

Emotional Intelligence and its links to the Negotiating Skills of Leaders

Submitted by: Conor O Rourke

Masters in Business Administration

National College of Ireland

Abstract

An expanding field of literature now exists into the field of emotional intelligence. The subject has been increasing in popularity with researchers since its inception into the study of psychology and human resource management. However, it was in the mid. 1990s that the subject really gained prominence in both the academic and business worlds, when it was linked with effective leadership. Many variants of research into emotional intelligence now exist and not all scholars are congruent with elements needed to define the theory. However, it is widely believed that the key theories on the subject have more similarities than differences. It is from this standpoint that this research will explore some of the key constructs that are common throughout the theories and test them against a key element of a leader's skill set, negotiation.

This study, through quantitative research methods, investigates levels of emotional intelligence and negotiation skills in a sample taken from a total of 115 participants who were living or working in the greater Dublin area. For the purposes of this study Emotional intelligence was separated into four separate constructs, this was to test which elements had the greatest correlation with an above average level of negotiation skills. Each of the four constructs of emotional intelligence were tested independently and it was found that of the participants tested they appeared to possess moderately above average levels of each construct of emotional intelligence. The same independent test was run for negotiation skills and again the participants were found to have slightly above average levels of negotiation skills compared to the median. Tests were also run to see if leaders had an above average level of negotiation skills, and if these variables could reliably predict a person's negotiation ability. Further tests were then run to test for other demographic variables and negotiating ability.

From the analysis this research can infer a moderate correlation between negotiation and two of the four constructs of EI tested, these are use of emotions and the regulation of emotions. It was also found that along with these two components of EI theory that leadership was also a reasonable predictor of negotiation skills. The study tested to see if gender had any significance on these findings, but no significance could be reported during the course of this study.

Thesis Declaration Page

Submission of Thesis and Dissertation

National College of Ireland

Research Students Declaration Form

(Thesis/Author Declaration Form)

Name: Conor O Rourke

Student Number: 16112199

Degree for which thesis is submitted: Masters in Business Administration

Material submitted for award

(a) I declare that the work has been composed by myself.

(b) I declare that all verbatim extracts contained in the thesis have been distinguished by quotation marks and the sources of information specifically acknowledged.

(c) My thesis will be included in electronic format in the College Institutional Repository TRAP (thesis reports and projects)

(d) Either *I declare that no material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award.

Or *I declare that the following material contained in the thesis formed part of a submission for the award of

(State the award and the awarding body and list the material below)

Signature of research student: _____

Date: _____

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my deepest thanks to all those that have assisted me on completion of my study.

To all the staff at the NCI who helped me along the way. In particular, I would like to thank my supervisor Dr. April Hargreaves for the advice, assistance and support. I would also like to thank Jonathan Lambert for his patience and his assistance with SPSS.

I would like to thank all the participants of the survey, who have helped to shape this research. Without their assistance this project would not have been possible.

Finally, I would like to thank all my family for their continued support over the years, with a special thanks to my wife Deborah and children Aoibhinn, Conall and Donnacha, without your constant support, encouragement and patience it would not have been possible.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	1
Declaration	2
Acknowledgment.....	3
Table of Content	4
1. Introduction.....	8
1.1 Background of research.....	8
1.2 Change in modern leadership practices.....	8
1.3 Rationale for this research.....	9
1.4 Structure of thesis.....	9
2. Literature review.....	11
2.1 Introduction.....	11
2.2 Early studies of emotion.....	11
2.3 Emotional Intelligence as a concept.....	12
2.4 Key components of the theories.....	12
2.5 Emotional Intelligence scales.....	13
2.6 Emotional Intelligence and leadership.....	14
2.7 Developing the Emotional Intelligence of leaders.....	15
2.8 Negotiation.....	16
2.9 Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation.....	17
2.10 Conclusion.....	18
3. Research question.....	19
3.1 Introduction.....	19
3.2 Importance of EI to leadership job performance.....	19
3.3 The objectives of the research.....	19
4. Methodology.....	21
4.1 Introduction.....	21

4.2 Research philosophy.....	21
4.3 Research approach.....	21
4.4 Research Design.....	23
4.4.1 Design approach.....	23
4.4.2 Survey design rationale.....	23
4.5 Research Methods.....	24
4.5.1 Study design.....	24
4.5.2 Participants.....	25
4.5.3 Instruments used.....	25
4.5.4 Internal consistency and reliability.....	26
4.6 Pilot study.....	26
4.7 Procedure.....	27
4.8 Statistical analysis.....	27
4.9 Limitations.....	28
5. Findings.....	29
5.1 Introduction.....	29
5.2 General statistics.....	29
5.3 Graphical descriptors.....	31
5.4 Numerical descriptors.....	32
5.5 Correlation analysis.....	33
5.6 Multiple regression analysis.....	36
5.6.1 Evaluating the model.....	36
5.6.2 Analysis of the variables.....	36
6. Discussion of findings.....	39
6.1 Introduction.....	39
6.2 Basic test of emotional intelligence.....	39
6.3 Basic test of negotiating skills.....	39

6.4 Correlation of emotional intelligence and negotiating skills.....	40
6.5 Correlation between demographic factors and negotiation skills.....	41
6.6 Multi regression analysis.....	41
6.7 Implications of findings.....	42
7. Conclusion and recommendation.....	43
8. References.....	45
8.1 Appendix 1: Submission form.....	51
8.2 Appendix 2: Questionnaire.....	52

List of tables

Table 1: Age frequency distribution.....	30
Table 2: Education frequency distribution.....	31
Table 3: Descriptive statistics for variables.....	33
Table 4: Correlation analysis.....	34
Table 5: Leadership correlation.....	34
Table 6: Age correlation.....	35
Table 7: Education correlation.....	35
Table 8: Gender correlation.....	35
Table 9: Regression summary data.....	36
Table 10: Anova.....	37
Table 11: Coefficients.....	38

List of figures

Figure 1: Gender of participants.....	29
Figure 2: Age of participants.....	29
Figure 3: Education levels.....	30
Figure 4: Leadership status.....	30

Figure 5: Self emotional appraisal (SEA).....	31
Figure 6: Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (OEA).....	31
Figure 7: Regulation of emotions (ROE).....	32
Figure 8: Use of emotions (UOE).....	32
Figure 9: Negotiation skills.....	32

List of abbreviations

EI: Emotional Intelligence

SEA: Self emotional appraisal

OEA: Appraisal and recognition of emotions in others

ROE: Regulation of emotions

UOE: Use of emotions

IV: Independent variable

DV: Dependant variable

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the research

Intelligence Quotient or IQ as it is more commonly known, was first conceptualised in the early part of the 20th century and it had been the only agreed measure of intelligence until recent studies expanded on this theory. In his research William Stern (1949) listed a number of measures to test qualities such as logical reasoning, analytical skills and the ability to store and retrieve information. IQ was believed to be the true measure of a person's intellectual ability and was also believed to be a fixed state. Based on this theory it was naturally accepted that great leaders were born and not made, and that effective leadership was an innate trait in a leader. However modern research has evolved from this and studies into multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1993) have been carried out. Researchers have spent decades attempting to identify the specific traits and behaviours that are common to effective leaders, recent studies show that there is increasing evidence to suggest that emotional intelligence is one of the key drivers of leadership effectiveness (Doe, Ndinguri, Phipps 2015; Goleman, 1998; Prati et al., 2003). Since the 1990s research into the expanding field of emotional intelligence has continued to grow at pace (Boden *et al.*, 2017), while much of the existing research linking emotional intelligence to leadership has been based on the overall effectiveness of leadership (Boyatzis, 2011; Goleman, 1998; Goleman, 2013; Salovey and Grewal, 2005), little empirical evidence exists which links emotional intelligence in leadership to specific performance outcomes (Wong and Law, 2002). Negotiation is one such performance outcome and a key organisational skill for modern leaders, one where any improvement that can be made is to be welcomed (Harvard Business Essentials, 2013).

This study will explore how these theories have evolved over the years, it will also look at correlations in the literature between emotional intelligence and modern leadership, and the effect EI may have on specific organisational outcomes such as negotiation. The research will then attempt to analyse which tested variables are the best predictors of above average negotiation skills in leaders.

1.2 Change in modern leadership practices

Organisational structures have been changing from the traditional top down hierarchal structures of the past, to a more flattened collaborative workplace (Wulf, 2012). As a consequence of this, and in order to retain a competitive advantage and valuable employees, managers have had to adapt their own style of leadership from their old authoritative ways to create an increasingly flexible, interactive and creative value driven environment, where they are expected to facilitate and coordinate the work and behaviour of others (Yukl, 2013). Emotional intelligence can be key to this change, it has been described as being a more important skill for leaders than IQ and technical skills and a number of key

interpersonal attributes such as social skills and empathy have been highlighted as organisational performances enhancers (Goleman, 1998). By working on one's own emotional intelligence, leaders can bring improvements to organisational structures such as decreasing turnover of staff or creating a positive corporate culture which in turn helps to provide a better service to the customer (Langhorn, 2004). Academics commonly believe that emotional intelligence can be improved (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004; Goleman, 1998; Salovey and Grewal 2005), with this in mind and from a leadership perspective, it is the researcher's belief that it has become a very interesting topic for research.

1.3 Rationale for this research

This research was undertaken to provide insight into the levels of emotional intelligence in leaders, and what this may also infer into levels of other performance-based outcomes. While reviewing the literature it was found that a large volume of work has been conducted into various aspects of emotional intelligence, however very little evidence could be found about the link between the emotional intelligence of leaders and specific on the job-based performance outcomes. This study was deemed worthy of research because, negotiation is of undeniable importance to almost all aspects of business life and increasingly studies believe that emotional intelligence has become a key aspect of leadership

The aim of this research is to highlight specific elements of emotional intelligence in leaders that may infer a correlation with above average negotiation skills. It is hoped that through further study, the possibility may exist of improving certain aspects of emotional intelligence while also improving key aspects of organisational outcomes such as negotiation skills. This could potentially be of keen interest to academics and business leaders alike.

1.4 Structure of thesis

The structure of this thesis will be broken into seven sections, they will be outlined as follows

Section 1: An introduction to the thesis and the rationale behind choosing the research topic.

Section 2: Reviews the key literature around the early stages of emotional intelligence and its evolution from the field of psychology into books and texts linking the subject to effective leadership. It then looks at negotiation and aspects of emotional intelligence in negotiation.

Section 3: Discusses the research objective and will outline the hypothesis of the thesis.

Section 4: Explains the methodology of the research and how the survey instrument was designed. Here we will look at the research philosophy and the studies design.

Section 5: Presents the findings of the data that has been analysed using general and descriptive statistics, correlation analysis and multi linear regression analysis.

Section 6: Will discuss the results presented in the findings section and discuss any implications arising from the study.

Section 7: Concludes this research and outlines what has been presented and possible future avenues for study.

2. Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Emotional intelligence (EI) has become a popular subject for research and has gained a lot of attention both from the public and academic scholars since Goleman (1995) popularised the subject in his book *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. This section of the paper will explore the beginnings of multiple intelligences and how they have evolved into the subject of EI. It will then explore the main theories on the subject individually and look at the link between emotional intelligence in the workplace and how relevant it can be to leadership. The section then looks at EI and its links to negotiation, a key performance indicator of leadership.

