T.C.
ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

THE ROLE OF EMOTION IN DECISION- MAKING FOR EMPLOYEE SELECTION

M.Sc. THESIS

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Department of Business

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Thesis Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Çiğdem ÖZARI

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İSTANBUL AYDIN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜ

Yüksek Lisans Tez Onay Belgesi

Enstitümüz İşletme İngilizce Ana Bilim Dalı İşletme Yönetimi İngilizce Yüksek Lisans Programı **Y1512.130062** numaralı öğrencisi **Hanoon Ja Far Kamel DWEK**'in **"THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS FOR EMPLOYEE SELECTION IN DECISION MAKING PROCESS: RESEARCH IN IAU"** adlı tez çalışması Enstitümüz Yönetim Kurulunun 28.06.2017 tarih ve 2017/14 sayılı kararıyla oluşturulan jüri tarafından oybirliği ile Tezli Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul...edilmiştir.

Öğretim Üyesi Adı Soyadı	İmzası
Tez Savunma Tarihi :03/03/2016	
1)Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Çiğdem ÖZARI	
2) Jüri Üyesi : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Murat OCAK	
3) Jüri Üyesi : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gökberk CAN	

Not: Öğrencinin Tez savunmasında **Başarılı** olması halinde bu form **imzalanacaktır**. Aksi halde geçersizdir.

{وَقُل رَّبِّ زِدْنِي عِلْمًا}

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DEDICATION

I would like to take this opportunity to dedicate this research to my beloved parents who supported me in all of my moments and always encouraged me to reach what I have reached until this moment.

To my beloved sisters and brothers for their permanent support.

To all of my friends who encouraged me finishing this work.

I dedicate this work to all of you and hope it will be beneficial for all communities.

FOREWORD

I would first like to express my gratitude to Allah for giving me the strength, patience, and courage to complete this study.

My parents, brothers, and sisters, many thanks for them for their spiritual support and courage throughout achieving this work.

If you ask me about the meaning of luck, I will say that having a supervisor like Dr. Çiğdem Özarı will make you a lucky student. Special thanks and appreciation go to her for her permanent support, advices, direction, and feedback she provided for me. Also for allowing this paper to be my own work, but put me always in the right direction whenever I needed.

Also, I am especially thankful for managers of Istanbul Aydin University (IAU) for their participation in my survey that was helpful for my study because they helped me get high-quality results.

I would also not forget to acknowledge my professors, doctors, and the teaching staff at the Department of Social Sciences. For all of them, I extend my deepest appreciation and gratitude.

Last, but not least many thanks go to my friends and colleagues in Istanbul city and also in my country "Palestine" for supporting me during my working on this study.

June 2017 **Haneen Ja'far DWEK**

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ABBREVIATIONS

AET **:** Affective Events Theory
DM **:** Decision Making
IAU **:** Istanbul Aydin University
KSAOs **:** Knowledge, Skills, Abilities, and Other Characteristics

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ÇALIŞAN SEÇİMİ İÇİN KARAR VERME SÜRECİNDE DUYGULARIN ROLÜ

ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, duyguların IAU karar vericileri üzerindeki rolünü ve bu duyguların, üniversitenin akademik personelini seçme ve örgütsel hedeflere ulaşma konusunda etkili karar verme yeteneklerini nasıl etkilediğini belirlemeyi amaçlıyoruz. Etkili karar vermede ihtiyaç duyulan farklı değişkenleri ve yeterlikleri belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, bu ölçeklerin IAU'deki yöneticilerin karar verme stilleri ve davranışları üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektedir. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda katılımcıların kişisel ve mesleki özelliklerini "cinsiyet, yaş, akademik nitelikler ve yılların deneyimi" dikkate alarak burada oluşan farklılıkları belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Mevcut çalışma, duyguları ölçmek için kullanılan ve bu araştırmanın amacına uyacak şekilde değiştirilen "Emotion Regulation Questionnaire" gibi uluslararası kabul görmüş ölçüm araçlarını uyarlanmıştır. Çalışmada tercih edilen ölçekler: duygusal tepkilerin kabul edilmemesi, hedefe yönelik davranışlarda bulunmanın zorluğu, kontrol güçlükleri, duygusal farkındalık, duygu düzenleme stratejilerine erişim ve duygusal netlik. Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, karar vericilerin duyguları ile karar verme tarzları arasındaki anlamlı ilişkinin varlığı ile ilgili hipotezli ilişkileri desteklemektedir. İlişki duygu alanının tüm ölçekleri ve alt ölçeklerinde var olduğu kanıtlanmıştır. Duygular ile karar verme biçimi arasında önemli derecede negatif bir ilişki olduğu sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır. Sonuçlar aynı zamanda, katılımcıların kişisel ve mesleki özelliklerine cinsiyet, yaş, akademik nitelikler ve deneyim yılı olarak atfedilen önemli bir farklılığın olmadığını göstermiştir.

Bu çalışma ayrıca personel seçimi için gri ilişkisel analiz uygulaması ve gelecek araştırmalar için bu alanda analiz uygulamalarının yapılabileceğini göstermeyi hedeflemektedir. Öneriler arasında, iş yerindeki duygusal bağlamın farkındalığının arttırılması ve karar verme sürecindeki önemi ve uygulaması yer almaktadır. Aynı zamanda, alternatifler arasında iyiden kötüye sıralamak için gri ilişkisel analiz yönteminin nasıl göz önüne alıp uygulayacağına ilişkin karar vericiler için uygun eğitim programlarının tasarlanmasını ve uygulanmasını önerir. Araştırma ayrıca, duyguların seviyesini ölçmek için araçlar geliştirmeyi ve kişisel becerileri değerlendirerek bunları potansiyel karar vericilere dâhil etmeyi önermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Duygu, Karar Alma, Gri İlişkisel Analiz, Personel Seçimi.*

THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS IN DECISION-MAKING FOR EMPLOYEE SELECTION

ABSTRACT

The current study aims to identify the role of emotions on IAU decision makers and how these emotions influence their ability to decide effectively on selecting the academic staff for the university and to achieve organizational goals. It aims at identifying the different variables and competencies needed for effective decision-making. The study will examine those scales' effects on and the decision-making style of managers in IAU. This study also aims at identifying the differences between respondents as attributed to their personal and professional traits "gender, age, academic qualifications, and years of experience". The current study adapted internationally accepted measurement tools such as the Emotion Regulation Questionnaire which was used for measuring emotions and modified to fit the purpose of this research. It was composed of six scales which are; non-acceptance of emotional responses, difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior, control difficulties, emotional awareness, access to emotion regulation strategies, and emotional clarity. The results of this study supported the hypothesized relationships of the existence of significant relationship between emotions of decision makers and their decision-making style. The relationship has been proved to be existed at all scales and subscales of the emotion field. A significantly negative relationship has been also proved to be existed between emotions and decision-making style. The results also proved that there are no significant differences among respondents attributed to their personal and professional traits as gender, age, academic qualifications, and years of experience.

The research has presented some recommendations concerning the application of grey relational analysis at the workplace for selecting employees for job vacancies and some other recommendations for future research. The recommendations include increasing awareness of the emotional context in the workplace and its importance and application in the decision-making process. It also recommends the design and implementation of appropriate training programs for decision makers on how to consider and apply the grey relational analysis in their selection between alternatives. The research also recommends developing tools to measure the level of emotions and inter and intra personal skills and incorporate them into the recruitment of potential decision makers.

Keywords: *Emotion, decision making, employee selection, grey relational analysis.*

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Study Topic

“Everyone knows what an emotion is until asked to give a definition. Then, it seems, no one knows”. Plato and Aristotle were at least the first people who tried to define emotion. Many philosophers like Thomas Aquinas, Descartes, Hobbes, Hume, Spinoza, and Kant have debated the nature of emotion or passion as it was called. Later, many psychologists like Wundt, James, McDougall, and Watson have followed philosophers and tried to define emotion and its nature. To illustrate, Wundt (1912/1924) and Titchener believed that an emotion is a behavior, while Wenger (1950) assumed that it’s a type of physiological activity, specifically activity innervated by the autonomic nervous system. The same discussion can be seen today when Solomon (1977) believed that emotion is a type of judgment (and hence a mental event) and Tomkins (1980) argued that emotions or affects as they are called nowadays are sets of muscular and glandular response. “In short, I propose that affect is primarily facial behavior” (Fehr & Russell, 1984:464).

There are many studies emphasizing emotion as a single concept; what do we mean by an emotion, how it can occur, and how it can affect a human being. But until recently, decision researchers have paid little attention to emotions. Decision-making (DM) was seen as a cognitive process; a situation of evaluating which of diverse available alternatives would produce the most advantageous outcomes. People who are responsible for making decisions were required to assess the possible outcomes of decisions they make without hesitation, as well as maximizing the "utility" of those outcomes by choosing suitable actions. The moment that decision makers choose these actions, then an execution will be automatically applied on the utility-maximizing course of action (Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003:3).

In the last few decades, a revolt in the science of emotion has appeared, with the possibility of creating a fundamental change in thinking about decision theories. Emotions formulate powerful, prevalent, and foreseeable drivers of DM. Throughout diverse domains, significant regularities arise in which emotions affect choices and resolutions. Now, a lot of psychological scientists suppose that most of our meaningful decisions in life are controlled by the driver "emotion". Decisions are employed as a channel in which emotions lead attempts made daily for keeping away from feelings which are negative such as regret, fear, and guilt, and increasing feelings which are positive such as love, happiness, and pride, even though when individuals lack consciousness of these processes (Lerner, Li, & others, 2015:799-823).

Until now, there are no studies specializing personnel selection decision and its relation to emotions. Personnel selection is a very important activity for Human Resources Management (HRM) that requires adequate selection criteria. In the wake of an increase in the number of universities in Turkey, the need for recruiting academic staff has become inevitable. When candidates apply for academic positions in a university, the basic purpose of selection operations is to determine those that have the necessary up-to-date knowledge, research performance, and language skills. Fundamental research has been performed on recruitment because of its crucial role in bringing human capital into organizations (Rouyendegh & Erkart, 2012:923-929).

"The university is an institution of higher learning that provides high-level manpower needs to organizations whether in the public or private sector". Like any other organization, a university has its goals to achieve and requires quality staff. The ability of any university to achieve its goals is a function of its ability to attract skilled or quality staff when it wants to employ (Gberevbie, 2006:117-141).

We can conclude that sometimes there are some special considerations to choose between alternatives, at this point, it is a must to know how emotions could affect this important process and how can we minimize the negative influence of emotions in DM process thus making effective decisions.

This research is an attempt to examine to what extent emotions contribute to the successful DM process and decision makers' ability to decide effectively to obtain the organizational goals.

1.2 Thesis Problem

In most researches of DM, anyone can see that the main focus is on DM and DM process without considering that there is an important factor influencing this process or even people involved in this process. Making a decision is considered as a standard process if we have exact information, exact considerations and just we have to pick the optimal decision among two or more alternatives. But sometimes, a decision maker could have special considerations about something and has different states of nature among other decision makers. More clearly, many decisions can be taken through the traditional way of taking a decision or we can say, it may be taken logically by decision makers.

Few studies focus on the relationship between emotions and DM process as a daily process, but there is no study focusing on the role of emotions in selecting academic staff decision process at any university.

There are many observed studies on the subject of emotions in our daily lives or even in relation to our daily decisions, many of the researchers mentioned that relying on emotions in selecting our decisions in fields of finance, economic, social, or even service factors have positive or negative effects on our judgments and choices.

Emotions can disclose the reason of the difference between managers in the fields of employment and how they can make the right decision to solve problems although they might have an equality of training, experience, and mental capacity.

Accordingly, the main problem of the current study crystallized to know how emotions can affect DM process and decision makers' behavior, to what extent they could affect, and their impact on decision makers' ability in selecting an employee (academic staff) for a university. The study tries to reach an answer to the main question:

"To what extent do emotions affect İstanbul Aydin University Academic Staff decisions?"

1.3 Hypothesis

For examining the role of emotion in DM, the following hypotheses were constructed. We have two main hypotheses and six sub-hypotheses for the first main one as follows:

Main Hypothesis 1

H_1: The relationship between emotions and DM style is statistical significant at (α=0.05).

This main hypothesis is divided into six sub-hypotheses as following:

Sub-Hypothesis:

H_{1a}: The relationship between non-acceptance of emotional responses and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

H_{1b}: The relationship between difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

H_{1c}: The relationship between control difficulties and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

H_{1d}: The relationship between emotional awareness and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

H_{1e}: The relationship between access to emotion regulation strategies and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

H_{1f}: The relationship between emotional clarity and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Main Hypothesis 2

H_2: The difference between the aspect of emotions and DM style attributed to the respondent's personal traits such as age, gender, experience, and academic qualifications is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

1.4 Research Variables

We will assess emotion regulation ability of a manager by using Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ; Gross & John, 2003) and a reduced version of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). Aspects measured by questions of these questionnaires will be considered as main and sub independent variables of the

current research in addition to the dependent variable (DM style) included in a questionnaire designed to measure the DM style of a manager. Table 1.1 illustrates the independent and dependent variables with their notations.

Table 1.1: Research Variables

Variables	Independent variable	Dependent variable	Notation
Emotions	✓		Main variable
Non-acceptance of emotional responses.	✓		Sub-variable
Difficulty engaging in the goal-directed behavior.	✓		Sub-variable
Control difficulties.	✓		Sub-variable
Emotional awareness.	✓		Sub-variable
Access to emotion regulation strategies.	✓		Sub-variable
Emotional clarity.	✓		Sub-variable
DM style		✓	Main variable

1.5 The Research Objectives

This study aims to identify the role that emotions in DM. Also, how the decision maker can make a decision under some crisis conditions so that s/he can be influenced sometimes by his/her emotions then making or do not making the appropriate decision. This decision will be related to selecting an academic staff by managers in IAU, as a case of a Foundation University.

In addition, this study also aims to identify these emotions, how they can relate to DM, and how much can these emotions affect decision makers' behaviors in IAU and also DM process as a whole.

Moreover, it is very important to identify all variables and competencies needed to find effective DM or even effective selection of an employee for any university, and this what this study aims to achieve in the current research.

