University of Twente School of Management and Governance Faculty of Behavioural, Management and Social Sciences

> First Supervisor: Dr. A.G. Sigurdardottir Second Supervisor: Prof.dr. C.P.M. Wilderom

Master Thesis Business Administration – Purchasing & Supply Management 2019

Topic:

Cross-Cultural Intelligence Moderates Between Emotional Intelligence of the Negotiator and the Negotiation Outcome

> Submitted by: Henrike Fitschen Enschede, 7th of October 2019

Abstract

Purpose: This explorative study aims to investigate skills required to increase the negotiation outcome within an intercultural negotiation setting. Negotiators with higher emotional intelligence are expected to achieve a better negotiation outcome, compared to individuals with lower emotional intelligence. Furthermore, it will be investigated if a mix of integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour leads to a positive negotiation outcome and also what roles cultural intelligence, work-, and negotiation experience play within this context.

Methodology: Data were collected during two international negotiation competitions (n = 90) with a survey covering levels of emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, negotiation behaviour, and experience. These facilitated to gain in-depth insights into the skills of the participants and how these skills influence their negotiation outcome. The negotiation outcome is based on a ranking score that participants received at the competition. A multiple linear regression analysis was performed to analyse the data.

Findings: The results indicate that individuals with a higher understanding of cultural intelligence, in combination with higher emotional intelligence, influence the negotiation outcome positively and are, therewith, beneficial skills to possess for a negotiator. Additionally, negotiation experience positively affects the negotiation outcome, irrespective of higher emotional intelligence. It can be concluded that experienced negotiators perform better during a negotiation and, hence, it is valuable to increase the level of experience through training and practical application.

Limitations: Due to restrictions of the competitions and technical limitations, the size of data collection was limited. Researchers were allowed to collect data in one round of two negotiation competitions. Furthermore, researchers were restricted in collecting data based on team members' evaluation of the level of emotional intelligence, and is, therefore, based on the self-assessment of the participants.

Originality/value: The main contribution of this research is the establishment of the significant relationship between high emotional intelligent negotiators, and cultural intelligence and the negotiation outcome in an intercultural environment. These contributions had not yet been fully understood within practice or literature. This study sheds light on the skills that a negotiator requires for successful negotiation outcome and to assist them in the future to identify and improve their required negotiation skills.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, Negotiation Behaviour, Cultural Intelligence, Negotiation Experience, Work Experience, Negotiation Outcome.

Acknowledgements

I wish to thank various individuals for their contribution to this project. I would like to start to express my very great appreciation to Dr. A.G. Sigurdardottir, my research supervisor for her professional guidance and valuable support in planning and developing this research work and collecting the data during the competitions. But most of all I would like to thank her for inspiring me and for introducing me to the topic of negotiations. Furthermore, I would like to thank Prof.dr. C.P.M. Wilderom, my second supervisor for her useful and constructive recommendations during this project.

I wish to acknowledge the assistance provided by Sercan Findik for discussing difficulties we faced during the research process, and for his willingness to support me in collecting the data during the competitions and helping me transporting the equipment to Kyoto and Warsaw, together with David Charles van der Griend, and Carsten van Roon. Your help was greatly appreciated. Furthermore, I would like to thank the organizers of the two negotiation competitions for allowing me to collect the research data.

My special thanks are extended to the staff of the BMS faculty for providing me with the equipment for this research, Mr. H.A. Analbers from the DesignLab for assisting me with 3D printing parts of the equipment, and Ms. J. van Straalen-Pasthe from the BMS Methodologiewinkel for offering me research support.

I would like to thank Dr. F. Schuberth from the DPM department for taking his time and providing me with very valuable suggestions in his specialized field of statistics. Additionally, I would like to acknowledge the general statistical advice given by Mr. M. Matzner and Mr. S. van Zyl.

Lastly, special thanks should be given to Christoff Heunis for all the support he gave me during this project. Ranging from designing and lasercutting equipment, helping me to understand programming for statistical software, and reading my thesis, to providing me with valuable feedback. Above all I would like to thank you for supporting me emotionally at times it was required.

Table of Contents

1	Inti	oduction	1
	1.1	Negotiations take place in everyone's life	1
	1.2	Factors of analysis that influence the negotiation outcome	2
2	The	eoretical Framework	
	2.1	Emotional Intelligence	
	2.1. 2.1. 2.1.	1 An increasing focus on emotional intelligence in negotiations	4
	2.2	Negotiation Behaviour	7
	2.2. 2.2. 2.2. 2.2.	 Distributive negotiation behaviour has a focus on claiming value Integrative negotiation behaviour has a focus on creating value 	7 9
	2.3 2.3.	Cultural Context 1 An increase in cross-cultural negotiations	
	2.3.	0	
	2.3.	3 Cultural intelligence leads to a better understanding of the counterpart in a cross-cultural negotiation	12
	2.4	Negotiation & Work Experience	
	2.4. 2.4.		
	2.5	Research focus is set on skills a negotiator requires to improve the negotiation outcome	
3	Res	earch Problem and Aim	16
	3.1	Problem Statement	16
	3.2	Research Aim	
	3.3	Research Question and Framework	
4		thodology	
•	4.1	Research design and the search for relevant literature	
	4.2	Data collection at two negotiation competitions	20
	4.3	Measures are based on previous research	21
	4.4 4.4.	Performing a multiple linear regression analysis	
	4.4.	2 Data management and data preparation by single-value imputation with conditional means	24
	4.4. 4.4.	0 1	
_			
5		ults	
	5.1	Measuring sample validity and inter-reliability of the questionnaires	
	5.2 5.3	Assumptions for multiple linear regression analysis are fulfilled Higher level of emotional intelligence has no significant effect on the outcome	30
		variable	38
	5.4	Combined negotiation behaviour has no mediating effect	39

	5.5	Interaction of higher cultural intelligence has a significant effect on the outcome variable41	
	5.6	Higher negotiation and high work experience have different effects on the negotiation outcome	
6	Disc	ussion48	
	6.1	Revealing skills that are beneficial for a negotiator to possess	
7	Con	clusion51	
	7.1	Cross-cultural intelligence moderates between emotional intelligence of the negotiator and the negotiation outcome51	
8	Lim	itations & Future Directions	
	8.1	Data collection was limited due to restrictions of competitions	
R	leferenc	es55	
A	ppendi	ces64	
	Appen	dix A - General Questions64	
	Appen	dix B - Questionnaire Negotiation Behavior64	
	Appen	dix C - Questionnaire Emotional Intelligence	
	Appen	dix D - Questionnaire Cultural Intelligence	
	Appen	dix E - Judge's Evaluation Criteria66	

List of Figures and Tables

Figure 1: Types of negotiation behvaior.	11
Figure 2: Research model.	19
Figure 3: Linear relationship between EI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	31
Figure 4: Linear relationship between CI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	31
Figure 5: Linear relationship between Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	31
Figure 6: Linear relationship between Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	32
Figure 7: Linear relationship between NB_Dis_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	32
Figure 8: Linear relationship between NB_Int_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	32
Figure 9: Q-Q Plot for EI_Mean.	33
Figure 10: Q-Q Plot for CI_Mean.	33
Figure 11: Q-Q Plot for Work Experience.	34
Figure 12: Q-Q Plot for Negotiation Experience.	34
Figure 13: Q-Q Plot for NB_Dis_Mean.	34
Figure 14: Q-Q Plot for NB_Int_Mean.	35
Figure 15: Scatterplot of Residuals for EI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	36
Figure 16: Scatterplot of Residuals for Work_Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	36
Figure 17: Scatterplot of Residuals for Negotiation_Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	36
Figure 18: Scatterplot of Residuals for CI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	37
Figure 19: Scatterplot of Residuals for NB_Dis_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	37
Figure 20: Scatterplot of Residuals for NB_Int_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.	37
Figure 21: Interaction plot between EI and CI on Negotiation Outcome.	43
Figure 22: Interaction plot between EI and Negotiation Experience on Negotiation Outcome.	45
Figure 23: Interaction plot between EI and Work Experience on Negotiation Outcome.	48
Figure 24: Graphical representation of findings.	52
Table 1: A comparison of distributive and integrative negotiation behaviour.	10
Table 2: Sub-categories for work experience, measured in months, and negotiation experience	
measured in hours.	22
Table 3:Research topic and variable types.	26
Table 4: Research construct and inter-reliability measures.	29
Table 5: Correlation Matrix.	30
Table 6: VIF scores of independent variables to detect multicollinearity.	35
Table 7: Model Summary ^b Higher EI and Negotiation Outcome	38
Table 8: ANOVA ^a Higher EI and Negotiation Outcome.	38
Table 9: Coefficients ^a Higher EI and Negotiation Outcome.	39
Table 10: Model Summary ^b Higher EI and Mixed NB	39
Table 11: Coefficients ^a Higher EI and Mixed NB	39
Table 12: Model Summary ^b Higher EI, Mixed NB and Negotiation Outcome.	40
Table 13: Coefficients ^a Higher EI, Mixed NB and Negotiation Outcome.	40
Table 14: Sobel Test Results.	40
Table 15: Model Summary ^c Higher EI, Higher CI and Negotiation Outcome.	42
Table 16: ANOVA ^a Higher EI, Higher CI and Negotiation Outcome.	42
Table 17: Coefficientsa Higher EI, Higher CI and Negotiation Outcome.	42
Table 18: Model Summary ^c Higher EI, Higher Negotiation Experience and Negotiation	
Outcome.	44
Table 19: ANOVA ^a Higher EI, Higher Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	44
Table 20: Coefficients ^a Higher EI, Higher Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	45
Table 21: Model Summary ^c Higher EI, Higher Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	46
Table 22: ANOVA ^a Higher EI, Higher Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	47
Table 23: Coefficients ^a Higher EI, Higher Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.	47

Abbreviations

EI	Emotional Intelligence
CI	Cultural Intelligence
NB	Negotiation Behaviour
Int	Integrative Behaviour
Dis	Distributive Behaviour
Neg	Negotiation
Exp	Experience
SEA	Self-Emotional Appraisal
OEA	Other's Emotional Appraisal
ROE	Regulation of Emotions
UOE	Use of Emotions
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
Q-Q Plot	Quantile-Quantile Plot

1 Introduction

1.1 Negotiations take place in everyone's life

The art of negotiation allows us to take control of what we desire and, more importantly, to realize these desires. Like any form of art, it is a skill that can not only be improved but also taught. From the most mundane agreements to high priority, business deals can easily fall in one's favour, given that these skills are applied and reinforced appropriately. In order to become a skilled negotiator or to teach a negotiator to become skilled in the art of negotiation, it is necessary to understand the context of negotiations and their environment. It is well known that businesses in the global marketplace negotiate in what is referred to as a cross-cultural environment.¹ Here, negotiations take place daily and are essential in business actions,² which increases the necessity to negotiate effectively in such an intercultural context.³ During such negotiations, two or more parties represent an organization and seek to attain their own and shared goals by influencing the other party through different channels of communication.⁴ According to Fells et al. (2015), negotiations influence many factors within a business, perhaps most prominently its economic processes. Negotiations also take place in a private setting of an individual's daily routine. Therefore, negotiators need to understand the negotiation process to improve the effectiveness of business procedures.⁵ Other studies⁶ also indicate that negotiations form an essential part of both communication and business relationships. Consequently, individuals aim to seek advice and instructions on how to improve their negotiation behaviour and their negotiation outcome, which is the measure of objective gain and profit attained in negotiations.⁷ Negotiators who enter a negotiation also have to know whether to accept a negotiation offer, which makes it beneficial to identify the best alternative to a negotiated agreement (BATNA).⁸ With another attractive offer available, the negotiator is less dependent and holds higher bargaining power which leads to a better negotiation outcome.⁹

¹ See Volkema (2002), p.69.

² See Fells, Rogers, Prows, & Ott (2015), p.119.

³ See Danciu (2010), p.88.

⁴ See Agndal, Åge, & Eklinder-Frick (2017), p.487.

⁵ See Fells, Rogers, Prows, & Ott (2015), p.119.

⁶ See Adair, Okumura, & Brett (2001); Babcock & Laschever (2003); Malhotra & Bazerman (2007).

⁷ See Thompson (1990), p.534; Oliver, Balakrishnan & Barry (1994), p.253; Zetik & Stuhlmacher (2002), p.39.

⁸ See Fisher & Ury (1981), p.104.

⁹ See Pinkley *et al.* (1994), p.112.

Through the cross-cultural environment, it is essential for negotiators to make themselves accustomed and to understand the culture and behaviour of their counterparts. Furthermore, the negotiation outcome can be enhanced by negotiators that possess additional skills related to emotional intelligence. Studies have indicated that emotional intelligence influences the outcome of an individual's long term negotiation performance and that the selected negotiation behaviour can facilitate the negotiation outcome.¹⁰ Furthermore, the literature suggests that a negotiator who has a high level of emotional intelligence tends to make concessions and focuses on the counterpart's interests.¹¹ However, the literature reveals little about the combined effect of negotiations, emotions, and culture since they have rarely been studied together.¹² Moreover, insights into influential factors that lead to effective cross-cultural negotiation is conducted within one culture.¹⁴ Consequently, research on the subject has been mostly restricted, which leaves room for exploring characteristics in an intercultural negotiation setting.

The purpose of this study is to explore skills that a negotiator should possess to increase the negotiation outcome. It will be investigated whether emotional intelligence (EI), cultural intelligence (CI), mixed negotiation behaviour, and negotiation or work experience influence the negotiation outcome positively. Thus, the following research question was developed: *What is the effect of a higher level of emotional intelligence on negotiation behaviour and the overall negotiation outcome in a cross-cultural environment?*

1.2 Factors of analysis that influence the negotiation outcome

Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to understand and express one's own emotions, as well as to perceive and assess the emotions of the counterpart.¹⁵ Previous studies found a positive effect of emotional intelligence on leadership behaviour, the performance of groups, and the management of stress.¹⁶ Der Foo et al. (2015) found that emotionally intelligent negotiators positively influence the negotiation outcome since they demonstrate the ability to create value. This was achieved by establishing trust and by creating satisfying outcomes

¹⁰ See Lewicki, Hiam & Olander (1996), p.80-81.

¹¹ See Der Foo et al. (2004), p.423; Van Kleef et al. (2006), p.558.

¹² See Rees & Kopelman (2019), p.132-133.

¹³ See Kray & Thompson (2005), p.159.

¹⁴ See Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.83.

¹⁵ See Salovey & Mayer (1997), p.10; Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerbe (2000), p.221; Law, Wong, Song (2004), p.484.

¹⁶ See Wilderom *et al.* (2015), p.836; Mayer, Salovey & Caruso (2004), p.210.

for both parties.¹⁷ However, the study also indicated that these negotiators are not able to claim the created value for themselves. ¹⁸ A possible factor that could improve this is, and that could play a role in the negotiation outcome is an additional category of intelligence, called cultural intelligence.

Cultural intelligence refers to the ability of an individual to adjust to an intercultural setting.¹⁹ Different cultures tend to apply different negotiation behaviours, depending on a win-win attitude or win-lose attitude.²⁰ Imai & Gelfand (2010) identified that cultural intelligence has a positive effect on the outcome of a negotiation. This negotiation outcome depends on the performance of the weakest negotiator in the round since they have the power to influence the behaviour applied by the other negotiator.²¹ For that reason, an additional focus is on a mixed negotiation behaviour which consists of the combination of integrative and distributive behaviours.