2.2 Early studies of emotions

While its exact origins as a concept can be hard to trace the acknowledgement that an intelligence other than IQ could be used to measure human interaction and recognition of one's own and other's emotions, has been discussed by many authors over the years. One of the earliest known studies of emotions dates back to Darwin's study of emotions in man and animals in the late 19th century where he highlighted the importance of emotional intelligence for survival (Darwin, 1872). In the early part of the 20th century a paper from Thorndike (1936) recognised 3 main types of intelligence: abstract, mechanical and social, this work was later advanced in a book by Davitz and Beldoch (1964) where they discussed people's emotional sensitivity and their ability to identify expressions of feelings in verbal communication. In a later book *Frames of Mind*, Howard Gardner (1993) discusses his theory of multiple intelligences. In what he refers to as the personal intelligences, he identifies two elements in particular that have a basis in the more recent theories on EI, they are Interpersonal skills and Intrapersonal skills.

- Interpersonal skills represent the ability to recognise emotions in others, and from a leadership perspective the ability to appeal to other's emotions in order to motivate them towards achieving a goal. It is also the ability to understand social norms and be able to manage relationships and networks effectively.
- Intrapersonal skills include self-awareness of one's own emotions and how they can manage thoughts and emotions as they arise.

Both elements, closely correlate to components that exist within three of the leading theories of EI. These theories are Goleman's (2004) 5 components of Emotional Intelligence at work, Bar-On's (2006) model for EQ-I and Salovey and Mayer's (1990) Conceptualisation of emotional intelligence.

2.3 Emotional intelligence as a concept

The term emotional intelligence was first used by researchers Salovey and Mayer (1990), they describe the term as having a set of skills to recognise, express and regulate emotions in yourself and others, it is also about using feelings to motivate, plan and achieve goals in your life. This theory has been built upon by Reuven Bar-On (1997), who has defined emotional intelligence as being composed of both interpersonal and intrapersonal skills and facilitators, when these competencies are combined they can determine human behaviour. As these skills have both emotional and social aspects Bar-On (2006) uses the term emotional-social intelligence (ESI) to describe them. However, it was Dan Goleman (1995) who really popularised EI and brought the topic a more main stream audience with his bestselling book on the subject, it is here that Goleman states that EI can be more important than IQ particularly when it comes to the softer skills needed for leadership. Goleman (1998) later wrote the seminal article that framed EI into a leadership context, in his HBR article "What makes a leader" he sets out the 5 key components of EI at work. These 5 components are: Self-awareness, self-regulation, empathy, motivation and social skills. In his paper Goleman (1998) carried out research among 200 leaders in large global organisations, it was here he identified and conceptualised his findings, that these 5 skills are more important to effective leadership than are technical skills and IQ.

2.4 Key components of the theories

As has been described above, the 3 major theories on EI have been defined differently by each of the authors, but it is to be noted that similarities exist within each of the models. All models contain an element of self-awareness, identification and regulation of emotion, empathy, social intelligence and dealing with people effectively (Bar-On, 2006: Goleman, 2004: Salovey and Mayer, 1990). Some academics have argued, that because the concept of EI has now become so broad, no one theory covers all aspects of the field and it can be difficult to construct a coherent argument for the topic (Landy, 2005: Locke, 2005). To critically analyse this statement however, Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2000) conducted a review of the EI literature and have claimed that while many different definitions of EI do now exist, they are more complimentary than contradictory. They point out that generally the various measures of EI cover four distinct constructs: emotional perception, understanding, regulation and utilisation of emotions.

However, we have seen some of the theorists refining their work into separate categories of EI. The separation of these categories is based on the scales used to measure respondent's levels of EI, they are the ability model by Salovey and Mayer (1990), the trait model by Petrides and Furnham (2001) and the mixed models used by Bar-On (1997) and Goleman (1998), which we will now look at in more detail.

2.5 Emotional Intelligence scales

The validity of some EI scales has been challenged by some in academia. Petrides (2011) claims that Trait EI and Ability EI can be similar in the components used to describe the theory, however they should be differentiated based on the method of measurement. The Mayer, Salovey and Caruso (2004) MSCEIT ability test, measures emotion related cognitive ability, and this according to Petrides (2011) should be carried out by a maximum performance test. The trouble with the self-report ability test is that respondents can choose the answers based on self-perceived abilities rather than actual abilities, and this may not reflect their actual level of EI (Fiori et al., 2014; Petrides and Furnham, 2001).

In the updated four-branch model of emotional intelligence Salovey, Mayer and Caruso (2016) further refined their study of EI into four distinct abilities: perceiving, using, understand and managing emotions. These are specific measurable abilities (Salovey and Grewal, 2005) and can be measured by undertaking the self-test report that they designed called the MSCEIT (Mayer, Salovey and Caruso 2016). They defined their theory in this way to enable future study of respondent's personal abilities to process emotional information.

- Perceiving emotions: the ability to detect emotions in oneself and also the ability to decipher emotions in people's body language or tone of voice.
- Using emotions: the ability to harness emotions to guide thinking and actions, for example using excitement to strive for a personal goal you wish to achieve.
- Understanding emotions: The ability to be able to discern between emotions as they happen and understanding the complicated relationships between emotions and how those emotions can evolve over time.
- Managing emotions: The ability to regulate your own emotions but also knowing how to appeal to the emotions in others, such as an emotional appeal to the values of a team to complete a worthwhile task.

The 5-component model proposed by Goleman (1998) and the Bar-On EQ-I (1997) report, are considered mixed models as they contain elements of both ability and trait theory. Self-perceived abilities and behavioural dispositions towards EI are elements of the ability theory as is the self-report tool in the EQ-I report. Trait theory however is focused on measuring actual EI abilities (Petrides and Furnham, 2001). In stark contrast to the many theories that now exist in the field of EI, Locke (2005) forwards the argument that EI cannot be classed as a real intelligence. He states that intelligence is the ability for the mind to grasp and decipher abstractions, while rationality relates to how the mind is used. Rational minds make decisions based on logical thinking and facts presented to them, a person can be intelligent and yet still irrational (Locke 2005).

After a review of the key EI literature, Ciarrochi, Chan and Caputi (2002) identified four distinct areas of EI: emotional perception, emotional regulation, emotional understanding and utilisation. The emotional intelligence scale that was used in this research, and which will be looked at in more detail later on in this paper is the Wong and Law (2002) Emotional Intelligence scale (WLEIS), this self-report scale was designed by the authors to test for the four constructs of EI that we have just seen, these are: self-emotional appraisal (SEA), appraisal and recognition of other's emotions (OEA), regulation of emotions in self (ROE) and use of emotions (UOE). This EI measure was designed to provide an effective tool to assist future management and leadership study (Wong and Law, 2002). The components for this scale were based on the results of a study of the existing EI literature and self-report scales conducted by Davies, Stankov and Roberts (1998).

2.6 Emotional Intelligence and leadership

The modern theory of EI, has its origins in the field of psychology and human resources management, but has now also been recognised as being a key attribute in many areas of personal and professional life (Lowman and Thomas, 2015). Research into personal competencies and specific talents, and their application for leadership began in the 1970s, this field of study built upon earlier research into skills, abilities and cognitive intelligence (Boyatzis, 2011).

However, the significant rise in popularity of EI as a subject began when it was linked to effective leadership (Goleman, 1998; Prati et al., 2003; Salovey and Grewal, 2005).

As well as defining the components of EI in effective leadership, Goleman (1998) set out the determining factors for successful leaders. After carrying out research into a variety of effective leaders in many large organisations by analysing their personal capabilities, Goleman (1998) came up with 3 distinct components that make up the effective leader:

- Technical skills, such as planning and accounting.
- Cognitive abilities, such as systems thinking and analytical reasoning and long-term vision.
- Emotional intelligence, the ability to bring change in people and successfully manage relationships and personal networks.

What Goleman (1998) found was that the higher up the corporate ladder a leader went, the greater the emphasis became focused on EI over the technical and cognitive skills. Goleman states that effective leaders are alike in one key area, EI. Cognitive and technical skills do matter but they are entry level requirements for executive positions, without EI the person will not make a great leader (Goleman, 1998).

2.7 Developing the Emotional Intelligence of leaders

In the Peter principle (Peter and Hull, 1970), it has been forwarded that leaders get promoted to their own level of incompetence, this would suggest that leadership traits and abilities are fixed and cannot continually evolve. However, in his article "The focused leader" Goleman (2013) sets out ways in which to develop EI as a leader enabling continual improvement of leadership abilities. By using advances in neuroscience Goleman defines ways in which a leader's focus can be improved. This is done by cultivating a triad of awareness: focusing on yourself, focusing on others and focusing on the wider world (Goleman, 2013). Focusing on yourself aligns heavily with his 5-component theory and self-awareness; by focusing your attention inwards, a sensory impression of how you feel in a given moment can be acquired, this can help to guide you in decisions or actions about to be taken. It is also concerned with self-regulation, being in command of your thoughts and impulses and also being able to motivate towards a personal goal. Focusing on others is the foundation of empathy and helps us to build strong social and professional relationships which is emphasising our social skills. Focusing on the wider world suggests that good leaders are visionaries and can sense the consequences of action they have taken or plan to take. If individuals then are willing to exercise the brain's attention circuits and focus on the triad of awareness, it is believed that focus in this area can be strengthened and improved in time (Goleman, 2013).

Many theorists believe that EI is a skill and that it can be improved, recent studies conducted into improving levels of EI showed that by using a novel approach such as a smart phone application which targeted maladaptive personality traits and triggered neuroplasticity, an improvement was measured in most of the EI competencies measured by researchers, this suggested that levels of EI can be improved with practice (Poonamallee et al., 2018). However not all agree, even two of the leading collaborators on the subject are not in full agreement, according to Saxbe (2004) Salovey believes that EI is partly innate but suggest that a person can learn a richer emotional vocabulary and therefore improve their ability to self-regulate their own emotions. However, Mayor believes that like cognitive intelligence EI is primarily shaped by a person's genes and early life experiences (Saxbe, 2004). Further to this, recent studies have suggested that covariates can sometimes impact on levels of emotional intelligence, and that differences in gender or education levels may come into play when testing a sample. For example, whilst testing for gender differences in EI, Thompson and Voyer (2014) found that women have a greater natural ability in emotional recognition tasks. To critically analyse this however it has also been reported by Fisher, Kret and Broekens (2018) that no such differences could be found in their study. We will revisit this topic later on in the findings section.

As this research will test for associations between variables of a leader's emotional intelligence and their negotiation skills, we will now look at some of the literature around negotiation and its links to emotional intelligence.

2.8 Negotiation

Negotiation is a process where two or more invested parties try to reach an acceptable outcome, through the process of give and take, or perform and receive until a suitable agreement can be reached (Rubin and Brown, 1975).

Traditional negotiation methods tended to be based around varying strategies, tactics, offers and counteroffers (Brooks, 2015). Conventional wisdom was often focused on separating the people from the problem (Fisher, Ury and Patton, 2012). It was from this perspective that both parties would enter into negotiations focused on their own interests, only to realise that the other party was doing exactly the same, the result tended to be conflict (Thompson and Leonardelli, 2004). While some authors have described the practice of displaying emotions during negotiations as being an impediment to reaching a successful agreement (Leary, Pillemer and Wheeler, 2013), and that when negative emotions are experienced they are more likely to lead to an impasse in the discussion (Allerd, 1999). From the academic perspective, these types of negotiations were fixed on the transactional aspect of getting the correct result and focused on profit maximisation for the negotiator (Brooks, 2015). Ury and Fisher (2005) describe three types of negotiation strategies, the first is the hard negotiator, here the negotiator believes it to be a test of will to see who can come out with the best deal when pitted against an opponent. The second is the soft negotiator who is always looking for an amicable solution and wants to avoid conflict which can result in making too many concessions and being taken advantage of. A more recent negotiation strategy to gain prominence which is considered both hard and soft, is principled negotiation, this strategy looks to develop mutual gains for both parties and to agree principles on their merits. It also looks to build relationships that will facilitate agreements (Ury and Fisher, 2005).

