting the institution used in the study, was the objective of balancing the significant demographic, cultural, and social

economic differences between the samples to create a balance that reflects an accurate representation of the population that make up the diverse population (economically, socially and ethnically) in the local region where the study was done. This objective of creating a representative sample from the three distinct and different populations is validated through the demographic and ANOVA analysis. Thus, due to the diverse and varied work experiences of the respondent, it is believed that there is generalizability of the study.

### Suggestions for Future Research

To increase the generalizability of results to the business environment, it is recommended that additional populations, either at different educational institutions or at individual organizations be conducted. By using other educational institutions fresh data could be compiled to either support this study's finding, or refute it. By examining individual organizations, industry differences could be identified or differences between organizational cultures could be found.

Since this study involved the identification of the relationship between various dynamic dimensions like EI and organizational context, it is suggested that additional studies should be done examining the impact of self-development training in the area of EI. For example, many authors (Bar-On, 1997, 2000; Goleman, 1995; Groves et al., 2008; Mayer et al., 1990; McEnrue & Groves, 2006; Salovey et al., 2004) support the belief that EI can be acquired or improved through training. This could be validated through a pre and post test study on the impact of an EI training exercise. In the case of organizational context, again it is proposed that additional examinations of an

organizational change effort, in the area of diversity, be performed to determine the pre and post effects of the training done to promote the diversity change initiative.

This leads to the last suggestion for future research. This study examined individual perceptions; it would be interesting to apply this study to a specific organizational identity or culture. For example, a study should be done that would be able to categorize various organizational cultures in terms of diversity congruency, a rating of sorts.

### Conclusion

In this study, it was found that various dimensions of emotional intelligence and personality had a significant relationship with an individual's perception of affirmative action and diversity. In addition, it was also concluded that ethnic identity and organizational context moderate those perceptions.

This study has proposed and examined a new approach to creating congruency between individual perceptions and organizational objectives surrounding diversity and affirmative action. If organizations want to better understand the process of facilitating a corporate environment that supports their affirmative action and diversity programs and policies, then a focus on individuals and their ability to reconcile personal perspectives with organizational programs and policies is suggested.

## REFERENCES

- Abraham, R., (1999). Emotional intelligence in organizations: A conceptualization. *Genetic, Social, and General Psychology Monographs*, 125, 209-224.
- Allen, R., & Montgomery, K. (2001). Applying an organizational development approach to creating diversity. *Organizational Dynamics*, 30(2) 149-161.
- Allport, F., & Allport, G. (1921). Personality traits: Their classification and measurement. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology and Social Psychology*, 16, 6-40.
- Allport, G. (1937). *Personality: A psychological interpretation*. New York: Henry Holt.
- Allport, G. (1961). *Patterns and growth in personality*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Allport, G., & Odbert, H. (1936). Trait-names: A psycho-lexical study. *Psychological Monographs*, 47(1, Whole No. 211), 1-171.
- Appiah, K. (2005). *The ethics of identity*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Around-Thomas, M. (2004). Understanding emotional intelligence can help after problem behavior. *Physician Executive*, 30(5), 36-39.
- Ashforth, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14, 20-39.
- Ashkanasy, N., & Daus, C. (2005). Rumors of the death of emotional intelligence in organizational behavior are vastly exaggerated. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 441-452.
- Ashkanasy, N., & Zerbe, W. (2005). A bounded emotionality perspective on interpersonal behavior in organizations. In C. Hartel, W. Zerbe, & N. Ashkanasy (Eds.), *Emotions in organizational behavior* (pp. 183-195). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bakan, D. (1966). *The duality of human existence: Isolation and communion in Western man*. Boston: Beacon.
- Barak, M., Cherin, D., & Berkman, S. (1998). Organizational and personal dimensions in diversity climates: Ethnic and gender differences in employee perceptions. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 34, 82-104.
- Baron, R., & Kenny, D., (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychology research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51,(6), 1173-1182.



- Bar-On, R. (1997). *The emotional intelligence inventory (EQ-i): Technical manual*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. (2000). Emotional and social intelligence: Insights from the emotional quotient inventory. In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 363-388). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bar-On, R., & Parker, J. (Eds.), (2000). *Handbook of emotional intelligence*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Barrick, M. & Mount, M. (1991). The big five personality dimensions and job performance: A meta- analysis. *Personnel Psychology*, 44, 1-26.
- Barsade, S. (2002). The ripple effect: Emotional contagion and its influence on group behavior. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 47, 644-675.
- Bergan, C. W. V., Soper, B., & Foster, T. (2002). Unintended negative effects of diversity management. *Public Personnel Management*, 31(2), 239-251.
- Bernhardt, D. (1993) Affirmative action in employment: Considering group interest while protecting individual rights. *Stetson Law Review*, 23, 11-37.
- Block, J. (1995). A contrarian view of the five-factor approach to personality description. *Psychology Bulletin*, 117, 187-215.
- Botwin, M. & Buss, D. (1989). Structure of act-report data: Is the five-factor model of personality recaptured? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 56, 988-1001.
- Bower, G. (1981). Mood and memory. *American Psychologist*, 36, 129-148.
- Boyatzis, R., Goleman, D., & Rhee, K. (2000). Clustering competence in emotional intelligence: Insights from the emotional competence inventory. In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 343-362). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Bradberry, T., & Greaves, J. (2004). *Emotional intelligence appraisal technical manual update*. San Diego, CA: TalentSmart.
- Brand, C. (1984). Personality Dimensions: An overview of modern trait psychology. In J. Nicholson, & H Beloff (Eds.) *Psychology Survey 5*, Leicester, UK: British Psychological Society.
- Brandt, K., & Devine, D. (2000). *Effects of personality compatibility in decision making teams*. Paper presented at the 15<sup>th</sup> annual conference of the Society for Industrial Organizational Psychology, New Orleans, LA.

- Braten, I., Samuelstrun, M., & Stromso, H., (2004). Do students' self-efficacy beliefs moderate the effects of performance goals on self-regulatory strategy use? *Educational Psychology, 24* (2), 231-247.
- Bruner, J., & Goodman, C. (1947). Value and need as organizing factors in perceptions. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 13*, 33-44.
- Burke, L., & Witt, L. (2002). Moderators of the openness to experience-performance relationship. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 17*, 712-720.
- Buss, D. (1996). Social adaptation and five major factors of personality. In J Wiggins (Ed.), *The Five-Factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp.180-205). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Cantor, N., & Zirkel, S. (1990). Personality, cognition, and purposive behavior. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 135-164). New York: Guilford Press.
- Caprara, G., & Zimbardo, P. (2004). A congruency model of political preference. *American Psychologist, 59*, 581-594.
- Carmeli, A. (2003). The relationship between emotional intelligence and work attitudes, behavior and outcomes: An examination among senior managers. *Managerial Psychology, 19*(7/8), 788-813.
- Caruso, D., Mayer, D., & Salovey, P. (2003). Emotional intelligence and emotional leadership. In R. Riggio & S. Murphy (Eds.), *Multiple intelligences and leadership* (pp.55-73). Mahway, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Casas, J. (1984). Policy, training and research in counseling & psychology: The racial/ethnic minority perspective. In S.D. Brown and R. W. Lent (Eds.), *Handbook of counseling psychology* (pp.785-831). New York: John Wiley and Sons.
- Cattell, R. (1933). Temperament test. II: Tests. *British Journal of Psychology, 23*, 308-329.
- Cattell, R. (1946). *Descriptions and measurement of personality*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, NY: World Book.
- Cherniss, C., (2000). Social and emotional competence in the workplace, In R. Bar-On & J. Parker, (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 433-489). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Cherniss, C., & Adler, M. (2000). *Promoting emotional intelligence in organizations*. Alexandria, VA: American Society for Training and Development.

- Cherniss, C., & Goleman, D. (2001). Training for emotional intelligence: A model. In C. Cherniss & D Goleman, (Eds.), *The emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and Improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations* (pp. 209-233) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Chia, R., Allred, L., Grossnickle, F., & Lee, G. (1998). Effects of attractiveness and gender on the perception of achievement-related variables. *Journal of Social Psychology, 138*, 471-477.
- Choi, J. (2002). External activities and team effectiveness: Review and theoretical development. *Small Group Research, 33*, 181-208.
- Chrobot-Mason, D. (2004). The role of majority managers' ethnic identity development on minority employee perceptions of support. *Group & Organization Management, 29*, 5-31.
- Church, A., & Katibak, M. (1989). Internal, external, and self-report structure of personality in a non-Western culture: An investigation of cross-language and cross-cultural generalizability. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57*, 857-872.
- Ciarrochi, J., Forgas, J., & Mayer, J. (2001). *Emotional intelligence in everyday life: A scientific inquiry*. New York: Psychology Press.
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.)*. New York: Academic.
- Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112 (1)*, 155-159.
- Colbert, A., Mount, M., Harter, J., & Witt, L. (2004). Interactive effects of personality and perceptions of the work situation on workplace deviance. *Journal of applied Psychology, 89*, 599-609.
- Conte, J. (2005). A review and critique of emotional intelligence measures. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 433-440.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1985). *The NEO personality inventory manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1988). Personality in adulthood: a six-year longitudinal study of self-reports and spouse ratings on the NEO Personality Inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 54*, 853-863.
- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1992). Trait psychology comes of age. In T. Sonderegger (Ed.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation, 1991: Vol. 39. Psychology and aging* (pp. 169-204). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.

- Costa, P., & McCrae, R. (1998). Six approaches to the explication of facet-level traits: Examples of conscientiousness. *European Journal of Personality, 12*, 117-134.
- Cote, S., & Moskowitz, D. (1998). On the dynamic covariation between interpersonal behavior and affect: Prediction from neuroticism, extroversion, and agreeableness. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*, 1032-1046.
- Cox, T. (1993). *Cultural diversity in organizations*. San Francisco: Berrett-Koehler Publishers.
- Cox, T. (2001). *Creating the multicultural organization: A strategy for capturing the power of diversity*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Crowne, D., & Marlowe, D. (1960), A new scale of social desirability independent of psychopathology, *Journal of Consulting Psychology, 24*, 349-354
- Daft, R. L. (2004). *Organization theory and design*. Mason, Ohio: Thompson South-Western.
- Danziger, K. (1990). *Constructing the subject: Historical origins of psychological research*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Dass, P., & Parker, B. (1999). Strategies for managing human resource diversity: From resistance to learning. *The Academy of Management Executive, 13*(2), 68-80.
- Daus, C., & Ashkanasy, N. (2005). The case for an ability-based model of emotional intelligence in organizational behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 26*, 453-466.
- Daus, C., Rubin, R., & Cage, T. (2004). *Police performance: Do emotional skills matter?* Paper submitted to the 19<sup>th</sup> Annual Meeting of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology. Chicago, IL
- Dawda, D., & Hart, S. (2000). Assessing emotional intelligence: Reliability and validity of the Bar-On emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i) in university students. *Personality & Individual Differences, 28*, 797-812.
- Day, A., & Carroll, S. (2004). Using an ability-based measure of emotional intelligence to predict individual performance, group performance, and group citizenship behaviors. *Personality and Individual Differences, 36*, 1443-1458.
- Derkson, J., Kramer, I., & Katzko, M. (2002). Does a self-report measure for emotional intelligence assess something different than general intelligence? *Personality & Individual Differences, 31*, 37-48.