Per definition, an integrative behaviour seeks to create joint value, to collaborate, and to reach a mutually beneficial agreement.²² In contrast, negotiators who apply distributive behaviour are considered competitive and aim for high individual gain.²³ Literature suggests that integrative behaviours have a positive influence on long-term relationships in the business context, which is affected by the way the parties interact with each other during a negotiation process.²⁴ On the other hand, Ramsay (2004) found that professional negotiators that adapt a distributive behaviour by preferring competition and declining cooperation are behaving rationally. Some negotiators also use distributive behaviours to protect their interests and to preserve power during the negotiation.²⁵ Furthermore, the negotiation behaviour can change during the negotiation process,²⁶ which ultimately affects the outcome.

Finally, the experience that an individual negotiator possesses will be considered. In this study, the level of experience refers to work experience gained throughout the individual's career as well as negotiation experience gained through reading negotiation literature, attending negotiation classes, or partaking in previous negotiation training. The performance and outcome of a negotiation can be enhanced through the experience and expertise a

¹⁷ See Der Foo et al. (2004), p.421; Gelfand et al. (2006), p. 431,441-442.

¹⁸ See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.421.

¹⁹ See Earley & Ang (2003), p.12.

²⁰ See Salacuse (1991), p.222-223.

²¹ See Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.87,94.

²² See Sharma *et al.* (2013), p.298.

²³ See Walton & McKersie (1965), p.140.

²⁴ See Sharland (2001), p.552; Thomas et al. (2013), p.96.

²⁵ See Ramsay (2004), p.223-225; Zachariassen (2008), p.776.

²⁶ See Preuss & van der Weijst (2017), p. 516,517; Prado & Martinelli (2018), p.226.

negotiator has gained in the past.²⁷ Furthermore, experienced negotiators generate a variety of alternative solutions, which can be linked to an integrative negotiation behaviour.²⁸ Considering that small adjustments in the negotiation behaviour can bring better negotiation outcomes, the negotiator has to learn why certain behaviours are useful to apply and to transfer them to other negotiation situations.²⁹

Accordingly, this study will investigate how emotional intelligence influences the negotiation outcome in a cross-cultural environment. Furthermore, a focus will be set on a mixed negotiation behaviour to investigate how negotiation practices can be conducted to enhance the negotiation outcome. The rest of this thesis is structured as follows: Section 2 will investigate the theoretical framework concerning the abovementioned skills. That is followed by clarifying the research problem and research aim in Section 3. Next, the applied methodology and the results of this study will be elaborated in Sections 4 and 5. The statistical results will be discussed in Section 6, followed by a conclusion in Section 7. Finally, the limitations of this study and future directions are discussed in Section 8.

2 Theoretical Framework

2.1 Emotional Intelligence

2.1.1 An increasing focus on emotional intelligence in negotiations

Emotional aspects within business negotiations have received increasing attention from researchers in the last two decades.³⁰ It is important to consider the role of emotions within the context of negotiations, as they can be inherent in finalizing a deal.³¹ Furthermore, emotional aspects influence how both negotiation parties feel and to what extent they are willing to make concessions. As a result, emotions directly impact the negotiation process, as well as-, the negotiation outcome.³² Individuals scoring high on EI can be beneficial for organizations through their ability to create value when they interact with external parties, for instance, by building trust and attaining outcomes that are satisfying both parties involved.³³ Furthermore, this ability aids them to establish and maintain these networks in

²⁷ See Neale & Northcraft (1986), p.316; Montgomery & Benedict (1989), p.391; Thompson (1990), p.529, 542.

²⁸ See Brown & Wright (2008), p.96; Fisher, Patton, & Ury (2011), p.81.

²⁹ See Fisher, Patton, & Ury (2011), p.81; Hatfield *et al.* (2010), p.1648; Thompson (1990), p.540.

³⁰ See Barry, Van Kleef & Fulmer (2004), p.72.

³¹ See Kumar (1997), p.86.

³² See Barry, Van Kleef & Fulmer (2004), p.83.

³³ See Gelfand *et al.* (2006), p. 431,441-442.

the long-term.³⁴ A relatively unexplored topic is exactly how effective emotional intelligence (EI) is on the negotiation outcome.³⁵

This section will first provide an explanation of emotions and emotional intelligence in the context of human interaction in negotiations. Afterwards, it will be examined what impact they have on negotiations by investigating the findings of previous studies.

2.1.2 Emotional Intelligence leads to better negotiation outcomes

Emotions can be defined as an instinct directed towards a circumstance and are of short duration.³⁶ There are over 150 existing theories about emotions, in general.³⁷ These theories study how emotions, perceptions, and social exchange reciprocally interact and how they relate to each other. A study by Fulmer *et al.* (2009) compared the perceptive behaviour of -emotional and informational elements of individuals during the interaction with different parties. They found that emotional deception strategies are being more acceptable in negotiations than informational deception.³⁸ From a psychological point of view, Parrott defines emotions as "ongoing states of mind that are marked by mental, bodily, or behavioural symptoms"³⁹ (p.3) which are best comprehended in connection with the social context.⁴⁰ Based on this notion, emotions are influenced through the individual's culture and have been found to give meaning to, and influenced by its social context which includes language and social learning.⁴¹

Next, Salovey and Mayer (1990) define emotional intelligence as "the ability to monitor one's own and others' feelings and emotions, to discriminate among them, and to use this information to guide one's thinking and actions" (p.189).⁴² Furthermore, it involves the capability of the individual to not only understand its own emotions but also to articulate them, as well as to perceive and assess emotions in the counterpart.⁴³ A study from Gelfand *et al.* (2006) found that negotiators that possess EI are more likely to create value by attaining satisfaction and trust from their counterpart and sustain collaboration with them in the future. These negotiators are more likely to build economic value for their business in the long-

³⁴ See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.424.

³⁵ See Bazerman et al. (2000), p.285; Der Foo et al. (2004), p.412; Barry, Van Kleef, Fulmer (2004), p.75.

³⁶ See Barry (1999), p.94; Parrott (2001), p.3.

³⁷ See Barry, Van Kleef & Fulmer (2004), p.74.

³⁸ See Fulmer, Barry & Long (2009), p.704.

³⁹ Parrott (2001), p.3.

⁴⁰ See Barry, Van Kleef, Fulmer (2004), p.74.

⁴¹ See Averill (1980), p.315.

⁴² Salovey & Mayer (1990), p.189.

⁴³ See Salovey & Mayer (1997), p.10; Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Zerbe (2000), p.221; Law, Wong, Song (2004), p.484.

term.⁴⁴ Consequently, EI is the ability of an individual to assess and express emotions. It also comprises both the use of generated information through the emotions of individuals, and them having control over their own emotions.⁴⁵

A negotiator scoring high on EI is more likely to maintain emotional control of themselves and the counterpart during situations loaded with emotions.⁴⁶ Furthermore, they know how to use their emotions to manipulate and convince their counterpart.⁴⁷ According to Baron (1990), the counterpart is willing to make more concessions due to the positive negotiation environment that was created by the negotiator scoring high on EI.⁴⁸ Furthermore, high EI negotiators can identify if the value created is satisfying the counterpart and they can maintain an overview of the process when others are charged with emotions or become angry.⁴⁹

From these studies, the encompassing influence of EI on the negotiation outcome indicates its efficacy. To substantiate this, a study by Foo *et al.* indicated that, during a negotiation, individuals scoring high on EI have a more optimistic negotiation experience. Furthermore, parties involved in the negotiation tend to create better objective outcomes, which is calculated as a surplus – the value resulting from the deviation from the intended settlement.⁵⁰ This can be explained by negotiators with high EI maintaining more personal satisfying relationships.⁵¹ Furthermore, negotiators high on EI create integrative solutions and have the ability to "expand the pie" which makes the negotiation experience for both parties more rewarding.⁵² However, negotiators high on EI have difficulties to secure the value they created for themselves which gives the opponent the opportunity to take greater value from the negotiation. Therefore, the effectiveness of the negotiation is relying on the capabilities of both negotiating parties to master integrative and distributive behaviours in order to secure their share of the value on the table.⁵³

As mentioned before, since negotiations can be full of emotions, the capability to understand and act on the emotions of the counterpart, as well as controlling one's own emotions can be a determining factor for the negotiation outcome. This influences the

⁴⁴ See Gelfand *et al.* (2006), p.431,441-442.

⁴⁵ See Mayer, DiPaolo & Salovey (1990), p.778.

⁴⁶ See Thompson, Nadler & Kim (1999), p.149; Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.259.

⁴⁷ See Salovey & Mayer (1997), p.10; Mueller & Curhan (2006), p.116,122.

⁴⁸ See Baron (1990), p.379-380.

⁴⁹ See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.414.

⁵⁰ See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.423; Raiffa (1982), p.45.

⁵¹ See Law, Wong & Song (2004), p.486.

⁵² See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.415,423.

⁵³ See Kumar (1997), p.87-88.

feelings that an individual has during the negotiation process that involves, for instance, offers and concessions they would make towards objective outcomes.⁵⁴ Based on the outcomes of the aforementioned studies, the current study will analyse the emotional intelligence of the individual negotiator, as well as the emotional intelligence of the counterpart, to investigate how they influence the outcome of the negotiation. Hence, the following research question is derived:

H1: Individuals that score higher on emotional intelligence also score higher on the negotiation outcome.

2.2 Negotiation Behaviour

2.2.1 An overview of integrative-, distributive-, and mixed negotiation behaviours

This research focuses on integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours, as well as a combination of the two. These behaviours can be linked to value creating-, value claiming-, and a mix of these two negotiation settings. A strategy has to be selected based on the negotiation situation and its underlying issues, such as values, incentives, and motivations. The more issues a negotiator has to face during negotiations, the more complex negotiations become. With that, the time and effort invested by the negotiator increases, to investigate all opportunities that the negotiation offers.⁵⁵

This section will first provide an overview of distributive negotiation behaviours. This is followed by insights into integrative negotiation behaviours. Furthermore, the importance of the combination of these negotiation behaviours will be highlighted.

2.2.2 Distributive negotiation behaviour has a focus on claiming value

Distributive negotiation behaviours are best applied when two parties intend to negotiate a single time with each other and have no intention to build a business relationship in the future.⁵⁶ The objective of the individual is to receive as much as possible from the negotiation outcome, by claiming value.⁵⁷ Distributive negotiations have a known outcome, which can be referred to as a fixed pie. In order to achieve their goals, negotiators applying this behaviour are less likely to share information and tend to display aggressive behaviour, or to lack sincerity during negotiations. This results in future negotiations involving less trust

⁵⁴ See Van Kleef *et al.* (2006), p.577.

⁵⁵ See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.248.

⁵⁶ See Lewicki & Robinson (1998), p.680.

⁵⁷ See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.248.

and a weakened business relationship.⁵⁸ These are competitive negotiations because the two parties compete for the size of their share and are bargaining over the price. The negotiators apply an individualistic behaviour by focusing on self-interest.⁵⁹ Therefore, the main task of the negotiator is to get the counterpart to agree on the least favourable offer without turning away. This can be achieved by effectively communicating with the counterpart, by learning about the other party's values and by applying persuasive tactics to get the other party to give in to their interests.⁶⁰ During negotiations, an individual negotiator showing negative emotions, like anger, results in a beneficial effect on distributive negotiations.⁶¹

Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo (2018) distinguish between acceptable and inappropriate competitive behaviours. Acceptable competitive behaviours are better tolerated by the opponent compared to inappropriate behaviours. Furthermore, they have less of a negative impact on the development and outcome of the negotiation.⁶² Lewicki & Robinson (1998) identified five competitive behaviours. One of them is traditional competitive bargaining which can be classified as acceptable competitive behaviour. Whereas misrepresentation, bluffing, manipulation of the opponent's network, and inappropriate information gathering are regarded as inappropriate negotiation behaviours.⁶³

However, if the negotiation shows the potential for an integrative solution, a competitive behaviour would not foster collaborative problem-solving. The behaviour of integrative and distributive negotiations can be clarified with an example of two sisters fighting over an orange which they ended up dividing in half. One of the sisters used the juice of the orange and disposed of the peel, whereas her sister used the peel of the orange for baking a cake and disposed of the inside of the orange. Both sisters only received half of what they wanted and left value on the table by not sharing their interests. If they would have shared the information for what they require, the orange, they could have reached an agreement where both received what they wanted.⁶⁴ A comparison of distributive and integrative negotiation behaviour can be seen in *Table 1*.

⁵⁸ See Barry & Friedman (1998), p.356; Sigurdardottir, Ujwary-Gil & Candi (2018), p.5; Campagna *et al.* (2016), p.5.

⁵⁹ See Barry & Friedman (1998), p.347.

⁶⁰ See Sharma *et al.* (2013), p.297-298.

⁶¹ See Van Kleef *et al.* (2001), p.26.

⁶² See Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo (2018), p.2.

⁶³ See Lewicki & Robinson (1998), 666-667.

⁶⁴ See Fisher, Patton & Ury (2011), p.32,39.

2.2.3 Integrative negotiation behaviour has a focus on creating value

Integrative behaviour leaves the opportunity for both parties to create value by expanding the pie and simultaneously incorporating multiple issues.⁶⁵ This gives room for creative approaches, for instance, to identify trade-offs and agreements that are mutually beneficial. Negotiators try to increase their share and, at the same time, attempt to create joint value. This strategy requires thorough communication, extensive information gathering, and exchange of this information.⁶⁶ Through this open sharing of interests and priorities, better outcomes for both parties can be achieved.⁶⁷ Hence, integrative negotiation behaviours are most effective when the negotiating parties have dissimilar preferences. Furthermore, insisting on information sharing increases the outcome of the cooperative negotiator.⁶⁸ During the negotiation process, the individual parties make step by step trade-offs, which is called logrolling.⁶⁹ This allows the individual to receive what they prefer by trading it with something less important but desired by the counterpart. Thereby, both parties make concessions to less favourable subjects. It is also possible that both parties have compatible interests from the beginning. Consequently, integrative negotiations value the relationship with the counterpart and seek to grow trust, solve problems and avoid combative behaviours. Additionally, when the individual negotiator shows positive emotions, like happiness, it has an advantageous effect on integrative negotiations.⁷⁰ Nevertheless, negotiators that are applying an integrative negotiation behaviour have to be able to claim the value they created for themselves. Otherwise, the counterpart can take the opportunity to claim the created value and show an unwillingness to collaborate.⁷¹ This would lead to a beneficial negotiation outcome for the distributive behaving counterpart.

⁶⁵ See Sharma *et al.* (2013), p.298.

⁶⁶ See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.248.

⁶⁷ See Weingart et al. (1990), p.27.

⁶⁸ See Kern *et al.* (2005), p.23.

⁶⁹ See Froman & Cohen (1970), p.180.

⁷⁰ See Barry, Van Kleef & Fulmer (2004), p.21.

⁷¹ See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.423.

Means of	Distributive Negotiation	Integrative Negotiation	
Comparison	Behavior	Behavior	
Strategy	Competitive	Collaborative	
Resources	Fixed (fixed Pie)	Not fixed (expanding the pie)	
Focus	Win-lose	Win-win	
Motivation	Self-interest and individual gain	Mutual interest and gain	
Relationship	Not a high priority	High priority	
Communication	Controlled and selective	Open and constructive	
Subject	Only one issue at a time is	Several issues at a time are	
-	discussed	discussed	

Table 1: A comparison of distributive and integrative negotiation behaviour.