Negotiations are a key feature of most human relationships, from family and friends discussing dinner plans or holidays, to parents arguing with children, all the way to key boardroom discussions, negotiations are part of everyday life (Gan, 2017: Thompson et al 2004). However, while interpersonal negotiations such as these are not always free of conflict, a level of underlying respect between the parties can help to alleviate any long-term negative emotions and facilitate both parties reaching a meaningful outcome (Lewicki, Saunders and Barry, 2015).

Business negotiations are often infused with emotion, and an approach that recognises and addresses this point, should be forefront in the mind of the negotiators as negative emotions can affect the outcome of the negotiation and lead to negative feelings towards participants and negotiated proposals (Der Foo *et al.*, 2004). So too can positive emotions elicit a more favourable outcome of the negotiation, if emotional contagion occurs between negotiators both sides may try to find common ground by providing concessions to bring the negotiation to a positive climax (Hillebrandt and Barclay, 2017).

Therefore, the use of EI which is known to consist of skills such as recognising and understanding emotions in yourself and others, and the ability to regulate one's own emotions, can allow participants to be more controlled and productive in a negotiation (Brooks, 2015). However, if negotiators are to use these abilities to influence the other party into a misleading situation, it is quite reasonable to believe that one party will feel as though they have been treated unethically in the negotiation, this can lead to negative feelings about the experience and may sour future relationships (Malhotra and Bazerman, 2008). We will now look at the use of emotions from the context of negotiation in more detail in the following section.

2.9 Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation

The question of how, and to what degree emotions can affect our judgement and influence our thinking, has been around since ancient times (Forgas, 1995). However, research looking at emotions from a more interpersonal standpoint is a more recent phenomenon. Studies where people's moods and emotions are observed, and the effects of these emotions on other people are then measured, have begun to show how important the role of understanding our own and other's emotions can be (Van Kleef, 2009). In his theory, emotions as a social information (EASI), Van Kleef (2009) states that observers can determine certain behavioural intentions from the emotional signals given out by an individual. If this can be translated into a negotiation situation, where one party senses anger or an immediate change in body language, they may determine that whatever offer they are making or approach they are taking may need to be adjusted to suit the situation (Hillebrandt and Barclay, 2017).

Even for the most experienced of negotiators concerns about the unpredictability and the direction that a negotiation may take, can leave both parties trying to portray a sense of calm externally, while dealing with a number of raw emotions internally. Ignoring these emotions however is not an effective solution, acknowledging where your concerns lie and dealing with any potential issues personally before a negotiation, can leave a negotiator calm and centred, allowing them to create a sense of ease between the two parties, this can allow for a more creative, focused and energised negotiation (Leary, Pillemer and Wheeler, 2013). If one or both parties cannot regulate their own emotions, relations between the parties can quickly deteriorate and lead to both parties walking away without agreement (Der Foo *et al.*, 2004). In contrast to this Diamond (2013) believes that negotiators should avoid using or showing any emotions in a negotiation, the best way to achieve this is to lower your perceived expectations of how the negotiation will play out. If you enter the negotiation believing that the other party is untrustworthy, unnecessarily difficult or unlikely to agree to any concessions you are unlikely to be knocked out of your stride. If either party enters the negotiation with a pre-conceived idea of how things will go, and then

things don't go to plan, they are more likely to get into an emotional state. Unintentional emotional signals given off by a negotiator, can often determine how their words or actions can be construed, their expressions can also elicit certain emotional responses in the other party and if not managed lead to conflict (Ekman, 2003). They may become more likely to lose focus of their goals and shift energy to retaliation, this is when judgement becomes clouded and deals can fail (Diamond, 2013). It has also recently been shown that the use of anger as strategy in negotiation can be also be affective for the party that uses it, as it can suggest to the other party that there are no more concessions to be gained and highlight a need to bring the negotiation to a speedy conclusion (Sinaceur *et al.*, 2011). To critically analyse this however, just as our positive and negative moods can provide information to ourselves, visible emotions such as body language, facial expressions or tone can provide information to others around us (Van Kleef, 2009). Research has shown that a negotiators positive affect can increase concession making (Bar-On, 1990), increase joint gains and the use of cooperative strategies (Carnevale and Isen, 1986; Forgas, 1998) leading to better negotiated outcomes for both parties.

2.10 Conclusion

As we have seen from the literature, there are many existing theories of emotional intelligence as a concept, and studies that link the subject to leadership and negotiation. While individual differences exist, EI in the broadest terms follows a similar path, the main concepts of the theories, as has been outlined in this literature review, are based on perception of emotion, emotional regulation, understanding emotions in oneself and others and utilisation of emotions, we will be revisiting these elements of emotional intelligence throughout this study.

The main theories on the subjects of EI and leadership are becoming increasingly intertwined. Indeed, it is believed by some authors that both fields of study will benefit from a merging of the literature. The study of leadership will benefit by incorporating research on emotional regulation and emotional labour while leadership researchers will be able to understand better the emotional process of leaders (Humphrey, Burch and Adams, 2016). While this particular study is interested in forwarding the literature on EI in leaders it is also concerned with how this ability relates to other job-related performances such as negotiation. The approach taken for this will be outlined in the methodology section.

3. Research question

3.1 Introduction

In the previous section of this paper, a review was carried out of the literature related to emotional intelligence and its links to leadership. The research proposes that those individuals believed to be high in emotional intelligence are thought to have greater opportunities in their personal and professional life to become successful. The literature review then looks at a brief outline on the skill of negotiation and then focuses in on the role emotional intelligence can play within a negotiation situation, and how negotiators can use it as a skill to negotiate effectively.

The following section will seek to explain the main aims and objectives of the research.

3.2 Importance of EI to leadership job performance

Many studies now exist into the links between emotional intelligence and successful outcomes in leadership (Doe et al., 2015; Goleman, 1998; Prati et al., 2003). However, much fewer studies have been carried out into the role that high levels of emotional intelligence can play on specific performance related outcomes which relate to on the job success. It was noted by Wong and Law (2002) that “there is little empirical evidence in the literature about the relationship between EI of both leaders and followers and their job outcomes” (Wong and Law, 2002, p.244).

Current research suggests that the higher up the organisational ladder employee’s go, the more they rely on interpersonal skills, and the less they tend rely on technical skills (Goleman, 1998). But is this also true if we look at a key aspect in the skillset of a leader, negotiation.

3.3 The objectives of the research

The aim of this research is to test for correlation between elements of emotional intelligence and negotiation skills. This research was deemed worthy of study as given the role negotiation has in our personal and professional lives, whether that’s inside or outside of the workplace, improving employee performance goals, closing a sale or committing to large scale organisational agreement, negotiation is a key skill set for leaders and any improvement in this area is to be welcomed (Harvard Business Essentials, 2003). It is believed that over time and with training levels of EI abilities can be improved, developing skills in emotional awareness and emotional regulation can lead to improvements in job satisfaction and performance (Turner and Lloyd-Walker, 2008). With this in mind, if this research

can further the theory that certain aspects of EI correlate to above average negotiation skills, then improving this skillset is to be recommended.

This study will test four distinct elements of emotional intelligence; Appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself, appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, regulation of emotion in oneself and use of emotion to facilitate performance (Law et al., 2004). The research will then test for correlation between these four constructs and participants negotiation skills. The study will then test the independent variables to see which are the most likely to predict above average negotiation skills of leaders in the sample.

After reflection of the literature it was decided that the objective of this research was to try and infer which specific EI abilities best predicted above average negotiation skills in a leader.

Therefore, the research question that this paper will try to establish is:

Is there a correlation between elements of emotional intelligence and negotiating skills in leaders?

To try to achieve the objective, as has been set out above, this research will examine each of the following areas through the hypothesis outlined below. They will be explored in detail in the discussion of findings section, later on in this study.

H1: There is no correlation between the use of emotions and negotiation skills.

H2: There is no correlation between the regulation of emotions in self and negotiation skills.

H3: There is no correlation between self-emotional appraisal and negotiation skills.

H4: There is no correlation between the appraisal and recognition of emotions and negotiation skills.

H5: There is no correlation between leadership and negotiation skills.

H6: Leaders levels of EI have no correlation to their negotiation skills.

By achieving these objectives, it is hoped that this research can suggest that specific areas of emotional intelligence in leaders can infer a correlation to their negotiation ability. If these specific areas can be identified and highlighted so as they can be improved upon this may be beneficial to areas of the leadership function and future studies of leadership and management.

4. Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This section will look at the methodology that was used in terms of research philosophy, research approach, research design and the methods used. This section will look at how the methods used were applied to the overall research and why they were chosen over alternative approaches.

4.2 Research philosophy

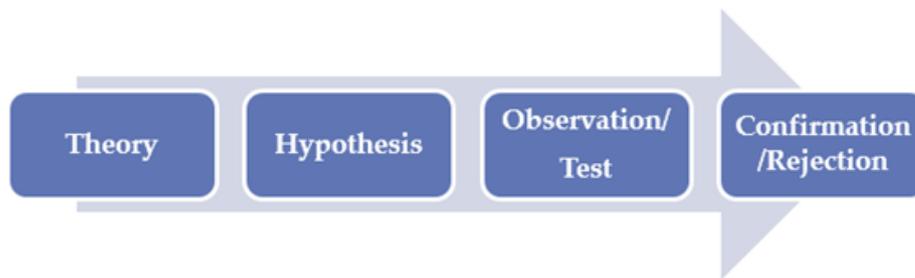
When embarking on a research project, the term research philosophy “relates to the development of knowledge and the nature of that knowledge” (Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill, 2012, p.127). No matter what the subject of that research may be, the basis of the research is about developing new knowledge from the findings of the study. While looking to understand the process by which knowledge is created this research followed the epistemological position of positivism which holds that there is one objective reality which is separate from consciousness (Quinlan, 2011). This study follows a positivism philosophy as the aim of the research is to try to establish regularities and correlation between constructs (Saunders et. al, 2012). Positivism is based on collecting data about observational realities and it is linked with quantitative approaches where by large samples of the population are tested to collate as much data as possible to confirm or reject the research hypothesis (Bryman and Bell 2007). The research has also been approached from a functionalist paradigm, in that it shall seek to provide a rational explanation which is highly pragmatic in its orientation, the purpose of which will be to generate knowledge that can be put to use (Burrell and Morgan, 2011).

Alternative to this philosophy the epistemological position of interpretivism was also considered. While interpretivism also has its merits, it is linked more closely to the feelings and thoughts of the sample tested, qualitative methods tend to be better suited to interpretivism, its findings can be subjective and leave results open to interpretation (Quinlan, 2011). As the research attempted to test for the correlation between a number of constructs the research was based on the philosophy of positivism. The research will now explore the methods used in developing the methodology.

4.3 Research approach

Before conducting this research both quantitative and qualitative research methods were considered. While both methods could have been justifiably used for this research, it was the researcher’s belief that this particular study was better suited to quantitative research. The main justification for this, is that this research will be using a deductive approach to examine if there is a positive

relationship between EI and negotiation skills. Deductive reasoning can be used to explain the causal relationships between two variables (Heath and Tynan, 2010). According to Saunders et al., (2012) research can follow two distinct paths, deductive and non-deductive. Deductive research is when a theory and hypothesis are first established, then a strategy is formulated to test this hypothesis, data is then analysed to either confirm or reject the hypothesis. Alternatively, inductive research is the method used when data is first collected and then a theory is developed after the results of the data are analysed (Saunders et al., 2012). The approach to deductive research is set out below (Research Methodology, 2018).