- Deslippe, D. (2004). "Do whites have rights?": White Detroit policemen and "reverse discrimination" protests in the 1970s. *Journal of American History*, 91, 3, 932-960
- Digman, J. (1963). Principle dimensions of child personality as inferred from teacher's judgment. *Child Development*, 34, 43-60.
- Digman, J. (1989). Five robust traits dimensions: Development, stability, and utility. *Journal of Personality*, 57, 195-214.
- Digman, J. (1990). Personality structure: The emergence of the five-factor model. In M. Rosenzweig & L. Porter (Eds), *Annual review psychology*, 41 (pp 417-440). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Digman, J. (1996). The curious history of the Five-factor Model. In J. S. Wiggins (Ed.), *The Five-Factor model of personality* (pp. 1-20). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Digman, J. & Inouye, J. (1986). Further specification of the five robust factors of personality: Re-analysis, comparison, and interpretation of six major studies. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 116-123.
- Digman, J. & Takemoto-Chock, N. (1981). Factors in the natural language of personality: Reanalysis, comparisons, and interpretations of six major studies. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 16, 149-160.
- Dobson, K. (1985). The relationship between anxiety and depression. *Clinical Psychology Review*, 5, 307-324.
- Druskat, V., & Wolff, S. (2001). Group emotional intelligence and its influence on group effectiveness. In C. Cherniss & D. Goleman (Eds.), *The Emotionally intelligent workplace: How to select for, measure, and improve emotional intelligence in individuals, groups, and organizations* (pp. 132-155). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- D'Souza, D. (1991). *Illiberal education: The politics of race and sex on campus*. New York: Free Press.
- Dulewicz, V. & Higgs, M. (1996a). Can emotional intelligence be measured and developed? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 20, 242-252.
- Dulewicz, V. & Higgs, M. (1996b). *Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and Users' Guide*. Nelson, Windsor: ASE/NFER.
- Easley, C. A. (2001). Developing valuing and managing diversity in the new millennium. *Organization Development Journal*, 19(4), 38-50.

- Easterbrook, J. (1959). The effects of emotions on cue utilization and the organization of behavior. *Psychological Review*, 66(3), pp. 182-200.
- Easterland, T. (1997). Support is fading for racial, gender, ethnic preferences. *San Diego Tribune*, 7 p. 2.
- Eisaguirre, L. (1999). *Affirmative action*. Santa Barbara: ABC-CLIO.
- Ely, R. & Thomas, D. (2001) Cultural diversity at work: The effects of diversity perspectives on work group processes and outcomes. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 46(2), 229-273.
- England, D., (2002). Inner leadership-personal transformation. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 34, 21-27.
- Epstein, S. (1979). The stability of behavior: I. On predicting most of the people much of the time. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 37, 1097-1126.
- Epstein, S. (1998). *Constructive thinking: The key to emotional intelligence*. New York: Praeger.
- Erickson, C. (1960). Discrimination and learning without awareness: A methodology survey and evaluation. *Psychological Review*, 67, 279-300.
- Eysenck, H. (1997). Personality and experimental psychology: The unification of psychology and the possibility of a paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73, 1224-1237.
- Fischer, D. & Fick, C., (1993). Measuring social desirability: Short forms of the Marlowe-Crowne of social desirability scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 53, 417-424.
- Fiske, D. (1949). Consistency of the factorial structure of personality ratings from different sources. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 44, 329-344.
- Fiske, S. & Neuberg, S. (1990). A continuum of impression-formation, from category-based to individual processes: Influences of information and motivation on attention and interpretation. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 23, 1-74.
- Friday, E. & Friday, S. (2003). Managing diversity using a strategic planned change approach. *The Journal of Management Development*. 22(9/10), 863-880.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.

- Garnett, J. (1919). General ability, cleverness, and purpose. *British Journal of Psychology*, 9, 345-366.
- George, J. & Zhou, J. (2001). When openness to experience and conscientiousness are related to creative behavior: An interactional approach. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 513-524.
- Goldberg, L. (1981). Language and individual differences: The search for universals in personality lexicons. In L. Wheeler (Ed.) *Review of personality and social psychology*, (Vol. 2, pp. 141-165). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Goldberg, L. (1990). An alternate "Description of personality": The big-five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59, 1216-1229.
- Goldberg, L. (1993) The structure of the phenotypic personality traits. *American Psychologist*, 48, 23-34.
- Goleman, D. (1995). *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (1998). *Working with emotional intelligence*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D. (2004). What makes a leader? *Harvard Business Review*, 82, 82-90.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R., & McKee, A. (2002). *Primal leadership: Realizing the power of emotional intelligence*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Goodstein, R. Ponterotto, J. (1997). Racial and ethnic identity: Their relationship and their contribution to self-esteem. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 23, 275-292.
- Grant, B., & Kleiner, B. (1997). Managing diversity in the workplace. *Equal Opportunities International*, 16, 26-32.
- Graziano, W., Jensen-Campbell, L. & Hair, E. (1996). Perceiving interpersonal conflict and reacting to it: The case for agreeableness. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, 70, 820-835.
- Green, J. (2004). Affirmative action: Challenges and opportunities. *B.Y.U. Education and Law Journal*, 2004 (1). 136-154.
- Green, S. (1991). How many subjects does it take to do a regression analysis? *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 26(3), 449-510.
- Gross, J., & Levenson, R. (1997). Hiding the feelings: The acute effects of inhibiting negative and positive emotions. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 106, 95-102.

- Groves, K., McEnrue, M.P., & Shen, W. 2008. Developing and measuring the emotional intelligence of leaders. *Journal of management development* 27 (2), 225-250.
- Guernsey, J. (1997). *Affirmative action: A problem or a remedy?* Minneapolis, MN: Lerner Publications Company.
- Guilford, J. & Zimmerman, W. (1949). *The Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament survey*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Gutman, A. (2000). *EEO law and personnel practices* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Harvey, C. (2005) Introduction to understanding and managing diversity-for the student (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.) In C. Harvey & J Allard (Eds.) *Understanding amd Managing Diversity: Reading, cases, and exercises*, (pp 1-6), Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson-Prentice Hall.
- Helms, J. (1990) *Black and white racial identity: Theory, research, and practice*. New York: Greenwood Press.
- Helms, J. (1994) The conceptualization of racial identity and other “racial” constructs. In E. Trickett, R. Watts, & D. Birman (Ed.), *Human diversity: Perspectives on people in context* (pp. 285-311). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Herkenhoff, L., (2004). Culturally tuned emotional intelligence: An effective change management tool? *Strategic Change*, 13, 73-81.
- Hofstee, W., De Raad, B., & Goldberg, L. (1992). Integration of the big five and circumplex approaches to trait structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 63, 146-163.
- Hogan, R. (1983). Socioanalytical theory personality. In M. Page (Ed.), *Nebraska symposium on motivation: Personality-current theory and research*, (pp 55-89), Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Hopkins, W. E., & Hopkins, S. A. (2001). Diversity and managerial value commitment: A test of some proposed relationships. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13(3), 288-306.
- Huy, Q. (1999). Emotional capability, emotional intelligence, and radical change. *Academy of Management Review*, 24, 325-345.
- Issen, A., Shalker, T., Clark, M., & Karp, L. (1978). Affect, accessibility of material in memory, and behavior: A cognitive loop? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 36, 1-12.



- Izard, C., & Buechler, S. (1980). Aspects of consciousness and personality in terms of differential emotions theory. In R. Plutchik & H. Kellerman (Eds.), *Emotion: Theory, research and experience* (Vol. 1, pp 165-187). New York: Academic Press.
- John, O. (1989). Towards a taxonomy of personality descriptors. In D. Buss, & N Cantor (Eds.), *Personality psychology: Recent trends and emerging directions*. (pp 261-271). New York: Springer-Verlag.
- John, O. (1990). The “Big-Five” factor taxonomy: Dimensions of personality in natural languages and questionnaires. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.) *Handbook of personality: Theory and research* (pp. 66-100). New York: Guilford Press.
- John, O., Caspi, A., Robbins, R., Moffitt, T., & Stouthamer-Loeber, M. (1994). The “little-five”: Exploring the nomological network of the five-factor model of personality in adolescent boys. *Child Development*, 65, 160-178.
- John, O., & Robins, R. (1993). Gordon Allport: Father and critic of the five-factor model. In K. Craik, R. Hogan, & R. Wolfe (Eds.), *Fifty years of personality psychology* (pp. 215-236). New York: Plenum Press.
- John, O., & Srivastava S. (1999). The big five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. Pervin & O. John (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research* (pp. 102-138). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Jones, J. (1985). The genesis and present status of affirmative action in employment: Economic, legal and political realities. *Iowa Law Review*. 70, 901-944.
- Jordan, P., Ashkanasy, N., Hartel, C., & Hooper, G. (2002). Workgroup emotional intelligence: Scale development and relationship to team process effectiveness and goal focus. *Human Resources Management Review*, 12, 195-214.
- Judge, T., & Bono, J., (2001). A rose by any other name: Are self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, neuroticism, and locus of control indicators of a common construct? In B. Roberts & R. Hogan (Eds.), *Personality psychology in the workplace*(pp. 93-118). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association
- Kabasakal, H., Sozen, Z., & Usdiken, B. (1989). Organizational context, structural attributes and management systems in construction firms. *Construction Management and Economics*, 7, 247-356.
- Kelly, G. (1955). *A theory of personality: The psychology of personal constructs*. New York: Norton.