More clearly, the most important aims of the current study can be summarized in the following specific points:

- To explore the level of emotion of different aspects and its relationship to some personal and functional variables among respondents.
- To define the extent of decision makers' emotional clarity in IAU and its impact on their decisions.
- To find out the main qualifications of the most successful decision makers and how they can take the employee selection decision.
- To explore the level of effectiveness and efficiency of IAU decision makers.
- To shed more light on the concepts of emotion and clarify its importance in the managerial work.
- To provide recommendations for IAU decision makers and all managers who are responsible for making decisions especially the employee selection decision.

1.6 The Research Importance

The importance of the current research will be clear by knowing the importance of emotions in our daily lives in general and their effects when making the employee selection decision in special. This importance is generated from what is formulated by emotions, which may be considered as beneficial or harmful drivers for any decision.

This study is representing the subject of emotions, whereas it is examining the quality of decision makers' decisions under some situations in IAU. It is considered one of the few studies and will provide results and recommendations for people who are responsible for

making employee selection decisions such as decision makers in IAU, many foundation universities, and all people who are related to this field.

The importance of the current study is referred to the following reasons:

- There are very local studies that specialize in the role of emotions and their effects on DM style of managers.
- This study seriously tries to understand the role of emotions in a foundation university, and how they can relate to successful decisions. This would encourage Istanbul Foundation Universities to give more attention and care to this issue.

2. EMOTIONS AND EMOTIONS MEASUREMENT

In this chapter, diverse definitions of emotion, and its important role in our lives as a whole, emotion's concepts, types, functions, effects on cognitive functioning, and approaches to measuring these emotions will be considered.

2.1 Introduction

There are some definitions of an emotion derived mainly from Frijda's (1984) book. Frijda defined emotion in her book as something a person can usually consciously or unconsciously assessing related to his/her concerns, goals, or interests that are important for us. The emotion can be felt as positive when an interest is improved and negative when an interest is disturbed. This what we can see in our daily lives when sometimes there are things we do not like to do such as being angry or afraid and these emotions could be considered as negative emotions. By contrast, sometimes there are things we like to do such as falling in love and that could be considered as positive emotions. Sometimes these emotions create states within us. More clearly, in the previous examples, positive emotions like love may let us doing anything to maintain, while the negative ones like anger or fear may create negative feelings that fully occupy us until we can eliminate them. All of these emotions and many others could share two things in common. First, they are motivational; they act just like the motives. And second, they are related to our level of arousal.

Frijda believed that the essence of an emotion is a willingness to take an action and the motivating of intents; an emotion enables an individual to give a priority to take one or more actions thus giving a significance of insistence thus it can disturb, or vie with, alternative rational actions. Understanding this view will be helpful for our study as these emotions may compete with a special kind of mental processes considered in the current research such as academic staff selection process in IAU. Frijda also views that an

individual usually experiencing an emotion considering it as a distinctive type of mental state, and sometimes his/her bodily changes, expressions, and actions follow or accompany that emotion (Oatley, Keltner & Jenkins, 2006). Oxford English Dictionary also has a similar definition with Frijda definition of an emotion, it is defined as "any agitation or disturbance of mind, feeling, passion; any vehement or excited mental state" (Dictionary, O.E., 2002).

Our emotions play an essential role in our lives as they boost practically their waking moments with either an enjoyable or a disagreeable quality. Cacioppo and his colleagues tried to explain that individual's relationships with their physical world are emotional (Cacioppo et al., 2001:173). This was clarified when they believed that emotions guide enhance a graced life by providing meaning to daily existence and also providing a value for our lives (Desmet, 2003:111-123).

Individuals can consider their emotions as a natural part of their experiences as they permanently experience these emotions, think of and talk about their experiences because words can be treated as the main tool of talking and concepts can be treated as a main tool of thinking, respectively (Vainik, 2002:322-341).

Some researchers like Jennifer, Ye, and others have claimed that an adaptive coordination role could be served by emotions, which arouses a combination of reactions related to communication, experience, behavior, and physiology fields thus enable human beings dealing quickly with faced opportunities or problems. For example, in many situations in our lives, the feel of anger may motivate an individual to behave aggressively, or the feel of fear from something may motivate an individual to behave in an opposite way or to choose a course of action from many courses that could be beneficial rather than the one chosen (Lerner, Li, & others, 2015:799-823).

In one study, the researcher supports the previous idea and believed that emotions play a large role in guiding all our behavior. More clearly, our learning and reasoning combined with motivated or emotional desires to control much of what we do and how we direct our behavior efficiently.

Before Sartre; a French philosopher- emotion was considered as a pure reaction: an individual who sees a bear might be afraid. While in Sartre's theory of emotions, he

considered emotion as a man's behavior, not just an action. And this what proves what other philosophers and researchers believed in.

Sartre has considered emotion as a magic pipe; it's an attempt at changing the world by his own psychic forces. Emotions look for restoring the world as the individual who feels like. There is a meaning for each emotion, discloses sometimes a conscious intent. Sartre summarized this talking when he said that individuals have the responsibility of their emotions as they express the choices they make throughout their existence in this world.

I strongly agree with this view because our emotions really determine our behaviors, intentions, and even decisions.

2.2 The Concepts of Emotion

There are many definitions describing and explaining the concept of emotion and Table 2.1 illustrates some of these definitions.

Table 2.1: Definitions of the concept "Emotion"

Type of definition	Notation	Definition
Affective Definition	Confirming arousal feelings and/or hedonic value.	An emotion is a complex affective experience that involves diffuse physiological changes and can be expressed overtly in characteristic behavior patterns "By Charles G. Morris"
Disruptive Definition	Confirming disorganizing or dysfunctional effects of emotion.	Emotion is an acute disturbance of the individual as a whole, psychological in origin, involving behavior, conscious experience, and visceral functioning "By Paul T. Young".
Philosophical Definition		The emotion is the feeling of pleasure or displeasure of a current that does not leave the subject to achieve reflection. In emotion, spirit surprised printing loses power over himself "By Kant".
Psychological definition		A complex pattern of changes, including physiological arousal, feelings, cognitive processes, and behavioral reactions, made in response to a situation perceived to be personally significant "By Richard and Zimbardo".

Since psychologists have not reached yet to a specific agreement on distinguished attributes of emotions, kleinginna tried to mix the most sides of emotions by creating the following definition: “emotion is a complex set of interactions among objective and subjective factors”. This is mediated by neural hormonal systems which can bring cognitive or mental processes like emotionally relevant perceptual effects, appraisals, labeling processes, result in useful experiences for instance feelings of arousal, pleasure or displeasure, active physiological adjustments to the arousing circumstances, lead to a frequent but not long lasting, expressive, goal-directed, adaptive behavior (Kleinginna, & Kleinginna, 1981:345-379).

2.3 Types of Emotions

It will be useful for the current research to identify distinct types of emotions especially those influencing DM. These types typically uncover quick advancement in the psychology of emotion and DM. They clarify one inclusive conclusion: Emotions strongly, predictably, and pervasively affect DM (Lerner, Li & others, 2015:799-823). They can be divided into integral and incidental emotions that will be explained next.

2.3.1 Integral emotions influence DM

Damasio, Greene, and Haidt have identified this kind of emotions which arising from the judgment or choice at hand as a kind of emotion that routinely and powerfully forms DM (Damasio, 1994; Greene & Haidt, 2002). To give an example, an individual feels anxious about a possible result of a risky choice may choose an option that will be safer and consider it as an advantageous option. Another example could be about an individual who may feel thankful to a collage he/she attended and may take a decision to give a donation of too much money to that collage although it limits his/her own spending. More clearly, if I feel afraid from accidents resulted from riding cars, I would choose to ride a bus to reach my destination rather than riding a car even though the car will be faster and easier for me. Such effects of integral emotions operate at conscious and non-conscious levels.

a. Integral emotion as an advantageous driver

Even though Western people consider that emotions can play a negative role in reasoning, a few philosophers believed that integral emotion could be an advantageous driver. David Hume, for example, debated that the controlling desire of seeing emotion as secondary to form judgments by a process of logic is entirely backward. Following this perspective, anger, for example, can provide individuals with a motive for responding to injustice (Solomon, 1993), and a person who anticipates regret can provide people with a reason for avoiding excessive risk-taking (Loomes &Sugden, 1982). An understanding of this view provides us with a strong thinking of how emotions could be beneficial drivers in our lives in general and when deciding about something in special.

b. Integral emotion as bias

In spite of emotions resulting from the resolution or choice at hand, integral emotions can bias DM, such as a person who is feeling afraid of flying so making a decision to drive instead, even though death rates by driving are much higher than are death-rates by flying (Gigerenzer, 2004).

Integral emotions can sometimes dominate even in the existence of cognitive information that would give different ways of actions. When they connect themselves to decision targets, they become hard to disconnect (Rozin et al., 1986).

Previous studies have shown too many ways where some of the integral emotions that input to DM, can override otherwise rational courses of action (Loewenstein et al., 2001).

2.3.2 Incidental emotions influence decision making

Researchers have considered that the process in which incidental emotions that have been extensively transferred from one situation to the other, affecting decisions unrelated to that emotion is known as “the carryover of incidental emotion” (Bodenhausen, 1993; Loewenstein & Lerner, 2003). For example, incidental anger triggered in one situation can automatically create a motivation to blame people in other situations even though the targets of such anger are unrelated to the source of the anger (Quigley & Tedeschi, 1996). Moreover, transferring of incidental emotions normally happens without consciousness.

Eduard and Dan believed in their study of The Enduring Impact of Transient Emotions that individuals most of the time have no recognition that an incidental emotional state

has affected them. Therefore, they may decide depending on this kind of emotions and even override the original reason that caused the behavior.

They assumed that the effect of incidental emotions on DM is well established (Vohs, Baumeister & others, 2007). Incidental emotions which have no relation with the target object also influence how much people eat, trust, and help. Depending on this perspective, it is important to know that this kind of emotions represents a regular influence on our daily DM processes.

In contrast, some doubtful critics, meditate how really the emotion's influence can be pervasive. Many changes that considered emotional and experienced daily in people's lives are relatively moderate and short-lived. Even though when individuals experience a strong emotion, its intensity tends to die away in a very short time "e.g. matter of seconds" (Ekman, 1999). Based on this view, logic can suggest that the impact of emotions on DM should also be brief (Andrade & Ariely, 2009).

In contrast to this view, the current research examines how some incidental emotions can influence DM especially employee selection decision and how these kinds of emotions may live longer than the emotional experience itself.

a. Incidental Emotion as Bias

Recent studies of carryover effect took a valence-based approach, dividing emotions into positive and negative categories and assuming that emotions of the same valence would have similar effects. For example, optimistic judgments could be made by people who are in a good mood, while pessimistic judgments could be made by people who are in a bad mood**.** The mood's effect on a judgment does not rely on the similarity between situations. Rather, the mood itself generally affects all judgments.

Oatley, Keltner, and Jenkins believed that emotions and moods may have two types of effect on the individual. One is that the essence of an emotion is a change in readiness, making available a collection of actions that have previously been useful in that circumstance. But emotions usually last for a bit, and they sometimes expand into moods. As well as effects in changing readiness, emotions induce the search for possible plans; by changing cognitive organization they help guide this search (Oatley, Keltner & others, 2006).

2.4 Functions of Emotions

Recently, many researchers agreed that emotion serves at least three functions in interpersonal DM. Keltner and Haidt believed that emotions can help people understand one another's emotions, intentions, and beliefs. Also, they believed that emotions motivate or impose a cost on the behavior of others, and may trigger complementary, mutual, or shared emotions in others (Keltner & Haidt, 1999). For example, when a partner in a negotiation expresses his/her feeling of anger, this can induce waivers from other negotiation partners because anger indicates an individuals' desire to adjust their behaviors (Fischer & Roseman, 2007). Some contextual variables qualify this effect, like the motivation and ability of interaction partners to process emotional information (Van Kleef et al., 2004) as well as the morally charged nature of a negotiation (Dehghani et al., 2014).

Although interpersonal emotions can affect the behavior of others by transferring information about intentions of individuals, they can also play the role of changing other's behaviors and decisions. Understanding how others' decisions can be affected by the communication of an emotion will raise the potential for the strategic display of emotional expression (Lerner, Li & others, 2015:799-823).

Oatley, Keltner, and Jenkins have suggested some functions of emotions presented as below:

- Deriving of autonomic and endocrine responses: by deriving a rise in the heart rate and the adrenaline releasing, for example, the body is prepared for an action by an emotion.
- Motivations of action: for example, feeling afraid about something may influence a person's judgments and choices so motivating for a specific course of action associated with the emotion of that fear.
- Communications of intentions: monkeys, for example usually make an open-mouth threat to show that they are willing to compete for sources, by doing so they communicate their emotional state and as a result, may affect other animals' behavior. To clarify for the purpose of the current research, in an interview to select an employee and according to his/her emotional state such as feeling

stressed or anxious in that time, may show somebody changes to the interviewee and as a result, affect the interviewer's behavior and decision regarding selecting that employee for the job or not.

- Memory: individuals' cognitive evaluation of events or memories can be influenced by their current mood as we discussed before (Oatley, Keltner & others, 2006).

2.5 Emotions Measurement

People know little about how they emotionally respond to something and what aspects of design or interaction can enable an individual to react emotionally. Throughout history, many researchers have sought for instruments to measure emotions. Traditionally, there were many efforts and attempts that have been done in the field of sociology and psychology to measure emotions. In the last twenty years, the role of emotions in psychology and sociology fields has been recognized. Even more recently, and as a consequence of the quick infestation of computers into our daily lives, computer science has also become a player in the field of measuring emotions (Desmet, 2003:111-123).

2.5.1 Approaches for measuring emotion

Desmet believed that anyone who wants to measure emotion he/she firstly must have the ability to characterize emotions and differentiate them from other states. And this is still considered a problem among those problems who have not solved yet (Desmet, 2003:111-123).

Although most of us can generally understand the concept of emotion, it is hard to reach a defendable definition. When searching "emotion" in psychology, there are different perspectives on how to define, study, and explain emotions. The last 100 years, psychologists have provided a set of definitions, each concentrating on diverse aspects of the emotion. Because it seems there is no experiential solution to the argument on which aspect is sufficient to define emotions, at present researchers reach to a favored solution which is believing that emotions are best treated as a multifaceted phenomenon consisting of the following components: expressive reactions such as smiling, behavioral reactions like approaching, subjective feelings such as feeling amused, and physiological reactions

like heart pounding. In fact, each instrument that is supposed to measure emotions measures one of these aspects. Thus, both the number of reported instruments and the diversity in methods to measure emotions is numerous (Desmet, 2003:111-123).