Deductive reasoning can be used to test a set of variables, it starts by grounding itself in an existing theory, such as leaders are high in emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1998) and then tests to see if this can be expanded to show that leaders with high emotional intelligence also have above average levels of negotiation skills (Dutilh Novaes, 2013). The deductive approach will test for correlations that may exist between concepts and variables (Saunders et al., 2012), this research project will develop a number of hypothesis and then test these hypotheses against the collected data. Quantitative research methods are generally better suited to this type of research as each hypothesis can be tested for validity against a large sample of the population in a relatively short time frame. The method used for this research is the social survey.

Qualitative measures are generally better suited to research where insight into certain problems or motivations is the key objective, qualitative research such as interviews or focus groups can also be a valuable method for idea generation or to measure trends in thoughts or opinions (Park and Park, 2016). Qualitative research tends to follow an inductive approach whereby themes that emerge from the data can guide the research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Qualitative research can also be content specific, the data collection methods used for these types of studies are developed specifically for the context of the chosen research and cannot be easily replicated to other studies (Quinlan, 2011). If the quantitative research methods used in this study develop interesting findings in the field, the chosen research methods could be expanded to incorporate a much larger sample population.

4.4 Research Design

4.4.1 Design approach

The research design will be defined as cross-sectional research and will attempt to establish if there is a correlation between variables, the independent variables (IV) emotional intelligence and leadership, and the dependant variable (DV) negotiation skills. Features that are common to cross-sectional design, which are also present in this study, are that an attempt has been made to measure existing differences between respondents at a given point in time. The sample for this cross-sectional research has been selected based on known differences rather than random selection. Therefore, as cross-sectional design can only be based on the specific sample taken at a given time, the findings of this research can only imply a relatively passive inference from the results (University of Southern California, 2018). This type of research cannot then prove causation but merely infers associations (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The key variables that this study will attempt to measure are emotional intelligence and negotiation skills, the emotional intelligence variable will be measured using the following EI constructs: Appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself (SEA), appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (OEA), regulation of emotion in oneself (ROE) and the use of emotion to facilitate performance (UOE). A cross sectional design was favoured over a controlled experiment as there will be no requirement for manipulation of the independent variable (EI), it was also deemed more suitable than a longitudinal study due to the time constraints of the project. This study is a descriptive study in that it attempts to gain an accurate profile of the respondents' levels of both emotional intelligence and negotiation skills through analysis of quantitative data. A cross sectional study has been selected because it allows the researcher to obtain a large volume of information quickly, it is an inexpensive method of research and has the ability to test and identify the extent to which a set of variables measured at the same time could be correlated (Park and Park, 2016). With cross sectional design it is possible to test a number of different variables simultaneously and examine alternative outcomes, which we will be looking at later in the findings section of this research. In order to test for these variants, it is important to have quantifiable data which provides the researcher with a consistent benchmark with which to test the theories of the research and provide reliable means of gauging variation (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

4.4.2 Survey Design rationale

Currently there are 3 main theoretical models of measuring emotional intelligence, these are ability based, self-report based and mixed models (O'Boyle Jr. *et al.*, 2011). Although some of the core competencies within these studies can have separate constructs, much of the key components overlap to create a coherent argument for the structure of emotional intelligence (Ciarrochi *et al.*, 2000). In a study carried out by Davies *et al.* (1998) into the key literature around

the self-report emotional intelligence scales, some fundamental areas were identified to measure a number of components at a conceptual level, that would allow for the effective measurement of emotional intelligence. These were: 1) Appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself (SEA). 2) Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (OEA). 3) Regulation of emotion in oneself (ROE). 4) Use of emotion to facilitate performance (UOE) (Davies et al., 1998). The research instruments that will be used in this investigation, to measure the levels of EI in respondents is the Wong and Law (2002) emotional intelligence scale WLEIS. This scale was developed by Wong and Law (2002) to provide a short practical scale that can be used in leadership and management studies. In their studies of the subject of emotional intelligence and its effects on job performance and attitudes Wong and Law (2002) incorporate the 4 key components identified in the Davies et al. (1998) study to construct a 16 item questionnaire. While some authors have questioned the validity of peoples ability to accurately score their own emotions on a self-report EI test (Brackett and Mayer, 2003), it was felt that this self-report questionnaire was a suitable measure to be included within this study as it was initially designed to be used as a tool for testing within leadership studies, but also, and more specifically to provide exploratory evidence about the effect that levels of a leaders EI has on job performances (Wong and Law, 2002). The WLEIS test has also been tested and validated in a further study into its use in emotional intelligence and management studies (Law, Wong and Song, 2004).

Negotiation is one of the key drivers of job performance particularly at leadership level, and the ability to negotiate effectively in the business world is a coveted skill (McClendon, Burke and Willey, 2010). In order to test for levels of negotiating skills, this research has utilised an existing questionnaire which was developed by Cook (2015) to allow participants gain an understanding of their own negotiation skills, motivations and to gain an overview of how they interact with other people.

4.5 Research Methods

4.5.1 Study Design

The assessment and procedures of this study, which will test for correlation between emotional intelligence and negotiation skills will be explained in more detail in the sections that follow. Following initial data analysis which was applied to the overall sample to establish some basic demographic factors a basic test of emotional intelligence and negotiation skills was conducted. Some of the demographic factors were then tested for negotiation skills to see if any of these factors may influence the overall findings as covariates. Variables were then tested for correlation and then tested to see which variables best predicted above average negotiation skills.

4.5.2 Participants

The questionnaire was distributed using non-probability sampling techniques. Convenience sampling was used to access friends and colleagues familiar to the researcher. The researcher also sought out people known to be working within leadership positions both in the public and private sector. Once accessed, those individuals working in the leadership function were asked to assist in a snowball sampling technique that was used in order to gain access to a greater number of leaders. In all 115 valid responses were received out of a total of 122 questionnaires, with 79 respondents reporting as leaders. Seven surveys were not used in the analysis because the questionnaires were incomplete, respondents had exited the survey before they had finished. In line with ethical considerations the online surveys were provided with a cover page where respondents were instructed that if they wanted to exit the questionnaire at any time they were free to do so, by closing the tab before survey completion their responses would not be included in the findings. Participants were also assured of the confidentiality of the survey and names or places of work were not sought of respondents in the survey. The researchers contact details were also provided to answer any questions that might arise (Appendix 2). Of the 115 completed responses 69 were male and 46 were female, with a broad range of age and education levels reported, which we will look at in more detail in the next section. Participants were living or working in the Dublin, Wicklow, Kildare and Meath region. All had qualified to partake in the study by completing the consent question and confirming they were over 18 years of age.

4.5.3 Instruments used

This study ran two independent scales consecutively, the 16 item WLEIS (2002) self-report test and the 20 item Cook (2015) negotiation skills test. In order to maximise the chances of survey completion by respondents, the decision was made to use two relatively short but specific questionnaires. Also included were 4 short questions relating to: gender, age, education level and leadership status, these demographic items were measured by a tick box response. The WLEIS (2002) scale contains 16 questions on a 7-point Likert scale, with 1 representing strongly disagree to 7 representing strongly agree, which tested for each of the constructs of EI highlighted, namely: self-emotional appraisal, appraisal and recognition of emotions in others, regulation of emotion in oneself, and use of emotions. Scores were then calculated by taking an average of respondents scores. Negotiation skills were measured by a 20 item 5-point Likert scale, these scores were measured as 1-39 below average negotiation skills, 40-69 average negotiation skills and 70-100 above average negotiation skills. The questionnaire was then formatted using Survey Monkey and distributed by email to the sample population known to the researcher, a web-link was also provided for those who assisted in the snowball sampling.

4.5.4 Internal consistency and reliability

For this study there is a need to test the data pertaining to the research question, however, there is also a requirement to review the methods used and to test for reliability and validity. The results of the survey reliability test for each of the 5 scales will be presented here using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient. The Cronbach Alpha score has a range of between 0-1 with scores of above .07 being generally accepted (Pallant, 2016). From the results we can see that Self emotional appraisal = .855, Appraisal of Emotions in others = .835, Regulation of Emotions = .896, Use of emotions = .899, negotiation skills = .761 for each of the constructs the score achieved infers that there is sufficient internal consistency and reliability between the survey constructs.

Reliability Statistics Self-Emotional Appraisal

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.855	4

Reliability Statistics Appraisal of Emotions Others

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.835	4

Reliability Statistics Regulation of Emotions

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.896	4

Reliability Statistics Use of Emotions

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.899	4

Reliability Statistics Negotiation Skills

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.761	20

4.6 Pilot Study

To test for the validity of the survey instrument a pilot study was carried out. In all 5 associates were asked to complete the survey and provide any feedback on the questions, layout, understanding and order of the questions so that that any improvements required could be carried out before sending out the main survey. It was found to be clear and understood by all who took part in the study, so the

questionnaire format was kept as it was. An estimated time of completion was also included on the survey cover page based on how long it took respondents to complete.

4.7 Procedure

To analyse the data, the statistical data system IBM SPSS was used, this was made available through the NCI. Data from the online survey was exported into excel, this data was then coded and imputed in the SPSS system with each response given a numerical code. Once in SPSS analysis of the data could begin. First reliability testing was conducted to establish how reliable the data set was, then the demographic data was analysed to give an overview of the type of respondents the survey data was based on. The study then uses descriptive statistics to gain an understanding of overall responses to the emotional intelligence and negotiation skills constructs. Correlation analysis of the constructs was then undertaken to test for correlation and statistical significance of the data, this was carried out using the Pearson correlation. Finally using multivariate analysis, a multiple linear regression analysis was carried out to test which independent variables best predicted above average negotiation skills (continuous variable).

4.8 Statistical analysis

Generalisations from the data is based on statistical probability. Statistical probability is a compromise between the accuracy of the findings and the time and money spent on gathering data (Saunders et al., 2012). Descriptive statistics have been used to organise and present the data of the population sample, so the results are correlated into groups related to age, gender and education level. Inferential statistics will then be used as a way of inferring any correlation of the variables from the sample population, this is also an appropriate method to test the probability of the null hypothesis being true. The null hypothesis is the starting point of any research, and it must begin with the belief there is no effect between variables. Therefore, the null hypothesis is a reflection of the status quo, it is the aim of the research to test the null hypothesis and using inferential statistics to test the probability of the null hypothesis being true and then accept or reject the null. In order to test this, the research will conduct an inferential statistical analysis and assign a p value; if the probability of the null hypothesis is less than the p value, then the null hypothesis will be rejected, and the research will infer the alternative hypothesis.

4.9 Limitations

Limitations of this research include the self-report survey that was used to gather data. While the questionnaires themselves have been pre-validated (Cook, 2015; Wong and Law, 2002), there are limitations to the effectiveness of self-report questionnaires. As has been forwarded by researchers, self-report questionnaires give respondents the opportunity to provide data based on self-perceived abilities rather than on actual abilities, this then may not fully reflect their true measure of EI (Fiori et al., 2014; Petrides and Furnham, 2001). The researcher acknowledges that the sample size of this survey is also quite low to draw any real conclusions from and may merely infer correlations between variables. The sample population used for the findings are all from the greater Dublin area, a survey with a greater geographical spread would need to take account for a wider range of views and leaders. Finally, although a number of demographic variables were collected not all were used. A further study could account for this and test what impact covariates would have on the findings.

5. Findings

5.1 Introduction

In this section the results and findings of the study will be presented, these findings will consist of a summary of the data that has been captured through sampling. The results will be broken down into three categories, firstly through univariate analysis we will look at some of the basic demographic data of respondents through frequency charts. Then through bivariate analysis we will look at the five constructs under consideration, these will be presented as an overview of each distribution and their respective descriptive statistics. Next, through multivariate analysis we will test to see which independent variables best predict the outcomes of the continuous variable negotiation skills.