- Kelly, H. (1992). Common-sense psychology and scientific psychology. In M. Rosenzweig & L. Porter (Eds.), *Annual reviews of psychology* (Vol 43, pp. 1-23). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Keys, A., Brozek, J., Henschel, A., Mickelsen, O., & Taylor, H. (1950). *The biology of human starvation*. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.
- Kulik, C., & Bainbridge, T. (2006). Psychological perspectives on workplace diversity. In A. Konrad, P. Prasad, & J. Pringle (Eds.), *Handbook of workplace diversity* (pp 25-52). London: Sage Publications
- Kunnanatt, J. (2004). Emotional intelligence: The new science of interpersonal effectiveness. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 15(4), 489-494.
- Kurowski, L. (2002). Document cloaked culture and veiled diversity: Why theorists ignored early US workforce diversity. *Management Decision*, 40 (1-2), 183-191.
- Lamiell, J. (1997). Individuals and differences between them. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 117-141). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- Lane, R., Quinlan, D., Schwartz, G., Walker, P., & Zeitlin, S. (1990). The levels of emotional awareness scale: A cognitive-development measure of emotion. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 55, 124-134.
- Lazarus, R. (1966). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lee, K., Ashton, M., & Shin, K. (2005). Personality correlates of workplace anti-social behavior. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 54, 81-98.
- Lee, R. (1999). The evolution of affirmative action. *Public Personnel Management*, 28(3), 393-408.
- Leeper, R. (1948). A motivational theory of emotions to replace "emotions as disorganized response." *Psychological Review*, 5, 5-21.
- Leuner, B. (1966). Emotional intelligence and emancipation. *Praxis de Kinderpsychologie und Kinderpsychiatrie*, 15, 196-203.
- Levine, K., Chein, I., & Murphy, G. (1942). The relation of the intensity of a need to the amount of perceptual distortion: A preliminary report. *Journal of Psychology*, 13, 283-293.
- Lewin, K. (1948). *Resolving social conflicts*. New York: Harper.

- Loden, M. (1996). *Implementing diversity*. Boston: McGraw Hill.
- Loden, M., & Rosener, J. B. (1991). *Workforce America! Managing employee diversity as a vital resource*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lorbiecki, A. (2001). Changing views on diversity management: The rise of the learning perspective and the need to recognize social and political contradictions. *Management Learning*, 32(3), 345-361.
- Mandler, G. (1975). *Mind and emotion*. New York: Wiley.
- Marcel, A. (1983). Conscious and unconscious perceptions: Experiments on visual masking and word recognition. *Cognitive Psychology*, 15, 197-237.
- Matthews, A. (1998). Diversity: A principle of human resource management. *Public Personnel Management*, 27(2), 175-185.
- Matthews, G., Zeidner, M., & Roberts, R. (2004). *Emotional intelligence: Science & myth*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT press.
- Mayer, J., DiPaolo, M., & Salovey, P. (1990). Perceiving affective content in ambiguous visual stimuli: A component of emotional intelligence. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 54, 772-781.
- Mayer, J., & Mitchell, D. (1998). Intelligence as a subsystem of personality: From Spearman's *g* to contemporary models of hot-processing. In W. Tomic & J. Kingma (Eds.), *Advances in cognition and educational practice* (Vol. 5, pp. 43-75). Greenwich, CT: JAI press.
- Mayer, J., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.), *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications* (pp. 3-24). New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2000). Models of emotional intelligence. In R.J. Sternberg (Ed.), *Handbook of intelligence* (pp. 396-420), Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Mayer, J., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2002). *MSCEIT user's manual*. Toronto: Multi-Health Systems.
- Mayer, J., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence with the MSCEIT V2.0. *Emotion*, 3, 97-105.
- Mayer, J., Salovey, P., Caruso, D., & Sitarenios, G. (2001). Emotional intelligence as a standard intelligence. *Emotions*, 1, 232-242.

- McAdams, D. (1992). The five-factor model in personality: A critical appraisal. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 329-361.
- McAdams, D. (1997). A conceptual history of personality psychology. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson, & S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* (pp. 3-39), San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- McCall, C. (2001). *An empirical examination of the Likert scale: Some assumptions, development, and cautions, Presented at the 80<sup>th</sup> CERA Conference, Lake Tahoe, CA November 15-16, 2001*
- McCrae, R. (1990). Traits and trait names: How well is openness represented in natural languages? *European Journal of Personality*, 4, 119-129.
- McCrae, R. (1994). Openness to experience: Expanding the boundaries of factor V. *European Journal of Personality*, 8, 251-272.
- McCrae, R. (1996). Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120, 323-337.
- McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1985). Openness to experience. In R. Hogan & W. Jones (Eds.), *Perspectives in personality* (Vol. 1, pp. 145-172). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model across instruments and observers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52, 81-90.
- McCrae, R., & Costa, P. (1996). Toward a new generation of personality theories: Theoretical contexts for the Five-Factor Model. In J Wiggins (Ed.) *The Five-Factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives*. (pp.51-88). New York, The Guilford Press.
- McCrae, R. & Costa, P. (2003). *Personality in adulthood: A five factor theory perspective*. New York: The Guildford Press.
- McCrae, R., & John, O. (1992). An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, 60, 175-215.
- McEnrue, M & Groves, K., (2006). Choosing among tests of emotional intelligence: What's the evidence, *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 17, (1) 9-42.
- Meyerson, D., & Martin, J., (1987). Cultural change: An integration of three different views, *The Journal of Management Studies*, 24(6), 623-647.
- Miller, F. ( 1998). Strategic culture change: The door to achieving high performance and inclusion. *Public Personnel Management*, 27, 151-160.

- Miller, G. E., & Roney, J. I. (1999). Workplace diversity management in a multicultural society. *Women in Management Review*, 14(8), 307-315.
- Moberg, D. (1999). The big five and organizational virtue. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 9, 245-272.
- Moberg, P. (1998). Predicting conflict strategy with personality traits: Incremental validity and the five-factor model. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 9(3), 258-285.
- Moberg, P. (2001). Linking strategy to the five-factor model: Theoretical and empirical foundations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 12(1) 47-68.
- Mount, M., Barrick, M. & Stewart, G. (1998). Five-factor model of personality and performance in jobs involving interpersonal interactions. *Human Performance*, 11, 145-165.
- Moynihan, L., & Peterson, R. (2004). The role of personality in group processes. In B. Schneider & D Smith (Eds.), *Personality and organizations*. (pp. 317-346). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Murphy, G. (1932). *An historical introduction to modern psychology* (4<sup>th</sup> rev. ed.). New York: Harcourt, Brace.
- Northouse, P. (2001). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Nunnally, J., & Bernstein, I (1994). *Psychometric theory*. New York, McGraw-Hill.
- Ortony, A., Clore, G., & Collins, A. (1988). *The cognitive structures of emotions*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Page, S., (2007). Making the difference: Applying a logic of diversity. *The Academy of Management Perspective*, 21, 4, 6-20.
- Palfai, T., & Salovey, P. (1993). The influence of depressed and elated moods on deductive and inductive reasoning. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 13, 57-71.
- Palmer, B., Gignac, G., Manocha, R., & Stough, C. (2005). A psychometric evaluation of the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso emotional intelligence test version 2.0. *Intelligence*, 33, 285-305.
- Parker, J. (1991). *In search of the person: The historical development of American personality psychology*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, York University, Toronto.

- Parker, J. (2000). Emotional intelligence: Clinical and therapeutic implications. In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (Eds.), *The handbook of emotional intelligence* (pp. 490-504). San Francisco: Jossey-Boss.
- Payne, W. (1986). A study of emotion: Developing emotional intelligence, self-integration, relating to fear, pain, and desire (Doctorial dissertation, The Union for Experimenting Colleges and Universities, 1985). *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 47, 203.
- Peabody, D., & Goldberg, L. (1989). Some determinants of factor structures from personality trait-descriptors. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57, 552-567.
- Pennings, J. (1975). The relevance of the structural-contingency model for organizational effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20, 393-410.
- Pervin, L. (1994). A critical analysis of current trait theory. *Psychological Inquiry*, 5, 103-113.
- Phinney, J. (1990). Ethnic identity in adolescents and adults: Review of research. *Psychological Bulletin*. 108, (3), 499-514.
- Phinney, J. (1992). The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure: A new scale for use with adolescents and young adults from diverse groups. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 7, 156-176.
- Phinney, J. (1996) Understanding ethnic diversity. *The American Behavioral Scientist*. 40(2), 143-152.
- Pless, N., & Maak, T. (2004). Building an inclusive diversity culture: Principles, processes and practice. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 54(2), 129-140.
- Plutchik, R. (1980). A general psychoevolutionary theory of emotion. In R. Plutchik & H. Kellerman (Eds.), *Emotion: Theory, research, and experience* (Vol. 1, pp. 3-22). New York: Academic Press.
- Ponterotto, J., Gretchen, D., Utsey, S., Stracuzzi, T., & Saya, R. (2003). The multigroup ethnic identity measure (MEIM): Psychometric review and further validity testing. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 63(3), 502-515.
- Postman, L., Bruner, J., & McGinnies, E. (1948). Personal values as selective factors in perceptions. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 43, 142-154.
- Prochaska, J. (1999). How do people change, and how can we change to help many more people? In M Hubble, B. Duncan & S. Miller (Eds.), *The heart and soul of*

- change: What works in therapy* (pp. 227-258). Washington, DC: American Psychology Association.
- Pusey, F. (2000). *Emotional intelligence and success in the workplace: Relationship to job performance*. Unpublished master's thesis, Guildhall University, London.
- Richards, O., & Johnson, N. B. (2001). Understanding the impact of human resource diversity practices on firm performance. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 13(2), 177-195.
- Roberts, R. E., Phinney, J. S., Mase, L. C., Chen, Y. R., Roberts, C. R. & Romero, A. (1999). The structure of ethnic identity of young adolescents from diverse ethnocultural groups. *Journal of Early Adolescence*, 19, 301-322.
- Robins, R., John, O., & Caspi, A. (1994). Major dimensions of personality in early adolescence: The big five and beyond. In C. Halverson, J Kohnstamm, & R. Martin (Eds.), *The developing structure of temperament and personality from infancy to adulthood* (pp. 267-291), Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Robins, R., Nofle, E., Trzesniewski, K., & Roberts, B. (2005). Do people know how their personality has changed? Correlates of perceived and actual personality change in young adulthood. *Journal of Personality*, 73, 489-522.
- Rogers, C. (1961). *On becoming a person* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- Rotter, J. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcements. *Psychological Monographs*, 80, 1-28.
- Rotter, J. (1975). Some problems and misconceptions related to the construct of internal versus external control of reinforcements. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 40, 313-321.
- Saarni, C. (1990). Emotional competence: How emotions and relationships become integrated. In R. Thomson (Ed.), *Socioemotional development: Nebraska symposium on motivation*. (Vol. 36, pp. 115-182). Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press.
- Saarni, C. (1999). *The development of emotional competence*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Salovey, P., Bedell, B., Detweiler, J., & Mayer, J. (2000). Current directions in emotional intelligence research. In M. Lewis & J. Haviland-Jones (Eds.), *Handbook of emotions*. (pp. 144-161). New York: Guilford Press.
- Salovey, P., Brackett, M., & Mayer, J. (2004). Introduction. In P. Salovey, M. Brackett, & D. Mayer (Eds.) *Emotional Intelligence: Key readings on the Mayer and Salovey model* (pp. i-v). Port Chester, NY: Dude Publishing