"Today's instruments range from simple pen-and-paper rating scales to dazzling high-tech equipment that measures brain waves or eye movements" (Desmet, 2003:111-123). In this research, the researcher will focus on the verbal (subjective) instruments to measure emotions.

2.5.2 Verbal instruments to measure emotions

"Verbal instruments can measure the subjective feeling component of emotions. Subjective feelings such as happiness or inspiration are the conscious awareness of the emotional state one is in; the subjective emotional experience is an example. Each emotion involves a specific feeling that is a basic, irreducible kind of mental element (Titchener, 1908). These subjective feelings could only be measured by self-report" (Desmet, 2003:111-123). And I will use this kind of instrument in my research through distributing questionnaires that will measure emotions through a set of rating scales that require respondents to report their emotions.

According to Desmet, rating scales have two main advantages that could be summarized in representing any set of emotions and measuring many emotions. However, we have one single disadvantage which can be summarized in the difficulty of applying to cultures (Desmet, 2003:111-123).

3. DECISION MAKING PROCESS

In our daily lives, we may face some simple problems and need to identify these problems correctly to be able to reach a correct solution. Sometimes, there are many possible available solutions and we have to choose the most suitable one among these solutions, so we have to decide. However, if we have to take a decision based only on one thing, this will be easy for all of us.

People may face everyday decisions ranging from small ones to ones that may change an individuals' lives. For example, an individual may take a daily decision through asking himself what should I eat for lunch today and other may take a life changing decision such as marriage. Even so, until now we have not fully understood how these decisions and many others are actually made. Expected utility theory is one of the most used normative decision models (Neumann & Morgenstern, 1947). The idea is that individuals are rational, weigh gains and losses against each other, and evaluate this with the diverse possibilities of each consequence. The idea that all information is collected, classified and computed for every alternative and every consequence, always, is, to say the least, a bit optimistic. Individuals don't have the time, capacity or the resources to process everything in such a costly way, but by some means, this may operate reasonably well in their everyday lives. Some researchers claimed that individuals are actually very rational, but that is not the reality in the sense of expected utility theory.

In one study, a decision is defined as a choice selected consciously from among two or more alternative courses of actions. Many people make many such decisions every day. In our university, for example, there will be many alternative ways to choose between them to accomplish our assignments; we can achieve them individually or within a group. A decision will be easily taken when one choice will obviously provide a better result than

any other. When we have too many alternatives and more than one of them seems suitable, it will be more difficult for us to decide (Bahloul, 2011).

In another study, a decision is a course of action which is consciously chosen from among a set of alternatives to obtain the desired outcome. By a decision, an individual would be committed to an action and provided with a judgment which is well-balanced (Al-kahlout, 2012).

Making a decision means that an individual has begun a series of behavioral reactions in favor of something. S/he decides to do a specific thing or action. It also means to judge regarding what an individual must do for a specific situation after assessing various courses of actions (Bahloul, 2011).

3.1 Definition of Decision Making

DM is a fundamental function in management (Grant, 2011). Managers' success and failure are reflected by their DM. The quality of decisions is the most important for any organization (Leonard et al, 1999). Simon (1976) revealed that DM role is the "heart of executive activities" (Al Shra'ah, 2015). The researcher agrees with this definition and believes the following: "as an individual's heart is something affects most of the parts in the individual's body, the same here for organizational decisions taken by a manager because they absolutely affect the whole organization and all people involved in the field.

Al-kahlout (2012) agrees also with the previous talking when he considered the DM as a primary function of management as a whole and an important side of modern management in special. A manager's major responsibility is to take decisions rationally which means making consistent, value-maximizing choices within specified organizational constraints. Decisions could determine both organizational and managerial actions and because of that, they are considered as essential.

DM has considered also as an art requiring the decision maker to act through a combination of his/her experience and education. It is considered as one's ability to choose which solutions, as well as predictions, would be best executed to achieve mission success. For any organizational problems, there is an availability of alternative solutions which should be considered all by managers to select the best one for actual execution. So, DM

could be viewed as a dynamic and continuous process. It pervades all institutional activities. As a result, enables managers to take decisions on diverse policy and managerial matters. In addition, DM could be considered as an intellectual and mental activity so requires skills, knowledge, experiences, and information resources. The reliability of information will make good DM and the quality of DM at all levels of an organization can be enhanced with the support of an efficient and effective management information system.

When we say DM is choosing between two or more alternatives, we can conclude that it is the process of selecting one option out of many available. So, this process mainly provides a solution to a given problem. It is a goal-oriented process and provides solutions to problems encountered by any unit organization.

We have to know that all parties involved in DM process need to communicate effectively to be able to follow actions in a suitable manner because decisions discussion will remain on paper if those parties are not communicated effectively to involved persons. So in the absence of effective communication, following actions will not be possible. In short, all levels should be taken into consideration by the decision maker to decide in an effective manner (Al-Kahlout, 2012).

3.1.1 Decision making and problem-solving

People may use DM and problem-solving terms as interchangeable ones. However, problem-solving requires an overcoming of a specific obstacle in the path toward the goal. While DM is defined as choosing from various options to obtain the best outcomes (Al-Kahlout, 2012).

In a study related to Problem-solving, the concept “problem-solving” itself was viewed as a process in which gap between a current state and the desired goal is perceived and resolved by individuals. Some known or unknown obstacles are blocking the path to the goal. Generally, individuals have not previously faced the state, or where at least a specific solution from their past experiences is not known. On the other hand, DM has been viewed as a process of selecting one of two or more possible solutions to reach the desired goal.

One can find that the steps for DM and problem-solving look very similar. At least, according to many models of both processes, there are four stages to follow as presented below:

a. An Input phase when an individual recognized the problem and tried to understand the situation.
b. A Processing phase when an individual is provided with solutions which are evaluated and one of them is selected then.
c. An Output phase when an individual plans for and implements the solution.
d. A Review phase when an individual evaluates the solution and makes the necessary modifications.

The problem-solving and DM process are characterized by most researchers as starting with the recognition of a gap and ending with the implementation and evaluation of a solution to fill that gap. Before moving to any next step, it is a must to ensure that the previous step was accomplished.

Decisions don‘t always imply problems. By contrast, problem-solving always requires making decisions. Many decisions can be daily made by managers, and these decisions often determine their firms’ success or failure (Dessler, 2002).

In the study of Rue and Byares (2009), a problem is any observed difference between a standard or desired level of performance and the actual one. Problem-solving, then, is the process of defining the suitable actions or responses that must be necessarily taken to relieve a problem (Huitt, 1992:33-44).

3.1.2 Types of decisions

For the purpose of the current research, it will be useful to have a look on types of decisions in general.

Organizations may be confronted with diverse types of decisions that could be related to customers, products, employees, and others. Some decisions could be repeated several times during a day or week such as taking a decision to buy operational products -that are used daily- for an office, while others may occur less frequently such as taking a decision to search for another job. According to Simon [33], he believed that decisions that are

repetitive and well-identified, are called structured decisions while decisions that are unfamiliar and vague are called unstructured decisions. These terms refer to extremes on a continuum. More clearly, there are decisions that are completely structured or unstructured. Other decisions may change from ambiguous situations to repetitive situations, depending on the degree of ambiguity in the solution to the problem (Aurum & Wohlin, 2003).

In another study, Effy (2009) proved the above discussion by dividing problems in an organization into three types, he believed that since the steps for solving a problem or deciding for something are known or familiar and must be followed the same way, this will give the same solution for the same problem all the time. For example, the need for office tools or equipment is a problem that can be solved routinely following the same way to solve, giving the same solution which is represented by buying the same equipment or something familiar. Operational management of the company and team leaders are responsible for making structured decisions (Laudon & Laudon, 2006).

Effy (2009) also believed that since there is no standard set of steps to follow when you want to reach an optimal solution. Problems can be classified as unstructured problems. For example, an unexpected problem can appear for the first time and a manager has no information on how to handle such a problem, so it is called unstructured one. The responsibility for handling decisions related to unstructured problem falls to the senior management of the company because many sources of information are required for this kind of problems, and the evaluation procedure is difficult. Moreover, these types of decisions rely on the decision makers' personal experience (Laudon & Laudon, 2006).

Effy (2009) has defined another type of problems which is a semistructured problem as a problem that is neither completely structured nor completely unstructured. The responsibility for making semi-structured decisions falls to the middle management of the company. Unstructured components could be included in their decisions even though the decisions faced by middle managers are more structured (Laudon & Laudon, 2006).

3.1.3 Situations for making decisions

Decisions generally are affected by the available information that a decision maker has. The decision's influence indicates about its effectiveness (Rue & Byars, 2009). When individuals make decisions, they may be involved in some situations such as certainty, risk, and uncertainty that will be explained next.

a. **Certainty:** When a decision maker has a general air of confidence about what exactly will happen, and knows the exact consequence of his/her decision (Rue & Byars, 2009), this is what is called certainty situation. I think that this situation may occur when there is a structured problem and it is supposed to take a structured decision so the decision maker has information about how to handle such problems and what are the results of that.
b. **Risk:** When a decision maker knows the relative probabilities of occurrence associated with each alternative, that's called risk situation (Rue & Byars, 2009). Some probabilities will have positive results, others will have negative ones. The decision maker in this situation knows that and take the risk.
c. **Uncertainty:** When an individual knows little about a specific situation or can't rely on little information to assess the consequences, this is what is called uncertainty situation (Rue & Byars, 2009).

In other words, as a decision maker, you have to consider the probabilities of the states of nature for each alternative. If you decide the probability type, you will have different alternatives to evaluate.

3.1.4 Qualities of effective decision makers

No one wakes up in the morning and decides: "From now I'm only going to make good decisions", and then has the ability to successfully carry it out. It is a step-by-step process, literally made one decision at a time.

Although there are no standard steps to make good decisions, an individual may adapt or strive for some qualities that can put him or her on the road to making better decisions. These qualities can be as following:

- **Commitment**: choosing where to invest your time and effort, setting priorities, committing to the process will make you a good decision maker.
- **Personal standards**: setting standards by a decision maker will prevent him/her from feeling disappointed or failed.
- **Values and priorities**: Good decisions are based on values and priorities of the decision maker. Decisions must reflect the things s/he cares about.
- **Personal accountability**: when individuals take the responsibility for all their decisions and avoid making excuses when they fail to reach their goals or when their choices don't turn out as planned, they could be good decision makers.
- **Adaptability**: For many, change can be very difficult. People who are able to adapt change are more likely to experience benefits because they have remained open to life's possibilities.
- **Forward thinking**: Focus on where you want to go, will enable you as a decision maker to get your destination much more quickly if you keep your eyes on the road.

3.2 Decision Making Process

To cite Bruine de Bruin et al (2007:490): "… although good DM processes can lead to poor outcomes, which should happen less often than with poor DM processes".

According to Baker et al (2001) study, efficient DM involves a sequence of steps at different stages of the process and each stage requires the input of information and there should be a process for feedback.

In business, there are too many available courses of actions to attain the desired goal but the problem is deciding on the optimal alternative. Based on Effy's book (2009), DM is a three-phase process (Effy, 2009).

Herbert Simon also has the same view according to these three stages of the DM process. He believed that the intelligence stage involves the manager's searching in an environment for conditions needed to make a decision. The design stage is deciding where to invent, develop and analyze potential actions. The final stage is choosing one alternative out of diverse ones (Rue & Byars, 2009). Lauden and Lauden (2006) added the implementation

step to the process which is suggesting the testing of the solution and trying to make it better.

Table 3.1: Phases of DM

Phases	**Steps for every phase**
Intelligence	Data collection from inside the organization. Data collection from outside the organization. Information collection on possible ways to solve the problem.
Design	Data organization; selecting a model to process the data. Production of a reasonable, potential course of action.
Choice	Selecting a course of action.

Source: Effy O., 2009:343

According to Dessler (2002), the manager who is rational in approaching DM must have complete information about the state, skillfully identify the problem, define and weigh all the evaluation factors, know all possible alternatives, evaluate each alternative and choose the best one.

Dessler believed that the rational DM process should include:

a. Define the problem: Managerial DM is awakened through identifying the problem; which is a hard step if we want a correct identifying. It is the most important of all the steps.
b. Identify and weigh the criteria: Sometimes, managers may weigh some criteria more than others. For this reason, it is a must to take this step into consideration.
c. Develop alternatives: Managers differ from each other in this step when there is a need to develop good and reliable alternatives which makes this step a very complex one.
d. Analyze the alternatives: Forecasting the future makes this step the most difficult one in the process.

The gist; if managers want to reach the most effective actions, they need to collect and analyze useful data in the DM process (Bahloul, 2011).

The DM process relies on differences existing amongst manager's attitudes, education, values, organization and managerial level. These differences amongst managers are made because of many differences in analytical ability, information processing, experience, skills, perception, the degree of choice's freedom, availability of resources and rapport and trust between managers and people who are managed. When managers need an effective and efficient DM, they should have skills that are considered vital to this process and these skills consist of:

- Possible options identification.
- Possible consequences that follow from each option identification.
- The desirability of each consequence evaluation.
- The likelihood of each consequence assessing.
- A choice making by using a decision rule.

There are many factors affecting the DM process and could be divided into three categories such as Manager personal traits, Factors related to the problem, and Environmental Factors (Bahloul, 2010).

3.3 The Full Range Decision Theory and Decision Making Styles

Decision theory is a theory about decisions. There are many diverse methods to theorize about decisions, and therefore also many diverse research traditions. In this part, we will try to reflect some of the diversity of the decision theory term. Its importance lies on the less (mathematically) technical aspects of decision theory (Hansson, 1994).

3.3.1 Theoretical questions about decisions

Individuals face theoretical problems daily and they have to take a decision in most parts of their lives. The following examples will make our ideas more clear.

- "Do I have to bring the umbrella today?" – Here, individual's decision relies on something unknown, namely whether it will rain or not. The information here is not exactly known and there is uncertainty.
- "I am seeking for a good house to buy. Should I buy this one?" – an individual who is searching for a good house may find a one which looks acceptable, but he/she may

think to search more in order to find a better one with the same price. He/she may ask him/herself about the time when shall he/she stop searching. Here we have to remember what we have explained before about a step in the DM process which assures that the decision maker has to have clear criteria and this is the very complex step.