5.2 General statistics

In total 115 completed surveys were analysed for the purposes of this research. Some of the demographic data displayed in figures 1-4 will be used as independent variables when conducting regression analysis further on in this study. The following data will also provide general observations relating to the participants of this study.

Figure 1: Displays the valid percentage of males to females in the sample. The pie chart shows that the majority of respondents for this study were male, in total there were 69 male respondents to 46 females. This means that the results of the study may be found to be slightly biased if emotional intelligence is found to be significantly gender specific in respondents. We will test for this assumption later on in the findings section.

Figure 2: Outlines the breakdown of age of respondents. The age demographic has been segmented into the following segments 18-24, 25-34, 35-44, 45-54 and 55+. The two largest segments in this range accounted for 67% of total responses with the 35-44 age bracket being the largest at 36%. The age of participants has been recorded in **Table 1**.

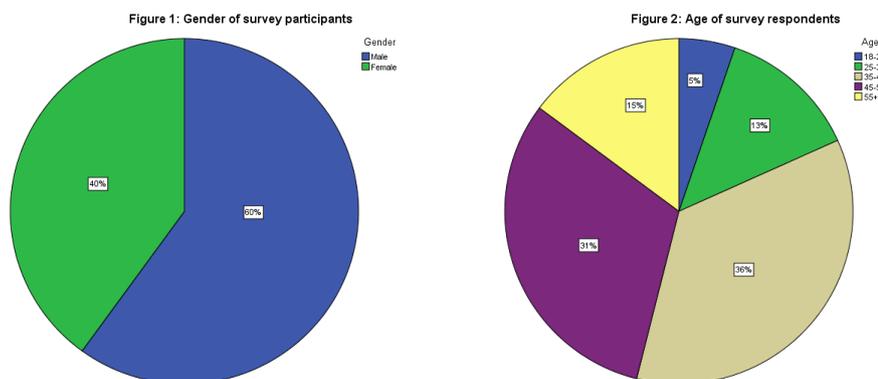


Table 1: Age frequency distribution

		Age		
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	18-24	6	4.9	5.2
	25-34	15	12.3	13.0
	35-44	41	33.6	35.7
	45-54	36	29.5	31.3
	55+	17	13.9	14.8
	Total	115	94.3	100.0

Figure 3: Shows the breakdown of educational levels of respondents. It is weighted heavily between secondary school and postgraduate level, with these two responses making up 74% of the total. The largest educational bracket is postgraduate education accounting for 39% of the total respondents. Frequencies are recorded in **Table 2**

Figure 4: Displays responses to the leadership question, with 69% of all respondents identifying as leaders. As the figure for leaders is so much higher than for non-leaders the comparison between the two variables can only infer minimal statistical probability. The total amount reporting as leaders is 79.

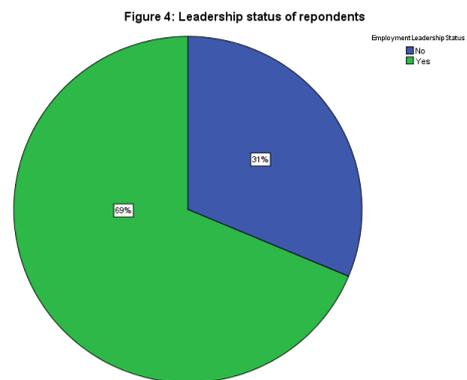
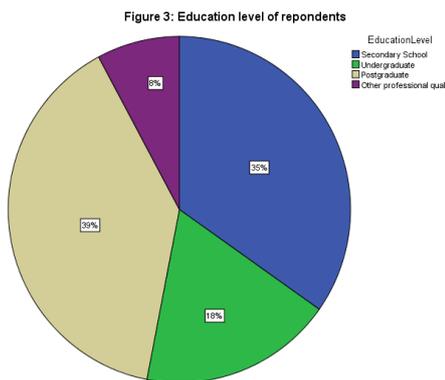


Table 2: Education frequency distribution

Education Level				
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Secondary School	40	32.8	34.8
	Undergraduate	21	17.2	18.3
	Postgraduate	45	36.9	39.1
	Other Professional qual	9	7.4	7.8
	Total	115	94.3	100.0

5.3 Graphical Descriptors

Figures 5 through to 9, depict graphical descriptors of each of the four constructs of emotional intelligence and also negotiation skills. They and are outlined as follows; **Figure 5.** Self-emotional appraisal (SEA), **Figure 6.** Appraisal and recognition of emotion in others (OEA), **Figure 7.** Regulation of emotions in oneself (ROE), **Figure 8.** Use of emotions (UOE) and **Figure 9.** Negotiations skills. In each case the horizontal axis represents the range of scores achievable on each construct, with the vertical axis representing the number of respondents achieving a particular score. In all charts, the distribution seems to reflect a negative skewness, indicating that there exists a number of respondents whose scores are considerably smaller than the vast majority of responses.

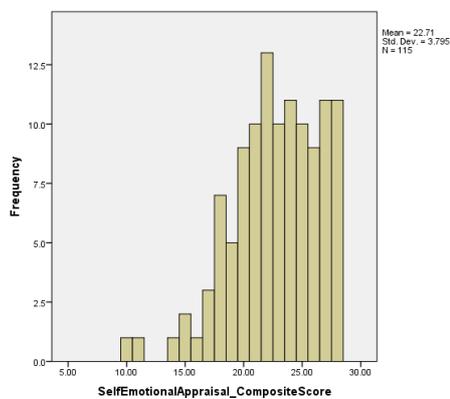


Figure 5: SEA

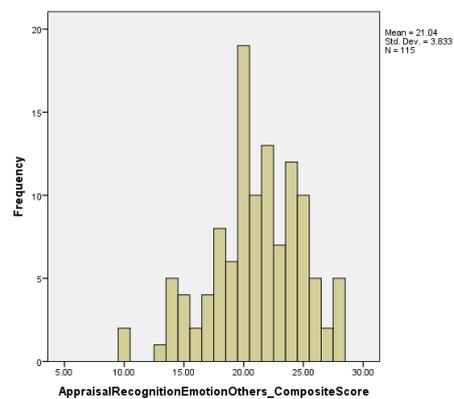


Figure 6: OEA

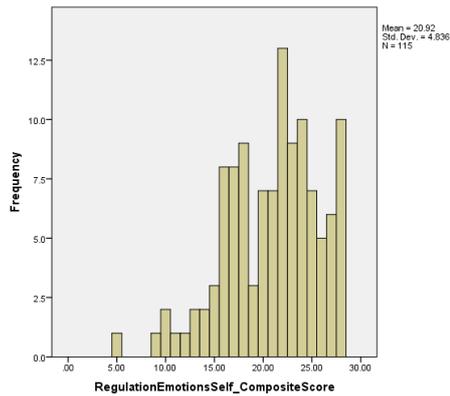


Figure 7: ROE

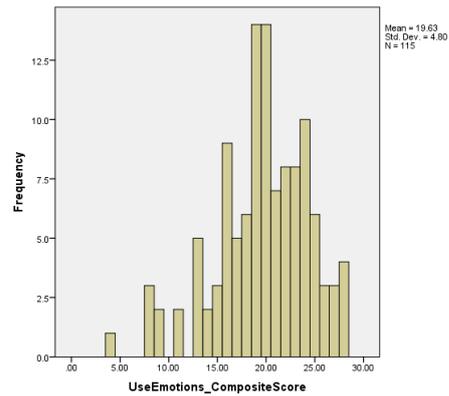


Figure 8: UOE

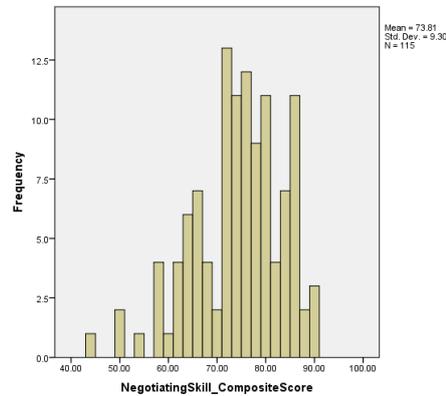


Figure 9: Negotiation Skills

5.4 Numerical descriptors

When analysing the data this study also used numerical descriptives that can be seen in **Table 3**. It is to be noted that for the emotional intelligence scale there are four questions on each of the four constructs of emotional intelligence, these are measured on a 7 point Likert scale. Therefore, there is a minimum score of 4 and a maximum score of 28 attainable for each of these four measures. For negotiation skills there are 20 questions scored on a 5 point Likert scale, so the minimum score attainable is 20 with a maximum of 100.

We can see from **Table 3** that in each of the constructs of emotional intelligence a maximum of 28 was achieved and also that in the use of emotions construct the minimum score of 4 was recorded. The mean scores for each construct is as follows: SEA (m= 22.71), OEA (m= 21.04), ROE (m= 20.92), UOE (m= 19.63). Negotiation skills recorded (m= 73.81).

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for each Variable

Descriptive Statistics					
	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
SelfEmotionalAppraisal_CompositeScore	115	10.00	28.00	22.7130	3.79465
AppraisalRecognitionEmotionOthers_CompositeScore	115	10.00	28.00	21.0435	3.83289
RegulationEmotionsSelf_CompositeScore	115	5.00	28.00	20.9217	4.83617
UseEmotions_CompositeScore	115	4.00	28.00	19.6261	4.80033
NegotiatingSkill_CompositeScore	115	44.00	90.00	73.8087	9.29997
Valid N (listwise)	115				

5.5 Correlation analysis

In this section the analysis is concerned with the testing of two variables at the same time to see if the tests can infer any relation between the variables. To test for correlation between emotional intelligence and negotiation skills this research has used the Pearson correlation coefficient. This is a method of testing if there is a linear association between two variables, the strength of the correlation is determined by value 1 which indicates a positive correlation, 0 which indicates no correlation and -1 which indicates that a negative correlation exists between variables. As we can see from **Table 4**, the correlation coefficient (r) and the level of significance (p) are displayed. This study uses each of the four elements used to describe emotional intelligence and tests for correlation with negotiation skills. As can be seen in **Table 4**. Self-emotional appraisal ($r=.210$, $p<0.05$) this finding suggests a small association between the two tested variables, with a .024 statistical significance. Appraisal and recognition of emotions in others ($r= .187$, $p<0.05$) this finding also suggests that there is small association between the two tested variables with a statistical significance of .046. Where we do start to see interesting findings is in the next two variables, the research has shown that in regulation of emotions in self ($r= .466$, $p<0.05$) this infers a moderate association between variables with a statistical significance. Also, in the use of emotions ($r= .484$, $p<0.05$) this finding infers that again there is a moderate association between variable the with a statistical significance. Both these variables show a correlation which is borderline high in association.

Table 4: EI Correlation analysis

Correlations

		NegotiatingSkill_ CompositeScore
NegotiatingSkill_ CompositeScore	Pearson Correlation	1
	N	115
SelfEmotionalAppraisal_ CompositeScore	Pearson Correlation	.210
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.024
	N	115
AppraisalRecognitionEmotio nOthers_ CompositeScore	Pearson Correlation	.187
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.046
	N	115
RegulationEmotionsSelf_ CompositeScore	Pearson Correlation	.466
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	115
UseEmotions_ CompositeScore	Pearson Correlation	.484
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	115

If we break down the demographic information and use them as independent variables we can infer that there is a moderate correlation between negotiation skills (DV) and leadership status (IV). And, also a borderline moderate correlation between negotiation skills (DV) and education level (IV). While age and gender do not appear to have any statistical significance. The information is broken down individually and displayed from **Tables 5 – 8**.