- Salovey, P., & Mayer, J. (1990). Emotional intelligence. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9, 185-211.
- Salovey, P. Mayer, J., & Caruso, D. (2002). The positive psychology of emotional intelligence. In C.R. Snyder & S. Lopez (Eds.) *The handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 159-171). New York.: Oxford University press.
- Salovey, P. Mayer, J., & Caruso, D. (2003). Measuring emotional intelligence as a set of abilities with the Mayer-Salovey-Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test. In S. Lopez & C. Snyder (Eds.), *Positive Psychological Assessment* (pp. 251-265). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.
- Salovey, P., Woolery, A., & Mayer, J. (in press). Emotional intelligence: Conceptualization and measurement. In G. Fletcher & M. Clark (Eds.), *The Blackwell Handbook of social psychology: Interpersonal processes*. Oxford, England: Blackwell Publishers.
- Sanford, F., & Wrightsman L. (1970). *Psychology: A scientific study of man* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Belmont, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Sanford, N. (1963). Personality: Its place in psychology. In S. Koch (Ed.), *Psychology: A study of a science* (Vol. 5, pp. 488-592). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Saucier, G. (1992). Openness versus intellect: Much ado about nothing? *European Journal of Personality*, 8, 273-290.
- Saucier, G., & Goldberg, L. (1996). The language of personality: Lexical perspectives on the five-factor model. In J. Wiggins (Ed.), *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 21-50). New York: The Guilford Press.
- Schneider, B. (1987). The people make the place. *Personnel Psychology*, 40, 437-453.
- Schneider, B., & Smith, B. (2004), Personality and organizational culture. In B. Schneider & D Smith (Eds.) *Personality and organizations* (pp 347-369). Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Schuck, P. (2002). Affirmative action. *The Brookings Review*, 20(1), 24-27.
- Schwarz, N. (1990). Feelings as information: Information and motivational functions of affective states. In E. Higgins & E. Sorrentino (Eds.), *Handbook of motivation and cognition*, (Vol. 2, pp. 527-561). New York: Guilford Press.
- Shipper, F., Kincaid, J., Rotondo, D., & Hoffman, R. (2003). A cross-cultural exploratory study of the linkage between emotional intelligence and managerial effectiveness. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 11, 171-191.

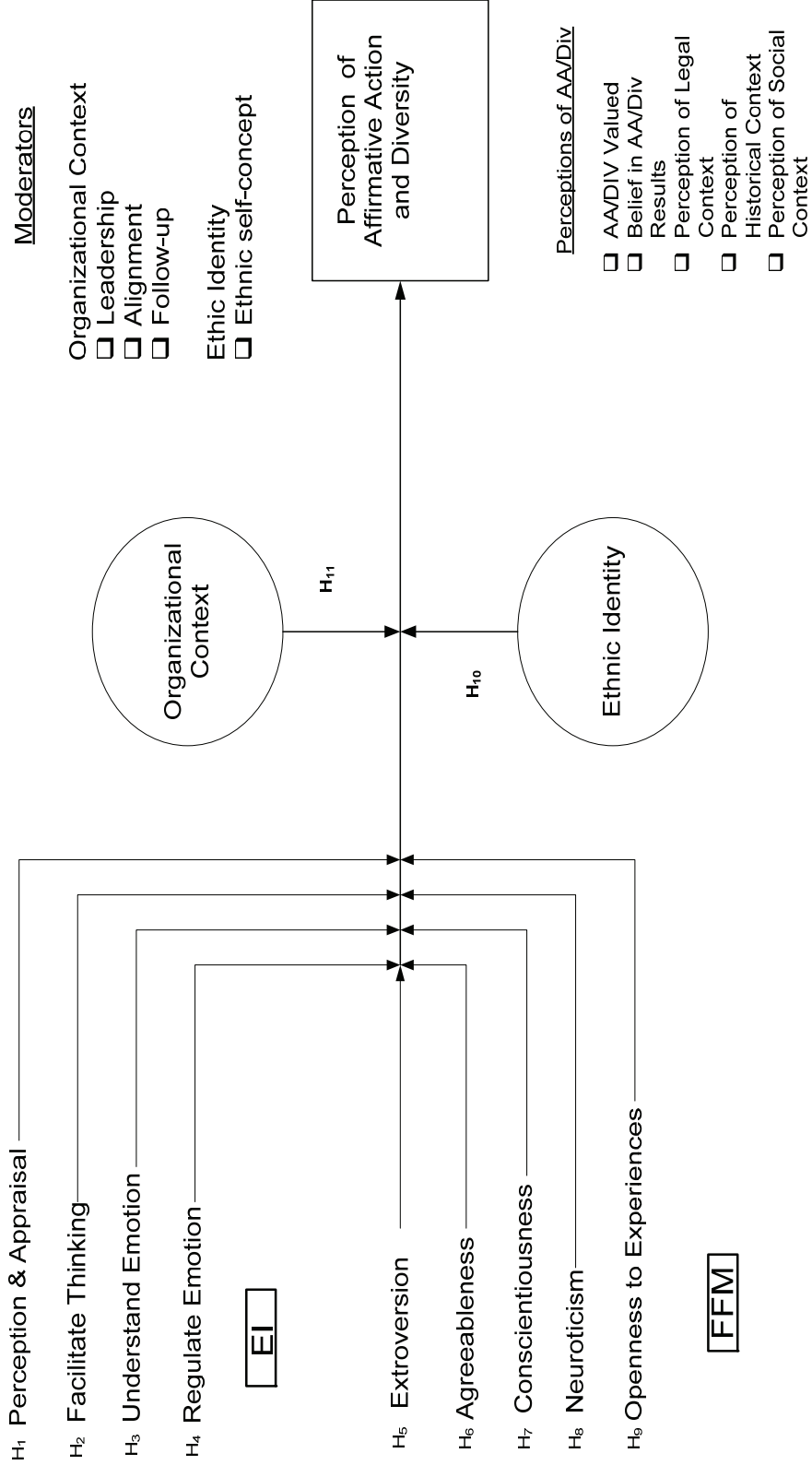


- Simon, H. (1982). Comments. In M.S. Clark & S.T. Fiske (Eds.), *Affect and cognition* (pp. 333-342). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Smith, W., Wokutch, R., Harrington, K. & Dennis, B. (2004). Organizational attractiveness and corporate orientation: Do our values influence our preference for affirmative action and managing diversity? *Business and Society*, 43(1), 69-96.
- Snell, W., McDonald, K., & Koch, W. (1991). Anger provoking experiences: A multidimensional scaling analysis. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 12, 1095-1104.
- Solomon, R., & Postman, L. (1952). Frequency of usage as a determinant of recognition thresholds for words. *Journal of experimental Psychology*, 43, 195-201.
- Sonnenschein, W. (1999). *The diversity toolkit*. Chicago: Contemporary Books.
- Spangler, W., House, R., & Palrecha, R. (2004). Personality and leadership. In B. Schneider & D. Smith (Eds.), *Personality and organizations* (pp 251-290). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Spearman, C. (1904), General intelligence, objectively determined and measured. *American Journal of Psychology*, 15, 201-293.
- Stagner, R. (1994). Traits and theoreticians. *Psychological Inquiry*, 5, 166-168.
- Staw, B., & Barsade, S. (1993). Affect and managerial performance: A test of the sadder-but-wiser vs. happier-and-smarter hypothesis. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38, 304-331.
- Sternberg, R. (1985). *Beyond IQ: A triarchic theory of human intelligence*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Stogdill, R. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71.
- Stogdill, R. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. New York: Free Press.
- Strahan, R., & Gerbasi, K. (1972). Short, homogeneous version of the Crowne-Marlowe social desirability scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 28, 191-193.
- Tajfel, H. (1982). *Social identity and intergroup relations*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. Astin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.
- Taub, D. (1995). Relationships of selected factors to traditional-age undergraduate women's development of autonomy. *Journal of College Students Development*, 36, 141-151.
- Tellegen, A. (1985). Structure of mood and personality and their relevance to assessing anxiety, with emphasis on self-report. In A. Tuma & J. Maser (Eds.), *Anxiety and the anxiety disorders* (pp. 681-706). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Tett, R., Guterman, H., Bleier, A., & Murphy, P. (2000). Development and content validation of a "hyperdimensional" taxonomy of managerial competence. *Human Performance*, 13, 205-251.
- Thomas, E., & Phua, F., (2005). Reliability among senior managers of the Marlowe-Crowne short-form social desirability scale. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 19, 541-554.
- Thorndike, E. (1905). *The elements of psychology*. New York: A. G. Seiler.
- Thurstone, L. (1934). The vectors of mind. *Psychological Review*, 41, 1-32.
- Tidwell, M., & Sias, P. (2005). Personality and information seeking. *Journal of Business Communication*, 42, 51-77.
- Tomkins, S (1962). *Affect, imagery, and consciousness: The positive affects (Vol. 1)*. New York: Springer.
- Topping, K., Holmes, E., & Bremmer, W. (2000). The effectiveness of school-based programs for the promotion of social competence. In R. Bar-On & J. Parker (Eds.). *The handbook of emotional intelligence*. (pp. 411-432). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Trapnell, P. (1994). Openness versus intellect: A lexical left turn. *European Journal of Personality*, 8, 273-290.
- Tupes, E., & Christal, R. (1961). *Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings*, (USAF ASD Tech. Rep. No. 61-97). Lackland Air Force Base, TX: U.S. Air Force.
- Tupes, E., & Christal, R. (1992). Recurrent personality factors based on trait ratings, *Journal of Personality*, 60, 225-261.