2.2.4 A mixed negotiation behaviour leads to effective negotiation outcomes

The value claimed by the individual negotiator, independent of distributive or integrative strategy, is the outcome of the negotiation that the negotiator obtained.⁷² According to recent studies, negotiators who combine both negotiation behaviours within their negotiations are most effective.⁷³ This mixed behaviour can be explained as competitive problem-solving behaviour. It means that negotiators can express their power and control during the negotiation behaviours by being understandable and considering fairness. *Figure 1* illustrates six types of negotiation behaviours that negotiators can adopt during their negotiation. These consist of pure competitive behaviour, competition, soft competitive behaviour is based on an integrative orientation and respectively, pure collaborative behaviour is based on an integrative orientation. A mixed behaviour is respectively consisting of an intermediate behaviour. However, to what extent integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour should be mixed to achieve better negotiation outcomes has not been identified yet.

A pure integrative behaviour is characterized to a high degree by collaborative behaviour and no or a very limited usage of competitive actions. According to Saorin-Iborra (2007), the exchange of information is intended to be open and honest.⁷⁴ Whereas pure competitive behaviour has no or only limited usage of integrative actions. This behaviour is characterized by hiding information and inappropriate behaviour. The category competition in *Figure 1*, represents a behaviour that makes use of integrative strategies, however, mainly apply competitive actions. In return, collaboration predominantly uses integrative strategies and

⁷² See Sharma et al. (2013), p.298.

⁷³ See Brett *et al.* (1998), p.80; Craver (2003), p.4; Sigurdardottir, Candi & Kesting (2019), p.24.

⁷⁴ See Saorín-Iborra (2007), p.135-136.

makes only rarely use of acceptable competitive actions. In between these extreme behaviours are two milder behaviours. Compromise behaviour distinguishes from the soft competition by repeatedly using integrative behaviours with modest use of acceptable distributive actions. Whereas the latter also uses a few inappropriate competitive behaviours.⁷⁵ Commonly, the negotiation behaviour is neither purely competitive nor purely integrative and tends to be somewhere in between.⁷⁶ Hence, the following hypothesis has been developed:

H2: Individuals that score higher on emotional intelligence, that use a combination of negotiation behaviour score higher on the negotiation outcome.



Figure 1: Types of negotiation behaviour. Source: Saorín-Iborra, 2007, p.135.

2.3 Cultural Context

2.3.1 An increase in cross-cultural negotiations

Global exchange of resources is ordinary in the business environment of today.⁷⁷ This increases the necessity to negotiate effectively in an intercultural context.⁷⁸ Researchers have indeed identified differences in the negotiation behaviour and preferences across cultures. However, limited investigation has been done on exactly how far the awareness of these differences influences the effectiveness of the negotiation.⁷⁹

This section will first define culture, followed by a thorough description of cultural intelligence. Furthermore, the importance of a cultural understanding will be linked to business negotiations and their outcomes.

2.3.2 Negotiation practices differ between cultures

Cultures can have a substantial role in business negotiations and are, therefore, important to consider. Salacuse (1991) defined culture as, "socially transmitted behaviour patterns,

⁷⁵ See Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo (2018), p.3.

⁷⁶ See Saorín-Iborra (2007), p.146.

⁷⁷ See Volkema (2004), p.69.

⁷⁸ See Danciu (2010), p.88.

⁷⁹ See Kray & Thompson (2005), p.159.

norms, beliefs and values of a given community" (p.45).⁸⁰ Here, the native culture of the negotiator forms the norms and behaviour of the negotiator yet, within the same culture, deviating norms exist.⁸¹ Therefore, negotiation practices vary between cultures. The culture of an individual can not only affect the negotiation behaviour but also the negotiation process.⁸² Evidently, negotiations occur in different cultural environments and are influenced by them.

A study by Francis (1991) investigated if it has an influence on the negotiation if the negotiator adjusts the behaviour towards the cultural norms and behaviour of the counterpart. It was found that if the negotiator changes behaviour too extremely, the counterpart might see it as insincere, whereas a mild adjustment of the culture leads to a positive effect.⁸³ Therefore, it is important for negotiators to make themselves accustomed to the cultural practices and to understand the counterparts culture and behaviour, in order to achieve successful outcomes in cross-cultural negotiation settings.

Furthermore, cultural differences can have an influence on the negotiation process where the negotiating parties show different attitudes and tend to prefer different negotiation behaviours. Salacuse (1991) differentiates in his framework between a win-win and win-lose attitude.⁸⁴ These can be linked to integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours where some cultures prefer win-win attitudes and other's win-lose attitudes.

2.3.3 Cultural intelligence leads to a better understanding of the counterpart in a crosscultural negotiation

Cultural intelligence is an individual's ability to adjust to an intercultural setting.⁸⁵ Researchers have found that negotiators in an intercultural setting achieve less joint profit compared to negotiations in an intracultural setting.⁸⁶ Furthermore, it was found that individuals are more willing to continue the cooperation with in-group members compared to outgroup members⁸⁷ and that negotiations in an intercultural setting are more competitive.⁸⁸

⁸⁰ Salacuse (1991), p.45.

⁸¹ See Weiss (1994), p.288; Lügger *et al.* (2015), p.16.

⁸² See Lügger et al. (2015), p.34-35; Volkema & Fleury (2002), p.384.

⁸³ See Francis (1991), p.422.

⁸⁴ See Salacuse (1991), p.222-223.

⁸⁵ See Earley & Ang (2003), p.12.

⁸⁶ See Adler & Graham (1989), p.531; Brett & Okumura (1998), p.381.

⁸⁷ See Hewstone, Rubin, & Willis (2002), p.578-579.

⁸⁸ See Kumar (2004), p.325.

According to Adair *et al.* (2001),⁸⁹ low context cultures have a direct exchange of information by articulating their priorities, as opposed to high context cultures which have an indirect exchange of information by indicating their preferences through multi-issue offers. Therefore, it is more likely that coordination issues arise, miscommunication occurs or deviating behavioural strategies apply in intercultural negotiation.⁹⁰ This makes it more difficult to apply integrative strategies and to achieve joint profits. Especially, if only one party is using integrative strategies, the counterpart might use the opportunity to claim more value. Another study by Imai & Gelfand (2010) investigated characteristics of cultural intelligent negotiators. Their study found that cultural intelligent negotiators show psychological traits which enhance their ability to apply integrative negotiation behaviours effectively. Overall, the studies highlight that integrative negotiation strategies lead to high joint profits which are, as mentioned before, difficult to achieve in an intercultural setting.⁹¹

Due to the international environment we live in today, intercultural negotiation settings are no rarity.⁹² To negotiate effectively in a cross-cultural context, skills of cultural intelligence have to be understood better. The culture and setting where the negotiation takes place may have an influence on the negotiation behaviour and its effectiveness an individual adopts.⁹³ In this study, it is expected that cultural intelligent individuals positively affect cross-cultural negotiations and their performance. Thus, the following hypothesis was developed.

H3: The relationship between higher emotional intelligence and negotiation outcome is positively influenced by individuals with higher cultural intelligence.

2.4 Negotiation & Work Experience

2.4.1 Experience influences the negotiation outcome

Literature in the field of negotiation supports that negotiation experience enhances the performance and outcome of a negotiation. ⁹⁴ In order to be prepared for negotiations with other parties, it is beneficial for inexperienced negotiators to receive training beforehand. Work experience gained over the years does not necessarily lead to task experience.⁹⁵ It is also beneficial for experienced workers to gain negotiation expertise since the experience

⁸⁹ See Adair *et al.* (2001), p.380.

⁹⁰ See Adair *et al.* (2001), p.381.

⁹¹ See Olekalns & Smith (2000), p.547-548; Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.87.

⁹² See Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.92.

⁹³ See Volkema (1998), p.218; Sigurdardottir, Candi & Kesting (2019), p.11.

⁹⁴ See Neale & Northcraft (1986), p.316; Montgomery & Benedict (1989), p.391; Ghauri (2003), p.6.

⁹⁵ See Bonner & Lewis (1990), p.16,18.

gained by a negotiator throughout previous negotiations affects the value of a deal reached in future negotiations.⁹⁶

Literature is debating if experience has an impact on the negotiation outcome. Thus, this section will review studies on negotiation experience.

2.4.2 Negotiation experience and training affect the negotiation outcome positively

A study by Thompson (1990) examined the influence of negotiation experience on negotiation performance. The focus was set on the experience with bargaining tasks and skills (i.e. distributive negotiation behaviour). The study found that negotiation experience can enhance negotiation performance through the knowledge and experience gained during past negotiations. However, the negotiators in the study of Thompson had only limited experience in negotiation.⁹⁷

A stream of past literature on negotiation experience indicates that negotiators did not learn from their previous negotiation experiences. More concrete, studies found that the negotiators have had problems learning from lessons from previous negotiations and to apply these experiences afterwards in negotiations with a different context.⁹⁸ According to Loewenstein *et al.* (1999), negotiators did not learn about the strategy or structure applied in previous rounds and reached agreements through a default settlement of compromise.⁹⁹

However, studies also found that past negotiation experiences do matter.¹⁰⁰ This is for instance when superficial characteristics of a previous negotiation align with the current negotiation. If negotiators are able to recognize the same pattern in negotiations, then they are able to apply what they have learned from previous negotiations.

Another study by Brown & Wright (2008) on negotiations between auditors and their clients found that experienced auditors created a wider range of alternative solutions in negotiations with higher commitment risk. The experience level refers to the task knowledge the auditors gained throughout their career. However, they did not find benefits for experienced auditors in low-risk situations. Furthermore, inexperienced auditors are more likely to be influenced by the solution suggested from the client, whereas experienced auditors are not influenced. Experienced auditors tend to apply distributive and confronting negotiation behaviours, whereas the inexperienced auditors adopted concessionary

⁹⁶ See O'Connor, Arnold & Burris (2005), p.358.

⁹⁷ See Thompson (1990), p.529,542.

⁹⁸ See Thompson, Gentner & Loewenstein (2000), p.70; Nadler, Thompson & Van Boven (2003), p.537.

⁹⁹ See Loewenstein, Thompson & Gentner (1999), p.588.

¹⁰⁰ See O'Connor, Arnold & Burris (2005), p.358.

negotiation behaviour when facing high-risk situations.¹⁰¹ A study by Fu *et al.* (2011) confirmed findings that experienced auditor negotiators are not affected by a distributive and combative negotiation behaviour of the client, whereas, less experienced audit negotiators are.¹⁰² Therefore, it is beneficial to assign experienced negotiators to combative clients.

Negotiation expertise is important since small changes in the negotiation strategy can lead to better outcomes. An example is the opening move which positions an anchor around the opening offer and influences the outcome of the negotiation. Furthermore, it is important that the negotiator knows where to set his goals and to respectively set the first offer well thought through.¹⁰³ The negotiation outcome is, furthermore, influenced by the reputation negotiators have created throughout past negotiation experiences in their career.¹⁰⁴ Through a lack of negotiation skills, the individual negotiator can already destroy their reputation through unethical behaviour at the beginning of the negotiation career. This might lead to barriers in future negotiations. Success or failure in a negotiators gain, the more integrative solutions they reach.¹⁰⁵ It is not enough to only know about effective negotiation behaviours. The negotiator has to know why a specific behaviour is adequate to use and convey the skills from one case to another.¹⁰⁶ Therefore, it is beneficial to receive negotiation training to learn about the different negotiation behaviours and influential factors to prevent difficulties that would lead to poor negotiation outcomes.

This study will not only investigate whether negotiation experience has an influence on the negotiation outcome but also work experience. Furthermore, this study will be performed with participants that already possess negotiation experience which they have to apply over multiple negotiation rounds. During these rounds, they have to apply integrative and distributive behaviours. Consequently, it is expected that negotiators with increasing workand negotiation experience have a better awareness of which negotiation tactics to apply. Based on this notion, it is assumed that:

H4a: The relationship between higher emotional intelligence and negotiation outcome is positively influenced by individuals with higher negotiation experience.

¹⁰¹ See Brown & Wright (2008), p.96.

¹⁰² See Fu, Tan & Zhang (2011), p.227,235.

¹⁰³ See Hatfield *et al.* (2010), p.1648; Fisher, Patton, & Ury (2011), p.81.

¹⁰⁴ See O'Connor, Arnold & Burris (2005), p.357.

¹⁰⁵ See Neale & Northcraft (1986), p.314.

¹⁰⁶ See Thompson (1990), p.540.

H4b: The relationship between higher emotional intelligence and negotiation outcome is positively influenced by individuals with higher work experience.

2.5 Research focus is set on skills a negotiator requires to improve the negotiation outcome

Based on this theoretical framework, it will be investigated what effect emotional intelligence, negotiation behaviour, cultural intelligence, and experience have on the negotiation outcome.

By scoring high on emotional intelligence, it is expected that the negotiator understands the needs and feelings of the counterpart. Through such an understanding, a better negotiation experience is expected which leads to higher negotiation outcomes. Furthermore, through a mix of integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours, negotiators can first create the required value and afterwards, claim a fair share of it for themselves, which is also expected to lead to a higher negotiation outcome. A cultural understanding is important in intercultural negotiation settings in order to understand and adjust to the behaviour of the counterpart. Therefore, it is expected that cultural intelligence leads to higher negotiation outcomes. Lastly, the experience a negotiator gained through past negotiation and work experiences is expected to have an influence on the negotiation outcome. This is owing to experiencing how to handle difficult situations and different negotiation settings.

This study may shed light into skills a negotiator should have for successful negotiation outcomes to help them in the future to identify and improve their required negotiation skills.

3 Research Problem and Aim

3.1 Problem Statement

Early research in negotiations developed mixed research results. These findings include that, for instance, individual differences, like intelligence, do not influence the outcome of the negotiation. Instead, they are considered to be demographic and, therefore, describe only limited variance in negotiation behaviours or outcomes.¹⁰⁷ Researchers continued to study the impact of individual differences on negotiation outcomes. Examples are, amongst others, Olekalns & Smith (1999) who focused on social value orientation, Kray *et al.* (2001) who considered the impact of gender and Weingart *et al.* (1996) who investigated the impact of tactical knowledge used within a negotiation. Only later, research focused on the negotiation

¹⁰⁷ See Thompson (1990), p.515; Bazerman et al. (2002), p.281.

performance and intelligence measures which is an important aspect to consider, since individual differences can have an impact on the success of the negotiation outcome.¹⁰⁸ Therefore, a company has to consider, based on these differences, whom to appoint to execute a negotiation. The intelligence measures focused, for instance, on the individual's level of cognitive intelligence, and emotional intelligence in a negotiation setting.¹⁰⁹

Negotiations can at times be charged with emotions and reflect how we feel about the negotiation.¹¹⁰ Therefore, it is valuable to consider if the understanding of one's emotions and of the counterpart influence the outcome of a negotiation. The understanding of emotions is classified as emotional intelligence. Only recently, a relation between EI and the social interaction in negotiations were developed.¹¹¹ EI has been under study in different contexts, for instance, in information gathering, decision making, and negotiation behaviour.¹¹² A study by Rees & Kopelman (2019) indicated that the intersection of negotiation, emotions, and culture have rarely been studied together and that these areas have room for exploration.¹¹³ Therefore, this study will measure the level of EI of the negotiator and its counterpart to investigate the direct effect on the negotiation outcome, but also the effect of moderating and mediating variables.

Relationships between the integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours and its outcome relationship were studied before.¹¹⁴ Integrative behaviours were separated from distributive behaviours which limited the perspective on negotiation behaviours. Consequently, a combination of both behaviours was left out. This study will include a mix of both negotiation behaviours.

Both organizations and individuals have to deal with an increase in cultural diversity. Therefore, cultural aspects have to be considered when negotiating in an intercultural setting. Studies started to investigate the effect of cultural intelligence in negotiations with one other culture involved and linked them to the applied negotiation behaviours.¹¹⁵ However, the effect on multiple cultures involved is still unexplored.