Table 5 negotiation skills and leadership have a moderate effect size and this is statistically significant ($r = .298$, $p < 0.05$)

Table 5: Leadership Correlation analysis

Correlations

		EmploymentLea dershipStatus
NegotiatingSkill_ CompositeScore		.298
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
		115

In **Table 6** we can see that age shows a small effect size on negotiation skills, this result however is not statistically significant ($r = .158$, $p > 0.05$)

Table 6: Age Correlation analysis

Correlations		
		Age
NegotiatingSkill_CompositeScore		.158
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.093
		115

In **Table 7** we can see education level has a moderate effect on negotiation skills with a statistical significance. ($r = .315$, $p < 0.05$)

Table 7: Education Correlation analysis

Correlations		
		Education Level
NegotiatingSkill_CompositeScore		.315
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
		115

In **Table 8** we can see that gender was found to have a slightly negative effect size on negotiation skills, this however is not statistically significant ($r = -.075$, $p > .425$)

Table 8: Gender Correlation analysis

Correlations		
		Gender
NegotiatingSkill_CompositeScore		-.075
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.425
		115

5.6 Multiple Regression analysis

Multiple regression analysis is used to explore the relationship between a continuous dependant variable which in this study is negotiation skills, and a number of independent variables which relate to the four constructs of emotional intelligence and will also include the leadership status and gender variables. Multiple regression can be used to explain how well certain tested variables can predict a particular outcome (Pallant, 2016).

5.6.1 Evaluating the Model

To test how much variance in the dependant variable of negotiation, can be explained by the model which includes the independent variables which are, the four constructs of EI, leadership status and gender we look to **Table 9**. From the model summary we see that under heading R Square we are given a figure of .36, here we move the decimal two places and express it as a percentage to be given the figure 36%. This figure tells us that our model explains 36% of the variance in negotiation skills.

Table 9: Regression Summary data

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.600 ^a	.360	.324	7.64654

- a. Predictors: (Constant), EmploymentLeadershipStatus, Gender, UseEmotions_CompositeScore, AppraisalRecognitionEmotionOthers_CompositeScore, RegulationEmotionsSelf_CompositeScore, SelfEmotionalAppraisal_CompositeScore

5.6.2 Analysis of Variables

The next step in our analysis is to understand which of the independent variables (IV) have contributed most to the prediction of negotiation skill (DV). To compare variables, we use the information given in **Table 11** under the heading Standardised coefficient, here we will compare the contribution made by each independent variable. As we can see from the data the largest single contributor is Use of emotions and the result is statistically significant (beta= .372, $p < .05$). The next largest contributor we can see is Regulation of emotions in Self, the significance is = to .05, (for the purposes of this study we will presume statistical significance at ($p = .05$)) (beta= .268, $p = .05$). This then is followed by Leadership status which is also statistically significant (beta= .211, $p < .05$). The other variables

tested were not found to be statistically significant, Self-emotional appraisal (beta= -.062, $p>.05$). Appraisal and recognition of Emotions in Others (beta= .03, $p>.05$), and Gender (beta= -.55, $p>.05$).

Table 10: Anova

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3545.071	6	590.845	10.105	.000 ^b
	Residual	6314.720	108	58.470		
	Total	9859.791	114			

a. Dependent Variable: NegotiatingSkill_CompositeScore

b. Predictors: (Constant), EmploymentLeadershipStatus, Gender, UseEmotions_CompositeScore, AppraisalRecognitionEmotionOthers_CompositeScore, RegulationEmotionsSelf_CompositeScore, SelfEmotionalAppraisal_CompositeScore

Table 11: Coefficients

		Coefficients ^a				
		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	49.710	5.087		9.771	.000
	SelfEmotionalAppraisal _CompositeScore	-.153	.231	-.062	-.661	.510
	AppraisalRecognitionE motionOthers_ Compos iteScore	.007	.218	.003	.033	.973
	RegulationEmotionsSe lf_ CompositeScore	.515	.179	.268	2.884	.005
	UseEmotions_ Compos iteScore	.721	.171	.372	4.223	.000
	Gender	-1.041	1.493	-.055	-.697	.487
	EmploymentLeadershi pStatus	4.216	1.625	.211	2.595	.011

a. Dependent Variable: NegotiatingSkill_CompositeScore

Therefore, based on the information provided in **Tables 9 to 11** we can calculate the multi linear regression model as follows (Cronk, 2017):

($F(6, 108) = 10.105, p < .000$) with $R^2 .360$. Respondents predicted that Negotiation (DV) is equal to $49.710 + .721$ Use of emotion (IV1) + 4.216 Leadership status (IV2), where Use of emotion (IV1) is measured in 1 units and leadership status is coded 0= No, 1= Yes. Participants Negotiation skills increased .721 for every increase in Use of emotions. Negotiation skills were also found to increase 4.216 when leaders were measured. Both use of emotions and leadership status were found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$).

6. Discussion of Findings

6.1 Introduction

In this section we will look at the findings from the survey and discuss them with relation to the research objectives and literature review that was carried out for this study. The layout of the discussion section is laid out in the same order as the research objectives to show how each of these objectives have been tested. This section is also in similar order to the findings section of this paper to allow for quick reference to results and tables.

6.2 Basic test for Emotional Intelligence

The first analysis that was carried out was to test the levels of emotional intelligence abilities in the sample. As has been previously discussed in the literature the four constructs used to measure emotional intelligence have each been outlined as important aspects of the main theories and were common components found to be present in much of the key literature (Davies et al., 1998). With this knowledge the WLEIS (Wong and Law, 2002) scale was used to test for these constructs. The scale is a 16 item survey that was broken into four constructs of four questions each, and was based on a 7 point Likert scale which gave a range of scores between a minimum of 4 and maximum of 28. The basic analysis of emotional intelligence for each of the constructs is shown in **Table 3**. From this basic analysis of the levels of emotional intelligence in the sample we can tell that the Median for each of the components for this test was 16 (Median= 16). As can be seen in the mean result in **Table 3** each of the four constructs of emotional intelligence scored above the median to suggest an above average score for emotional intelligence for the overall population sample. Self-emotional appraisal (Mean= 22.71), appraisal and recognition of emotions in others (Mean= 21.04), regulation of emotions in self (Mean= 20.92) and use of emotions (Mean= 19.62). This result shows that the level of emotional intelligence in the sample is slightly above average but that there is room for improvement. If we look at the results the highest among the sample population was self-emotional appraisal, this is the ability to recognise emotions in oneself and have the ability to express emotions naturally (Law et al, 2004).

6.3 Basic test for negotiation skills

From the negotiation skills scales that have been used for this study (Cook, 2015), we are told that scores between 1-39 are below average, from 40-69 are average and from 70-100 are above average. Based on this being a 20 question construct the range was from between 20 to 100. Taking the figure from **Table 3** we can see that the sample scored above average on this construct (Mean= 73.81). This is relatively close to the overall average score, but the population measured together have scored just above the average. From **Table 3** we can see that 44

was the minimum scored with a maximum score of 90. This again infers that there is an above average level of negotiation skills in the sample population.

6.4 Test for correlation between EI and negotiation skills

The study then moved on to analyse the data to test if there is a correlation in the sample between the independent variable emotional intelligence and the dependant variable negotiation skills. We can see from **Table 4** that a statistical significance was found with each of the variables. If we use the Cohen effect we can see that; self-emotional appraisal ($r=.210$, $p<0.05$), Appraisal and recognition of emotions in others ($r= .187$, $p<0.05$), regulation of emotions in self ($r= .466$, $p<0.05$), use of emotions ($r= .484$, $p<0.05$).

In this correlation test, the use of emotions construct has been found to have a moderate, to borderline high, correlation with negotiation skills. This finding infers that a respondent found to be above average in the use of emotions, may also be found to have above average negotiation skills. According to theory, the construct of use of emotions relates to how someone can direct or use their emotions to facilitate performance and tasks (Law et al., 2004), On the basis that this particular EI construct infers a correlation with negotiation skills, this is an interesting finding. We base this on the principal that this particular EI construct suggests using one's emotions effectively enables them to perform better at a given task (Law et al., 2004). This finding could indeed suggest that being above average at this construct of EI would infer an above average level of negotiating skills. This however would need further study before drawing any conclusion. **(H1)** Therefore if the findings for use of emotions are ($r= .484$, $p<0.05$), we have cause to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

The next highest score on this correlation analysis was the regulation of emotions in self. This construct had a moderate correlation with negotiation skills. If we look at this particular construct we can see that regulating one's emotions would suggest that the participants have better control of their own emotions (Law et al, 2004). This would suggest that they are less likely to lose their temper in a given situation and they would also possess the ability to manage their mood, which could have positive outcomes in a negotiation situation (Forgas, 1995; Van Kleef, 2009). The findings of this research infer that a moderate level of, the ability to regulate emotions in oneself, may correlate to above average negotiation skills. **(H2)** Therefore if the findings for regulation of emotions are ($r= .466$, $p<0.05$), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

Self-emotion appraisal and appraisal and recognition of emotion in others both have a relatively small correlation with negotiation skills. Self-emotion appraisal relates to people's ability to understand and express their own emotions, while this was a statistically significant finding it can only infer a small correlation with negotiation skills. **(H3)** Therefore if the findings of self-emotional appraisal are

($r=.210$, $p<0.05$), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis. Appraisal and recognition of emotions in others is the ability to recognise and be sensitive to the emotions of others (Law et al., 2004) this ability is strongly linked with empathy (Goleman, 1998). This finding could again only infer small correlation with negotiation skills however it was a statistically significant finding. **(H4)** Therefore if the findings of appraisal and recognition of emotions in others are ($r= .187$, $p<0.05$), we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

6.5 Test for correlation between demographic factors and negotiation skills

We can see from the individual correlation analysis of the demographic factors in **Tables 5-8**, that education levels appeared to infer the largest correlation of the variables tested ($r= .315$, $p< 0.05$), the next largest factor was leadership status ($r= .298$, $p< 0.05$). Both findings suggest that there is moderate correlation with negotiation skills. Age showed only a small effect and could not be considered statistically significant ($r= .158$, $p> 0.05$). Gender showed a slightly negative correlation between the variables but again this was not statistically significant ($r= -.075$, $p> .425$).

For this study we are most concerned with the leadership variable. We can infer from our findings that a moderate correlation appears to exist between these two variables. This would suggest that survey participants who are currently employed in the leadership function have an above average level of negotiation skills. **(H5)** Therefore if the findings of the correlation between leadership and negotiating skills are ($r= .298$, $p< 0.05$) then we reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

6.6 Multi regression analysis

This research used a multi regression linear analysis in order to test a number of variables at the same time, this analysis can help infer which variables are most likely to predict a certain outcome from the variables tested. It has been used here to test the relationship between the continuous variable which in this instance is negotiation skills and a number of independent variables namely: the four constructs of EI, leadership status and gender. Please note that for the purposes of these findings, regulation of emotion was deemed to be statistically significant as it did not exceed .05, therefore the findings for this construct will be reported further on in the section as ($\beta=.268$, $p= 0.05$).

As we can see from the findings in **Table 11** the beta for the gender variable has reported a slightly negative prediction, this finding however is not found to be statistically significant ($\beta= -.55$, $p>.05$). This variable was included in the test as we have found previous studies where it was suggested that women were

naturally better at emotional recognition tasks (Thompson and Voyer, 2014), however our study could not forward this theory as our findings were not found to be statistically significant.