- United States Census (2000). *2000 U. S. census*, retrieved on July 1, 2004 from <http://www.census.gov/>
- United State Department of Commerce (2005). *Bureau of economic analysis*, retrieved on Oct, 1 2005 from [http://www.commerce.gov/economic\\_analysis.html](http://www.commerce.gov/economic_analysis.html)
- Updegraff, S. (2004). Maximizing human potential: Tips to foster personal effectiveness, *Employment Relations Today*, 31, 43-50.
- Van Rooy, D., & Viswesvaran, C. (2004) Emotional intelligence: A meta-analytic investigation of predictive validity and nomological net. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 65, 71-95.
- Vernon, P. (1933). The American v. the German methods of approach to the study of temperament and personality. *British Journal of Psychology*, 24, 156-177.
- Vogt, W. (1999). *Dictionary of statistics & methodology: A nontechnical guide for the social sciences*, (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Webb, E. (1915), Character and intelligence. *British Journal of Psychology Monographs*, 1(3) 1-99.
- Weech-Maldonado, R., Dreachslin, J. L., Dansky, K. H., De Souza, G., & Gatto, M. (2002). Racial/ethnic diversity management and culture competency: The case of Pennsylvania hospitals/ practitioner application. *Journal of Healthcare Management*, 47(2), 111-127.
- Wentling, R., & Palma-Rivas, N. (1998). Current status and future trends of diversity initiatives in the workplace: Diversity experts' perspectives. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 9, 235-253.
- Whitbourne, S. (1986). Openness to experience, identity flexibility, and life change in adults. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 50, 163-168.
- Wiggins, J. (1968). Personality structure. In P. Farnsworth (Ed.), *Annual review of psychology*, (Vol. 19, pp. 320-322). Palo Alto, CA: Annual Reviews.
- Wiggins, J. (Ed.) (1996). *The five-factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Wiggins, J., & Trapnell, P. (1996). A dyadic-interactional perspective on the five-factor model. In J Wiggins (Ed.), *The Five-Factor model of personality: Theoretical perspectives* (pp. 88-162). New York: Guilford Press.

- Winter, D., & Barenbaum, N. (1999). History of modern personality theory and research. In L. Pervin & O. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality* (pp. 3-27). New York: The Gilford Press.
- Witt, L., Burke, L., Barrick, M., & Mount, M. (2002). The interactive effects of conscientiousness and agreeableness on job performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 164-169.
- Zhou, J., & George, J. (2003). Awakening employee creativity: The role of leader emotional intelligence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 545-568.
- Zirkel, S. (2000). Social intelligence: The development and maintenance of purposive behavior. In R. Bar-On & D. Parker (Eds.) *The Handbook of emotional intelligence: Theory, development, assessment, and application at home, school, and in the workplace* (pp. 3-17) San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.



## APPENDIX B

### Pepperdine University IRB Approval

# PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY

Graduate School of Education and Psychology

June 13, 2007

David Hurlic  
230 N. Palo Cedro Dr.  
Diamond Bar, CA 91765

**Protocol #: E0407006**

**Project Title: *Diversity Congruency Within Organizations: The Relationships Among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity***

Dear Mr. Hurlic:

Thank you for submitting your revised application *Diversity Congruency Within Organizations: The Relationships Among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity*, for expedited review to the Pepperdine Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB). The IRB has reviewed your revised submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. As the nature of the research met the requirements for expedited review under provision T-to 45 CFR 46.110 (research category 7) of the Federal Protection of Human Subjects Act, the IRB conducted a formal, but expedited, review of your application materials.

I am pleased to inform you that your application for your study was granted **Full Approval**. The IRB approval begins today, **June 13<sup>th</sup>, 2007**, and terminates on **June 13<sup>th</sup>, 2008**.

Your first consent form will need to be stamped by the IRB to indicate the expiration date of study approval. Please send 2 hard copies or electronic copies of the consent form to Ms. Susan Lee, at 6100 Center Dr. 6<sup>th</sup> Floor Los Angeles, CA 90045 ([gsirbu@pepperdine.edu](mailto:gsirbu@pepperdine.edu) for electronic copies) so that she may stamp them. One copy of the consent form will be mailed to back to you, and one copy will be retained for our records. If you need an electronic copy of your consent please let us know so that we may send you the stamped consent by email. You can only use copies of the consent that have been stamped with the GPS IRB expiration date to consent your participants.

Please note that your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the GPS 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. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for expedited review and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the GPS IRB. If contact with subjects will extend beyond **June 13<sup>th</sup>, 2008**, a **Continuation or Completion of Review Form** must be submitted at least one month prior to the expiration date of study approval to avoid a lapse in approval.

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. If notified, 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.

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. Thank you for

submitting such complete and thorough application. On behalf of the GPS IRB I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

*Stephanie H. Woo, Ph.D.*

Stephanie Woo, Ph.D.  
Chair, Graduate and Professional Schools Institutional Review Board  
Graduate School of Education and Psychology  
6100 Center Drive 5<sup>th</sup> Floor  
Los Angeles, CA 90045  
swoo@pepperdine.edu

cc: Dr. Lee Kats, Associate Provost for Research & Assistant Dean of Research, Seaver College  
Ms. Ann Kratz, Human Protections Administrator  
Dr. Stephanie Woo, Chairperson, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB  
Ms. Jean Lee, Manager, Graduate and Professional Schools IRB  
Dr. Farzan Madjid  
Dr. Doug Leigh  
Ms. Christie De la

## APPENDIX C

### Pepperdine University Consent Form

#### Consent for Research Study

Diversity Congruency within Organizations  
The Relationships Among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity,  
Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity

I \_\_\_\_\_, agree to participate in the research study being conducted by David Hurlie under the direction of Dr. D Leigh, Ph.D., and Pepperdine University, Graduate School of Education and Psychology. This study is being conducted as part of a dissertation research project.

I attest with my signature below that I have read and understood the above description of this study, its purpose/s, and procedures. In addition, as a condition to participate in this study, I acknowledge that I have worked for an organization (profit or not for profit) within the last six-months.

**Purpose:** I understand that the purpose of this study is to explore the relationships among: Emotional Intelligence (EI) (consisting of perception and appraisal, facilitating thinking, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions), Personality Structure (PTM) (consisting of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experiences), Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context (OC), and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity.

**Duration:** I understand that the expected duration of my participation will be approximately 1 hour to complete a battery of six quantitative self-report questionnaires. The survey will be conducted at Pepperdine University (Graduate School of Education and Graduate School of Business), Loyola Marymount University (Conrad Hilton School of Management), and California State University at Los Angeles (School of Business and Economics).

**Procedures:** I understand that an informed consent form will be given to individuals that volunteer to participate in the survey. After signing the consent form and returning it to the primary researcher I will be given a survey and a copy of the consent form for my use.

I understand that the survey consists of a battery six instruments and a demographic section described below.

1. **The Emotional Intelligence Self-Description Inventory (EISDI).** The scale, created by Grove, McEnroe and Shen (2006), measures how an individual uses his or her emotions to aid decision-making. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).
2. **The Big-Five Inventory Test (BFI).** The scale, created by John (1996), measures how an individual describes their personality within the Big-Five Taxonomy. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).
3. **Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM).** The scale, created by Phinney (1992), measures the strength of an individual's ethnic identity. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).
4. **Organizational Context Perception Instrument (OCPI).** The scale, created by the Principal Investigator, for this study, measures the perception of individuals about their



### Consent for Research Study

Diversity Congruency within Organizations:  
The Relationships Among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity,  
Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity

- organization's leadership, alignment and follow-up with regards to diversity. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).
5. **Affirmative Action and Diversity Perception Instrument (AADPI)**. The scale, created by the Principal Investigator, for this study, measures the perception of individuals concerning affirmative action and diversity. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).
  6. **Social Desirability Scale MC-1**. The Stryhan-Gerbasi short-form (1972) requests that the respondent indicate whether or not statements are true or false of their typical behaviors. The score from the scale is used to control for the tendency for people to answer questions in a socially desirable manner.
  7. **Demographics**. Specific questions related to demographic characteristics including age, gender, and ethnicity are presented on the survey. In addition, subjects are asked about work and questions include job title, number of hours worked, and salary, etc. Finally subjects are asked to provide information about their highest degree attained and the highest level of education of parents.

Upon completing the survey I will return the survey to the primary researcher.

**Risks to Study Participants:** I understand that this investigation is felt to present limited or low risk or discomfort to me. Specifically, questions dealing with Neuroticism, Social Desirability, Affirmative Action and Diversity are sensitive subjects and could possibly expose some me to some psychological anxiety. If I become unduly upset by the questionnaire the researcher has informed me that I can immediately end my participation and return the unfinished survey, which will then be destroyed along with my consent form. In addition, the primary researcher will be available to discuss any thoughts or concerns I might have after the completion and collection of the survey.

**Benefits to Study Participants:** I understand that although it is not anticipated that I will benefit directly through my participation in this study, the study is expected to benefit organizations by allowing companies to identify specific factors contributing to affirmative action and diversity program acceptance or rejection by employees.

**Confidentiality:** I understand that the survey is anonymous, and as such, my participation in the study will be kept in strict confidence. My responses will be combined with the others and reported in summary form. In returning my completed consent form and survey, I am giving the researcher permission to publish and present the aggregate data. The data will be held in the researcher's office, in separate lock file cabinet (One for consent forms and one for completed surveys), for a minimum of five (5) years. I also understand that I will not be able to access my individual results but can view the cumulative results of the survey by contacting the primary researcher through the contact information on the consent form given to me.

**Participation:** I understand that my participation in the study is strictly voluntary. My participation or refusal to participate in this study will not affect my relationship or

### Consent for Research Study

Diversity Congruency within Organizations,  
The Relationships Among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity,  
Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity

standing with the university of which I am currently enrolled. Further, I understand that I may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any question without penalty. I have not been requested to waive and I do not waive any of my rights related to participation other than set forth herein. I understand that the results of my information will be confidential, anonymous, and accessible only to the researcher unless waived herein. I understand that summary results of this study will be freely available upon request by contacting the Principal Investigator via the address and/or phone number below.

#### Contact:

I understand that I may contact the following individuals if I have any questions about this study or my participation in the study.