- "Am I going to smoke the next cigarette?" – an individual can easily take a decision to smoke one single cigarette and that will be fine for a little bit, but if he/she take the same decision every time he/she wants to smoke, this will kill him/her.
- "The court has to decide whether the defendant is guilty or not." – There are two mistakes that could be made by the court, namely to acquit a guilty person and to convict an innocent person. What principles should be applied by the court if it considers the second of this mistakes to be more serious than the first? Feeling guilty after deciding on something is very hard, for this reason, we have to correctly collect and analyze data in the DM process to have the most efficient and effective decision.

Almost everything that individuals do involves decisions. Thus, to have a theory about decisions is almost the same as to have a theory about human actions. However, decision theory is not quite as all-embracing as that.

In the presence of options, decision theory is focused on goal-directed behavior so our choices as individuals in the previous situations or other situations are goal-directed activities. Decision theory concentrates on just some aspects of human activity. In special, it concentrates on how we use our freedom because in some situations, according to decision theorists and when individuals have to choose between many alternatives, they choose in a non-random way.

We do not decide in a continuous manner. In the history of any activity, there are steps as we explained before. More clearly, there will be periods that take most of the DM process time and there will be periods only for implementation. Decision-theory tries to throw light, in various ways, on the former type of periods.

Many academic fields have contributed to developing modern decision theory since the middle of the 20th century. Philosophers, political, psychologists, social scientists, economists and statisticians all keep tracks in decision theory. Now, it is clearly an

academic subject of its own right even though there is a large interference, and the subject has obtained from the diversity of methods that researchers with different backgrounds have applied to the same or similar problems (Hansson, 1994).

3.3.2 Decision making styles

According to Scott & Bruce (1995), there are two main approaches to DM style. Firstly, we can understand DM style as a habitual pattern, which we use in DM. Secondly; we can understand DM style as our own characteristics mode of perceiving and responding to DM duties. Also, the same authors defined DM style as "the learned habitual response pattern exhibited by an individual when confronted with a decision situation. It is not a personality trait, but a habit-based propensity to react in a certain way in a specific decision context" (Scott & Bruce, 1995:820).

DM styles describe processes involved in DM or thinking in general. Scott and Burce (1995) have identified five decision styles as a result of a project separate populations and described in behavioral terms (Bavol'ar & Orosova, 2015). DM styles can be divided into rational style, intuitive style, dependent style, avoidant style, and spontaneous style that will be explained next.

- The rational style reflects searching for and logical evaluating of alternatives.
- The intuitive style reflects caring to details and tending to depend on feeling.
- The dependent style reflects searching for and dependence on others' advice.
- The avoidant style reflects a tendency to avoid decisions whenever possible.
- The spontaneous style reflects the sense of immediacy and desire to complete the DM process as soon as possible.

DM style reflects the mentality or the way managers think of in an organization. In addition, it clarifies how managers use information and visualize the future of their organization. DM styles influence on the acquisition of knowledge, utilization, and sharing. Rowe and Boulgarides (1992:28) indicated that if we know the decision style pattern of an individual, we will be able to predict how he or she will respond to diverse states. In any organization, DM processes may build knowledge and organizational learning. Stephen (1996) argues that the success of the learning skills and innovative

programs rely on the styles of DM processes. Therefore, the current research will explain how DM styles for some managers in IAU may affect the way of their thinking and the way of deciding combined with the measurement of their emotions.

The study of Al shra'ah (2015) proved the above discussion in which DM styles reflect the characteristics of an individual for perceiving and responding to DM process. It also proved that the DM style for a manager in an organization relies on experience and learning process. The study added that a DM style of an individual includes his/her personality in relation to his/her values, needs, and self-concept (Al shra'ah, 2015).

DM styles are considered to be stable, trait-like patterns of approach to situations that call for a decision. These styles are considered as similar to personality traits. They don't have ideal predictive power, but instead, they can be considered as an individual behavior in certain situations and domains. It should be considered that the number of DM styles differs amongst authors. More clearly, as we explained before, there are five DM styles according to Scott and Bruce (1995), whereas they are only three according to Harren (1978) and Nygren (2000). DM styles were considered to be related to many different attitudes and behaviors including life choices such as consumer behavior, health-related decisions, a job, cultural backgrounds, and evaluations of new technology.

For the purpose of the current research, it should be known that affect, stress, and other non-rational internal events may influence individual's decisions. For example, in some experimental tasks, it was shown that sadness can influence decisions. This can be seen also in the real-life decisions. Individuals having faced some psychopathological conditions are likely to involve in DM that differs from that of better-adjusted individuals because most of these conditions influence the quality and degree of affect, stress, anxiety, and other emotional states. As a result, they may have less productive decisions. Thus, individuals with some emotional states like depression may have a specific pattern of decision styles (Leykin & DeRubeis, 2010).

4. EMPLOYEE SELECTION

Effective talent management could be achieved through a starting point called employee selection. An organization could have a truly competitive differentiator by having a strong employer brand. This could be built by concerning the candidate experience during the selection process.

Any organization pays more attention to the source where it takes a decision to select personnel from because it considers this issue as a central one affecting its ability to adapt, survive, and grow. Also, it should be proactive in the employee selection field for qualified academic staff to attain their goals.

Managers who are responsible for recruiting staff for job vacancies normally encounter with many applicants for each job vacancy. Decisions related to selecting personnel are considered as very essential decisions managers can make because the staff is considered as a valuable asset in any organization.

Managers can use various selection methods like application forms, tests, interviews, and reference checks to measure applicants against requisite Knowledge, Skills, Abilities, and Other Characteristics (KSAOs), in order to decide on selecting staff. Of course, some managers fail to identify necessary KSAOs for a job before selecting staff and may base the decisions of selecting staff based on other considerations, such as how well they like applicants (O'Driscoll & Taylor, 2007).

Robbins and Coulter (1999) consider staff selection as an exercise in prediction. This process has the attempt for finding the applicants who will success if hired. They considered success, in this case, as something that performs well according to the criteria used by the organization to assess employees. They introduced methods which can be used by an organization for predicting if applicants will perform well on the job or not.

These methods include an application form, written tests, performance simulation tests, interview, background investigations and physical examination.

According to Etomi (2002), staff selection is the process in which those individuals who were served as candidates in an organization are screened out to the few who are hired or individuals who were in the recruitment pool and best meet organizational requirements for employment. While staff selection according to Byars and Rue is considered as the process of choosing applicants from among available ones who are most likely to successfully perform a job from the pool of qualified candidates.

Noe et al (2004) believed that the process of selecting employees can help an organization to make decisions on applicants who will or will not join it. The process of selection starts with an identification of candidates through recruitment then trials to reduce their number to those best qualified to perform job vacancies. At the end of the process, selected individuals are placed in jobs with the organization.

From the above definitions, we can conclude that staff selection is a process of selecting individuals from among available ones to fill a job vacancy, perform it as well as possible, and achieve organizational goals.

In the current study, the DM theory will be helpful for the purpose of our research because hiring quality staff through an election that reinforces achieving organizational goals is a management decision. According to Noel et al (2004), selection decisions become especially critical when the competition for talent personnel between organizations in the same industry is the point. This can be seen through the competition between organizations for quality staff in terms of educational qualification, experience, and skills by both public and private universities in Istanbul.

The importance of the DM theory to the current research is based on the fact that DM is at the very heart of the business success of any organization. Decisions that are taken by an organization regarding whom to hire for a job and from which sources can determine the output this organization will expect in terms of its productivity and profitability.

Isaac (1975) observed that the DM theory focuses upon the decision maker as the fundamental unit of analysis. He indicates that DM theory focuses on how an

organizational goal could be attained in a given situation so that making decisions here is about judging. In this case, it is considered that an organization wants to achieve goals concerning performance either if it is an effective and efficient provision of social amenities to the people in the public sector or it is a profit maximization in the private sector. In either case, DM could be crucial to the attainment organizational goals. No matter how much money or equipment an organization may have but rather having quality human resource managers could raise its effectiveness as they considered as the vital asset of any organization. As a result, decisions about human resources are central to achieving organizational goals.

Noel et al (2004) posit that personnel selection is the process by which organizations decide on who will or not be allowed to join the organization, and this decision is vital to the very survival of the organization. According to Rosenbloom, administrative DM is simply the choice from among competing alternatives of the ends and means that an organization or a nation will pursue and employ to realize its goals and objectives for the benefits of the entire organization or even the community.

It is worthy of note that while the decision-maker (whether in the public, private sector, and even at the individual level) is the central point in DM theory, the decision-maker is not viewed as operating within a vacuum, the environment, the situation in which the decision is to be taken is recognized as an important factor, both as a shaper of objectives that the organization is set to achieve and as a set of limits that help determine what management can and cannot do in seeking the goals and objectives of the organization (Gberevbie, 2006:117-141).

4.1 Qualities of an Effective Employee Selection

The process of selecting employees effectively does not only require managers to establish a strong employer brand, attract, and hire superior talent. The gist for effective selection is managers' ability to match the right person for the right job at the right time. Individual productivity, business competitiveness, and retention rates all depend upon effectively matching individuals to jobs.

For the development of an effective selection process, some tips can be learned as follows:

- **Understanding the Job:** this is the starting point for an effective selection process. It helps to identify traits that differentiate successful performance on the job. An organization should conduct a job analysis internally or with an expert who is specializing in developing effective employee selection systems.
- **Developing a Process and using it consistently:** it will be very helpful for any organization to determine best means that measure the most important traits. This can enable it to have an effective personnel selection process. Managers who have interests in some traits should take this into consideration to easily determine kinds of selection tools of their interest, along with other considerations like perceptions of candidates, the process efficiency, and fairness.
- **Identifying Valid Tools:** this could be conducted by making sure that the selection tools adopted by an organization are relevant and related to successful job performance. This could be called validation; it can be done through many ways and also can be conducted by an assistant of a consulting firm.
- **Train HR Staff:** it is very important to be sure that all people involved in the process of selection are trained, including test proctors, administrators, and interviewers. To illustrate, the reason for an interviewer training, for example, is ensuring effective interviewing techniques and consistency which can be done through effective online interviewer training programs and it can take only two hours.
- **Monitoring the Process:** it will be helpful also to monitor the selection systems on-going to improve the process, examine pass rates, efficiency, accuracy, and fairness.

In conclusion, we have to make sure that investing in selection processes is one of the best investments any organization can make.

4.2 Employee Selection Process

Every organization may use a selection method in the hiring process that differs from any other organization, but in general, there are standard steps for selecting an employee for a job, these steps will be explained next in details.

- Review application forms and resumes.
- Select best applicants for interview.
- Interview.

- Administer tests.
- Conduct reference and background checks.
- Perform drug test.

Some organizations may follow these steps differently and according to the situation. For example, an organization may have a large number of applicants so that it may use a psychological test then starting interviews as a following step.

4.2.1 Application forms

In the employment process, every applicant is required to complete an application form which contains information that must not be false or falsified, given that as many as 30 percents of all resumes and application forms contain some false information. Most of the applications forms contain some sentences near the end of the form such as; I understand that falsification of information is grounds for dismissal or I understand that my employment at the company may be discontinued at any time for any reason either by myself or by the company. The previous sentence, for example, ensures that the company has the right to terminate an applicant at any time and for any reason. Most application forms have similar statements and an applicant can do little to get around this.

Information in application forms used in the most part for initial screen to reduce the number of potential candidates. In large organizations, the initial screen is the human resource representative's responsibility to be able to decide which candidates will be invited for an interview.

Weighted application blank (WAB) is an alternative application form in which some organizations use as an objectively scored application form. The difference between the standard application form and WAB is that the later provides a score for each applicant, based on answer key developed through research while the standard application form is judged on the basis of "gut feeling" of the hiring manager. If there are a lot of employees, WAB will be useful for that in addition to reducing turnover.

Another related technique is the biographical information blank (BIB). It aims to utilize a boarder range of questions especially those related to past achievements, personal goals, and aspirations of an applicant. All of these are scored by a standardized key. This

technique is generally favorable for many organizations although there are some criticisms saying that some items related to BIB often seem intrusive like responding to the question: "are you satisfied in life?"

4.2.2 The interview

One of the most popular selection methods is an interview. It is uncommon to find a company that does not use at least one interview in its selection procedure. We may ask ourselves what interviewers are trying to assess when they talk with job applicants. Most interviews address four basic issues such as reliability, competencies, values, and motivations that will be explained next in details.

- Reliability: it refers to the applicant's likelihood of commitment to the basic policies and rules of the job and organization, such as overtime, attendance, and travel requirements. An example of a question that can assess reliability in an interview might be: " how many days of work did you miss last year?"

In other studies, six types of reliability are considered and this may focus on some points in the current research. These types can be divided according to campion's study (1997) into the following:

a. Test- retest reliability: it is considered if the same content of an interview is obtained and if the interviewer consists the evaluation process each time.
b. Interrater reliability: it is considered if the same content is obtained by different interviewers and candidates were evaluated consistently.
c. Candidate consistency: it takes into account if the interview elicits consistent responding from the candidate and if the differences in candidate's interviewing skills, moods, stress or similar factors influence the results.
d. Interviewer-candidate interaction: it takes into account if some differences between the interviewer and the candidate such as interpersonal attraction, communication styles, and personalities can affect the results.
e. Internal consistency: it takes into account if the numerous interview items can measure the homogeneous construct.

f. Interrater agreement: it takes into account if the interviewers agree on their judgments, thus making similar decisions.

- Competencies: that knowledge and abilities that are considered necessary to perform the job. An example of a question that can assess an applicant's competencies in marketing -for example- in an interview might be: "tell me how would you go about marketing a new computer software package".
- Values: how an applicant prefer different aspects of the work environment might assess his/her value in an interview. An example for a question assessing applicant values might be: "how do you think people in this organization should be promoted?"
- Motivation: it refers to the different rewards desired by the applicant. An example for a question assessing applicant values might be: " what did you like most about your previous positions?"

Interviews take many forms in organizations but in general, there are four basic kinds of interviews which are a traditional interview, structured interview, stress interview, and panel interview that will be explained next.