When tested together we can see from **Table 11** that two of the four constructs of emotional intelligence: regulation of emotions (beta= .268, $p= 0.05$), and use of emotion (beta= .372, $p< 0.05$) were found to be useful predictors of above average negotiation skills. Leadership status (beta= .211, $p< 0.05$) was also found to be a good predictor of emotional intelligence. This would infer that leaders with above average levels of the emotional intelligence elements: use of emotions and regulation of emotions are good predictors of above average negotiation skills. **(H6)** Therefore the findings of, regulation of emotion (beta= .268, $p= 0.05$), use of emotion (beta= .372, $p< 0.05$) and leadership status (beta= .211, $p< 0.05$) are found to be useful predictors of negotiation skills. We can reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternative hypothesis.

6.7 Implications of findings

The aim of this research was to test for correlations between aspects of emotional intelligence, negotiation and leadership. An attempt was made to see which measures of emotional intelligence could best predict negotiation skills in leaders, as has been shown in the discussions on these findings a number of specific areas of EI have inferred a correlation with negotiation skills. We have found that all four measures had a statistical significance and ranged from small to moderate correlation, the measures with the highest correlation being: use of emotions and regulation of emotions. The research then looked at some of the demographic factors and while a statistically significant correlation was also found between leadership status and negotiation skills no statistical significance was found for gender. The research then tested to predict which individual variables used would best predict above average negotiation skills, the test found that as above, regulation of emotion, use of emotion and leadership skills were the best predictor of above average negotiating skills.

For the basis of this study two elements of EI, use of emotion and regulation of emotion, have inferred a moderate correlation with negotiation skills and leadership. It is the researchers belief that this is the key finding of the study and the grounding for future study in the area.

7. Conclusion and Recommendations

The following section will conclude this research paper by giving an overview of the research undertaken and provide recommendations for areas of future research.

As we have seen throughout this study, a large body of research now exists into the field of emotional intelligence. What had started out as a topic of interest to academics and practitioners of psychology and human resource management, has now grown to become recognised by many as being the key skill required of leaders of today. There have been many opposing theories about what constructs are required to make a comprehensive argument for emotional intelligence, but it has also been recognised that although some differences may exist in exactly what defines the construct of emotional intelligence, the key theories have more similarities than differences. We have also seen how emotional intelligence is being linked to many performance related outcomes including negotiation. It is believed that people who possess better control over their range of emotions can be more effective in a negotiation situation, if negotiations are approached from a calm, responsive, and empathetic standpoint which also focuses on the interpersonal elements of both parties, a more creative, focused and energised negotiation can take place.

What this research attempted to do was to test for correlation between negotiation skills and elements of one of the widely agreed constructs of emotional intelligence (Davies et al., 1998). The elements are self-emotional appraisal, recognition of emotion in others, regulation of emotions in oneself and the use of emotions. The findings were then also tested to see if they could predict levels of negotiation skills in leaders. The results of this research did provide some interesting findings, two of the constructs of emotional intelligence, use of emotions and regulation of emotions, were both moderately correlated to negotiation skills. The same two constructs along with leadership status were also the most likely to predicted above average negotiation skills. While these findings may only infer correlations between these variables it could provide a starting point for future research. It was the researcher's goal to establish which elements of the emotional intelligence construct tested would be most beneficial to negotiation skills, how each of these elements may enhance negotiation skills was detailed in the discussion of findings section of this research in greater detail. The researchers personal hope is that by improving the elements of regulation of emotions and use of emotions, negotiation skills could naturally follow. This however would be in need of future study before any conclusions could be drawn.

This research tested the impact covariates would have on the findings. Gender was used as research had been found both for and against the argument of differentiations in emotional intelligence between male and female respondents. As the tests contained within this study were not found to be statistically significant this research could not forward the argument in either direction.

However, more studies into this and other demographic variables as covariates could have been conducted here and may be considered for future research. Certain levels of education had a high response rate in this study, and this variable was found to have a moderate correlation with negotiation skills, future research should test this to see if the covariate has any influence on the overall findings. An interesting addition to this study would be to make it a comparative study and test levels of emotional intelligence and negotiation between the sample of leaders against the non-leaders and test if these skills are found to be higher in one group than the other. Another avenue for future research is to attempt to improve aspects of the emotional intelligence construct in participants and measure its significance on performance related outcomes such as negotiation. If it is believed that levels of EI can be improved, and that by improving a persons EI abilities such as empathy or regulating and using emotions, other business functions related to interpersonal skills could be improved. If this can be measured and tested the findings would be of interest to both the business and academic world alike.

In conclusion this research raised some interesting findings and has pointed to specific areas for future research. Unfortunately, the findings contained within this study are from too small a sample to draw any serious conclusions and with a greater budget and more time the researcher believes it to be an interesting subject and worthy of future research.

8. References

- Allerd, K. G. (1999) 'Anger and retaliation: toward an understanding of impassioned conflict in organizations'. In: Bies, R.J., Lewicki, R.J., Sheppard, B.H. (eds) *Research on negotiation in organizations*, Vol 7: pp. 27–58.
- Bar-On, R. A. (1990) 'Environmentally Induced Positive Affect: Its impact On Self-Efficacy, Task Performance, Negotiation and Conflict'. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 20(5): pp. 368-384.
- Bar-On, R. A. (1997). *The emotional quotient inventory (EQ-i): A test of emotional intelligence*. Toronto, Canada: Multi-Health Systems.
- Bar-On, R. A. (2006) The Bar-On model of emotional-social intelligence (ESI) *Psicothema* 18(supl.): pp. 13-25.
- Boden, A. L., Staley, C. A., Boissonneault A. R., Bradbury, T. L., Boden, S. D. and Schenker, M. L. (2017) 'Emotional Intelligence in Medical Students is Inversely Correlated with USMLE Step 1 Score: Is there a Better Way to Screen Applicants?', *Journal of Medical Education*, 16(4): pp. 215-220.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (2011) 'Managerial and leadership competencies: A behavioral approach to emotional, social and cognitive intelligence', *Vision*, 15(2): pp. 91-100.
- Brackett, M. A. and Mayer, J. D. (2003) 'Convergent, Discriminant, and Incremental Validity of Competing Measures of Emotional Intelligence', *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 29(9): pp. 1147–1158.
- Brooks, A. W. (2015) 'Emotion and the art of negotiation: how to use your feelings to your advantage', *Harvard Business Review*, 93(12): pp. 56-64.
- Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2007) *Business Research Methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. (2011) *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis: elements of the sociology of corporate life*. Farnham: Ashgate.
- Carnevale, P. J. D. and Isen, A. M. (1986) 'The influence of positive affect and visual access on the discovery of integrative solutions in bilateral negotiation'. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 37(1): pp. 1–13.
- Ciarrochi, J.V., Chan, A. Y. C. and Caputi, P. (2000) A critical evaluation of the emotional intelligence construct. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 28(3): pp. 539-569.

- Cook, S. (2015) *GPM First: Learning, Sharing, Collaborating* (Online) Available at: <http://www.gpmfirst.com/articles/gpm-first-aid/how-am-i-interpersonal-awareness> (accessed 29/07/2018)
- Cronk, B. C. (2017) *How to use SPSS Statistics: A Step-by-Step Guide to Analysis and Interpretation*. 9th ed. New York: Routledge.
- Darwin, C. (1872) *The expression of emotions in man and animals*. London: Appleton.
- Davies, M., Stankov, L. and Roberts, R. D. (1998) 'Emotional intelligence: In search of an elusive construct'. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 75(4): pp. 989–1015
- Davitz, J. R. and Beldoch, M. (1964). *The communication of emotional meaning*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Der Foo, M., Elfenbein, H. A., Tan H. H. and Aik, V. C. (2004) 'Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation: The Tension Between Creating and Claiming Value'. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(4): pp. 411–429.
- Diamond, S. (2013) *Getting More: How to be a More Persuasive Person in Work and Life*. New York: Crown Business.
- Doe, R., Ndinguri, E. and Phipps, S. T. A. (2015) 'Emotional intelligence: The link to success and failure of leadership'. *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 19(3): pp. 105-114.
- Dulewicz, V. and Higgs, M. (2004) 'Can Emotional Intelligence be developed?'. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(1): pp. 95–111.
- Dutilh Novaes, C. (2013) 'A Dialogical Account of Deductive Reasoning as a Case Study for How Culture Shapes Cognition'. *Journal of Cognition and Culture* 13(5): pp. 459–482.
- Ekman, P. (2003). *Emotions revealed: Recognizing faces and feelings to improve communication and emotional life*. New York: Henry Holt
- Fiori, M., Antonietti, J-P., Mikolajczak, M., Luminet, O., Hansenne, M. and Rossier, J. (2014) 'What is the ability emotional intelligence test (MSCEIT) good for? An evaluation using item response theory'. *PLoS One*, 9(6): pp.1-11.
- Fisher, A. H., Kret, M. E. and Broekens, J. (2018) 'Gender differences in emotion perception and self-reported emotional intelligence: A test of the emotional sensitivity hypothesis. *PLOS one*, 13(1): pp 1-19.
- Fisher, R., Ury, W. and Patton, B. (2012), '*Getting to Yes: Negotiating An Agreement Without Giving In*': London: Random House Business.

- Forgas, J. P. (1995) 'Mood and judgment: The Affect Infusion Model (AIM)', *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(1): pp. 39-66.
- Forgas, J. P. (1998) On Feeling Good and Getting Your Way: Mood Effects on Negotiator Cognition and Bargaining Strategies, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(3): pp. 565-577.
- Gan, I. (2017) 'Advancing a Distributive-Bargaining and Integrative-Negotiation Integral System: A Values-Based Negotiation Model (VBM)'. *Social Sciences*, 6(4): pp. 1-15.
- Gardner, H. (1993) *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books.
- Goleman, D. (1995), *Emotional Intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ*. New York: Bantam Dell.
- Goleman, D. (1998) 'What makes a leader?'. *Harvard Business review*, 76(6): pp. 93-102.
- Goleman, D. (2004) 'What makes a leader?'. *Harvard Business Review*, 82(1): pp. 82-91.
- Goleman, D. (2013) 'The focused leader: How effective executives direct their own-and their organisations-attention'. *Harvard Business Review*, 91(12): pp. 50-60.
- Harvard Business Essentials (2003) *Negotiation*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.
- Heath, M. T. P. and Tynan, C. (2010) 'Crafting a research proposal'. *The Marketing Review*, (10)2: pp. 147-168.
- Hillebrandt, A. and Barclay, L. J. (2017) 'Comparing integral and incidental emotions: Testing insights from emotions as social information theory and attribution theory'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 102(5): pp. 732–752.
- Humphrey, R. H., Burch, G. F. and Adams L. L. (2016) 'The Benefits of Merging Leadership Research and Emotions Research'. *Frontiers in Psychology* (Online) Available at: <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2016.01022/full> (Accessed 14/08/2018)
- Landy, F. J. (2005) 'Some historical and scientific issues related to research on emotional intelligence', *Journal of organisational behaviour*, 26(4): pp. 411-424.
- Langhorn, S. (2004) 'How emotional intelligence can improve management performance'. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 16(4): pp. 220–230.