**Principal Investigator David Hurlie, 210 N Palo Cedro Drive, Diamond Bar, CA 91765, (213) 244-5004**

Disertation Chair Dr. Doug Leigh, 6100 Center Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90045, (310) 568-5600

IRB Chair Dr. Stephanie Woo, 6100 Center Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90045, (310) 568-5600

**Summary:** I understand to my satisfaction the information regarding participation in this study. All my questions have been answer to my satisfaction. I have received a copy of this inform consent form which I have read and understand. I hereby consent to participate in the research describe above.

Participant's Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

I have explained and defined in detail the research procedure in which the subject has consented to participate. Having explained this and answered any questions, I am cosigning this form and accepting this person's consent.

Principal Investigator \_\_\_\_\_

Date \_\_\_\_\_

GRABER APPROVAL  
15814991466247

JUN 12 2008

ADG:JTB  
DATE ABOVE

## APPENDIX D

### Cal State University of Los Angeles IRB Approval

4-

#### Office Memorandum



DATE: July 22, 2007  
TO: David Hurlic, Pepperdine University  
Mary Pat McEnroe, Department of Management  
FROM: Ellen R. Stein, Institutional Review Board—Human Subjects Coordinator  
COPIES TO: J. Ipton, Chair; B. Figueroa, Executive Secretary  
SUBJECT: Review of Request to Involve Human Subjects

Applicant: David Hurlic/Mary Pat McEnroe  
Title: Diversity Congruency within Organizations: The Relationships Among Emotions, Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity  
Application #: IRB 03-53X  
Date of Review: July 23, 2007  
Action:  Approved (valid for one year)  
 Conditionally approved, pending - see below  
 Denied - see below  
 Tabled - see below  
 Administrative Action—Exempt  
 Informed Consent: The IRB waives documentation of informed consent, as the consent form signature would be the only identifier in an otherwise anonymous study. Use an informational cover letter instead.

APPROVAL PERIOD: 7/22/07 – 7/22/08

YOU MAY NOT CONTINUE BEYOND THE APPROVAL PERIOD WITHOUT SUBMITTING A CONTINUATION APPLICATION.

Office of Research and Sponsored Programs

## APPENDIX E

### Cal State University of Los Angeles Information Form

#### Perceptions of Affirmative Action and Diversity Project

To Project Participants:

You are invited to take part in a research project conducted by David Hurlic, a doctoral student at Pepperdine University. The primary researcher hopes to learn more about the relationship among emotional intelligence, personality, ethnic identity, organizational context and perceptions of an organization's affirmative action and diversity programs and policies. You were selected to participate in this study because you are a student at California State University at Los Angeles who has worked full or part-time for an organization (profit or not for profit) within the last six-months. It is the primary researcher's wish that this study will benefit organizations by allowing companies to identify specific factors contributing to affirmative action and diversity program acceptance or rejection by employees.

The survey requires approximately one-half hour to complete a battery of six quantitative self-report questionnaires. There are lots of questions; some are quite similar to each other. Please answer each question candidly and carefully to the best of your ability. The primary researcher is interested in your honest opinion. Your answers are important in helping primary researcher understand the relationships between organizational policies and programs, and individual perceptions.

**Your responses are completely anonymous. Understand that the survey is anonymous, and as such, your participation in the study will be kept in strict confidence. Your responses will be combined with the others and reported in summary form. In returning my completed survey, you are giving the researcher permission to publish and present the aggregate data. The surveys will be stored in locked filing cabinet in the private office of the primary investigator for a period of no more than 3 years after the completion of this project.**

Your participation in the project is entirely voluntary. If you choose NOT to participate, no adverse consequence will occur. You are free to withdraw from the project at any time now and in the future. If you choose to withdraw in the future, please contact: David Hurlic, Primary Researcher at 213-244-5004 or [d.hurlic@verizon.net](mailto:d.hurlic@verizon.net) to inform him of your decision.

If you have any questions about the project, please contact: David Hurlic, Primary Researcher at 213-244-5004 or [d.hurlic@verizon.net](mailto:d.hurlic@verizon.net) or Dr. Doug Leigh, Assistant Professor of Management, at 310-568-5600, [doughigh@pepperdine.edu](mailto:doughigh@pepperdine.edu).

I hope that you will find some of the questions interesting. I want to thank you very much for your help. If you choose not to take part there will be no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are entitled. If you agree to take part, you are free to withdraw from it at any time. Likewise, no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled will occur.

**The Emotional Intelligence Self Description Inventory (EISDI)**. The scale, created by Grove, McEnroe and Shen (2006), measures how an individual uses his or her emotions to aid decision-making. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).

**The Big-Five Inventory Test (BFI)**. The scale, created by John (1990), measures how an individual describes their personality within the Big-Five taxonomy. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).

**Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure (MEIM)**. The scale, created by Phinney (1992), measures the strength of an individual's ethnic identity. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).

**Organizational Context Perception Instrument (OCPI)**. The scale, created by the primary researcher, for this study, measures the perception of individuals about their organization's leadership, alignment and follow-up with regards to diversity. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).

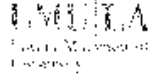
**Affirmative Action and Diversity Perception Instrument (AADPI)**. The scale, created by the primary researcher, for this study, measures the perception of individuals concerning affirmative action and diversity. The items are measured on a scale ranging from "strongly agree" (5) to "strongly disagree" (1).

**Social Desirability Scale MC-1**. The Strahan-Gerbasi short-form (1972) requests that the respondent indicate whether or not statements are true or false of their typical behaviors. The score from the scale is used to control for the tendency for people to answer questions in a socially desirable manner. The items require a True (T) or False (F) response.

**Demographics**. Specific questions related to demographic characteristics including age, gender, and ethnicity are presented on the survey. In addition, subjects are asked about work and questions include job title, number of hours worked, and salary, etc. Finally subjects are asked to provide information about their highest degree attained and the highest level of education of parents.

## APPENDIX F

### Loyola Marymount University IRB Approval



September 24, 2007

David H. Hoyle  
Loyola Marymount University  
Los Angeles, CA 90045-1294  
Tel: 310-340-1200  
Fax: 310-340-1200  
www.lmu.edu

#### MEMORANDUM

August 24, 2007

TO: David Hoyle  
Adjunct Professor  
Department of Management  
Loyola Marymount University

CC: Charles M. Varzak, Ph.D.  
Professor of Management  
College of Business Administration  
Filson 219  
Loyola Marymount University

FROM: Birat Anne Vileiza, Ph.D.  
Chair, LMU IRB Committee

RE: IRB Application for Exemption from Review for the project entitled:  
"Diversity Congruency within Organizations: The Relationships among Emotional  
Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context and  
Perceptions of Organizational Diversity."

Dear David,

The LMU IRB Committee recently reviewed your IRB application for Exemption from Review for the project entitled: "Diversity Congruency within Organizations: The Relationships among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity." I am pleased to let you know that your application has been approved.

The effective dates of your approval are August 24, 2007 – August 24, 2008.

If this project is to continue beyond August 2008, you must re-new your request with the LMU IRB prior to August 2008. The renewal application must refer to the newly assigned number LMU-IRB 2007 1-7. Please retain a copy of this letter in your files as your official authorization.

The LMU IRB operates under NIH/COIRP Federallywide Assurance FWA0005-214.

Best wishes for much success in your research project.

67. Application for Exemptions

LOYOLA MARYMOUNT UNIVERSITY  
APPLICATION FOR EXEMPTION  
from review by  
The Institutional Review Board (IRB)

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR of Study: David Hurlic  
Diversity Congruency within Organizations: The Relationships Among Leader Follower  
TITLE of Study: Personality Structure, Ethic Identity, Organizational Context and Perceptions of  
Organizational Diversity  
DURATION of Study: September 2007-September 2008 (1 year, renewable)  
If Student, list FACULTY SPONSOR: Charlie Vance  
(provide signature below)  
CITATION of Exemption Category (identify by number as shown on back of page): 1  
DESCRIPTION of Study and REASON for including it in the exempt category cited

(See Attachment #1 - 2 page description of the study)

7-16-07 [Signature] DAVID HURLIC  
Date Principal Investigator Signature Name (printed)  
7-30-07 [Signature] Charles Vance  
Date Faculty Sponsor, if not a Student Name (printed)  
8/24/07 [Signature] BRUCE VILCIS, Ph.D.  
Date IRB Approval Name (printed)

A copy will be sent to the Investigators Chair.

## APPENDIX G

### Loyola Marymount University Information Form

#### Information Form

Diversity Congruency within Organizations:  
The Relationships Among Emotional Intelligence, Personality Structure, Ethnic Identity,  
Organizational Context, and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity

**Purpose:** The purpose of this study is to explore the relationships among: Emotional Intelligence (EI) (consisting of perception and appraisal, facilitating thinking, understanding emotions, and regulating emotions), Personality Structure (PEM) (consisting of extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experiences), Ethnic Identity, Organizational Context (OC), and Perceptions of Organizational Diversity.

**Duration:** The expected duration of my participation will be approximately 30 mins. to complete a battery of six quantitative self-report questionnaires.

**Risks to Study Participants:** This investigation is felt to present limited or low risk or discomfort to participants. Specifically, questions dealing with Neuroticism, Social Desirability, Affirmative Action and Diversity are sensitive subjects and could possibly expose some you to some psychological anxiety.

**Benefits to Study Participants:** Although it is not anticipated that you will benefit directly through participation in this study, the study is expected to benefit organizations by allowing companies to identify specific factors contributing to affirmative action and diversity program acceptance or rejection by employees.

**Confidentiality:** The survey is anonymous, as such, your participation in the study will be kept in strict confidence. Your responses will be combined with the others and reported in summary form. The data will be held in the researcher's office, in a lock file cabinet, for a minimum of five (5) years.

**Participation:** Your participation in the study is strictly voluntary. Your participation or refusal to participate in this study will not affect my relationship with Loyola Marymount University. Further, you may withdraw at any time or refuse to answer any question without penalty. The results of your information will be anonymous, and accessible only to the researcher unless waived herein. The summary results of this study will be freely available upon request.

#### Contact:

I understand that I may contact the following individuals if I have any questions about this study or my participation in the study.