- ✓ Traditional interview: the most common type of interview, which allows the interviewer a great deal of discretion in terms of which questions are asked and in what order. Sometimes, It may be called as an unstructured interview. Despite its popularity, some experts argue that the traditional interview is receptive to a wide variety of errors and biases. Hiring managers may use this kind of interviews to select a candidate who is preferable to them or likable rather than selecting a candidate who might be most qualified for the job. This may be influenced by the interviewer emotions in the time of decision.
- ✓ Structured interview: an interview using a predetermined set of questions that are clearly job-related such as the behavior description interview (BDI) and situational interview (SI). BDI questions address past experiences while SI questions address how the applicant would handle a situation in the future. On the contrary of the traditional interview, managers in structured interview use job-related preestablished questions which in turn prevent biases and errors that may occur.
- ✓ Stress interview: an interview technique that is an attempt by the interviewer to see how a candidate fares under stress. This is little evidence that such interviews are valid.

This kind of interview gives the right to the interviewer to shake the applicant up to see if he/she can work under stress. Anyway, nearly any interview involves some degree of stress.

- ✓ Panel interview: a group of interviewers interview a candidate at the same time. In some studies, it is called as board interview and defined as " an interview conducted by a team of interviewers (usually two or three), who interview the candidate simultaneously, then combine their ratings into a final panel score" (Dixon, Wang & others, 2002:397-428). This type of interviews reduce the effects of personal biases any individual interviewer may have but may make the applicant feel more stressed than usual.

- ➢ **Legal Considerations**

In terms of legality, the interview has a mixed record. Most recent studies suggest that the interview varies in terms of whether protected groups such as older worker or minorities are adversely affected or not. For instance, if interviewers had a history of discrimination against women, they may ask interviewed women some discriminatory questions. Questions not directly related to the job and addresses sensitive areas such as age, marital status, religion, and so forth, should not be asked under any circumstances. In Saks and McCarthy's study (2006), they believed that some discriminatory questions in some interviews may violate the rules of justice and raise concerns about privacy. This will lead to negative reactions towards the interview, negative perceptions towards the organization, and lower intentions to pursue employment (Saks & McCarthy, 2006).

4.2.3 Psychological tests

There are many different kinds of Psychological tests but in general, there are 3 basic categories which are personality tests, cognitive ability tests, and job knowledge tests that will be explained next.

Personality test is a test given to an applicant that will supposedly predict the type of personality a candidate has and how that personality will affect job performance. "I prefer working in a team to working alone" is an example of questions found in a typical personality test. One of the most interesting types of psychological tests is honesty test

which measures an applicant honesty and two types of honesty tests are used. The first one is overt honesty test which asks questions that directly address test taker's perceptions and feelings about honesty. The other type is a personality-based test which tends to be somewhat less obvious as to what it is assessing and focuses on personality traits associated with dishonesty. These kinds of tests may produce very little if any, adverse impact. Also, they are easy to administer and score.

The second kind of tests are the cognitive ability tests which are intelligence tests given to applicants. They are fairly cheap and easy to score and administer. Thus their utility is likely to be high.

The last kind of tests is job knowledge tests which are measures of an applicant's comprehensive of basic facts and information relevant to the job. For example, if an individual wants to have a driving license, he/she has to take a driving test concerning his/her knowledge of the rules of the road. job knowledge tests are expensive and assume that the applicant is trained to perform the job.

4.2.4 Reference and record checking

Reference checking is considered as an important aspect of the hiring process for all new employees (Woska, 2007:79-89). It includes contacting previous employers to verify employment information and obtain independent assessments of an applicant's qualifications. Past supervisors often try to say little about former employees if the information is negative. Most people would probably say that reference checking seems like a reasonable selection procedure. In Woska's study (2007), screening out individuals through reference interviews when hiring can be harmful to the organization. Responses to reference inquiries should be limited by most employers to the "basics" such as name, job title, and dates of employment to protect against legal proceedings. Also, an employee should regularly provide the basic information with respect to employment verification for credit purposes (Woska, 2007:79-89).

4.2.5 Drug and alcohol testing

"In the last 10 years, drug testing and to a lesser extent alcohol testing has become much more popular". Drug screening is commonly used in business, industry, and government

today. About two-thirds of medium to large companies use drug screening as part of their pre-employment procedures and approximately one-third of medium to large companies conduct random drug testing of current employees. The process of testing employees or job applicants – by an employer- to determine if they are using drugs is called Drug testing. This kind of tests provides evidence of recent use of prescription drugs, alcohol, and illicit drugs. Nowadays, Instead of testing if drugs affect or affected individuals' behavior, these kinds of tests work best when an employer implement them based on a clear written policy shared will all employees in addition to educating them about the harmful consequences, signs, and symptoms of alcohol and drug abuse. Moreover, employees who may have an alcohol or drug problem could be helped by a specialized program called Employee Assistance Program (EAP).

- **Drug Screening Procedures**

An applicant may be required to make a urinalysis test which is a urine sample test for drugs and may be asked several questions about this test. This first question is about the period in which the presence of drug traces stay in urine. The second question might be (what is the likelihood of a false positive?). False positive occurs when drug test mistakenly identifies the subject as a drug user even if he/she is not a drug user. The third question is about the percentage of job applicants that are identified as drug users. Although the number of drug positives varies from location to location, nationwide about 4% of job applicants are identified as drug users. The number of current employees who are drug positive is much lower- about 2%.

Some organizations also test for alcohol use. In fact, companies with 50 or more commercial-license drivers (for example, trucking companies) are required to conduct both drug and alcohol test. However, the Ontario Division Court in Canada, for example, did acknowledge that drug testing would be permitted if there was a drug related incident, to fill a safety sensitive position or “for cause” which means that if good exists to believe an employee may have been under the influence of drugs during work, the company may require the employee to take a drug test.

4.3 Evaluating The Selection Decision Process

For checking if the selection process used was successful or not, there is a process which monitors the performance of employees after the appointment. It is called “predictive validity”. To illustrate, let us consider that an employer appointed a new employee now. A correlation between supervisor's rating of the performance of this employee and earlier selection rating should be calculated after six months for example. If supervisors score high on selection rating for an employee, s/he will receive a high rating then considered as a good employee. If supervisors score just near the cutoff score on selection rating for an employee, s/he will receive a low rating then considered as a poor employee. This means that the techniques of selection were able to distinguish between potentially good and poor workers. These criteria can be used by human resource department for selecting the best people for the job (O’Driscoll & Taylor, 2007).

4.4 Emotions and Decision Making

It is useful for the current research to understand a theory, which is called Affective Events Theory (AET). This theory indicates that emotional states may strongly form employee’s attitude and behavior in the organization. Moreover, events that individuals experience every day influence the way they think of their jobs, employers, and colleagues. Basically, emotions can affect our behaviors and attitudes. Thus, a very important message could be carried by this theory to managers telling them that emotions and events caused by these emotions in organizational settings must not be ignored even if they were viewed as minor. To illustrate, uplifts in workplace settings, for example, can come from interactions with peers, supervisors, managers, and others. In contrast, the negative feeling can be produced by some reactions or events and the much worse here if some of the positive or negative events are accumulated which will, in turn, determine how individuals feel thus will determine the way of their thinking and feeling at work. So, AET is telling the managers to pay their attention to the emotional climate in their organizations.

Strong norms or expectations regarding displays of emotion can characterize many jobs and occupations. We can everywhere see some statements included in job descriptions as

explicit norms such as “Now Hiring Smiling Faces”. Also, implicit norms may be existed and affect how employees are socialized into organization’s culture.

Often, expressing an emotion that an individual simply does not feel or not expressing one that he/she does feel is required. The need for managing one's emotions or expressing emotions contrary to one's true feelings characterize most jobs to some degree or another.

4.4.1 How can emotions affect employees in the workplace?

For the purpose of the current research, it will be useful to know that these momentary feelings also have an influence on the way in which people process information during DM. These ways, in turn, promote the effectiveness of DM in specific contexts. To illustrate, people may have a positive feeling, thus categorize the stimulus in a broader, more inclusive and flexible fashion and as a result, improving creativity and performance in complex situations. By contrast, people may have a negative feeling so they may involve in more complex and systematical thinking and they may process information with more effort. As a result, if the situation here needs an accurate, unbiased, and realistic judgment, this will lead to effective DM.

So, it is understood now that emotions could be beneficial or harmful drivers in our behaviors, thinking, and DM. They play the role of helping and hurting people involved in DM process. By contrast, it should be known that this relies on people who have the ability to handle such experienced feelings, whether in functional or in dysfunctional ways. According to this view, feelings experienced by people are varied among others and also the way of handle these feelings by people may be varied. In other words, people differ in the extent to which they pay attention to information conveyed by their feelings and integrate it into their judgment, decision, and behavior. So, both the way people experience their feelings and the way they deal with these feelings are separate and conceptually independent processes.

4.4.2 How could managers respond emotionally or rationally when choosing between two or more alternatives?

Our minds are not blanks at the start of the reasoning process. There are some images imagined in our minds and these images can be drawn from a traditional "high-reason" view of DM; and from the "somatic-marker hypothesis".

- The "high-reason" view: it supposes that when we are at our DM best, we are the pride and joy of Plato, Descartes, and Kant. If we normally use the formal logic, we will get to the best available solution for any problem. The conception of rationalist shows us that emotions must be kept out if we want to obtain best results. Mainly, in the high-reason view, there will be various scenarios and managers will simply use a cost/benefit analysis of each of them. Taking into consideration something a decision maker wants to maximize, thus considering the results of each option s/he have, different points in the future, weighting losses and gains then concluding logically what is good and what is bad.
- Somatic-marker hypothesis: the role of emotion could be crystallized when we understand that the reliance of people just on a purely rational calculation will lead them to have errors in their decisions and as a result regret these errors. It is not enough for an individual to depend only on his/her knowledge and reasoning for making advantageous decisions (Damasio &Wolf, 1995).

Emerging neuroscience evidence proposes that rational DM relies on previous accurate emotional processing. The somatic marker hypothesis provides a systems-level neuroanatomical and cognitive framework for DM and its impact by emotion. The key idea of this hypothesis is as follows; there are signals of a marker. These signals arise in bio regulatory processes, influence the DM process, and could include those that express themselves in emotions and feelings. This influence can occur at multiple levels of operation, some of which occur consciously, and some of which occur non-consciously.

The main focus of this hypothesis is the speed of making decisions, not the quality. To illustrate, an individual will take a long time when analyzing the pros and cons for each brand of cereal if s/he wants to choose between two brands of them. According to this hypothesis, decision maker relies on a reasoned cost-benefit analysis of many diverse

options involving both immediate and future consequences and the reason for that is the deprivation of an emotional signal. As a result, in the previous example, the impairment degrades the speed of deliberation and also degrades the adequacy of the choice (Bechara, 2004).

In general, in the human memory, there are two systems that take part in emotion as two separate processing systems. The first system is conscious (explicit) system and the second one is the unconscious (implicit) system. With diverse aims, both systems have different views on emotional events. The explicit system may be influenced by the implicit one without conscious of that influence and the confabulation occurring. For the purpose of the current research, it is useful to know how a person with both implicit and explicit processing systems in his/ her memory can make decisions.

Both routes for making decisions, a rational conscious one that can operate consciously, and an emotional one that can operate unconsciously produce separate processing systems for different types of emotional memory. Sometimes people decide on something using one system and sometimes using the other. When an individual uses his/her unconscious emotional system in making decisions, an explanation for the decision may be confabulated by the rational conscious system having little to do with the original causes of the behavior. Moreover, these two systems may take the decisions in a somewhat probabilistic basis, and thus those decisions may be diverse in diverse situations even if the circumstances are somewhat similar. For example; if there are standard criteria in a university to select an employee for a job, sometimes there are special considerations and the decision of selecting an employee will be evaluated differently with different occasions or events. Also, factors that may be manipulated in the environment can have effects on whether the rational or emotional system takes control on a particular occasion. To illustrate, the emotional system of a person who wants to drink alcohol may overcome the rational system through reducing emotional restraint and inhibition (Rolls, 2005).

From this point of view, we can conclude that emotions are not a luxury. They play a role in communicating meanings to others, and they may also play the cognitive guidance role (Damasio &Wolf, 1995).

4.4.3 How can emotions be harmful or beneficial drivers in decision making?

Most people feel afraid of flying than they do when driving although most of the rational calculations of risk unambiguously indicate that people are beyond familiarity to survive a flight between two cities than a car between the same cities. The defective reasoning is generated from the so-called “availability error”, which allows the plane crash image with its emotional drama to take control the landscape of a person’s reasoning and to create a negative bias against the correct choice. The previous example shows that biological drives and emotions can clearly affect DM. But while biological drives and emotion can affect people to make decisions in an irrational way in some situations, they can be considered as vital aspects in other situations. Biological drives and the automated somatic-marker mechanism that depends on them are absolutely necessary for some rational behaviors, especially in the personal and social domains, although they can be harmful to rational DM in certain situations by creating a dominant bias against objective factors or even by restricting the support mechanism of DM such as working memory (Damasio &Wolf, 1995).

5. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology and the data collection process will be explained in details in this chapter. Moreover, the population and sample will be defined. In this study, the questionnaire design and content used will be shown by the researcher as well as our discussing of the process of distributing our questionnaires, the rate of response, the questionnaire's validity and reliability, the procedures of gathering data as well as the statistical analysis procedures. The analytical descriptive method was used in the current research and that will describe the role of emotions in DM for employees' selection in IAU, as a case study.

5.1 Research Method

The most important objective that the research aims to achieve by this study, is to judge the function of emotions in DM for employees selection, therefore, the researcher used a descriptive analytical method. There are two types (sources) of data we have used in this study presented as following:

- *Primary Resources:* The primary data was gathered through the questionnaire designed to serve the objectives of the current research.
- *Secondary Resources:* This type of data was gathered based on the published data, books and documents, and previous studies that related to the concepts discussed in this study (emotions, employee selection, and DM).

5.2 Research Population and Sample

Our targeted study's population consists of all managers who are responsible for or even involved in DM process in IAU in Istanbul. So, these decision makers were our target sample.

All of the decision makers in IAU are targeted in the current study, which indicates that the sample is comprehensive and that is suitable from the researcher's point of view to target all of the decision makers for collecting a suitable number of questionnaires for the current study because the number of decision makers in IAU is not large and they have huge responsibilities, therefore, there is no time to fill the questionnaire. The number of decision makers in IAU is small; we have distributed our questionnaires to 36 managers and then recovered 36 questionnaires with a percentage of 100%.