Another variable is the experience a negotiator possesses. The level of experience is measured in different ways, including work experience to negotiation experienced gained

¹⁰⁸ See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.246.

¹⁰⁹ See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.245; Der Foo et al. (2004), p.411; Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.1.

¹¹⁰ See Kumar (1997), p.97.

¹¹¹ See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.4-5; Der Foo et al. (2004), p.412; Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.1.

¹¹² See Fulmer & Barry (2004), p.246.

¹¹³ See Rees & Kopelman (2019), p.132.

¹¹⁴ See Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo (2018), p.1-2.

¹¹⁵ See Imai & Gelfand (2010), p.1; Sigurdardottir, Candi & Peter Kesting (2019), p.2

through reading, training or practice. For instance, negotiators can enhance their negotiation skills through training.¹¹⁶ As such, negotiators can develop new strategies and learn how to deal with certain individuals. The purpose here is to investigate whether the level of experience enhances the negotiation outcome.

3.2 Research Aim

The purpose of this paper is to investigate whether the independent variable EI has a direct effect on the dependent variable - negotiation outcomes. Furthermore, it will be examined if the negotiation behaviour has a mediating effect and if the variables experience and cultural intelligence have a moderating effect on the research model. By linking different types of influential and interrelated factors it is expected to receive a detailed view on skills a negotiator requires to perform well in negotiations and to increase the value the negotiator is taking from the negotiation.

This study contributes to existing negotiation literature by investigating the direct effect of EI on the negotiation outcome and by establishing possible factors that influence the negotiation process and outcome positively. For instance, it contributes to existing negotiation literature by investigating if distributive negotiation behaviours lead to better negotiation outcomes as concluded in previous studies or if a mix of these two behaviours facilitates the negotiation outcome.¹¹⁷ Furthermore, by investigating negotiators in an intercultural setting, from 27 nationalities, the negotiator's experience, it contributes to recent literature or work practice by testing if an increased level of experience leads to better negotiation outcomes and, therefore, if negotiation training or work experience have an impact on the negotiators negotiators negotiate and how this can facilitate negotiations in the business context more effectively. Based on the findings, this research facilitates companies by shedding light into characteristics and skills their employees require to ensure favourable negotiation outcomes.

3.3 Research Question and Framework

This study will examine whether the emotional intelligence of an individual negotiator and the strategy they select, have an impact on the negotiation outcome. A figurative

¹¹⁶ See Thompson (2001), p.111.

¹¹⁷ See Ramsay (2004), p.225; Zachariassen (2008), p.778.

representation is depicted in *Figure 2*. The aim of this study is to approach shortcomings in the literature that identify the effectiveness of emotional intelligence on the negotiation outcome. Based on this aim, the following research questions are derived:

RQ: What is the effect of a higher level of emotional intelligence on negotiation behaviour and the overall negotiation outcome in a cross-cultural environment?



Figure 2: Research model.

4 Methodology

4.1 Research design and the search for relevant literature

This section will outline the techniques of this empirical research by elaborating on the quantitative research setup. In order to answer the research question, a survey data collection methodology is applied. Therefore, a theoretical framework is developed by means of a scientific literature review and will be validated based on surveys. Afterwards, the data will be coded and statistically analysed using statistical analysis software (SPSS, IBM Corporation, New York, United States).

At the beginning of this study, an analysis of both theory and literature has been conducted. Therefore, general and specific terms relevant for this study, ranging from emotional intelligence to negotiation behaviour and setting, the cultural context in negotiations, and negotiation experience, have been searched in the Scopus-, and Web of Science-database. Through the references of suitable articles, additional articles were found. Additionally, relevant books in the field of negotiation and emotional intelligence research have been studied. The literature review of the relevant theories for this study can be found in the previous chapters.

4.2 Data collection at two negotiation competitions

The quantitative data for this research were collected at two international negotiation competitions. The first competition (A) primarily has business and law graduate students from around the world competing against each other.¹¹⁸ The second competition (B) is also an international negotiation tournament where the educational backgrounds of participants range from economics and law to business. The participants are either bachelor, master, or graduate students.

These students compete in teams of three and it is assumed that they have a theoretical and practical experience in negotiation. Furthermore, the competition is conducted in English and all participants are expected to possess adequate knowledge to speak this language. The selection criteria are based on the experience of the team and the prestige of their university. Selected teams are often coached, which increases the competition level. Usually, the teams are the most qualified candidates for their year and represent their university at the competition.

Teams apply with a motivation letter and a curriculum vitae per participant. The organizing committee selects the team based on the team's negotiation experience, for instance, gained through their business experience or from extensive coaching and negotiation training. Each team had to undergo a selection process at their respective universities. Furthermore, it is aimed for a cultural diversification at the competitions.

Competition A received up to 80 applications and only 18 teams are selected to participate in the competition. The competition was held over two days with four qualification rounds where all 18 teams had to participate. After each round, the teams were ranked according to a fixed score scheme and one round was judged by negotiation experts. In the end, the two teams with the highest cumulative score were competing in the final round. Each round consists of a role play where each team receives confidential information about its role in the negotiation scenario. The role plays are specially written by experts for the competition and cover an array of negotiation situations which include integrative, distributive, mixedmotive and multi-party negotiation settings.

Competition B was held over three days, also with four qualification rounds where a different set of 12 teams were participating. In the final round, the best two teams competed against each other and they were selected based on the performance score which they

¹¹⁸ See The Negotiation Challenge (2019).

collected through the previous rounds. The role plays are written specifically for the competition by members of the Student Scientific Association Negotiator.¹¹⁹

At both competitions, data was collected during a mixed-motive negotiation setting where participants had to apply integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour. Furthermore, at both competitions, a combined score of 72 points could be achieved which facilitates the integrated usage of both competitions in this study.

4.3 Measures are based on previous research

This research is based on a survey, designed to measure several research topics. These topics include the participants' negotiation experience, the level of emotional intelligence, the applied negotiation behaviours, and the level of cultural knowledge. The survey aims to identify how these factors relate to the final negotiation outcome achieved in the negotiation competition, which in turn represents how well a team performed.

Within both competitions, participants received an English language questionnaire after the fourth negotiation round. This was the last round before the finals where the best two teams negotiated against each other. The questionnaire was designed based on the four research topics. In the beginning, general questions about the nationality, gender, level of education, total estimated time of prior negotiation experience, and months of work experience were asked in form of open-ended questions (Appendix A).

Next, the participants were asked to recall their previous negotiation round against the opposite team and to reflect on their experience during the negotiation round. The first 27 questions were about the applied negotiation behaviour which is linked to distributive and integrative negotiation behaviours. Based on a 7-point Likert-scale, the participants had to indicate the frequency of usage of the indicated behaviour. The scale range offered seven possibilities from 'Never' used to 'Very High' usage. An example of a question is: *Did you intentionally misrepresent factual information to your opponent when you know that he/she has already done this to you?*. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix B. These questions stem from a study by Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo and were slightly adjusted by adding personal pronouns to the questions to make them more understandable for the participants.¹²⁰ The questions measure integrative oriented behaviour and acceptable and inappropriate competitive behaviours.

¹¹⁹ See Warsaw Negotiation Round (2019).

¹²⁰ See Saorín-Iborra & Cubillo (2019), p.14-15.

The individuals' level of EI was measured with a 16-item scale.¹²¹ Participants had to rank their answers again in a 7-point Likert-scale, ranging from 'Not likely at all' to 'Extremely likely'. The questions are grouped into four dimensions. These are self-emotion appraisal (SEA), use of emotions (UOE), regulation of emotions (ROE), and others' emotion appraisal (OEA). SEA measures the strength of the individuals to understand and express their own emotions. UOE addresses the ability of the individuals to direct their emotions to improve performance through enhancing activities. ROE assesses the ability of individuals to regulate their own emotions. Finally, OEA measures the capability to comprehend the emotions of others. An example of the dimension ROE is: *I have good control of my own emotions*. The questionnaire can be found in Appendix C.

The last part of the questionnaire covers questions about the cultural intelligence of the participants. Therefore, 20 questions were asked which had to be answered in a 7-point Likert-scale, as well. Seven answer options were provided, ranging from 'Not likely at all' to 'Extremely likely'. The questions are grouped into four dimensions. These are metacognitive cultural intelligence, cognitive cultural intelligence, motivational cultural intelligence and behavioural cultural intelligence. An example of the dimension metacognitive cultural intelligence is: *I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds*. The questions stem from a study by Ang *et al.* and can be found in *Appendix D*.¹²²

Experience was measured with two questions. The first question measures negotiation experience "*Total estimated time of prior negotiation experience in hours (e.g. training, reading, practices)*?" and the second question measuring work experience "*Months of work experience*?". The questions had to be aligned and were grouped afterwards into seven subcategories ranging from "No Experience" to "Very High Experience" (*Table 2*).

Sub-categories	Work Experience (months)	Negotiation Experience (hours)
1	No Experience (0)	No Experience (0)
2	Low Experience (1-6)	Low Experience (1-20)
3	Medium-Low Experience (7-12)	Medium-Low Experience (21–40)
4	Medium Experience (13-36)	Medium Experience (41–60)
5	Medium-High Experience (37-60)	Medium-High Experience (61-80)
6	High Experience (61-120)	High Experience (81-100)
7	Very High Experience (121+)	Very High Experience (101+)

Table 2: Sub-categories for work experience, measured in months, and negotiation experience, measured in hours

¹²¹ See Wong & Law (2002), p.270-271.

¹²² See Ang *et al.* (2007), p.366.

Lastly, the participants were able to attain points in each round of the competition which were accumulated to provide the final performance score. These scores are based on four negotiation rounds where the teams have to apply different negotiation behaviours, for instance, creating value for both parties or claiming the highest value while maintaining a good relationship. Furthermore, rounds were evaluated by judges with expertise in negotiation. These judges scored the teams based on fourteen predetermined criteria in competition A, which can be found in *Appendix E*. The criteria range from preparation, communication, claiming value, and creating value to strategic adaptability, emotionality, and relationship-building in a cross-cultural context. This facilitates a fair evaluation based on the same criteria for all participating teams. The 30 teams are ranked based on their final performance score. In both competitions, the same maximum score of 72 points could have been achieved. This performance score is used as the dependent variable in this study and will be referred to as "negotiation outcome". This term is used in negotiation research to refer to the measure of objective gain and profit attained in negotiations.¹²³

4.4 Performing a multiple linear regression analysis

4.4.1 Estimating adequate sample size

To ensure an adequate sample size, a G*Power test is performed to increase the probability of finding a significant interaction effect. This is a tool that performs statistical power analysis.¹²⁴ Power refers to the probability that the test will show statistically significant outcomes. More precisely, power indicates the probability that the null hypothesis will be rejected.¹²⁵ Power can be determined based on the applied effect size, significance level, sample size, and the number of predictors. For this study, the power for one and two predictors is calculated with a given effect size of .5, an alpha level of .05, and a sample size of 87. The G*Power test yields for both one and two predictors a power of .999. This indicates that the sample size is sufficient and that there is a 99% chance of not making a Type II error (which refers to failing to reject a false null hypothesis).¹²⁶

¹²³ See Thompson (1990), p.534; Oliver, Balakrishnan & Barry (1994), p.253; Zetik & Stuhlmacher (2002), p.39.

¹²⁴ See Faul *et al.* (2007), p.175.

¹²⁵ See Cohen (1988), p.1,4.

¹²⁶ See Cohen (1988), p.5; Aguinis et al. (2005), p.101.

4.4.2 Data management and data preparation by single-value imputation with conditional means

The dataset contained missing data (due to unanswered questions) which had to be replaced. Therefore, the method of single-value imputation was applied which was introduced by Buck (1960).¹²⁷ The missing data can be replaced with unconditional mean imputation by taking the mean of all variables. However, to receive more variation in the output, conditional mean imputation is applied. This technique replaces the missing data by predicting the value through a regression model. Predictor variables with complete data serve as a pattern which are used to determine the regression model. These are observed variables of the subset. In the regression, the missing variable is used as the outcome variable and the predicted value can be used as a true representation of the original sample.¹²⁸

4.4.3 Determining which assumptions have to be checked

Before a multiple linear regression analysis can be tested, multiple assumptions about the used variables have to be fulfilled to ensure trustworthiness and validity of the results in this study. If variables are used where assumptions are violated, it can lead to errors and false estimations of the significance.¹²⁹

Measuring inter-reliability of the questionnaires

The reliability and validity of the single questionnaires have to be measured to improve the correctness of the tests. Reliability indicates if the instrument measures consistently. Validity indicates the degree to which the instrument measured what is expected to measure. The internal consistency of the questionnaire can range between 0 and 1.¹³⁰ This describes to what degree the single questions in the questionnaire measure the same construct. With an increasing alpha value, the correlation increases and, therefore, the internal consistency. A Cronbach's alpha between 0.7 and 0.8 can be seen as adequate.¹³¹

Linear relationship between the independent and dependent variable

In multiple regression analysis, it is necessary to test if the relationship between the independent and dependent variable is linear or nonlinear. Only if the relationship is linear, the regression analysis can be performed correctly. If the relationship is non-linear and a linear regression analysis is performed, the true relationship will be miscalculated.

¹²⁷ See Buck (1960), p.302.

¹²⁸ See Pigott (2009), p.407.

¹²⁹ See Osborne & Waters (2002), p.1.

¹³⁰ See Tavakol & Dennick (2011), p.53-54.

¹³¹ See Bland & Altman (1997), p.572.

Therefore, scatterplots are examined to test whether the relationship is linear or curvilinear.¹³²

Normal distribution of residuals

One of the assumptions in regression analysis that is robust to violation is the normal distribution of residuals.¹³³ Nevertheless, it will be tested whether the residuals of these variables under study are normally distributed. If residuals are not normally distributed and contain too many outliers, or are highly skewed, it can falsify the relationship and significance of the tests. Therefore, the variables will be visually inspected for normality through the analysis of a quantile-quantile plot (Q-Q plot). If the points are forming an approximately straight line, a normal distribution can be assumed.

Absence of multicollinearity

In multiple regression analysis, it is assumed that independent variables are not correlated and, therewith, linearly independent to each other.¹³⁴ Multicollinearity can be tested in multiple ways. This research tests multicollinearity by means of the variance inflation factor (VIF). A VIF value higher than 10 indicates highly correlated variables and leads to unidentifiable regression coefficients in the independent variables.¹³⁵

Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity assumes that the variance of error terms are the same across the independent variables. This assumption can be tested by visually analysing a scatterplot of residuals and predicted values. Homoscedasticity is assumed if no clear pattern is found and residuals are scattered randomly around the horizontal line. Differing variances of errors indicate heteroscedasticity which can be detected through unevenly distributed residuals or, for instance, cone-shaped patterns which can lead to biased results. ¹³⁶

4.4.4 Transforming data to perform multiple linear regression

Performing multiple linear regression

An overview of the research topics and their respective variable types are shown in *Table 3*, to clarify their relationship in the multiple linear regression analysis.

¹³² See Osborne & Waters (2002), p.1-2.

¹³³ See Osborne & Waters (2002), p.1.

¹³⁴ See Poole & O'Farrell (1970), p.155.

¹³⁵ See O'Brien (2007), p.684.

¹³⁶ See Osborne & Waters (2002), p.4.