David Harlin, 310 N Palo Verde Drive, Diamond Bar, CA 91765. (213) 244-5004

Dissertation Chair Dr. Doug Leigh, 6100 Carter Drive, Los Angeles, CA 90045. (310) 568-5600



## APPENDIX H

### Diversity Congruency Survey

**Please answer the following questions based on how the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement based on your feelings and behaviors. Indicate your response by selecting an item on the corresponding scale:**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies in organizations are the result of the social changes happening in society today.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization communicates specific methods of reporting Affirmative Action and/or Diversity problems or concerns.	1	2	3	4	5
Departments, groups, and teams, within your organization, follow the policies, rules and procedure governing Affirmative Action and/or Diversity	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization communicates the advantage of Affirmative Action/ Diversity program and policies to its long term success.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a clear sense of my ethnic background and what it means for me.	1	2	3	4	5
I think a lot about how my life will be affected by my ethnic group membership.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies implemented in organizations achieve the social outcomes for which they were created.	1	2	3	4	5
Society does not need Diversity and Affirmative Action programs, policies, regulations and laws.	1	2	3	4	5
I participate in cultural practices of my own group, such as special food, music, or customs.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel a strong attachment towards my own ethnic group.	1	2	3	4	5
I feel good about my cultural or ethnic background.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies are the products of political change, in the United States, over the last half century.	1	2	3	4	5
Without political support Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies would not exist.	1	2	3	4	5
Politicians are responsible for laws that require organization to create and implement Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies.	1	2	3	4	5
Managers/Supervisors, in your organization, create and facilitate the proper environments needed to support the organization's Affirmative Action and/or Diversity programs/policies.	1	2	3	4	5
The majority of employees in your organization support the company's Affirmative Action and/or Diversity programs/policies	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization actively recruits, develops and promotes a diverse range of individuals.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization has an Affirmative Action/Diversity training or education program.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies exist to rectify historical practices.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies exist to set right historical practices.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies achieve the goals they were design for.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies do more harm than good	1	2	3	4	5

Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies will always be needed.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization rewards and recognizes individuals that support Diversity and Affirmative Action policies and programs.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization communicates or reports its Diversity or Affirmative Action results.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization has an ongoing management/employee team that is responsible for measuring, analyzing, and reporting Diversity/ Affirmative Action outcomes.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization has an individual and group recognition program in place for its Affirmative Action/Diversity programs.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action are the most challenging issues facing our society today.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders in your organization communicate the importance and urgency of its Affirmative Action and/or Diversity programs/policies.	1	2	3	4	5
Manager/Supervisors below the organization's leaders, in your organization believe and support the organization's Affirmative Action and/or Diversity programs/policies.	1	2	3	4	5
I am happy that I am a member of the group I belong to.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a strong sense of belonging to my own ethnic group.	1	2	3	4	5
I understand pretty well what my ethnic group membership means to me.	1	2	3	4	5
In order to learn more about my ethnic background, I have often talked to other people about my ethnic group.	1	2	3	4	5
I have a lot of pride in my ethnic group.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization has a mentoring program that identifies and develops a diverse group of individuals.	1	2	3	4	5
I have spent time trying to find out more about my ethnic group, such as its history, traditions, and customs.	1	2	3	4	5
I am active in organizations or social groups that include mostly members of my own ethnic group.	1	2	3	4	5
Your organization links Affirmative Action and Diversity results to firm performance or organizational benefits.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies benefit organizations.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies have a positive effect on productivity.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies have a positive impact on profitability.	1	2	3	4	5
Leaders in your organization communicate a clear vision, goal, or direction for its Affirmative Action and/or Diversity programs/policies.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies are only created and implemented by organizations because of the law.	1	2	3	4	5
Most organizations create and implement Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies because they broke the law in the past.	1	2	3	4	5
Punishments for Affirmative Action violations are too harsh.	1	2	3	4	5
Punishments for Affirmative Action violations are too lenient.	1	2	3	4	5
Diversity and Affirmative Action programs and policies exist because of the United State's historical practices.	1	2	3	4	5

**Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. Please circle a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.**

<i>I See Myself as Someone Who...</i>	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Is talkative	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to find fault in others	1	2	3	4	5
Does a thorough job	1	2	3	4	5
Is depressed, blue	1	2	3	4	5
Is original, comes up with new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Is reserved	1	2	3	4	5
Is helpful and unselfish with others	1	2	3	4	5
Can be somewhat careless	1	2	3	4	5
Is relaxed, can handle stress well	1	2	3	4	5
Is curious about many different things	1	2	3	4	5
Is full of energy	1	2	3	4	5
Starts quarrels with others	1	2	3	4	5
Is a reliable worker	1	2	3	4	5
Can be tense	1	2	3	4	5
Is ingenious, a deep thinker	1	2	3	4	5
Generates a lot of enthusiasm	1	2	3	4	5
Has a forgiving nature	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to be disorganized	1	2	3	4	5
Worries a lot	1	2	3	4	5
Has an active imagination	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to be quite	1	2	3	4	5
Is generally trusting	1	2	3	4	5
Tends to be lazy	1	2	3	4	5
Is emotionally stable, not easily upset	1	2	3	4	5
Is inventive	1	2	3	4	5
Has an assertive personality	1	2	3	4	5
Can be cold and aloof	1	2	3	4	5
Perseveres until the task is finished	1	2	3	4	5
Can be moody	1	2	3	4	5
Values artistic, aesthetic experiences	1	2	3	4	5
Is sometimes shy, inhibited	1	2	3	4	5
Is considerate and kind to almost everyone	1	2	3	4	5
Does things efficiently	1	2	3	4	5
Remains calm in tense situations	1	2	3	4	5
Prefers work that is routine	1	2	3	4	5

Is outgoing, sociable	1	2	3	4	5
Is sometimes rude to others	1	2	3	4	5
Makes plans and follows through with them	1	2	3	4	5
Get nervous easily	1	2	3	4	5
Likes to reflect, play with ideas	1	2	3	4	5
Has few artistic interest	1	2	3	4	5
Likes to cooperate with others	1	2	3	4	5
Is easily distracted	1	2	3	4	5
Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature	1	2	3	4	5

**Please check: Did you write a number in front of each statement?**

Please answer the following questions based on how the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement based on your feelings and behaviors. Indicate your response by selecting an item on the corresponding scale:	Neither Agree nor Disagree				
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
I can accurately identify a range of emotions that I feel from day to day.	1	2	3	4	5
At work, I can instantly tell when someone is frustrated with me.	1	2	3	4	5
I can usually imagine what another person is feeling.	1	2	3	4	5
I have no difficulty figuring out how much passion to demonstrate about an issue at work.	1	2	3	4	5
I can usually tell how someone is feeling even though his/her facial expression may conflict with his/her body language.	1	2	3	4	5
I have no difficulty identifying how a person really feels about an issue despite what he/she may say.	1	2	3	4	5
I often prioritize my work tasks according to how strongly I feel about the important of each task.	1	2	3	4	5
I often use my excitement about a work project to focus the efforts of others involved with the project.	1	2	3	4	5
I often use how I feel about a problem to define the attention I give to it.	1	2	3	4	5
I listen to the feelings of other people in establishing priorities.	1	2	3	4	5
I deliberately attempt to create a feeling conducive to effective problem solving when meeting with clients or coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
In deciding to go forward with a decision, I always consider how other people may feel about it.	1	2	3	4	5
When a coworker of mine performs poorly on a project, I can usually recognize whether he or she feels angry, embarrassed, guilty, or some other feeling (e.g. "wounded pride").	1	2	3	4	5
I can watch other people interact and recognize the feelings they hold toward each other.	1	2	3	4	5
I am acutely aware of subtle cues at work that express how people feel (e.g., where they sit, when they are silent, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5
I can usually tell when a coworker's emotional response to a situation is due to his/her unique personality instead of his/her cultural background.	1	2	3	4	5
I can usually detect subtle changes in the emotions of my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5
I can instantly recognize when a coworker's frustrations with a project are escalating.	1	2	3	4	5
I look forward to a feeling of accomplishment whenever I start a new project.	1	2	3	4	5
I am usually able to transmit a sense of enthusiasm about a work project to others.	1	2	3	4	5
I notice when someone is very caring and compassionate toward others at work.	1	2	3	4	5

I am capable of calming someone down who is angry and frustrated at work.	1	2	3	4	5
When a coworker is feeling disappointed about his/her work performance, I make an effort to offer encouraging words of support.	1	2	3	4	5
Whenever painful events have occurred to people I know at work (i.e., death in family, serious illness), I have expressed genuine concern and tried to help them feel better.	1	2	3	4	5

Age:  18 – 29

30 -39

40 - 49

50 - 59

60 - 69

70 - 79

80 or older

Gender:  Male

Female

Ethnicity (check all that

African-American

Asian

European-

Hispanic

Mexican

Latino

Other  
(please specify)

Parent-Mother (check all that apply):

African-American

Asian

European-American

Hispanic

Mexican

Latino

Other (please specify)

Parent-Father (check all that apply):

African-American

Asian

European-American

Hispanic

Mexican

Latino

Other (please specify)

Marital status (check one):

married

single

unmarried but in a  
committed relationship

Spouse (check all that apply):

African-American

Asian

European-American

Hispanic

Mexican

Latino

Other (please specify)

Years in current job:

- 0 – 3  
 4 – 7  
 8 – 10  
 11 – 13  
 14 – 16  
 17 or more

Number of hours worked per week (check one):

- less than 10  
 11 – 20  
 21 – 30  
 31 – 40  
 41 – 50  
 more than 50

Total years of work experience (current job plus past jobs):

- 0 – 3  
 4 – 7  
 8 – 10  
 11 – 13  
 14 – 16  
 17 or more

Highest degree obtained (check one):

- High School Diploma  
 Associate's  
 Bachelor's Degree  
 Master's Degree  
 Ph.D.

Work Status (Mgt, Sup, Worker)

- Manager  
 Director  
 Sr Management  
 Union Employee  
 Non-Union/Non-Management  
 Contract-Consultant

Highest degree obtained by mother (check one):

- High School Diploma  
 Associate's  
 Bachelor's Degree  
 Master's Degree  
 Ph.D.

Annual Salary (check one):

- 0 – 10,000  
 10,001 – 20,000  
 20,001 – 30,000  
 30,001 – 40,000  
 40,001 – 50,000  
 50,001 – 60,000  
 60,001 – 70,000  
 70,001 – 80,000  
 80,001 – 90,000  
 90,001 – 100,000  
 Over 100,000

Highest degree obtained by father (check one):

- High School Diploma  
 Associate's  
 Bachelor's Degree  
 Master's Degree  
 Ph.D.