- Law, K. S., Wong, C.-S. and Song, L. J. (2004) 'The construct and criterion validity of emotional intelligence and its potential utility for management studies'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(3): pp. 483-496.
- Leary, K., Pillemer, J. and Wheeler, M. (2013) 'Negotiating with emotion: high-stakes deal making is fraught with feeling. Should we really ignore that?'. *Harvard Business Review*, 91(1): pp. 96-103.
- Lewicki, R. J., Saunders, D. M. and Barry., B. (2015) *Negotiation*, 7th ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Locke, E. A. (2005) 'Why emotional intelligence is an invalid concept'. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(4): pp. 425-431.
- Lowman, E. A. and Thomas, R. E. (2015) 'Emotional intelligence in the leadership framework'. *Leadership & Organizational Management journal*, 2: pp. 3-14.
- Malhotra, D. and Bazerman, M. H. (2008) 'Psychological Influence in Negotiation: An Introduction Long Overdue'. *Journal of Management*, 34(3): pp. 509–531.
- Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R. and Salovey, P. (2016) 'The Ability Model of Emotional Intelligence: Principles and Updates'. *Emotion Review*, 8(4): pp. 290–300.
- Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P. and Caruso, D. R. (2004) 'Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings and implications'. *Psychological inquiry*, 15(3): pp. 197-215.
- McClendon, B., Burke, D. D. and Willey, L. (2010) 'The Art of Negotiation: What the Twenty-First Century Business Student Should Know'. *Journal of Legal Studies Education*, 27(2): pp. 277–319.
- O'Boyle JR, H.R., Humphrey, R. H., Pollack, J. M., Hawver, T.H. and Story, P.A. (2011) 'The relation between emotional intelligence and job performance: A meta-analysis'. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(5): pp. 788-818.
- Pallant, J. (2016) *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step by Step Guide To Data Analysis Using IBM SPSS*. Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education
- Park, J. and Park, M. (2016) 'Qualitative versus quantitative research methods: Discovery or justification?', *Journal of Marketing Thought* 3(1): pp. 1-7.
- Peter, L. J. and Hull, R. (1970) *The Peter principle*. London: Pan books
- Petrides, K. V. (2011) 'Ability and trait emotional intelligence', In Chamorro-Premuzic, T., Von Stumm, S. and Furnham, A. *The Wiley-Blackwell book of individual differences*. New Jersey: Wiley-Blackwell, pp. 656-678.
- Petrides, K. V and Furnham, A. (2001) 'Trait emotional intelligence: Psychometric investigation with reference to established trait taxonomies'. *European Journal of Personality*, 15(6): pp. 425-448.

- Poonamalle, L., Harrington, A. M., Nagpal, M. and Musial, A. (2018) *Improving Emotional Intelligence through Personality Development: The Effect of the Smart Phone Application based Dharma Life Program on Emotional Intelligence*. *Frontiers in Psychology* (Online) Available at; <https://www.frontiersin.org/articles/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.00169/full> (Accessed 14/08/2018)
- Prati, L. M., Douglas, C., Ferris, G. R., Ammeter, A. P. and Buckley, M. R. (2003) 'Emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness and team outcomes'. *International Journal of Organisational Analysis*, 11(1): pp. 21-40.
- Quinlan, C. (2011) *Business Research Methods*. Andover: South-Western Cengage Learning.
- Research Methodology (2018) *Deductive Approach (Deductive Reasoning)*(Online) Available at: <https://research-methodology.net/research-methodology/research-approach/deductive-approach-2/> (Accessed 14/07/18).
- Rubin, J. Z. and Brown, B. R. (1975) *The social psychology of bargaining and negotiation*. London : Academic Press.
- Salovey, P. and Grewal, D. (2005) 'The science of emotional intelligence'. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 14(6): pp. 281-285.
- Salovey, P. and Mayer, J. D. (1990) 'Emotional intelligence'. *Imagination, Cognition and Personality*, 9(3): pp. 185-211.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012) *Research methods for business students*. 6th ed. Harlow: Pearson.
- Saxbe, D (2004) The socially savvy. Available at: <https://www.psychologytoday.com/intl/articles/200411/the-socially-savvy> (Accessed 17/05/18).
- Sinaceur, M., Neale, M. A., Van Kleef, G. A., Adam, H. and Haag, C. (2011) 'Hot or cold: Is communicating anger or threats more effective in negotiation?'. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 96(5): pp. 1018–1032.
- Stern, W. (1949) *The intelligent quotient. Readings in general psychology*. New York: Prentice Hall.
- Thompson, A. and Voyer, D. (2014) 'Sex differences in the ability to recognise non-verbal displays of emotion: A meta-analysis'. *Cognition and Emotion*, 28(7): pp. 1164-1195.
- Thompson, L. and Leonardelli, G. J. (2004) 'Why negotiation is the most popular business school course'. *Ivey Business Journal*, 68(6): pp. 1-7.

Thorndike, R. L. (1936) 'Factor analysis of social and abstract intelligence'. *Journal of Educational Psychology* 27(3): pp. 231-233.

Turner, R. and Lloyd-Walker, B. (2008) 'Emotional intelligence (EI) capabilities training: can it develop EI in project teams?'. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 1(4): pp. 512–534.

University of Southern California (2018) *Organising Your Social Science Research Paper: Types of Research Design*. (Online) Available at: <http://libguides.usc.edu/writingguide/researchdesigns> (Accessed 01/08/2018)

Ury, W. and Fisher, R. (2005) 'Principled Negotiation'. *Sales & Service Excellence Essentials*, 5(11): p. 4.

Van Kleef, G. A. (2009) 'How Emotions Regulate Social Life: The Emotions as Social Information (EASI) Model'. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 18(3): pp. 184–188.

Wong, C.-S. and Law, K. S. (2002) 'The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study'. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13(3): pp. 243–274.

Wulf, J. (2012) 'The flattened firm: Not as advertised'. *California Management Review*, 55(1): pp. 5-23

Yukl, G. (2013) *Leadership in organisations*. 8th edn Essex: Pearson Education.

Appendix: 1

Submission of Thesis to Norma Smurfit Library, National College of Ireland

Student name: Conor O Rourke Student number: 16112199

School: National College of Ireland Course: MBA

Degree to be awarded: Masters Degree

Title of Thesis: Emotional Intelligence and its links to the Negotiating skills of leaders

One hard bound copy of your thesis will be lodged in the Norma Smurfit Library and will be available for consultation. The electronic copy will be accessible in TRAP (<http://trap.ncirl.ie/>), the National College of Ireland's Institutional Repository. In accordance with normal academic library practice all theses lodged in the National College of Ireland Institutional Repository (TRAP) are made available on open access.

I agree to a hard bound copy of my thesis being available for consultation in the library. I also agree to an electronic copy of my thesis being made publicly available on the National College of Ireland's Institutional Repository TRAP.

Signature of Candidate:

For completion by the School:

The aforementioned thesis was received

by _____ Date: _____ This signed form must be appended to all hard bound and electronic copies of your thesis submitted to your school.

Appendix 2:

Correlation between Emotional intelligence and negotiation skills

You are invited to take part in a study on the correlation between emotional intelligence and negotiation skills, and how the two constructs may be contextualised when investigated from a leadership perspective.

In this study you will be asked to provide some demographic information (age, gender, education level) and will be asked questions relating to your own emotional intelligence and negotiating skills. This survey typically takes about 10 minutes to complete.

Taking part in this study is voluntary. The data collected will be kept confidential at all times and will not contain any personal information that can be linked back to the participant. All statistical data will be stored on an encrypted file and will only be accessible to the researcher (Conor O'Rourke). Please note that data will be destroyed after completion of this masters program.

Participation in this study involves the completion of a self-report emotional intelligence scale (WLEIS) and a questionnaire to test negotiating skills (Stairway Consultancy). Both standardised tests have been validated as an accurate measurement of both emotional intelligence and negotiation skills. This study is solely for the purposes of research and due to the confidentiality of the data, individual results will not be given.

Participation in this study is anonymous, participants will therefore be able to withdraw from this study at any time before submitting their data. In order to do this, participants can close the tab at any point during the questionnaire, any answers given up to this point will not be saved. Once submitted it will not be possible to withdraw individual responses and from this point onwards responses will be anonymised and unidentifiable.

If you have any concerns before participating in this study please feel free to contact me at x16112199@student.ncirl.ie

Dr. April Hargreaves has been assigned as a supervisor for the current research study and will be glad to answer your questions at any time. You may contact her at april.hargreaves@ncirl.ie

This is an official consent form documenting your agreement to participate in the current study. You are welcome to print a copy of this documentation to keep as a record.

OK



Copy of Copy of Correlation: EI and Negotiation skills

* 2. Gender

- Male
 Female

* 3. What is your age?

- 18 to 24
 25 to 34
 35 to 44
 45 to 54
 55 +

* 4. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

- Secondary school
 Undergraduate qualification
 Postgraduate qualification
 Other professional qualification

* 5. Are you currently employed / self employed in a leadership role?

- Yes
- No

* 6. On a scale of 1-7 (with 1 representing the lowest) please rate your response to each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree 7
I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a good understanding of my own emotions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I really understand what I feel.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always know whether or not I am happy.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 7. On a scale of 1-7 (with 1 representing the lowest) please rate your response to each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree 7
I always know my friends emotions from their behavior.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a good observer of others emotions	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have a good understanding of the emotions of people around me.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 8. On a scale of 1-7 (with 1 representing the lowest) please rate your response to each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree 7
I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always tell myself I am a competent person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am a self motivated person.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I always encourage myself to try my best.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 9. On a scale of 1-7 (with 1 representing the lowest) please rate your response to each of the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree 1	2	3	4	5	6	Strongly Agree 7
I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
I have good control of my own emotions.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 10. To what extent do you prepare before a negotiation?

To a great extent A	B	C	D	To a little extent E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 11. To what extent do you consider the position and issues of the other party prior to the negotiation?

To a great extent A	B	C	D	To a little extent E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 12. To what do you pay most attention when preparing for a negotiation?

Other party's strengths A	B	C	D	Other party's weakness E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 13. How do you regard the process of negotiating?

One party wins, the other loses A	B	C	D	Both parties win E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 14. What should be the outcome of a negotiation?

A good result for your organisation A	B	C	D	A good result for both parties E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 15. Do you set clear objectives for a negotiation?

Always A	B	C	D	Rarely E
<input type="radio"/>				

* 16. When negotiating do you hold fast to your objectives?

Always					Rarely
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>					

* 17. How often do you become impatient or lose your temper in a negotiation?

To a great extent					To a little extent
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>					

* 18. Which do you do more of in a negotiation?

Talk					Listen
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>					

* 19. What do you feel about making concessions in a negotiation?

Don't make concessions					Recognise the principle of giving and getting
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

* 20. How do you test assumptions in a negotiation?

Wait to hear what the other party has to say					Use open questions to test assumptions
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

* 21. If you have spent some time negotiating, but are not happy with the suggested outcome, how likely are you to reach an agreement during the meeting?

Very unlikely					Very likely
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>					

* 22. As you work to reach an agreement, who usually sums up what has been agreed along the way?

You					The other party
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>					

* 23. What do you do when you are in a negotiation and you don't understand something?

Ask questions to clarify the matter					Let the matter pass without saying anything
A	B	C	D	E	
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

* 24. What do you do when you are in a negotiation and the other party will not give way?

Feel you have reached a stalemate and walk away				Ask questions and explore possibilities
A	B	C	D	E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 25. What are your feelings towards conflict in a negotiation?

Prefer to avoid conflict				Conflict is healthy and should be aired
A	B	C	D	E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 26. How do you make concessions during a negotiation?

Make the concessions early on in the negotiation				Make the concessions slowly and make it look more significant than it is?
A	B	C	D	E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 27. When do you raise important issues during a negotiation?

Early on in the negotiation				Towards the end of the negotiation
A	B	C	D	E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 28. With whom do you feel happier negotiating?

Someone on the same level as you				Anyone, irrespective of title of position
A	B	C	D	E
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

* 29. How often do you invent options / new ideas in negotiation?

Frequently				Rarely
A	B	C	D	E
<input type="radio"/>				