Research topic	Variable type
Emotional Intelligence (EI)	Independent Variable (IV)
Mixed Negotiation Behavior	Mediator Variable
Cultural Intelligence	Moderating Variable
Negotiation Experience	Moderating Variable
Work Experience	Moderating Variable
Competition	Control Variable
Negotiation Outcome	Dependent variable (DV)

Table 3: Research topic and variable types

After the data is collected, it has to be analysed. Multiple regression analysis is used to predict the relationship between multiple independent variables and the outcome variable.¹³⁷ This analysis can be performed with either categorical or continuous measured variables. The categorical independent variables have to be transformed by means of mean-centring. Furthermore, the variables have to be represented with code variables.¹³⁸ This is done by dummy coding the variables to compare higher levels of the independent variables with the reference group. The reference group is represented through zeros. For the variables, high EI, high CI, and high work experience, individuals scoring a six or higher are coded with 1, whereas the reference group represents individuals with scores below 6. High negotiation behaviour includes scores from 5 and higher as a higher level of experience.

Additionally, the predictor and moderator have to be centred by subtracting the sample mean to reduce possible multicollinearity among the variables and their interaction terms in the regression equation. The interaction term has to be calculated by multiplying the newly coded and centred predictor with each moderator.¹³⁹

The newly created variables can now be used to structure the equation and perform the regression with a statistical software. It is important to consider that the predictor and moderator have to be added to the regression equation to control for the interaction variable. In the next step, the interaction of the two variables has to be added to conform the regression according to standards.¹⁴⁰

¹³⁷ See Frazier *et al.* (2004), p.117.

¹³⁸ See Frazier *et al.* (2004), p.120.

¹³⁹ See Frazier *et al.* (2004), P.120.

¹⁴⁰ See Cohen et al. (2003), p.261-262.

Predictor variable and moderator transformation

A moderator variable is applied to change the direction or strength of the relationship between the predictor variable and the dependent variable.¹⁴¹ It serves as an interaction where the effect of the variable relies on another variable. For this instance, moderators are used to test if the relation between EI and the final score is stronger for people with higher levels of EI, work experience, negotiation experience, and CI compared to people with lower levels. This will help to understand the moderator effects that increase the relationship between predictor variables and the outcome variable. The moderating variables can have three types of interactions on the predictor and outcome variables. These can enhance the interaction where the predictor and the moderator influence the dependent variable the same way, and together have a stronger effect. The interaction can also be buffered when the moderator weakens the effect of the predictor on the outcome variable. Lastly, the interaction can be antagonistic, which means that both predictor and moderator have the same effect on the dependent variable, however, the interaction is in an adverse direction.¹⁴² The degree of freedom F-test illustrates the change in variance explained when the interaction term is added in the regression.¹⁴³

Testing for mediation effect

A mediator variable explains the relation between the predictor variable and the dependent variable and can be seen as a mechanism through which a predictor variable affects the dependent variable.¹⁴⁴ Therefore, the relation between the predictor and mediator is tested, followed by testing the relationship between the mediator and outcome variable. If the relation between predictor and moderator is significant, as well as the relation between the mediator and the outcome variable, while controlling for the predictor, a mediation effect is present.¹⁴⁵

The Sobel test is performed to test whether the mediator is responsible for the influence of the predictor in the outcome variable. The test estimates the size and significance of the indirect effect of the mediation.¹⁴⁶

¹⁴¹ See Baron & Kenny (1986), p.1174.

¹⁴² See Cohen *et al.* (2003), p.285-286.

¹⁴³ See Aiken & West (1991), p.121.

¹⁴⁴ See Baron & Kenny (1986), p.116.

¹⁴⁵ See Judd & Kenny (1981), p.605.

¹⁴⁶ See Preacher & Hayes (2004), p.720.

5 Results

5.1 Measuring sample validity and inter-reliability of the questionnaires

In total, 30 teams participated in the two competitions with three participants per team, which results in a sample size of N = 90 with N = 87 useful samples for this study. The gender of the participants can be split in male N = 50 and female N = 40. Their ages range from 18 to 42 years. The range of age already indicates that the level of completed education ranges from high school degree in competition B, due to bachelor students being allowed to participate, to participants completing their MBA and Juris Doctor Degree. Furthermore, the participants consist of over 27 different nationalities.

In a first analysis of the dataset, the mean calculated independent variables are checked for outliers. A box plot method is applied which graphically represents the distribution of the selected data in quartiles. ¹⁴⁷ In total, only three outliers are observed, which are located close to the extreme points. After investigating the outliers individually, it was decided that the data are useful and not based on errors of the participants, but rather depict the real circumstance. Therefore, it was decided to keep them in the sample.

Based on the first questionnaire, 16 questions covering SEA, UOE, ROE, and OEA were applied to measure the level of EI of the individual participants. Inter-reliability for the overall measure of EI and its individual dimensions is conducted. The overall measure of the 16 questions measured a Cronbach's Alpha of .868, which indicates a good inter-reliability. The Cronbach's Alpha of the sub-categories are: SEA = .815, UOE = .781, ROE = .931, and OEA = .821. These values are all adequate and no item had to be deleted from the measurement. As the results are adequate and quite similar, the mean of the EI scores will represent EI in the regression construct to simplify the analysis.

Next, the inter-reliability of the negotiation behaviour questionnaire was measured. These questions are divided into distributive and integrative negotiation behaviour types. Acceptable competitive negotiation behaviour has a Cronbach's Alpha of .755 and for inappropriate competitive behaviour, the Cronbach's Alpha is .810. The combined distributive negotiation behaviour questions have a Cronbach's Alpha of .842 and, therewith, indicating good internal reliability. The mean of the two distributive negotiation behaviour categories will be used in later measures. Likewise, the 9 questions measuring integrative negotiation behaviour have an acceptable Cronbach's Alpha of .812.

¹⁴⁷ See Schwertman, Owens & Adnan (2004), p.165.
The inter-reliability for the cultural intelligence questions was measured based on 20 questions, covering meta-cognitive cultural intelligence with a Cronbach's Alpha of .863, cognitive cultural intelligence (.838), motivational cultural intelligence (.875), and behavioural cultural intelligence (.875). The combined Cronbach's Alpha of .900 is achieved, which indicates a strong inter-reliability. As the results are quite similar, the mean of the CI scores will represent CI in the regression construct to simplify the analysis.

Lastly, the questions measuring the level of experience are kept separately. Work experience and negotiation experience are measured variables based on one question and do not stem from a prior tested questionnaire. Their inter-reliability would score insufficiently and, therefore, it is recommended to measure work and negotiation experience independently. The research constructs and their inter-reliability can be seen in *Table 4*.

Construct	Scale	N items	Cronbach's α	Mean	Std. deviation
Emotional	Self-Emotional Appraisal	4	.82	5.80	.98
Intelligence	(SEA)				
	Use of Emotions (UOE)	4	.78	6.10	.87
	Regulation of Emotions	4	.93	5.45	1.35
	(ROE)				
	Other's Emotions Appraisal	4	.82	5.57	1.03
	(OEA)				
	Total	16	.87	5.73	.74
Negotiation	Acceptable Competitive	5	.76	3.09	1.31
Behaviour Dis	Behaviour				
	Inappropriate Competitive	10	.81	1.90	.97
	Behaviour				
	Total	15	.84	2.3	.88
Negotiation	Integrative Orientation	9	.81	5.39	.95
Behaviour Int					
Cultural	Meta Cognitive CI	4	.86	5.81	.95
Intelligence	Cognitive CI	6	.84	4.44	1.17
-	Motivational CI	5	.82	5.92	.92
	Behavioural CI	5	.88	5.42	1.20
	Total	20	.90	5.33	.807
Experience	Work	1		40.86	49.19
-	Negotiation	1		92.87	99.65

Table 4: Research construct and inter-reliability measures.

The correlation of the dependent and independent variables are represented in *Table 5*. The correlation matrix is derived to confirm whether the correlation coefficients of the measured variables are low enough to be considered statistically independent from each other.¹⁴⁸ Independence is necessary in order to test, amongst others, the moderating effect. Each variable shows a low-moderate correlation which each other. A moderate significant correlation is found between EI and CI (.53). Furthermore, a significant weak correlation is

¹⁴⁸ See Osborne & Waters (2002), p.2.

observed between integrative negotiation behaviour and CI, as well as between integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour. Since the two variables on negotiation behaviour are dummy coded for the mixed negotiation behaviour, their correlation is not important to consider. Additionally, a weak significant correlation is found between negotiation experience and the negotiation outcome (.31).

		Table	e 5: Corre	lation Ma	trix.			
		1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. Total	Pearson	1						
	Correlation							
2. EI_Mean_c	Pearson	.01	1					
	Correlation							
3. CI_Mean_c	Pearson	05	.53**	1				
	Correlation							
4. NB_Dis_Mean	Pearson	.13	07	02	1			
	Correlation							
5. NB_Int_Mean	Pearson	12	.17	.33**	42**	1		
	Correlation							
6. Neg_Exp_c	Pearson	.31**	.16	09	.03	.06	1	
	Correlation							
7. Work_Exp_c	Pearson	.10	.15	.06	14	.07	.10	1
_	Correlation							

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.2 Assumptions for multiple linear regression analysis are fulfilled

The following assumptions have to be tested and fulfilled before the multiple linear regression analysis can be performed to ensure trustworthiness and validity of the results in this study.

Assumption 1: Linear relationship

First, the linear relationship between the outcome variable and the independent variables is tested. Before the variables are dummy coded, scatterplots for all variables are designed to ensure a linear and not a curvilinear relationship. The dependent variable with the final score was separately tested for linearity with the independent variables emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence, integrative-, and distributive negotiation behaviour, as well as for work-, and negotiation experience. The relationship of the standardized predictors and the residuals is roughly linear around zero. Residuals of all variables are randomly scattered, therefore, the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable is zero and the assumption of a linear relationship is fulfilled.



Figure 3: Linear relationship between EI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 4: Linear relationship between CI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 5: Linear relationship between Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 6: Linear relationship between Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 7: Linear relationship between NB_Dis_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 8: Linear relationship between NB_Int_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.

Assumption 2: Normal distribution of residuals

Next, it is assumed that the residuals are normally distributed. This assumption is tested through the visual inspection of a Q-Q plot of all variables. Here, all variables are separately plotted and inspected. The dots are closely plotted along the straight-line, therefore, the residuals of the variables are approximately normal distributed.



Figure 10: Q-Q Plot for CI_Mean.



Figure 11: Q-Q Plot for Work Experience.



Figure 12: Q-Q Plot for Negotiation Experience.



Figure 13: Q-Q Plot for NB_Dis_Mean.



Figure 14: Q-Q Plot for NB_Int_Mean.

Assumption 3: Absence of multicollinearity

Multicollinearity is tested with the variance inflation factor (VIF). The variables are inspected separately by testing the independent variable measuring emotional intelligence with all other independent variables. VIF scores are ranging from 1.00 to 1.21, therefore, the independent variables are not highly correlated and no multicollinearity is assumed.

Independent Variable	Dependent Variable	Collinearity Statistics VIF
CI_Mean_c	EI_Mean_c	1.000
Neg_c	EI_Mean_c	1.000
Work_c	EI_Mean_c	1.000
NB_Mixed	EI_Mean	1.000
NB_Dis_Mean	EI_Mean	1.211
NB_Int_Mean	EI_Mean	1.211

Table 6: VIF scores of independent variables to detect multicollinearity.

Assumption 4: Homoscedasticity

Homoscedasticity is tested by visually inspecting the scatterplot of all independent variables. Residuals of the independent variables are plotted against predicted values. The points in the scatterplots of the independent variables are approximately equally distributed. Therefore, homogeneity of variance in the error terms is assumed.



Figure 15: Scatterplot of Residuals for EI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 16: Scatterplot of Residuals for Work_Experience and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 17: Scatterplot of Residuals for Negotiation_Experience and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 18: Scatterplot of Residuals for CI_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 19: Scatterplot of Residuals for NB_Dis_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.



Figure 20: Scatterplot of Residuals for NB_Int_Mean and Negotiation Outcome.

After all assumptions are tested it can be proven that all requirements are met, which is required to draw conclusions from the multiple linear regression analysis correctly. As a next step the multiple linear regression analysis can be performed and results can be interpreted.

5.3 Higher level of emotional intelligence has no significant effect on the outcome variable

A linear regression analysis is performed to test the hypothesis that individuals with higher levels of EI perform better in the negotiation outcome. The control variable "competition" is included in the regression analysis to differentiate between the two competitions. The coefficient of multiple determination $R^2 = .31$ represents the equation fit of the data. This means that 31% of the negotiation outcome variation can be explained by high EI and. Furthermore, the ANOVA table indicates the overall significance of the independent variables, higher EI and Competition, when used together reliably predict the dependent variable with F(2,84) = 18.45, p = .00.

However, the negative regression coefficient of high EI -.88 indicates that the negotiation outcome is lower for individuals scoring higher on EI than the reference group. However, the t-statistic in the coefficient table shows t(84) = -.45, p = .66. In this equation, the t-statistic for high EI is not significant at the .05 level. This means that high EI is not contributing significantly to the regression.

		Table 7: Model Summary ^b	[•] Higher EI and Negotic	ation Outcome
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.55ª	.31	29	9.00

a. Predictors: (Constant), High_EI, Competition

b. Dependent Variable: Total

	Table 8: ANOVA ^a Higher EI and Negotiation Outcome.							
Mod	lel	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
1	Regression	2987.82	2	1493.91	18.45	.00b		
	Residual	6801.48	84	115.107				
	Total	9789.29	86					

a. Dependent Variable: Total

b. Predictors: (Constant), High_EI, Competition

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients			
		В	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	
1	(Constant)	32.07	1.72		18.64	.00	
	Competition	12.15	2.00	.56	6.07	.00	
	High_EI	88	1.96	04	45	.66	

T 11 0

a. Dependent Variable: Total

5.4 Combined negotiation behaviour has no mediating effect

The hypothesis that individuals score higher on emotional intelligence, that use a combination of negotiation behaviour score higher on the negotiation outcome is measured with a multiple linear regression analysis where the combination of negotiation behaviour acts as a mediator. In the first step of the mediation model, the regression of high emotional intelligence and the mediator combined negotiation behaviour has to be calculated. The results indicate that higher EI has a negative effect on the mixed negotiation behaviour and is statistically not significant, $\beta = -.12$, t(85) = -1.09, p = .28. The equation does not fit the data well with $R^2 = .01$ which means that 1% of variance in the mixed negotiation behaviour is explained by higher EI.

Table 10: Model Summary^b Higher EI and Mixed NB

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.12ª	.01	.00	.50
a. Predictors: (Constant), High_	EI		

b. Dependent Variable: NB_Mixed

	Table 11: Coefficients ^a Higher EI and Mixed NB							
Unstandardized Coefficients Standardized Coefficients				pefficients				
Model 1	(Constant)	В .59	Std. Error .07	Beta	t 8.27	Sig. .00		
	High_EI	12	.11	12	-1.09	.28		

a. Dependent Variable: NB_Mixed

Next, the association between the mediator combined negotiation behaviour and the outcome variable has to be computed while controlling for the independent variable higher emotional intelligence. Additionally, the control variable Competition is added to the regression. Individuals with one standard deviation increase in higher EI score -.03 standard deviations lower in the negotiation outcome assuming the combined negotiation behaviour is held constant. Furthermore, individuals using a mixed negotiation behaviour score .08 standard deviations higher in the negotiation outcome assuming higher EI is held constant. However, the mediator, controlling for high emotional intelligence, is not a significant predictor with $\beta = .08$, t(84) = .85, p = .40. The t-statistic for higher EI is also not significant with $\beta = -.03$, t(84) = -.32, p = .75. The equation fits the data with $R^2 = .31$ which means that 31% of variance in the negotiation outcome is explained by higher EI and mixed negotiation behaviour.