5.3 The Questionnaire Design

In order to make the questionnaire understood, it was designed in the English language. The questions are direct for avoiding the complexity and the goal was measuring the emotions and the style of DM of the faculties' managers. The questionnaire consisted of three sections:

- **Personal and Professional Traits:** The purpose of designing this part was for collecting personal and professional information like gender, age, academic qualifications, and years of experience as a manager (4 questions).
- **Emotions**: The main measurement tool used in this part was Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) in order to measure emotions. ERQ was developed by Gross and John in 2003 and a reduced version of difficulties in emotion regulation scale developed by Gratz and Roemer in 2004 was developed and composed of six scales which are; non-acceptance of emotional responses, difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior, control difficulties, emotional awareness, access to emotion regulation strategies, and emotional clarity. In order to fit the goal of the current research, these tools were used and adjusted (29 questions).
- **DM style**: To measure the DM style of a manager, the researcher has adopted the decision-making Questionnaire (DMQ) developed by Scott and Bruce in 1995. The tool was adopted and modified to suit the purpose of the current research. The questionnaire is composed of 5 scales and 7 subscales to determine the dominant DM style. The rational style is determined by the subscale "thoroughness". The intuitive style is determined through the subscales "optimizing and instinctiveness". The

dependent style is determined through the subscales “social resistance and principle”. The avoidant style is determined through the “control” subscale. The spontaneous style is determined through the “hesitancy” Subscale (21 questions).

5.4 Data Measurement

In order to be able to select the appropriate method of analysis, the level of measurement must be understood. As we mentioned before, an internationally accepted measurement tools; Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ; Gross & John, 2003) and a reduced version of Difficulties in Emotion Regulation Scale (Gratz & Roemer, 2004) were adapted, combined and modified to suit with what is intended to examine in the current research ended up in developing one questionnaire distributed to the targeted respondents to collect the primary data.

There are suitable methods that can be applied for each of measurement types. In our study, we have used the numerical scale (1-5), where "1" indicates a weak answer while "5" indicates a strong answer.

5.5 Test of Normality

Table 5.1: Kolmogorov-Smirnov test

Field	**Kolmogorov-Smirnov**	
	Statistic	**P-value**
Level of non-acceptance of emotional responses	0.160	0.020
Level of difficulty engaging in Goal-directed behavior	0.118	0.200*
Level of difficulties control	0.100	0.200*
Level of emotional awareness	0.167	0.012
Level of access to emotion regulation strategies	0.121	0.200*
Level of emotional clarity	0.241	0.000
DM	0.117	0.200*
All items of the questionnaire	0.087	0.200*

One can find the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality results in Table 5.1. The P-value for the questionnaire fields is greater than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$), then the distribution for those fields is normally distributed.

5.6 Statistical Analysis Tools

In this section, I will use qualitative data analysis method. I will make an analysis of the data by utilizing (SPSS 13). The statistical tools that will be utilized include Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, Cronbach's Alpha, Pearson correlation coefficient, Frequency and Descriptive analysis, and Parametric Tests.

- *The T-test* is used for determining if an item's mean is significantly different from a hypothesized value 3 (Approximately the middle value of numerical scale 1-5). If the P value (Sig.) is greater than or equal to the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then the item's mean is insignificantly different from a hypothesized value 3. The Test value sign indicates whether the mean is significantly greater or smaller than hypothesized value 3. By contrast, if the P-value (Sig.) is smaller than the level of significance, $\alpha = 0.05$, then item's mean is significantly different from a hypothesized value 3.
- *The Independent Samples T-test* is used for examining if the difference between two means among the respondents toward the "The role of emotions in DM for employee selection" due to their personal trait (Gender) is statistically significant.
- *The One- Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)* is used to examine if the difference between several means among the respondents toward "The role of emotions in DM for employee selection" due to their personal traits (Age, Years of experience as a manager, and Academic Qualifications) is statistically significant.

5.7 Questionnaire's Validity

The degree of what it is assumed to be measured by an instrument is referred to as validity. Diverse assessment approaches may be included in the validity. For evaluating instrument validity which includes internal validity and structure validity, statistical validity can be used (Bahloul, 2011).

5.7.1 Internal validity

This kind of questionnaire's validity is the first statistical test that used to test the questionnaire's validity. It can be evaluated by measuring the correlation coefficients between each item in one field and the whole field.

Table 5.2: The correlation coefficient of each item of the "Emotion" field and the whole field

No.	Item (question)	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (sig.)
1	It is easy for me to express my emotions with words.	0.592**	0.000
2	I can see things from another person's viewpoint.	0.613**	0.000
3	I do not find it difficult to regulate my emotions.	0.533**	0.001
4	I can deal effectively with people.	0.580**	0.000
5	I am able to deal with stress.	0.682**	0.000
6	I can figure out what emotion I am feeling.	0.685**	0.000
7	There is a probability to be influenced by other's emotions.	0.674**	0.000
8	I show my affection to those closed to me.	0.540**	0.001
9	I am usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.	0.804**	0.000
10	I often pause and think about my feelings.	0.571**	0.000
11	I have much personal strength.	0.500**	0.002
12	I tend to "back down" even if I know I am right.	0.582**	0.000
13	I am clear about my feelings.	0.700**	0.000
14	I pay attention to how I feel.	0.681**	0.000
15	I experience my emotions as overwhelming and out of control.	0.327	0.052
16	I have no idea how I am feeling.	0.639**	0.000
17	I have difficulty making sense out of my feelings.	0.524**	0.001
18	I am attentive to my feelings.	0.484**	0.003
19	I know exactly how I am feeling.	0.403*	0.015
20	I care about what I am feeling.	0.767*	0.000
21	I am confused about how I feel.	0.602**	0.000
22	When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done.	0.590**	0.000
23	When I'm upset, I become out of control.	0.589**	0.000
24	When I'm upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time.	0.397*	0.017
25	When I'm upset, I believe that I'll end up feeling very depressed.	0.451**	0.006
26	When I'm upset, I believe that my feelings are valid and important.	0.561**	0.000
27	When I'm upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things.	0.621**	0.000
28	When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on what caused the feeling to change how I am feeling.	0.755**	0.006
29	When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on changing the feeling by doing something else (distract myself, think about it differently, etc.)	0.694**	0.000

* Correlation is Significant at the 0.05 level

Table 5.3: The correlation coefficient of each item of the "DM" field and the whole field

No.	Item (question)	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (sig.)
1	I enjoy making decisions.	0.631**	0.000
2	I rely on "gut feeling" when making decisions.	0.594**	0.000
3	I like to consult with others.	0.631**	0.000
4	I stick to my decisions no matter what may happen.	0.703**	0.000
5	When I find one option that will just about do, I leave it at that.	0.785**	0.000
6	I remain calm when I have to make decisions very quickly.	0.603**	0.000
7	I feel in control of things.	0.539**	0.001
8	My decisions are often governed by my ideals regardless of practical difficulties.	0.467**	0.004
9	I make decisions without considering all of the implications.	0.471**	0.004
10	I change my mind about things.	0.405*	0.014
11	I take the safe option if there is one.	0.260	0.125
12	I prefer to avoid making decisions if I can.	0.446**	0.006
13	I plan well ahead.	0.693**	0.000
14	When making decisions, I find myself favoring first one option than another.	0.570**	0.000
15	I carry on looking for something better even if I have found a course of action that is just about ok.	0.630**	0.000
16	I find it difficult to think	0.597**	0.000
17	I make up my own mind about things regardless of what others think.	0.624**	0.000
18	I avoid taking advice over decisions.	0.550**	0.001
19	I work out all the pros and cons before making a decision.	0.647**	0.000
20	In my DM, practicalities are more important than principles.	0.572**	0.000
21	My DM is a deliberate logical process.	0.636**	0.000

* Correlation is Significant at the 0.05 level

The correlation coefficient for each item of the "Emotion" field and the total of the field and the correlation coefficient for each item of "DM" field and the total of the field are clarified in Table 5.2 and Table 5.3, respectively. The correlation coefficients of both fields are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$, because the P-values for each of them are less than 0.05, so we can conclude that the items of those fields are consistent and valid to measure what it was set for.

5.7.2 The structure validity of the questionnaire

In order to test the validity of the questionnaire structure through testing the validity of each field and the validity of the whole questionnaire, structure validity test could be used. It measures the correlation coefficient between one field and all the fields of the questionnaire that have the same level of liker scale (Bahloul, 2011).

The correlation coefficient for each field and the whole questionnaire is clarified in Table 5.4. The P-values (Sig.) are less than 0.05, so the correlation coefficients of all the fields are significant at $\alpha = 0.05$, so we can conclude that the fields are valid to measure what it was set for to achieve the main aim of the study.

Table 5.4: The correlation coefficient of each field and the whole of the questionnaire

No.	Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (sig.)
1	The emotion field	0.946**	0.000
2	The DM style field	0.830**	0.000

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level

5.8 Research Reliability

In order to measure the attribute which is assumed to be measured, an instrument reliability tests could be used indicating the degree of stability for this instrument. Whenever an instrument produces less variation in repeated measurements of an attribute, its reliability could be higher. Reliability could be the synonyms of the dependability, consistency, stability of a measuring tool. The test is repeated to the same sample people on two situations and then there will be a comparison of the scores obtained by computing a reliability coefficient (Bahloul, 2011).

5.8.1 Cronbach’s coefficient alpha

The questionnaire’s reliability between each field and the whole fields could be measured by using this method. The normal range of Cronbach‘s coefficient alpha value between 0.0 and + 1.0 and the higher values reflect a higher degree of internal consistency. For each field of the questionnaire, The Cronbach‘s coefficient alpha was calculated.

The Cronbach's Alpha values for the questionnaire’s fields and the entire questionnaire are shown in Table 5.5. The values of Cronbach's Alpha for the fields were in the range from 0.898 and 0.933. We can consider this range as a high range; the reliability of the questionnaire’s fields could be ensured by the results. Cronbach's Alpha is equaling 0.947 for the entire questionnaire confirming an excellent reliability of the entire questionnaire.

Table 5.5: Cronbach's Alpha for the fields of the questionnaire and the entire questionnaire

No.	Field	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha coefficient
1	The Emotions Field	29	0.933
2	The DM Field	21	0.898
	All Questionnaire Items	50	0.947

6. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

6.1 Data Analysis

In this section, demographic data of the respondents will be analyzed and discussed. These data include the personal traits of our sample like age, gender, academic qualification and years of experience as managers.

Table 6.1 indicates that the highest ratio of the respondents (55.6%) was from the age span between 30 and 40. In my opinion, this may be attributed to the fact that managers at this age have more power, skills, and awareness of their work. Also, I would like not to forget that there are small percentages of the respondents whose ages range from 40 to more than 60 years old indicating that the age of decision makers in IAU consists of diverse categories even though these percentages are so small.

Table 6.1: Respondent's Age Group Representation

Age	Frequency	Percent
< 30 years	9	25%
30-40 years	20	55.6%
40-50 years	3	8.2%
50-60 years	2	5.6%
> 60 years	2	5.6%

Table 6.2 indicates that the ratio of the male and female respondents is 55.6%, 44.4%, respectively. This result indicates that the ratio of the male dominates over the one of the females; and the reasons behind this result from my perspective could be attributed to the work fields of women, which are so limited, the many obligations that could be the women's responsibility more than those of men such as home or family obligations. Also, I think that the managerial positions, in general, are the destiny of men more than women.

Table 6.2: Respondent's Gender Representation

Gender	Frequency	Percent
Male	20	55.6%
Female	16	44.4%

Table 6.3 indicates that 64% of our respondents have Bachelor degree at least, while 36% of them have Diploma degree or less than that. This may be attributed to the fact that most of our respondents have a high degree of education and are more knowledgeable. In my opinion, this could result from the IAU minimum requirements of qualification that are considered necessary for any university that wants to hire a new employee.

Table 6.3: Respondent's level of Qualification Representation

Qualification	Frequency	Percent
< Diploma	5	13.9%
Diploma	8	22.2%
Bachelor	10	27.8%
Advanced Degree	13	36.1%

Table 6.4 indicates that 77.7% of our respondents have an experience with up to 10 years in the management positions. This indicates the high experienced managers attracted by IAU. We can say that this could be a positive sign of the quality of decisions made by managers in IAU.

Table 6.4: Respondent's Years of Experience as managers Representation

Years of experience as a manager	Frequency	Percent
< 5 years	12	33.3%
5-10 years	16	44.4%
10-15 years	5	13.9%
> 15 years	3	8.4%

6.2 Statistical Analysis of The Study Fields

The main hypothesis stated that "the relationship between emotions and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05)". The following analysis clarifies analysis for each field of our questionnaire.

6.2.1 Level of non-acceptance of emotional responses

The relationship between non-acceptance of emotional responses and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.5: Means and Test values for "Level of non-acceptance of emotional responses"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I can see things from another person's viewpoint.	3.06	30.56	0.000	18.63	1
2	I have much personal strength.	2.78	27.78	0.000	14.19	2
3	I tend to "back down" even if I know I am right.	2.67	26.67	0.000	-13.95	7
4	I am confused about how I feel.	2.75	27.50	0.000	13.70	3
5	When I'm upset, I become out of control.	2.69	26.94	0.000	13.57	6
6	When I'm upset, I believe that I'll end up feeling very depressed.	2.69	26.94	0.000	15.59	4
7	When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on changing the feeling by doing something else (distract myself, think about it differently, etc.)	2.69	26.94	0.000	17.56	5
	All items of the field	2.76	27.61	0.000	24.1	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.5 presents results as below:

- Item (1): "I *can see things from another person's viewpoint*" has a mean equaling 3.06 (30.56%), 18.63 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance of this item by our respondents.
- Item (3): "*I tend to "back down" even if I know I am right*" has a mean equaling 2.67 (26.67%), -13.95 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- The field "Level of non-acceptance of emotional responses" has a mean equaling 2.76 (27.61%), 24.11 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers recognizing the non-acceptance of emotional responses. This means that they tend to have negative secondary responses to negative emotions or not accept emotional reactions to distress. The analysis result indicates that (27.61%) of the decision makers of IAU don't agree with the non-acceptance of emotional responses in IAU. Taking this issue into account is very important when making a decision. So, we can conclude that the decision makers in IAU will benefit from this issue when making effective decisions which meet IAU natural.