Religious Affiliation

- Protestant       Buddhism  
 Catholic       Non-Denominational  
 Evangelical       Other (please specify)  
 Judaism  
 Islamic

### Religious Importance

- \_\_\_\_\_ Very Important  
\_\_\_\_\_ Important  
\_\_\_\_\_ Average  
\_\_\_\_\_ Marginal  
\_\_\_\_\_ Not Very Important

**Please answer the following questions based on how the extent to which you agree or disagree with the statement based on your feelings and behaviors. Indicate your response by selecting True or False**

<b>You are always willing to admit it when you make a mistake</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>You always try to practice what you preach</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>You never resent being asked to return a favor</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>You have never been annoyed when people expressed ideas very different from your own</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>You have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>You like to gossip at times</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>There have been occasions when you took advantage of someone</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>You sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>At times you have really insisted on having things your own way</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>
<b>There have been occasions when you felt like smashing things</b>	<b>T</b>	<b>F</b>

APPENDIX I  
Permission to use the M-C1 Instrument

**From:** Kathleen Gerbasi [kcgerbasiphd@earthlink.net]  
**Sent:** Sunday, April 01, 2007 10:32 AM  
**To:** 'David Hurlic'  
**Subject:** RE: M-C 1 and M-C 2

Dear David,  
Please use the MC-1 and MC-2, it is fine with me and I am quite sure it is fine with Bob Strahan the first author.

Kathy Gerbasi  
Aka Kathleen C. Gerbasi, Ph.D.  
Assistant Professor Social Science  
Niagara County Community College  
Sanborn NY 14132



APPENDIX J  
Permission to use the EQSDI Instrument

**From:** Mcenrue, Mary-pat [mmcenru@exchange.calstatela.edu]  
**Sent:** Tuesday, April 03, 2007 5:30 PM  
**To:** David Hurlic  
**Subject:** permission to use instrument

David,

You have my permission to use the EQSDI in carrying out your dissertation research and any other the other instruments I have developed that you might find useful.

Mary Pat McEnrue Ph.D., Chair  
Management Department

APPENDIX K  
Permission to use the BFI Instrument

**From:** Paulette Comeau [pcomeau@berkeley.edu]

**Sent:** Tuesday, March 07, 2006 2:04 PM

**To:** d.hurlic@verizon.net

**Subject:** the BFI

To: David Hurlic:

March 7, 2006

Professor Oliver John asked me to reply to your email of 5 March 2006 on his behalf. He said, "Yes, you are welcome to use the BFI so long as it is used for research and non-profit use, and I'd love to hear about your findings. Best wishes."

Professor John also asked me to give you the following information:

Benet-Martinez, V. and John, O.P. 1998. Los Cinco Grandes Across Cultures and Ethnic Groups: Multitrait Multimethod Analyses of the Big Five in Spanish and English. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(3), 729-750.

Table 3 lists the items scored for each factor; items with negative loadings are reversed-scored. Table 4 Note indicates how to compute mean ratings of the items on each scale. Item order and questionnaire are on p. 749.

John, O.P. and Srivastava, S. (1999). The Big Five Trait Taxonomy: History, Measurement, and Theoretical Perspectives. In L. A. Pervin & O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of Personality: Theory and Research*. Second Edition (pp.102-138). New York: The Guilford Press.

Page 132 lists the items and the scoring scheme.

To answer your question, the 1991 version of the BFI is the most recent one. You will find a copy attached to this message.

Best regards,  
Paulette Comeau

Assistant, Department of Psychology  
University of California, Berkeley  
3210 Tolman Hall # 1650  
Berkeley, CA 94720-1650  
Phone: (510) 643-7286  
E-mail: pcomeau@berkeley.edu  
Fax: (510) 642-5293  
Work days/hours: Mon, Tue,  
Thurs, Fri, 9 a.m. to 4 p.m.

## APPENDIX L

### Permission to use the MEIM Instrument

The MEIM was originally published in the following article:

Phinney, J. (1992). The Multigroup Ethnic Identity Measure: A new scale for use with adolescents and young adults from diverse groups. Journal of Adolescent Research, 7, 156-176.

It has subsequently been used in dozens of studies and has consistently shown good reliability, typically with alphas above .80 across a wide range of ethnic groups and ages. On the basis of recent work, including a factor analysis of a large sample of adolescents\*, it appears that the measure can best be thought of as comprising two factors, ethnic identity search (a developmental and cognitive component) and affirmation, belonging, and commitment (an affective component). Two items have been dropped and a few minor modifications have been made. Attached is the current revision of the measure, without the measure of Other-group orientation. The two factors, with this version, are as follows: ethnic identity search, items 1, 2, 4, 8, and 10; affirmation, belonging, and commitment, items 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12. (None of the items are reversed.) The preferred scoring is to use the mean of the item scores; that is, the mean of the 12 items for an over-all score, and, if desired, the mean of the 5 items for search and the 7 items for affirmation. Thus the range of scores is from 1 to 4.

The suggested ethnic group names in the first paragraph can be adapted to particular populations. Items 13, 14, and 15 are used only for purposes of identification and categorization by ethnicity.

The Other-group orientation scale, which was developed with the original MEIM, is not included, as it is considered to be a separate construct. It can, of course, be used in conjunction with the MEIM.

Translations of the measure into Spanish and French now exist and are available, but we currently have no information on their reliability.

No written permission is required for use of the measure. However, if you decide to use the measure, please send me a summary of the results and a copy of any papers or publications that result from the study.

Jean S. Phinney, Ph.D.  
Department of Psychology  
California State University, Los Angeles  
Los Angeles, CA 90032-8227

Phone: 323 343-2261  
FAX: 323 343-2281  
E-mail: [jphinne@calstatela.edu](mailto:jphinne@calstatela.edu)

APPENDIX M  
The Organizational Context Perception Instrument (OCPI)

Organizational Context consists of:

Leadership-Individual and Collaborative

1. Leaders in your organization communicate a clear vision, goal, or direction for affirmative action and/or diversity programs/policies.
2. Leaders in your organization communicate the importance and urgency of affirmative action and/or diversity programs/policies.
3. Manager/Supervisors below the organization's leaders, believe and support the organization's affirmative action and/or diversity programs/policies.
4. Managers/Supervisors, in your organization, create and facilitate the proper environments needed to support the organization's affirmative action and/or diversity programs/policies.
5. The majority of employees in your organization support the company's affirmative action and/or diversity programs/policies.

Organizational Alignment

Management systems (policy, practice, rule, or procedure)

1. Your organization actively recruits, develops and promotes a diverse range of individuals.
2. Your organization has an affirmative action/diversity training or education program.
3. Your organization communicates specific methods of reporting affirmative action and/or diversity problems or concerns.
4. Departments, groups, and teams, within your organization, follow the policies, rules and procedure governing affirmative action and/or diversity.
5. Your organization communicates the advantage of Affirmative action/ diversity program and policies to its long term success.
6. Your organization rewards and recognizes individuals that support diversity and affirmative action policies and programs?

Follow-up

1. Your organization communicates or reports its diversity or affirmative action results.
2. Your organization has an ongoing management/employee team that is responsible for measuring, analyzing, and reporting diversity/ affirmative action outcomes.
3. Your organization has an individual and/or group recognition program in place for its Affirmative Action/Diversity programs.
4. Your organization links affirmative action and diversity results to firm performance and/or profitability.

5. Your organization has a mentoring program that identifies and develops a diverse group of individuals.

APPENDIX N  
The Affirmative Action-Diversity Perception Instrument (AADPI)

Political

1. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies are the products of political change, in the United States, over the last half century.
2. Without political support, Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies would not exist.
3. Politicians are responsible for laws that require organizations to create and implement Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies.

Social

1. Diversity and Affirmative action are the most challenging issues facing our society today.
2. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies, in organizations, are the result of the social changes happening in society today.
3. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies implemented in organizations achieve the social outcomes they were created for.
4. Society does not need Diversity and Affirmative action programs, policies, regulations and laws. (R)

Legal

1. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies are only created and implemented by organizations because of the law.
2. Most organizations create and implement Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies because they broke the law in the past.
3. Punishments for affirmative action violations are too harsh. (R)
4. Punishments for affirmative action violations are too lenient. (R)

Historical

1. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies exist because of the United States' historical practices.
2. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies exist to rectify the historical practices of discrimination by public and private institutions.
3. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies exist to eliminate historical acts of bigotry and intolerance.
4. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies have no connection to the systemic problems caused by institutional racism and sexism. (R)

Outcomes

1. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies achieve the goals they were design for.
2. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies do more harm than good (R)

3. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies will always be needed.
4. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies benefit organizations
5. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies have a positive effect on organizational productivity.
6. Diversity and Affirmative action programs and policies have a positive impact on organizational profitability.

APPENDIX O  
OCPI and AA/DPI Reviewers

**Leah J Madrid**

**Leah.Madrid@tabs.toshiba.com**

HR Specialist - Advising Executive Management for Toshiba America Business Solutions, Inc.

**Education**

MS degree in Human Resources and Management Development from Chapman University

BA Degree in Business from Chapman University

**Areas of Expertise**

Benefit Plan Design/Analysis

Staffing,

EEO/AAP Analysis,

Executive Compensation

**Professional Affiliations**

Certified Compensation Professional (CCP) with World at Work

**Charlie Vance, Ph.D.**

**cvance@lmu.edu**

Professor at Loyola Marymount University – College of Business Administration

**Education**

1981 PhD Syracuse University

1977 MOB Brigham Young University

1975 BS Brigham Young University

**Professional Experience**

Northrop Grumman

China-Europe International Business School

FedEx

**Areas of Expertise**

International HRM

Training & Development

Human Resource Management



**Professional Affiliations**

Academy of Management  
Society for Human Resource Management

**Janette Piankoff, Ph.D.**

[jpiankoff@sempraglobal.com](mailto:jpiankoff@sempraglobal.com)

HR & Staffing Director - Sempra Energy

**Education**

Ph.D. - California School of professional Psychology/Alliant University  
MA – California School of professional Psychology/Alliant University

**Professional Experience**

12 years in Human Resources and Organization Development departments for public and private companies.

Three years of OD consulting experience where she partnered with RHR International in Los Angeles on a number of large-scale OD initiatives for a variety of companies across the country.

**Areas of Expertise**

Management Assessment/Development  
Recruiting and Retention Strategies  
EEO/AAP Strategies