A Sobel test is performed to test if the indirect effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable through the mediator is significantly different from zero.¹⁴⁹ The test is not indicating a full mediation in the model (z = .85, p = .40), therefore, a combined negotiation behaviour is not mediating the relationship between high emotional intelligence and the negotiation outcome of the negotiation.

Table 12: Model Summary^b Higher EI, Mixed NB and Negotiation Outcome.ModelRR SquareAdjusted R SquareStd. Error of the Estimate1.56^a.31.299.01

a. Predictors: (Constant), NB_Mixed, High_EI, Competition

b. Dependent Variable: Total

Table 13: Coefficients^a Higher EI, Mixed NB and Negotiation Outcome.

		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
Model 1	(Constant)	B 31.26	Std. Error 1.97	Beta	t 15.90	Sig. .00
	Competition	11.80	2.05	.54	5.77	.00
	High_EI	64	1.98	03	32	.75
	NB_Mixed	1.70	1.99	.08	.85	.40

a. Dependent Variable: Total

	Table 14: Sobel Test Results.							
	Input	Test statistics	Std. Error	p-value				
а	.59	.85	1.18	.40				
b	1.70							
sa	.07							
sb	1.99							

¹⁴⁹ See Sobel (1982), p.303.

5.5 Interaction of higher cultural intelligence has a significant effect on the outcome variable

To test the hypothesis that the relationship between higher emotional intelligence and negotiation outcome is positively influenced by the moderation of individuals with higher cultural intelligence, a multiple linear regression analysis is conducted. First, the control variable competition and the two independent variables, high emotional intelligence and high cultural intelligence, are measured in Model 1. These variables account for a significant amount of variance in the negotiation outcome, $R^2 = .33$. This means that 33% of variance in the negotiation outcome, $R^2 = .33$. This means that 33% of variance in the negotiation outcome keeping higher CI constant, $\beta = -.01$, t(84) = -.09, p = .93. Furthermore, every increase in standard deviation of higher CI leads to -.15 standard deviation decrease in the negotiation outcome holding higher EI constant, $\beta = -.15$, t(84) = -1.66, p = .10. However, both variables are not significant.

In Model 2 the interaction term is added to the regression. To prevent potentially high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the independent variables are centred and an interaction term between high emotional intelligence and high cultural intelligence is generated. Afterwards, the interaction term is added to the regression model. The interaction term in Model 2 accounts for a significant proportion of the variance in the negotiation outcome of the negotiation with 38% and has a significant effect on the final score, $\Delta R^2 = .05$, $\Delta F(1,82) = 6.53$, p < .05. Additionally, the interaction term of higher EI and higher CI is influencing the negotiation outcome positively and is statistically significant, $\beta = .39$, t(82) = 2.56, p < .05. Individuals higher on EI and CI score .39 standard deviations higher in the negotiation outcome. This is indicating that there is a significant moderation between higher emotional intelligence and higher cultural intelligence on the negotiation outcome, which means that an interaction effect exists.

To investigate the interaction effect, an interaction plot is designed (*Figure 21*). This plot aids with understanding the presence or absence of the interaction effect among the independent variables (higher EI and higher CI). It can be observed that there is an interaction effect between EI and CI on the negotiation outcome. The negotiation outcome increases positively with the interaction of higher CI and higher EI. However, if an individual possesses higher CI combined with lower EI, a lower negotiation outcome is achieved.

					Change Statistics				
Madal	р	DC	Adjusted R	Std. Error of the	D.S	E Change	161	160	Sig. F
Model 1	R .57ª	R Square .33	Square .30	Estimate 8.91	R Square Change .33	F Change 13.48	3	df2 83	Change .00
2	.61 ^b	.38	.35	8.62	.05	6.53	1	82	.01
							-		

Table 15: Model Summary^c *Higher EI, Higher CI and Negotiation Outcome.*

a. Predictors: (Constant), HighCI_c, HighEI_c, Competition

b. Predictors: (Constant), HighCI_c, HighEI_c, Interaction_HighEI_HighCI, Competition

c. Dependent Variable: Total

	Table	e 16: ANOVA ^a Higher E	I, Higher CI	and Negotiation	Outcome.	
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3206.81	3	1068.94	13.48	.00 ^b
	Residual	6582.48	83	79.31		
	Total	9789.29	86			
2	Regression	3692.41	4	923.10	12.42	.00°
	Residual	6096.88	82	74.35		
	Total	9789.29	86			

a. Dependent Variable: Total

b. Predictors: (Constant), HighCI_c, HighEI_c, Competition

c. Predictors: (Constant), HighCI_c, HighEI_c, Interaction_HighEI_HighCI, Competition

		Unstandar	dized Coefficients	Standardized Co	efficients	
Model 1	(Constant)	В 32.77	Std. Error 1.75	Beta	t 18.68	Sig. .00
	Competition	11.91	1.99	.55	6.00	.00
	HighEI_c	17	1.98	01	09	.93
	HighCI_c	-3.94	2.37	15	-1.66	.10
2	(Constant)	33.71	1.76		19.31	.00
	Competition	11.62	1.93	.53	6.04	.00
	HighEI_c	-2.70	2.16	13	-1.25	.22
	HighCI_c	-10.81	3.54	42	-3.06	.00
	Interaction_HighEI _HighCI	11.86	4.64	.39	2.56	.01

Table 17: Coefficientsa	Lighar FI	Lighar CL and	Nagotiation	Outcomo
I abie 17. Coefficientsa	Inghei Li.		negotiation	Outcome.

a. Dependent Variable: Total



Figure 21: Interaction plot between EI and CI on Negotiation Outcome.

5.6 Higher negotiation and high work experience have different effects on the negotiation outcome

Negotiation experience

To test the hypothesis that the relationship between higher emotional intelligence and negotiation outcome is positively influenced by the moderation of individuals with higher negotiation experience, a multiple linear regression analysis is performed as well. In Model 1, the control variable competition and the two independent variables high emotional intelligence and high negotiation experience, are measured. Here, 37% variance of the negotiation outcome is explained by higher EI and higher negotiation experience $R^2 = .37$, F(3,83) = 16.36, p < .01. The negotiation outcome decreases with one increase in standard deviation of individuals with higher EI holding higher negotiation experience constant, $\beta = ..08$, t(83) = -.88, p = .38. However, this is statistically not significant. Contrary, the negotiation outcome increases with one standard deviation with .26 points for individuals with higher negotiation experience contributes statistically significant to the regression model after the effect of high EI is taken into account. High EI is not contributing significantly to the regression model after high negotiation experience is considered.

To prevent potentially high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the independent variables are centred and an interaction term between high emotional intelligence and high negotiation experience is generated. Afterwards, the interaction term is added to the regression model. The interaction term does not account for a significant proportion of the variance in the negotiation outcome of the negotiation, $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $\Delta F(1,82) = .54$, p = .47, and does not significantly improve the prediction, $\beta = .11$, t(82) = .74, p = .47. This is indicating that no significant interaction effect exists between higher emotional intelligence and higher negotiation experience on the negotiation outcome.

An interaction plot is designed to exhibit the findings of the interaction effect (*Figure 22*). In the plot, it can be observed that there is no significant interaction effect between higher EI and higher negotiation experience on the negotiation outcome.

Table 18: Model Summary^c *Higher EI, Higher Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.*

					Change Statistics				
			Adjusted I	R Std. Error of	Ū.				Sig. F
Model 1	R .61ª	R Square	Square .35	the Estimate 8.61	R Square Change .37	F Change 16.36	df1 3	df2 83	Change .00
2	.61 ^b	.38	.35	8.63	.00	.54	1	82	.47

a. Predictors: (Constant), HighNeg_c, HighEI_c, Competition

b. Predictors: (Constant), HighNeg_c, HighEI_c, Interaction_HighEI_HighNeg, Competition

c. Dependent Variable: Total

Model 1	Regression	Sum of Squares 3637.60	df 3	Mean Square 1212.53	F 16.36	Sig. .00 ^b
	Residual	6151.70	83	74.12		
	Total	9789.29	86			
2	Regression	3677.82	4	919.46	12.34	.00 ^c
	Residual	6111.47	82	74.53		
	Total	9789.29	86			

Table 19: ANOVA^a Higher EI, Higher Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.

a. Dependent Variable: Total

b. Predictors: (Constant), HighNeg_c, HighEI_c, Competition

c. Predictors: (Constant), HighNeg_c, HighEI_c, Interaction_HighEI_HighNeg, Competition

		Unstanda	rdized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients		
Model 1	(Constant)	B 30.45	Std. Error 1.74	Beta	t 17.54	Sig. .00
	Competition	11.92	1.92	.55	6.22	.00
	HighEI_c	-1.66	1.89	08	88	.38
	HighNeg_c	5.73	1.94	.26	2.96	.00
2	(Constant)	30.71	1.78		17.29	.00
	Competition	12.21	1.96	.56	6.22	.00
	HighEI_c	-2.80	2.45	13	-1.14	.26
	HighNeg_c	4.34	2.72	.20	1.60	.11
_	Interaction_HighEI_Hi ghNeg	2.91	3.97	.11	.74	.47

Table 20: Coefficients^a *Higher EI, Higher Negotiation Experience and Negotiation Outcome.*

a. Dependent Variable: Total



Figure 22: Interaction plot between EI and Negotiation Experience on Negotiation Outcome.

Work experience

To test the hypothesis that the relationship between higher emotional intelligence and negotiation outcome is positively influenced by the moderation of individuals with higher work experience, another multiple linear regression analysis is conducted. The two independent variables, high emotional intelligence and high work experience, are measured in Model 1, together with the control variable competition. These variables account for a significant amount of variance in the negotiation outcome, $R^2 = .31$, F(3,83) = 12.48, p <

.01. Work experience increases the negotiation outcome by .08 with every one increase standard deviation in the negotiation outcome, $\beta = .08$, t(83) = .82, p = .42. Higher work experience does not contribute significantly to the regression model after the effect of high EI is taken into account. Furthermore, the negotiation outcome is lower for individuals with higher EI and statistically not significant, $\beta = -.05$, t(83) = -.55, p = .59. Therefore, higher EI is not contributing significantly to the regression model after high work experience is considered.

To prevent potentially high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the independent variables are centred and an interaction term between high emotional intelligence and high work experience is generated. Afterwards, the interaction term is added to the regression model. The interaction term in Model 2 does not account for a significant proportion of the variance in the negotiation outcome of the negotiation, $\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(1,82) = 1.28$, p = .26, and does not significantly improve the prediction $\beta = -.17$, t(82) = -1.13, p = .26. This is indicating that there is no significant interaction effect between higher emotional intelligence and higher work experience on the negotiation outcome.

An interaction plot is designed to illustrate the results of the interaction between the two independent variables (*Figure 23*). In the plot, it can be observed that there is no significant interaction effect between higher EI and higher work experience on the negotiation outcome.

			djusted R Std.		hange Statist	ics			Sig. F
Model 1	R .56ª	R Square S	5	Estimate Ch	hange F	F Change 12.48	df1 3	df2 83	Change .00
2	.57 ^b	.32 .2	29 9.00	.01	1 1	1.28	1	82	.26

Table 21: Model Summary^c *Higher EI, Higher Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.*

a. Predictors: (Constant), HighWork_c, HighEI_c, Competition

b. Predictors: (Constant), HighWork_c, HighEI_c, Interaction_HighEI_HighWork, Competition

c. Dependent Variable: Total

/lodel	Regression	Sum of Squares 3042.47	df 3	Mean Square 1014.16	F 12.48	Sig. .00 ^b
	Residual	6746.82	83	81.29		
	Total	9789.29	86			
	Regression	3146.42	4	786.61	9.71	.00 ^c
	Residual	6642.87	82	81.01		
	Total	9789.29	86			

Table 22: ANOVA^a Higher EI, Higher Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.

a. Dependent Variable: Total

b. Predictors: (Constant), HighWork_c, HighEI_c, Competition

c. Predictors: (Constant), HighWork_c, HighEI_c, Interaction_HighEI_HighWork, Competition

		Unstandardized	Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	5	
Model 1	(Constant)	В 32.02	Std. Error 1.73	Beta	t 18.56	Sig. .00
	Competition	11.72	2.07	.54	5.65	.00
	HighEI_c	-1.08	1.98	05	55	.59
	HighWork_c	2.09	2.55	.08	.82	.42
2	(Constant)	31.60	1.76		17.93	.00
	Competition	11.68	2.07	.53	5.64	.00
	HighEI_c	.03	2.20	.00	.01	.99
	HighWork_c	5.19	3.74	.19	1.39	.17
	Interaction_HighEI_H ghWork	li -5.61	4.95	17	-1.13	.26

Table 23: Coefficients^a Higher EI, Higher Work Experience and Negotiation Outcome.

a. Dependent Variable: Total



Figure 23: Interaction plot between EI and Work Experience on Negotiation Outcome.

6 Discussion

6.1 Revealing skills that are beneficial for a negotiator to possess

This study was conducted to investigate if emotional intelligence, negotiation behaviour, cultural intelligence, and experience have an effect on the negotiation outcome. A quantitative research study was conducted to answer the research question: *What is the effect of a higher level of emotional intelligence on negotiation behaviour and the overall negotiation outcome in a cross-cultural environment?* It attempts to reveal skills a negotiator should possess in order to achieve successful negotiation outcomes and to help negotiators in the future to identify and improve their negotiation skills.

As negotiations can be charged with emotions and reflect how we feel about the negotiation, it was examined if individuals scoring higher on EI attain a higher negotiation outcome.¹⁵⁰ It was expected that these individuals have a better understanding of the needs and feelings of their counterparts, which leads to a higher negotiation outcome. Through adopting a mixed negotiation behaviour, negotiators with higher EI were anticipated to create value through an integrative behaviour and to claim a share of the created value for themselves through distributive behaviour which results in a higher negotiation outcome.

¹⁵⁰ See Kumar (1997), p.97.

Furthermore, in intercultural negotiation settings, a cultural understanding is important to understand and adjust to the behaviour of the counterpart. This is important because organizations and individuals have to deal with an increase in cultural diversity. The effect of CI in negotiations involving multiple cultures is still unexplored. It was expected that cultural intelligence leads to higher negotiation outcomes. Moreover, the negotiation and work experience a negotiator gained in the past was expected to influence the negotiation outcome positively. The purpose was to determine whether the level of work or negotiation experience enhances the negotiation outcome.

Previous studies highlighted that emotions can directly impact the negotiation outcome.¹⁵¹ Furthermore, individuals that possess emotional intelligence understand their counterpart better and have the ability to assess- and, express emotions, and to maintain more personal satisfying relationships which can lead to increased economic value.¹⁵² Negotiators with higher EI create integrative solutions, however, they have difficulties to secure the value they created for themselves.¹⁵³ This study corresponds with the study of Der Foo *et al.* (2004) and revealed that individuals scoring higher on emotional intelligence have no significant effect on the negotiation outcome and, therefore, negotiators scoring higher on EI is not a good predictor for the outcome variable. These results indicate that individuals scoring higher on EI are having problems in claiming value for themselves, therefore, their negotiation outcome is not significantly influenced by higher EI. Overall, the aforementioned studies confirm that it is beneficial to possess higher EI for building relationships, to create integrative solutions, and to achieve mutual beneficial negotiation outcomes.