6.2.2 Level of difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior

The relationship between difficulty engaging in Goal-directed behavior and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.6: Means and Test values for "Level of difficulty engaging in Goal-directed behavior"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I do not find it difficult to regulate my emotions.	3.14	31.39	0.000	20.94	3
2	I am clear about my feelings.	3.14	31.39	0.000	17.13	2
3	I am attentive to my feelings.	2.89	28.89	0.000	15.90	4
4	I care about what I am feeling.	3.19	31.94	0.000	19.55	1
5	When I'm upset, I believe that my feelings are valid and important.	2.78	27.78	0.000	17.37	5
	All items of the field	2.85	28.55	0.000	24.34	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.6 presents results as below:

- Item (4): "*I care about what I am feeling*" has a mean equaling 3.19 (31.94%), 19.55 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance of this item by our respondents.
- Item (5): "*When I'm upset, I believe that my feelings are valid and important*" has a mean equaling 2.78 (27.78%), 17.37 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- The field "Level of difficulty engaging in Goal-directed behavior" has a mean equaling 2.85 (28.55%), 24.34 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers recognizing difficulties in engaging in the goal-directed behavior. This means that they tend to have difficulties concentrating and accomplishing tasks when experiencing negative emotions. The result of this analysis indicates that (28.55%), of the decision makers of IAU don't agree with this issue in IAU. This will help them support their institutions by performing behaviors or making decisions that are suitable with their institution's goals.

6.2.3 Level of control difficulties

The relationship between control difficulties and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.7 presents results as below:

- Item (1): "*I can deal effectively with people*" has a mean equaling 3.31 (33.06%), 17.00 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance (α = 0.05). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance of this item by our respondents.
- Item (4): "*When I'm upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time*" has a mean equaling 2.44 (24.44%), 14.69 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance (α = 0.05). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- The field "Level of control difficulties" has a mean equaling 2.85 (28.55%), 24.35 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance (α = 0.05). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Table 6.7: Means and Test values for "Level of control difficulties"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I can deal effectively with people.	3.31	33.06	0.000	17.00	1
2	I pay attention to how I feel.	2.86	28.61	0.000	17.86	3
3	I know exactly how I am feeling.	3.06	30.56	0.000	19.83	2
4	When I'm upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time.	2.44	24.44	0.000	14.69	5
5	When I'm upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things.	2.61	26.11	0.000	14.92	4
	All items of the field	2.85	28.55	0.000	24.35	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers recognizing impulse control difficulties. This means that they tend to have difficulties with remaining in control of behavior when experiencing negative emotions. The result of this analysis indicates that (28.55%) of the decision makers of IAU face don't agree with this issue in IAU. Taking this issue into consideration is very important for them when engaging in DM process.

6.2.4 Level of emotional awareness

The relationship between emotional awareness and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.8 presents results as below:

- Item (2): "*I can figure out what emotion I am feeling*" has a mean equaling 3.17 (31.67%), 18.47 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance of this item by our respondents.

- Item (5): "*I have difficulty making sense out of my feelings*" has a mean equaling 2.33 (23.33%), 13.09 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- The field "Level of emotional awareness" has a mean equaling 3.02 (30.27%), 26.66 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Table 6.8: Means and Test values for "Level of emotional awareness"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I am able to deal with stress.	2.89	28.89	0.000	17.70	3
2	I can figure out what emotion I am feeling.	3.17	31.67	0.000	18.47	1
3	I show my affection to those closed to me.	2.81	28.06	0.000	16.23	4
4	I often pause and think about my feelings.	3.08	30.83	0.000	16.73	2
5	I have difficulty making sense out of my feelings.	2.33	23.33	0.000	13.09	5
	All items of the field	3.02	30.27	0.000	26.66	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers who lack emotional awareness. This means having difficulties associated with attending to and acknowledging emotions. The result of this analysis indicates that (30.27%) of the decision makers in IAU lack emotional awareness. Taking this issue into consideration will very important for today's managers and decision makers to make effective decisions in logical manners.

6.2.5 Level of access to emotion regulation strategies

The relationship between access to emotion regulation strategies and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.9 presents results as below:

- Item (3): "*When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done*" has a mean equaling 2.94 (29.44%), 14.50 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- Item (4): "*When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on what caused the feeling to change how I am feeling*" has a mean equaling 2.75 (27.50%), 15.68 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign; therefore, this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- The field "Level of access to emotion regulation strategies" has a mean equaling 2.84 (28.47%), 22.58 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Table 6.9: Means and Test values for "Level of access to emotion regulation strategies"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I experience my emotions as overwhelming and out of control.	2.92	29.17	0.000	19.30	2
2	I have no idea how I am feeling.	2.78	27.78	0.000	15.94	3
3	When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done.	2.94	29.44	0.000	14.50	1
4	When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on what caused the feeling to change how I am feeling.	2.75	27.50	0.000	15.68	4
	All items of the field	2.84	28.47	0.000	22.58	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers who have limited access to emotion regulation strategies. This means having a belief that once they get upset, they have little to do to regulate their emotions. The result of this analysis indicates that (28.47%) of the decision makers in IAU don't agree with the field "having limited access to emotion regulation strategies". From my perspective, it is very beneficial for most decision makers to know how they can regulate their emotions immediately even though they have experienced negative emotions.

6.2.6 Level of emotional clarity

The relationship between emotional clarity and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.10: Means and Test values for "Level of emotional clarity"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	It is easy for me to express my emotions with words.	3.14	31.39	0.000	18.00	1
2	There is a probability to be influenced by other's emotions.	2.92	29.17	0.000	15.14	3
3	I am usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.	3.03	30.28	0.000	16.39	2
	All items of the field	3.02	30.27	0.000	19.31	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.10 presents results as below:

- Item (1): "*It is easy for me to express my emotions with words*" has a mean equaling 3.14 (31.39%), 18.00 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance of this item by our respondents.
- Item (2): "*There is a probability to be influenced by other's emotions*" has a mean equaling 2.92 (29.17%), 15.14 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this item's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this item by our respondents.
- The field "Level of emotional clarity" has a mean equaling 3.02 (30.27%), 19.31 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers who lack emotional clarity. This means how much managers know and understand the emotions they are experiencing. The result of this analysis indicates that (30.27%) of the decision makers in IAU lack emotional clarity. From my perspective, it is very important for individuals to know and understand their feelings well especially if they are in management positions in order to try to avoid any negative consequences resulting from negative emotions.

6.2.7 Dominant decision making style

The difference in the aspects of emotion and DM style attributed to the respondent's personal traits such as age, gender, experience, and academic qualifications is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.11: Means and Test values for "Rational DM style"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I make decisions without considering all of the implications.	3.00	30.0	0.000	20.12	3
2	I plan well ahead.	3.25	32.50	0.000	20.15	1
3	I work out all the pros and cons before making a decision.	2.89	28.89	0.000	18.86	4
4	My decision making is a deliberate logical process.	3.03	30.28	0.000	23.46	2
	All items of the field	3.04	30.41	0.000	28.92	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.11 presents results as below:

The filed "Rational DM style" has a mean equaling 3.04 (30.41%), 28.92 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance (α = 0.05). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers searching for alternatives and evaluating them logically. The result of this analysis indicates that (30.41%) of the decision makers of IAU have the rational DM style. From my perspective, it is a good percentage and a good indicator for deciding on something in a rational manner. This will lead to effective decisions produced by those managers who take thoroughness into their consideration when deciding.

Table 6.12: Means and Test values for "Intuitive DM style"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	When I find one option that will just about do, I leave it at that.	2.92	29.17	0.000	18.67	3
2	I carry on looking for something better even if I have found a course of action that is just about ok.	3.25	32.50	0.000	22.30	1
3	I rely on "gut feeling" when making decisions.	2.86	28.61	0.000	22.53	4
4	I stick to my decisions no matter what may happen.	3.06	30.56	0.000	23.18	2
	All items of the field	3.02	30.20	0.000	28.35	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.12 presents results as below:

The filed "Intuitive DM style" has a mean equaling 3.02 (30.20%), 28.35 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers caring to details and tending to depend on feeling. The result of this analysis indicates that (30.20%) of the decision makers in IAU have the Intuitive DM style.

Table 6.13 presents results as below:

The filed “Dependent DM style” has a mean equaling 2.93 (29.38%), 33.55 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this field’s mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Table 6.13: Means and Test values for “Dependent DM style”

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I like to consult with others.	3.03	30.28	0.000	21.50	2
2	I make up my own mind about things regardless of what others think.	3.00	30.00	0.000	20.88	3
3	I avoid taking advice over decisions.	2.69	26.94	0.000	17.00	5
4	My decisions are often governed by my ideals regardless of practical difficulties.	3.08	30.83	0.000	26.74	1
5	In my decision making, practicalities are more important than principles.	2.89	28.89	0.000	21.12	4
	All items of the field	**2.93**	**29.38**	**0.000**	**33.55**	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Generally, these dimension’s questions indicate the rate of managers searching for and dependence on others’ advice. The result of this analysis indicates that (29.38%) of the decision makers of IAU don’t have the dependent DM style.

Table 6.14: Means and Test values for "Avoidant DM style"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I enjoy making decisions.	3.06	30.56	0.000	18.63	1
2	I remain calm when I have to make decisions very quickly.	2.92	29.17	0.000	19.30	3
3	I feel in control of things.	2.94	29.44	0.000	17.95	2
4	I prefer to avoid making decisions if I can.	2.83	28.33	0.000	21.94	4
5	I find it difficult to think	2.83	28.33	0.000	20.97	5
	All items of the field	2.91	29.16	0.000	29.46	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.14 presents results as below:

The filed **"Avoidant DM style"** has a mean equaling 2.91 (29.16%), 29.46 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a negative sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly less than the hypothesized value 3 which results in a non-acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicate the rate of managers tending to avoid decisions whenever possible. The result of this analysis indicates that (29.16%) of the decision makers of IAU don't have the avoidant DM style.

Table 6.15: Means and Test values for "Spontaneous DM style"

#	Item	Mean	Proportional mean (%)	P-value (Sig.)	Test value	Rank
1	I change my mind about things.	2.94	29.44	0.000	20.54	3
2	I take the safe option if there is one.	3.06	30.56	0.000	20.53	2
3	When making decisions, I find myself favoring first one option than another.	3.17	31.67	0.000	19.56	1
	All items of the field	3.05	30.55	0.000	31.16	

* The mean is significantly different from 3

Table 6.15 presents results as below:

The filed "Spontaneous DM style" has a mean equaling 3.05 (30.55%), 31.16 as a Test-value, and 0.000 as a P-value which is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$). The test indicates a positive sign, therefore this field's mean is significantly more than the hypothesized value 3 which results in an acceptance to this field by our respondents.

Generally, these dimension's questions indicated the managers' sense of immediacy and desire to complete the DM process as soon as possible. The result of this analysis indicates that (30.55%) of the decision makers of IAU have the spontaneous DM style.

In General: The rational and spontaneous DM styles are the most dominant styles of decision makers in IAU. The percentages of decision makers who have these two styles are a good indicator for making effective decisions in IAU.

6.3 Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis #1

The relationship between emotions and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

I have divided this hypothesis into the following sub-hypotheses:

a) The relationship between non-acceptance of emotional responses and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.16: The correlation coefficient between non-acceptance of emotional responses and DM style

Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (Sig.)
Non-acceptance of emotional responses and DM style.	0.548**	0.001

* Correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level

Table 6.16 indicates the correlation coefficient between non-acceptance of emotional responses and DM style equaling 0.548** and the P-value (Sig.) equaling 0.001 which is smaller than 0.05, thus the correlation coefficient is statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. So, this result confirms a positive relationship.

b) The relationship between difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.17: The correlation coefficient between difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior and DM style

Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (Sig.)
Difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior and DM style.	0.541**	0.001

* Correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level

Table 6.17 indicates the correlation coefficient between difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior and DM style equaling 0.541** and the P-value (Sig.) equaling 0.001 which is smaller than 0.05, thus the correlation coefficient is statistically significant at α = 0.05. So, this result confirms a positive relationship.

c) The relationship between control difficulties and DM style is statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.18: The correlation coefficient between control difficulties and DM style

Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (Sig.)
Control difficulties and DM style.	0.484**	0.003

* Correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level

Table 6.18 indicates the correlation coefficient between control difficulties and DM style equaling 0.484** and the P-value (Sig.) equaling 0.003 which is smaller than 0.05, thus the correlation coefficient is statistically significant at α = 0.05. So, this result confirms a positive relationship.

d) There is a statistically significant relationship at (α=0.05) emotional awareness and DM style.

Table 6.19: The correlation coefficient between emotional awareness and DM style

Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (Sig.)
Emotional awareness and DM style.	0.498**	0.002

* Correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level

Table 6.19 indicates the correlation coefficient between emotional awareness and DM style equaling 0.498** and the P-value (Sig.) equaling 0.002 which is smaller than 0.05, thus the correlation coefficient is statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. So, this result confirms a positive relationship.

e) There is a statistically significant relationship at (α=0.05) access to emotion regulation strategies and DM style.

Table 6.20: The correlation coefficient between access to emotion regulation strategies and DM style

Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (Sig.)
Access to emotion regulation strategies and DM style.	0.152	0.376

* Correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level

Table 6.20 indicates the correlation coefficient between access to emotion regulation strategies and dominant DM equaling 0.152 and the P-value (Sig.) equaling 0.367 which is more than 0.05, thus the correlation coefficient is statistically insignificant at $\alpha = 0.05$. So, this result confirms a negative relationship.

f) There is a statistically significant relationship at (α=0.05) emotional clarity and DM style.

Table 6.21: The correlation coefficient between emotional clarity and DM style

Field	Pearson correlation coefficient	P-value (Sig.)
Emotional clarity and DM style.	0.548**	0.001

* Correlation is statistically significant at 0.05 level

Table 6.21 indicates the correlation coefficient between emotional clarity and DM style equaling 0.548** and the P-value (Sig.) equaling 0.001 which is smaller than 0.05, so the correlation coefficient is statistically significant at $\alpha = 0.05$. So, this result confirms a positive relationship.

Hypothesis #2

The differences among the respondents' answers regarding the Role of emotions in the DM Process due to their personal traits (Age, Gender, Qualification, and Years of experience as a manager) are not statistically significant at (α=0.05).

I have divided this hypothesis into the following sub-hypotheses:

2-a The differences among the respondents' answers regarding the Role of emotions in the DM Process due their gender are not statistically significant at (α=0.05).