Due to that, it was investigated if individuals with higher EI that use a combination of integrative and distributive negotiation behaviours score better in the negotiation outcome. The effectiveness of negotiation is relying on the capabilities of both negotiating parties to combine both integrative and distributive behaviours in order to be most effective in securing their share of the value on the table.¹⁵⁴ It was expected that individuals with higher EI apply a mixed negotiation behaviour to achieve better results in the negotiation outcome. However, the combined negotiation behaviour was not significantly mediating the relationship

¹⁵¹ See Barry, Van Kleef & Fulmer (2004), p.83.

¹⁵² See Mayer, DiPaolo & Salovey (1990), p.778; Law, Wong & Song (2004), p.486; Gelfand *et al.* (2006), p. 431,441-442.

¹⁵³ See Der Foo *et al.* (2004), p.414-415,423.

¹⁵⁴ See Kumar (1997), p.87-88; Brett *et al.* (1998), p.80; Craver (2003), p.4; Sigurdardottir, Candi & Kesting (2019), p.24.

between high emotional intelligence and the negotiation outcome in this study. It indicates that negotiators with higher EI did not apply a mixed negotiation behaviour, and also that the mixed behaviour did not have an influence on the negotiation outcome.

Cultures can have a substantial role in business negotiations and, therefore, another focus was set on negotiators that possess higher cultural intelligence. Negotiators with CI have the ability to adjust their behaviour to an intercultural setting. However, if negotiators adjust their behaviour too much towards the culture of their counterparts, it might come over insincerely, whereas a mild adjustment of the culture leads to a positive effect.¹⁵⁵ This study expected that higher CI positively affects cross-cultural negotiations and the negotiation outcome. The two international negotiation competitions gave the opportunity to investigate 27 different nationalities negotiating with each other. Through the culturally diverse negotiation environment, it was expected that CI facilitates the negotiation outcome. This study found that the interaction of higher EI and higher CI negotiators is indeed having a statistically significant positive effect on the negotiation outcome. CI alone has no significant effect on the negotiation outcome. In point of fact, negotiators with higher CI combined with lower EI score lower on the negotiation outcome. This indicates that it is beneficial if a negotiator has the ability to apply both cultural and emotional knowledge during a negotiation. Thus, the increased understanding and awareness of one's own emotions, and that of others, in addition to understanding and acting accordingly to the counterpart's culture can lead to an increase in negotiation outcome.

As discussed previously, literature is debating whether experience has an impact on the negotiation outcome. This study measured experience based on work and negotiation experience that was gained by the individual in the past. It is claimed that negotiation experience enhances the performance and outcome of a negotiation through the knowledge and experience gained during past negotiations.¹⁵⁶ This study supports that higher negotiation experience leads to increased negotiation outcomes. However, the interaction effect of negotiation experience and higher EI is not significant and indicates that higher EI and negotiations acquired, the more opportunities they had to practice and to understand how to conduct negotiations in the best way to achieve better outcomes. It can be assumed that negotiators recognize the same pattern in negotiations, and apply what they

¹⁵⁵ See Francis (1991), p.422.

¹⁵⁶ See Neale & Northcraft (1986), p.316; Montgomery & Benedict (1989), p.391; Thompson, Gentner & Loewenstein (2000), p.70; Ghauri (2003), p.6.

have learned from previous negotiations to new circumstances. The findings of this study prove that negotiators with negotiation expertise achieve better negotiation outcomes. This can be due to having the experience of knowing what strategies can lead to better outcomes and to apply these skills from one situation to another. Therefore, it can be beneficial to receive negotiation training to learn about the different negotiation behaviours and influential factors to prevent difficulties that would lead to poor negotiation outcomes.

Nevertheless, this study does not confirm that higher work experience positively influences the negotiation outcome. Higher EI and work experience show no significant interaction effect on the negotiation outcome. It was expected that work experience can enhance the negotiation outcome due to the knowledge and experience gained throughout the career. For instance, individuals are exposed to deal with and understand customers or colleagues at work, deal with conflicts, work under pressure, or have to come up with creative solutions in certain situations. However, individuals of both competitions have different work backgrounds and did not necessarily gain work experience relevant for negotiations. Therefore, the work experience an individual gained is not influencing the negotiation outcome.

7 Conclusion

7.1 Cross-cultural intelligence moderates between emotional intelligence of the negotiator and the negotiation outcome

In conclusion, the findings of this study indicate that a higher EI of negotiators does not necessarily directly influence their negotiation outcome. Negotiators with higher EI do not tend to apply a mixed negotiation behaviour and the mixed behaviour is also not significantly influencing the negotiation outcome. However, individuals with a higher understanding of CI in combination with higher EI influence the negotiation outcome positively and are, therewith, beneficial skills to possess for a negotiator. Additionally, negotiation experience affects the negotiation outcome positively irrespective of a higher EI. Nevertheless, work experience does not influence the negotiation outcome. Based on this result, it can be deduced that experienced negotiators perform better in negotiation and, hence, it is valuable to increase the level of experience through training and practical application. A graphical representation of the findings is shown in *Figure 24*.



Figure 24: Graphical representation of findings.

8 Limitations & Future Directions

8.1 Data collection was limited due to restrictions of competitions

This research was performed to investigate which skills a negotiator requires to increase the negotiation outcome within cross-cultural negotiations. It provides insight to companies in order to select the appropriate candidates to perform better in future cross-cultural negotiations. Companies can use the findings of this study to provide their employees with the appropriate training to foster their skills.

Data were collected at two international negotiation competitions where participants were required to possess adequate knowledge and training in the field of negotiation. Therefore, the participants of this study are expected to have sufficient negotiation experience. Furthermore, the validity of this research is increased by collecting data at two different locations with participants from around the world.

Due to restrictions of the competitions and technical limitations, data collection was limited and triangulation could not be performed sufficiently. Triangulation refers to applying a variety of methods to collect data to assure the validity of this research.¹⁵⁷ Researchers were restricted in collecting data based on team members evaluation, for instance, the level of EI of their team members which would have facilitated triangulation

¹⁵⁷ See Denzin (1978), p.28.

and validity of the data. This increases the risk of perception bias through the possibility of individuals having a wrong perception of their level of EI. Nevertheless, self-assessment is a beneficial measure for gaining insight into the individual negotiator's perception. Furthermore, researchers were allowed to collect data in one round of the negotiation where the individual participant negotiated against two individuals from two other teams.

The negotiation behaviour was measured in only one negotiation round. It is assumed that the behaviour changes in another round due to a new negotiation plot. The level of EI, CI, or experience would not change throughout the rounds. It is therefore recommended that the negotiation behaviour should be measured after each round. However, the negotiation behaviour was measured during a negotiation plot where the negotiator had to apply a mixed negotiation behaviour. This gives the advantage of measuring integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour together.

Furthermore, the final score of the participant is based on the team performance throughout all rounds of the competition. Since this study was measuring the negotiation behaviour in a round where the individual team members had to negotiate alone, a bias might arise. Therefore, it is recommended to collect data from all rounds in order to depict a more comprehensive negotiation behaviour.

For future research, a mixed research setup is recommended to ensure the correctness of the responses collected through surveys by observing participants during the negotiation or by video recording them. Furthermore, team members should be asked to evaluate their perception of the other members EI to ensure validity and to reduce response bias. Additionally, triangulation is necessary to consider in future research to ensure that individuals applied the negotiation strategy that they indicated in the survey. There is the risk that individuals had a wrong perception of what they did which could explain why the test results of the negotiation behaviour are statistically not significant.

This study is based on students and professionals that decided to obtain an MBA degree. The competitions took place in a competitive environment since it is assumed that each team wanted to be the best team. This provides great circumstances to collect data. However, future research should consider collecting data with companies to test whether the regression models from this study are reproducible. Additionally, it could be tested with a two-sample longitudinal study if the suggested training leads to better deals and increased turnover for a company. One sample group could receive training on multiple topics to improve cultural, emotional, communication, and negotiation skills, whereas the control group would not receive any training.

Another aspect is that the negotiation outcome was measured on the final score the participants achieved at the end of the competitions and the judge's evaluation, which increases the validity of this study. Future research could measure the satisfaction of the counterpart and include the relationship factor to receive a more detailed outcome variable that displays, in more detail, which negotiation behaviours are more adequate to foster the negotiation outcome. Furthermore, future research could investigate to what extent integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour should be mixed to achieve better negotiation outcomes.

References

- Adair, W. L., Okumura, T., & Brett, J. M. (2001). Negotiation Behavior When Cultures Collide: The United States and Japan. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 86(3), 371-385.
- Adler, N. J., & Graham, J. L. (1989). Cross-cultural interaction: the international comparison fallacy?. *Journal of international business studies*, 20(3), 515-537.
- Aguinis, H., Beaty, J. C., Boik, R. J., & Pierce, C. A. (2005). Effect size and power in assessing moderating effects of categorical variables using multiple regression: a 30year review. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(1), 94-107
- 4. Aiken, L. S., & West, S. G. (1991). Multiple regression: Testing and interpreting interactions. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.
- 5. Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C. K. S., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., (2007). The measurement of cultural intelligence: Effects on cultural judgment and decision-making, cultural adaptation, and task performance. *Management and Organization Review*, 3, 335–371.
- Averill, J. R. (1980). A constructivist view of emotion. In Theories of emotion (pp. 305-339). Academic Press.
- Babcock, L., & Laschever, S. (2003). Women don't ask: Negotiation and the gender divide. Princeton, N.J: Princeton University Press.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173.
- 9. Barry, B., & Friedman, R. A. (1998). Bargainer characteristics in distributive and integrative negotiation. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, *74*(2), 345-359.
- 10. Barry, B., Fulmer, I. S., & Van Kleef, G. A. (2004). I laughed, I cried, I settled: The role of emotion in negotiation. The handbook of negotiation and culture, 71-94.
- Barry, B. (1999). The tactical use of emotion in negotiation. In R. J. Bies, R. J. Lewicki, and B. H. Sheppard (eds.), Research on negotiation in organizations, Stamford, Conn.: JAI Press Vol. 7, 93-124.
- 12. Bazerman, M. H., Curhan, J. R., Moore, D. A., & Valley, K. L. (2000). Negotiation. Annual review of psychology, 51(1), 279-314.

- 13. Bland, J. M., & Altman, D. G. (1997). Statistics notes: Cronbach's alpha. *Bmj*, *314*(7080), 572.
- 14. Bonner, S. E., & Lewis, B. L. (1990). Determinants of auditor expertise. *Journal of accounting research*, 28, 1-20.
- 15. Brett, J., Shapiro, D. L., & Lytle, A. L. (1998). Breaking the bonds of reciprocity in negotiations. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*(*4*), 410-424.
- 16. Brett, J. M., Adair, W., Lempereur, A., Okumura, T., Shikhirev, P., Tinsley, C., & Lytle, A. (1998). Culture and joint gains in negotiation. *Negotiation Journal*, 14(1), 61-86.
- 17. Brett, J. M., & Okumura, T. (1998). Inter-and intracultural negotiation: US and Japanese negotiators. *Academy of Management Journal*, *41*(5), 495-510.
- Brown, H. L., & Wright, A. M. (2008). Negotiation research in auditing. Accounting Horizons, 22(1), 91-109.
- Buck, S. F. (1960). A method of estimation of missing values in multivariate data suitable for use with an electronic computer. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series B (Methodological), 22(2), 302-306.*
- Campagna, R. L., Mislin, A. A., Kong, D. T. & Bottom, W. P. (2016). Strategic consequences of emotional misrepresentation in negotiation: The blowback effect. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 101(5), 605-624.
- 21. Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences (Second Edition). Hillsdale, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- 22. Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S. G., & Aiken, L. S. (2003). Applied multiple regression/correlation analysis for the behavioral sciences (3rd ed.). Mahwah, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- 23. **Craver, C. (2003**). "Negotiation styles. The impact of bargaining transactions", *Dispute resolution journal, Vol. 58 No. 1,* pp. 48-56.
- 24. Danciu, V. (2010). The Impact of the Culture on the International Negociations : An Analysis Based on Contextual Comparaisons. *Theoretical and Applied Economics Volume XVII*, No. 8(549), pp. 87-102
- Denzin, N. K. (1978). Sociological methods: A sourcebook (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw Hill.

- 26. Der Foo, M., Anger Elfenbein, H., Hoon Tan, H., & Chuan Aik, V. (2004). "Emotional Intelligence and Negotiation: The Tension between Creating and Claiming Value." *International Journal of Conflict Management* 15(4): 411-429.
- 27. Do Prado, L. S., & Martinelli, D. P. (2018). Analysis of negotiation strategies between buyers and sellers: an applied study on crop protection products distribution. RAUSP Management Journal, 53(2), 225-240.
- Early, P.C. and Ang, S. (2003). Cultural Intelligence: Individual Interactions across Culture. Stanford Business Books, Stanford.
- 29. Faul, F., Erdfelder, E., Lang, A. G., & Buchner, A. (2007). G* Power 3: A flexible statistical power analysis program for the social, behavioral, and biomedical sciences. *Behavior research methods*, 39(2), 175-191.
- Fells, S., Rogers, H., Prows, P., & Ott, U. F. (2015). Unraveling business negotiations using practitioner data. *Negotiation and Conflict Management Research*, 8 (2), 119-136.
- 31. Fisher, R., Patton, B., & Ury, W. (2011). Getting to yes: Negotiating agreement without giving in (Rev. ed.). New York: Penguin Books.
- 32. Fisher, R., & Ury, W. (1981). Getting to yes: Negotiating agreement without giving in. Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- 33. **Francis, J. N. (1991).** When in Rome? The effects of cultural adaptation on intercultural business negotiations. *Journal of International Business Studies*, *22(3)*, 403-428.
- 34. Frazier, P. A., Tix, A. P., & Barron, K. E. (2004). Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology research. *Journal of counseling psychology*, 51(1), 115.
- 35. Froman Jr, L. A., & Cohen, M. D. (1970). Compromise and logroll: Comparing the efficiency of two bargaining processes. *Behavioral Science*, *15*(2), 180-183.
- 36. Fulmer, I. S., & Barry, B. (2004). The Smart Negotiator: Cognitive Ability And Emotional Intelligence in Negotiation. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(3), 245-272.
- Fulmer, I. S., Barry, B., & Long, D. A. (2009). Lying and smiling: Informational and emotional deception in negotiation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 88(4), 691-709.
- Ghauri, P.N., (2003). Introduction. In: Ghauri, P.N., Usunier, J.-C. (Eds.), International Business Negotiation, 2nd ed. Pergamon, Oxford, pp. 3–20.

- 39. Gelfand, M. J., Major, V. S., Raver, J. L., Nishii, L. H., & O'Brien, K. (2006). Negotiating relationally: The dynamics of the relational self in negotiations. *Academy of Management Review*, 31(2), 427-451.
- 40. Hatfield, R. C., Houston, R. W., Stefaniak, C. M., & Usrey, S. (2010). The effect of magnitude of audit difference and prior client concessions on negotiations of proposed adjustments. *The Accounting Review*, 85(5), 1647-1668.
- 41. Hewstone, M., Rubin, M., & Willis, H. (2002). Intergroup bias. Annual review of psychology, 53(1), 575-604.
- 42. **Imai, L. and M. J. Gelfand (2010).** "The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes." *Organizational Behavior and* Human Decision Processes 112(2): 83-98.
- 43. Judd, C. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1981). Process analysis: Estimating mediation in treatment evaluations. *Evaluation review*, *5*(*5*), 602-619.
- 44. Kern, M., Brett, J. and Weingart, L. (2005). "Getting the floor: motive-consistent strategy and individual outcomes in multi-party negotiations", *Group Decision and Negotiation, Vol. 14 No. 1,* pp. 21-41.
- 45. Kray, L. J., & Thompson, L. (2005). Gender stereotypes and negotiation performance: An examination of theory and research. In B. M. Staw & R. M. Kramer (Eds.). *Research in organizational behavior: An annual series of analytical essays and critical reviews, Vol. 26, pp. 103-182*).
- 46. **Kumar, R. (1997).** The role of affect in negotiations: An integrative overview. The *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, *33(1)*, 84-100.
- 47. Kumar, R., & Worm, V. (2004). Institutional dynamics and the negotiation process: comparing India and China. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 15(3), 304-334.
- 48. Law, K. S., Wong, C. S., & 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), 483.
- Lewicki, R. J., & Robinson, R. J. (1998). Ethical and unethical bargaining tactics: An empirical study. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17(6), 665-682.
- 50. Loewenstein, J., Thompson, L., & Gentner, D. (1999). Analogical encoding facilitates knowledge transfer in negotiation. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, *6*(4), 586-597.

- 51. Lügger, K., Geiger, I., Neun, H., & Backhaus, K. (2015). When East meets West at the bargaining table: Adaptation, behavior and outcomes in intra-and intercultural German–Chinese business negotiations. *Journal of Business Economics*, 85(1), 15-43.
- 52. Malhotra, D., & Bazerman, M. H. (2007). Negotiation genius: How to overcome obstacles and achieve brilliant results at the bargaining table and beyond. New York: Bantam Dell.
- 53. Mayer, J. D., DiPaolo, M., & Salovey, P. (1990). Perceiving affective content in ambiguous visual stimuli: A component of emotional intelligence. *Journal of personality assessment*, 54(3-4), 772-781.
- 54. Mayer, J. D., & Salovey, P. (1997). What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D.
 J. Sluyter (Eds.), Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Educational implications (pp. 3-34). New York: Harper Collins.
- 55. Mayer, J. D., Salovey, P., & Caruso, D. R. (2004). Emotional intelligence: Theory, findings, and implications. *Psychological Inquiry*, 15, 197-215.
- 56. Montgomery, E., & Benedict, M. E. (1989). The impact of bargainer experience on teacher strikes. *ILR Review*, 42(3), 380-392.
- 57. Mueller, J. S., & Curhan, J. R. (2006). Emotional intelligence and counterpart mood induction in a negotiation. *International journal of conflict management*, 17(2), 110-128.
- 58. Nadler, J., Thompson, L., & Boven, L. V. (2003). Learning negotiation skills: Four models of knowledge creation and transfer. *Management Science*, 49(4), 529-540.
- 59. Neale, M. A., & Northcraft, G. B. (1986). Experts, amateurs, and refrigerators: Comparing expert and amateur negotiators in a novel task. *Organizational Behavior* and Human Decision Processes, 38(3), 305-317.
- 60. **O'Brien, R. M. (2007).** A caution regarding rules of thumb for variance inflation factors. *Quality & quantity*, 41(5), 673-690.
- 61. O'Connor, K. M., Arnold, J. A., & Burris, E. R. (2005). Negotiators' bargaining histories and their effects on future negotiation performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(2), 350.
- 62. Olekalns, M., Smith, P. L., & Walsh, T. (1996). The process of negotiating: Strategy and timing as predictors of outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 68(1), 68-77.

- 63. Olekalns, M., & Smith, P. L. (2000). Understanding optimal outcomes. The role of strategy sequences in competitive negotiations. *Human Communication Research*, 26(4), 527-557.
- 64. Oliver, R. L., Balakrishnan, P. S., & Barry, B. (1994). Outcome satisfaction in negotiation: A test of expectancy disconfirmation. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 60(2), 252-275.
- 65. Osborne, J., & Waters, E. (2002). Four assumptions of multiple regression that researchers should always test. *Practical assessment, research & evaluation*, 8(2), 1-9.
- 66. **Parrott, W. G. (2001).** Emotions in social psychology: Essential readings. *Psychology Press.*
- 67. **Pigott, T. D. (2009).** Handling missing data. The handbook of research synthesis and meta-analysis, 2, 399-416.
- 68. Pinkley, R. L., Neale, M. A., & Bennett, R. J. (1994). The impact of alternatives to settlement in dyadic negotiation. Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 57, 97–116.
- 69. Poole, M. and O'Farrell, P. (1970). The Assumptions of the Linear Regression Model, 145-145.
- 70. Preacher, K. J., & Hayes, A. F. (2004). SPSS and SAS procedures for estimating indirect effects in simple mediation models. *Behavior research methods*, *instruments*, & computers, 36(4), 717-731.
- 71. Preuss, M., & van der Wijst, P. (2017). A phase-specific analysis of negotiation styles. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 32(4), 505-518.
- 72. Rahim, M. A. (2001). Managing conflict in organizations (3rd Ed.). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.
- 73. **Raiffa, H. (1982).** The art and science of negotiation. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Pres
- 74. Ramsay, J. (2004). "Serendipity and the realpolitik of negotiations in supply chains", Supply Chain Management: An International Journal, Vol. 9 Issue: 3, pp.219-229.
- 75. Rees, L., & Kopelman, S. (2019). Logics and Logistics for Future Research: Appropriately Interpreting the Emotional Landscape of Multicultural Negotiation. Negotiation and Conflict Management Research, 12(2), 131-145.

- 76. Robinson, R., Lewicki, R., & Donahue, E. (2000). Extending and Testing a Five Factor Model of Ethical and Unethical Bargaining Tactics: Introducing the SINS Scale. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(6), 649-664.
- 77. **Salacuse, J.W. (1991).** Making Global Deal Negotiating in the International Market Place, Boston: Houghton Mifflin.
- 78. Saorín-Iborra, M. C., & Cubillo, G. (2019). Supplier behavior and its impact on customer satisfaction: a new characterization of negotiation behavior. *Journal of Purchasing and Supply Management*, 25(1), 53-68.
- 79. Saorín-Iborra, M. Carmen (2007). Negotiation behaviour. Dichotomy or continuum?. *EsicMarket*, 129, pp. 125-152.
- 80. Schwertman, N. C., Owens, M. A., & Adnan, R. (2004). A simple more general boxplot method for identifying outliers. *Computational statistics & data analysis*, 47(1), 165-174.
- Sharland, A. (2001). "The negotiation process as a predictor of relationship outcomes in international buyer-supplier arrangements." *Industrial Marketing Management*, 30 (7), 551–559.
- 82. Sharma, S., Bottom, W. P., & Elfenbein, H. A. (2013). On the role of personality, cognitive ability, and emotional intelligence in predicting negotiation outcomes: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 3(4), 293–336.
- 83. Sigurdardottir, A. G., Ujwary-Gil, A., & Candi, M. (2018). B2B negotiation tactics in creative sectors. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*, 33(4), 429-441.
- 84. Sigurdardottir, A. G., Candi, M. & Kesting, P. (2019). Integrative and Distributive Negotiation Tactics and Risk Propensity in B2B Settings.
- 85. Sobel, M. E. (1982). Asymptotic confidence intervals for indirect effects in structural equation models. *Sociological methodology*, *13*, 290-312.
- 86. Tavakol, M., & Dennick, R. (2011). Making sense of Cronbach's alpha. *International journal of medical education*, 2, 53-55.
- 87. **The Negotiation Challenge. (2019, January 31).** *Regulations*. Retrieved from The Negotiation Challenge: https://thenegotiationchallenge.org/regulations/
- Thompson, L. (1990). The influence of experience on negotiation performance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 26(6), 528-544.
- 89. Thompson, L. (1990). Negotiation behavior and outcomes: Empirical evidence and theoretical issues. *Psychological bulletin*, 108(3), 515.

- 90. **Thompson, L. (2001).** The mind and heart of the negotiator. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall
- 91. Thompson, L., Gentner, D., & Loewenstein, J. (2000). Avoiding missed opportunities in managerial life: Analogical training more powerful than individual case training. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 82(1), 60-75.
- 92. Thompson, L. L., Nadler, J., & Kim, P. H. (1999). Some like it hot: The case for the emotional negotiator. In L. L. Thompson, J. M. Levine, & D. M. Messick (Eds.), *LEA's organization and management series. Shared cognition in organizations: The management of knowledge* (pp. 139-161). Mahwah, NJ, US: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.
- 93. Thomas, S. P., Thomas, R. W., Manrodt, K. B. and Rutner, S. M. (2013). An Experimental Test of Negotiation Strategy Effects on Knowledge Sharing Intentions in Buyer–Supplier Relationships. *Journal of Supply Chain Management*, 49: 96-113.
- 94. Van Kleef, G. A., De Dreu, C. K. W., Pietroni, D., & Manstead, A. S. R. (2006). Power and emotion in negotiation: Power moderates the interpersonal effects of anger and happiness on concession making. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 36(4), 557-581.
- 95. Volkema, R. J. (1998). A comparison of perceptions of ethical negotiation behavior in Mexico and the United States. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 9(3), 218-233.
- 96. Volkema, R. J. (2004). Demographic, cultural, and economic predictors of perceived ethicality of negotiation behavior: A nine-country analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 57(1), 69-78.
- 97. Volkema, R. J., & Fleury, M. T. L. (2002). Alternative negotiating conditions and the choice of negotiation tactics: A cross-cultural comparison. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 36(4), 381-398.
- 98. Walton, R. E., & McKersie, R. B. (1991). A behavioral theory of labor negotiations: An analysis of a social interaction system. Cornell University Press.
- 99. Warsaw Negotiation Round. (2019, May 22). The Regulations of the Warsaw Negotiation Round. Retrieved from warsawnegotiationround: http://warsawnegotiationround.com

- 100. Weingart, L. R., Thompson, L. L., Bazerman, M. H., & Carroll, J. S. (1990). Tactical behavior and negotiation outcomes. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 1(1), 7-31.
- 101. Weiss, S. E. (1994). Negotiating with" Romans"-part 1. *Sloan Management Review*, 35, 51-51.
- Wilderom, C. P. M., Hur, Y., Wiersma, U. J., den Berg, P. T. V., and Lee, J. (2015). From manager's emotional intelligence to objective store performance: Through store cohesiveness and sales-directed employee behavior. J. Organiz. Behav., 36: 825–844.
- 103. Wong, C. S., Law, K. S. (2002). The effects of leader and follower emotional intelligence on performance and attitude: An exploratory study. *Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 243-274.
- 104. Zachariassen, F. (2008). Negotiation strategies in Supply Chain Management. International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management, 38(10), 764-781.
- 105. Zetik, D. C., & Stuhlmacher, A. F. (2002). Goal setting and negotiation performance: A meta-analysis. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 5(1), 35-52.

Appendices

Appendix A - General Questions

Name:	University:
Nationality:	Opponent University:
Gender:	Age:
Highest Completed Education & Field:	-
Total estimated time of prior negotiation expe	erience in hours (e.g. training, reading, practices):
	Months of Work Experience:

Appendix B - Questionnaire Negotiation Behavior

The questions were taken from a study by Saorín-Iborraa & Cubillo (2018), measuring integrative and distributive negotiation behaviour.

We ask you to recall the previous negotiation round against the opposite team and to reflect on your experience during the negotiation. Please indicate on the scale your level of satisfaction by marking the field that best matches your response.

			Free	quency of us	age		
Tactics	Never	Low	Medium-	Medium	Medium-	High	Very
			Low		High		High
1. Intentionally misrepresent factual information to your							
opponent when you know that he/she has already done							
this to you.							
2. Intentionally misrepresent factual information to your							
opponent in order to support your negotiating							
arguments or position.							
3. Gain information about an opponent's negotiating							
position and strategy by "asking around" in a network							
of your friends, associates, and contacts.							
4. Make an opening demand that is far greater than							
what one really hopes to settle for. 5. Hide your real bottom line from your opponent.							
5. Hide your real bottom line from your opponent.							
6. Convey a false impression that you are in absolutely							
no hurry to come to a negotiation agreement, thereby							
trying to put more time pressure on your opponent to							
concede quickly.							
7. Make an opening offer or demand so high (or low)							
that it seriously undermines your opponent's confidence							
in his/her own ability to negotiate a satisfactory							
settlement.							
8. Lead the other negotiator to believe that they can							
only get what they want by negotiating with you, when							
in fact they could go elsewhere and get what they want							
cheaper or faster.							
Promise that good things will happen to your							
opponent if he/she gives you what you want, even if							
you know that you can't (or won't) deliver those good							
things when the other's cooperation is obtained.							
10. Threaten to harm your opponent if he/she doesn't							
give you what you want, even if you know you will							
never follow through to carry out that threat.							
11. Talk directly to the people who your opponent							
reports to, or is accountable to, and try to encourage							
them to defect your side.							

12. Threaten to make your opponent look weak or foolish in front of a boss or others to whom he/she is accountable. 13. Talk directly to the people who your opponent reports to, or is accountable to, and tell them things that will undermine their confidence in your opponent as negotiator. 14. Gain information about an opponent's negotiating position by paying friends, associates, and contacts to get this information for you. 15. Gain information about an opponent's negotiating position by cultivating his/her friendship through expensive gifts, entertaining, or "personal favors". 16. Ensure understanding of the counterpart's needs. 17. Seek mutual satisfaction of negotiators. 18. Ensure a positive and productive personal relationship. 19. Free flow of information among negotiators. 20. Trust the position and information of other negotiators. 21. Participation of all parties in the decision making process 22. Questions (statement in which you asked the counterpart to reveal information about themselves). 23. Explanations (statement in which you reveal information about any point required by the counterpart). 24. Self- Disclosures (statement in which you revealed information about yourself).

Appendix C - Questionnaire Emotional Intelligence

These questions stem from Wong & Law (2002) and measure EI based on SEA, UOE, ROE, and OEA.

	Not likely						Extremely
	at all						likely
Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I have a good sense of why I have certain feelings most of the time.							
2. I have good understanding of my own emotions.							
3. I really understand what I feel.							
4. I always know whether or not I am happy.							
5. I always know my friends' emotions from their behavior.							
6. I am a good observer of others' emotions.							
7. I am sensitive to the feelings and emotions of others.							
8. I have good understanding of the emotions of people around me.							
9. I always set goals for myself and then try my best to achieve them.							
10. I always tell myself I am a competent person.							
11. I am a self-motivated person.							
12. I would always encourage myself to try my best.							
13. I am able to control my temper and handle difficulties rationally.							
14. I am quite capable of controlling my own emotions.							
15. I can always calm down quickly when I am very angry.							
16. I have good control of my own emotions.							

Appendix D - Questionnaire Cultural Intelligence

These questions were taken from Ang *et al.* (2007) and measure cultural intelligence based on Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ, and Behavioral CQ questions.

Ouestions	Not likely at all						Extremely likely
Questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting							
with people with different cultural backgrounds.							
2. I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural							
interactions.							
3. I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a							
culture that is unfamiliar to me.							
4. I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with							
people from different cultures.							
5. I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.							
6. I know the religious beliefs of other cultures.							
7. I know the marriage systems of other cultures.							
8. I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.							
9. I know the rules (e.g., grammar) of other languages.							
10. I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other							
cultures.							
11. I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.							
12. I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.							
13. I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is							
unfamiliar to me.							
14. I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions							
in a different culture.							
15. I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that							
is new to me.							
16. I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-							
cultural interaction requires it.							
17. I change my non-verbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation							
requires it.							
18. I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural							
situations.							
19. I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation							
requires it.							
20. I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction							
requires it.							

Appendix E - Judge's Evaluation Criteria

Left out due to confidential reasons.