Table 6.22: Independent Samples T-Test of the fields and their P-values due to Gender

#	Field	Test Value (T)	P-value (Sig.)	Mean	
				Male	Female
1	Emotions	1.755	0.856	3.03	2.68
2	DM style	1.124	0.171	3.06	2.88

***** The mean difference is significant a 0.05 level

Table 6.22 indicates that the P-value (Sig.) is more than the level of significance α = 0.05 for both fields, then the difference among respondents' answers regarding the Role of Emotions in the DM Process toward these fields due to Gender is insignificant. As a result, confirming that the personal trait "Gender" has no effect on these fields.

2-b *The differences among the respondents' answers regarding the Role of emotions in the DM Process due their age are not statistically significant at (α=0.05).*

Table 6.23: One-Way ANOVA Test of the fields and their P-values due to Age

#	Field	Test Value (T)	P-value (Sig.)	Mean				
				Less than	Between	Between	Between	More than
1	Emotions	2.941	0.036	2.97	2.85	3.11	1.75	3.58
2	DM style	1.504	0.225	2.83	2.93	3.30	3.04	3.64

***** The mean difference is significant a 0.05 level

Table 6.23 indicates that the P-value (Sig.) is less than the level of significance (α = 0.05) for the field “Emotions”, then the difference among respondents' answers regarding the Role of Emotions in the DM Process toward this field due to Age is significant. As a result, confirming that the personal trait “Age” has an effect on this field.

Table 6.19 indicates that the P-value (Sig.) is more than the level of significance α = 0.05 for the other field “DM”, then the difference among respondents' answers regarding the Role of Emotions in the DM Process toward this field due to Age is insignificant. As a result, confirming that the personal trait “Age” has no effect on this field.

2-c *The differences among the respondents' answers regarding the Role of emotions in the DM Process due their qualifications are not statistically significant at (α=0.05).*

Table 6.24: One-Way ANOVA Test of the fields and their P-values due to Qualifications

#	Field	Test Value (T)	P-value (Sig.)	Mean			
				Less than Diploma	Diploma	Bachelor	Advanced Degree
1	Emotions	6.690	0.001	2.234	2.478	3.231	3.10
2	DM style	4.249	0.012	2.542	2.744	3.033	3.267

***** The mean difference is significant a 0.05 level

Table 6.24 indicates that the P-value (Sig.) is less than the level of significance (α = 0.05) for both fields “Emotions and DM style”, then the difference among respondents' answers regarding the Role of Emotions in the DM Process toward these fields is significant. As a result, confirming that the personal trait “Qualifications” has an effect on these fields.

We conclude that the respondents of our study have different visions over the study fields due to their qualifications, and this confirms that the qualification does influence the study sample opinions towards the study fields.

2-d *The differences among the respondents' answers regarding the Role of emotions in the DM Process due their years of experience as managers are not statistically significant at (α=0.05).*

Table 6.25: One-Way ANOVA Test of the fields and their P-values due to Years of Experience

#	Field	Test Value (T)	P-value (Sig.)	Mean			
				Less than 5 years	Between 5-10 years	Between 10-15	More than 15 years
1	Emotions	2.327	0.093	2.88	2.91	2.37	3.49
2	DM style	3.240	0.035	2.70	3.10	2.97	3.52

***** The mean difference is significant a 0.05 level

Table 6.25 indicates that the P-value (Sig.) is less than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) for the field "DM style", then the difference among respondents' answers regarding the Role of Emotions in the DM Process toward this field is significant. As a result, confirming that the variable "Years of Experience as a manager" has an effect on this field.

Table 6.25 indicates that the p-value (Sig.) is more than the level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) for the field "Emotions", then the difference among respondents' answers regarding the Role of Emotions in the DM Process toward this field is insignificant. As a result, confirming that the variable "Years of Experience as a manager" has no effect on this field.

7. GREY-RELATIONAL ANALYSIS APPLICATION

While we were waiting for collecting the initial data of our questionnaires, an application of Grey- Relational Analysis application was applied randomly to examine how really managers of IAU can select the optimal applicant when they need a qualified employee for a job vacancy in IAU academic section. In this section of our research, we aimed to use the grey relational analysis method to assess applicants that have applied for a job in the academic section in IAU.

The selection process has been widely used in many organizations and universities with good progress in development. However, each applicant has his/her advantages and disadvantages against various criteria, and the optimal applicant against all criteria has not been achieved. The experimental results showed that a relatively better applicant could be selected based on the various requirements of the job in IAU.

Selection of qualified academic staff to fill a job vacancy in a university involves a serious of complex selection processes. Good qualifications and characteristics of an applicant are necessary to obtain optimal applicant for the job. In addition, criteria and requirements for that job including age, academic background, languages, computer skills, etc., should be chosen properly. However, selection of appropriate applicants for a university is difficult and relies heavily on decision makers' experience.

7.1 Grey-Relational Analysis

A solution of a system in which the model is unsure or the information is incomplete can be provided by the Grey Theory which also provides efficient solutions to the uncertainty, multi-input and discrete data problem (Singh, Raghukandan, & others, 2004). The Grey relational analysis can find out the relation between criteria and applicants. Moreover, the

discrete measurement method to measure the distance will be utilized by the Grey relational grade (Huang, Liao, & others, 2003).

Some researchers have conducted researches related to personnel selection. A Simple Additive Weighting approach to personnel selection problem was used in some studies, while others have focused on maximum entropy that has been invoked recently and may be applied either to weights or to linear weighted scores of the candidates in a selection problem. Other studies have proposed a TOPSIS-based multi-criteria approach to personnel selection.

For helping organizations to make best decisions related to personnel selection, many other various approaches have been developed to place the right people in the right jobs. While most of the traditional methods to select employees depend on statistical analysis of test scores that are treated as accurate reflections of reality, modern approaches, in contrast, consider selection as a complex process involving a significant amount of vagueness and subjectivity.

7.2 Methodology and Application of the Grey-Relational Analysis

We assumed that the optimal applicant for IAU in the current study has not been selected yet. Therefore, our study has its own assumption aimed to find the optimal applicant for IAU using grey relational analysis to assess applicants, rank them, and find the optimal one.

In this paper, we have assumed that we have n criteria ($C_n = C_1, C_2, C_3, \ldots, C_8$) where n is the number of evaluation factors used in our assumption and which are randomly selected consisting of some standards used by some managers when choosing between available applicants to select the best suitable one. In our example, we focused on the Grey-Relational Analysis method to determine the optimal applicant who may be selected for an interview by the decision makers in IAU. We also assumed an existence of m applicants ($A_m = A_1, A_2, A_3, \ldots. A_{20}$): where m is the number of applicants in our example.

In our own assumption, there are 20 alternatives, which are ranged from A_1 to A_{20}. First of all, it will be useful to identify the criteria used in our research. Table 7.1 illustrates

eight criteria we randomly selected. In any other cases, a university can develop its own criteria or change levels required according to its own assumptions and needs.

Table 7.1: Job Criteria or applicant qualifications

Notation	Definition	Level required
C_1	Age	Optimal
C_2	Education	Maximum
C_3	Certificates	Optimal
C_4	Languages	Optimal
C_5	Computer skills	Maximum
C_6	References	Maximum
C_7	Secondary jobs	Minimum
C_8	Frequent travels	Minimum

C_1: Age; it is considered as very important criteria amongst others. For example, A_1 is 50 years old. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the optimum value of C_1.

C_2: Academic Background; it reflects the academic degree of an applicant and it's divided in our assumption into 4 categories explained in Table 7.2; where #1 indicates Bachelor degree, #2 indicates Master degree, #3 indicates the Ph.D. degree, and #4 indicates more than a Ph.D. degree. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the maximum value of C_2.

Table 7.2: Categories of Academic Degrees

Number	Explanation
1	Bachelor degree
2	Master degree
3	Ph.D. degree
4	More than Ph.D. degree

C_3: Certificates; it reflects the number of certificates, workshops, documents certifying that an applicant has received specific education, learning, or skills of something related to the job or has passed a test or series of tests. It is randomly ranged in our example from 0 to 3 certificates. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the optimum value of C_3- the value desired by the university.

C_4: Languages; it reflects in our example the number of languages known by an applicant and it's ranged randomly from 1 to 4 languages. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the optimum value of C_4; it may be because the costs that might be paid by the university for this employee for knowing more than two languages will be higher in spite of the needless of these extra languages. Because of that, we don't need – as a university- more languages known by an applicant.

C_5: Computer skills; it reflects the number of computer skills known by an applicant such as Microsoft Office Programs, SPSS, and others. It is ranged from 1 to 4 in our example. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the maximum value of C_5; the more computer skills known by an applicant, the better for the university.

C_6: References; it reflects the number of references provided by an applicant in his/her CV, it is ranged from 0 to 3 in our example. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the maximum value of C_6. The more references provided by an applicant, the better for the university.

C_7: Other jobs; it reflects the number of secondary jobs that an employee is possessing, it is ranged from 1 to 5 in our example. To illustrate, in our example, we assumed that the university needs employees to fill a full-time job vacancy, so it is not needed to select an applicant who is working more than one job. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the minimum value of C_7. The more other jobs an applicant may have will limit his/her chance to be accepted be the university as we supposed that the university needs employees for a full-time job.

C_8: Frequent Travels: it reflects the number of travels of an employee during 3 months - for example, it is ranged from 1 to 6 in our example. The researcher supposed in the current research that the university wants the minimum value of C_8.

In our application, we assumed that all criteria are equally distributed. The weight of importance for every criterion is the same as any other one; every criterion weighted 0.125% out of 100%. In some other cases where some organizations may use other methods- such as Delphi, weighted, and entropy- to select the optimal alternative amongst other available ones, they may consider the inequality distribution between attributes or criteria considered.

7.2.1 Grey relational analysis method

There are eight steps for Grey Relational Analysis (GRA) presented as following:

Step 1: *Construct the decision (evaluation) matrix:* $D_{m\times n}$

$$D_{m\times n} = [D_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & x_{13} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & x_{23} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & x_{m3} & \dots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

The dimension of decision matrix is $\times n$, m rows and n columns.

As we mentioned before that we have 8 criteria in our study *(n=8), and 20 applicants (m=20).*

Step 2: *Create the Reference Series (RS)*

In our example, we assumed that the university wants the maximum value of **C_2, C_5**, and **C_6**, the minimum value of **C_7**, **C_8**, and we assumed an optimum value for **C_1**, **C_3**, and **C_4**. In any other cases, individuals can change these values according to their needs and requirements. As a result, Table 7.3 is presented.

Table 7.3: Reference Series

	C_1	**C_2**	**C_3**	**C_4**	**C_5**	**C_6**	**C_7**	**C_8**
RS	50	4	3	4	4	3	1	1

To illustrate, in our example, we wanted to maximize the value of C_2, so we set the reference value as maximum; others will be determined similarly. If the expectancy of criteria is larger the better, then you can set maximum value.

<u>Step 3</u>: *Normalization of Decision Matrix*

This can be done through a process called "grey-relational generation" which divides the criteria into maximum, minimum, and optimum as following:

- By using the formula (1) below, one can maximize the criteria.

$$X_i(p) = \frac{X_i^{(0)}(p) - min\ X_i^{(0)}(p)}{max\ (X_i^{(0)}(p) - min\ X_i^{(0)}(p)} \quad (1)$$

- By using the formula (2) below, one can minimize the criteria.

$$X_i(p) = \frac{max\ X_i^{(0)}(p) - X_i^{(0)}(p)}{max\ (X_i^{(0)}(p) - min\ X_i^{(0)}(p)} \quad (2)$$

- By using the formula (3) below, one can optimize the criteria.

$$X_i(p) = \frac{1 - \left| X_i^{(0)}(p) - \mathrm{OD} \right|}{max\left[max\ X_i^{(0)}(p) - OD; OD - min\ X_i^{(0)}(p)\right]} \quad (3)$$

Where OD is the target value; $X_i(p)$ is the data after grey-relational generation; $max\ X_i^{(0)}(p)$ is the maximum value of the original sequence factor; $min\ X_i^{(0)}(p)$is the minimum value of the original sequence.

Table 7.4: Normalized Decision Matrix

	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_4	C_5	C_6	C_7	C_8
RS	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A_1	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.33	0.67	1.00	0.75	0
A_2	0.50	0.67	0.67	0.67	1.00	1.00	0.00	0.2
A_3	0.23	0.00	0.67	0.00	0.67	0.67	0.25	0.6
A_4	0.62	1.00	1.00	1.00	0.00	1.00	0.50	1
A_5	0.04	0.00	0.33	0.00	0.33	0.00	1.00	0.8
A_6	0.42	0.67	0.00	0.33	0.00	0.67	0.75	0.8
A_7	0.81	1.00	1.00	0.67	0.33	1.00	0.75	0.2
A_8	0.00	0.00	0.67	0.67	1.00	0.33	0.00	1
A_9	0.19	0.00	0.67	1.00	0.67	0.33	0.50	0.8
A_{10}	0.92	1.00	0.33	0.33	0.67	0.67	0.50	0.8
A_{11}	1.00	0.33	0.33	0.00	0.33	0.67	0.75	0
A_{12}	0.12	0.33	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.25	0
A_{13}	1.00	1.00	0.67	1.00	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.2
A_{14}	0.62	0.67	1.00	1.00	0.33	1.00	0.75	1
A_{15}	0.46	0.33	1.00	0.67	0.00	0.33	1.00	0.8
A_{16}	0.35	0.33	0.67	0.33	1.00	0.00	0.25	0.8
A_{17}	0.85	1.00	0.33	0.33	0.67	1.00	0.50	1
A_{18}	0.69	0.67	1.00	0.33	0.67	0.67	0.50	0.6
A_{19}	0.15	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.67	1.00	0.2
A_{20}	0.27	0.33	0.33	0.67	0.33	0.67	0.75	0

For example, the academic background (C_2) is used as a metric to measure the academic background of an employee. Usually, the ratio used is the larger the better. Therefore, to normalize this column of decision matrix, equation (1) is used. As a result of the grey-relational generation, Table 7.4 is presented.

Step 4: *Calculate the absolute difference between every comparison sequence $X_i(p)$ and the corresponding target sequence $X_{(0)}(p)$.*

$$\Delta oi\ (p) = \left| X_i{}^{(0)}(p) - X_i(p) \right| \qquad (4)$$

As a result of the absolute difference calculations, Table 7.5 is presented.

Table 7.5: Absolute Value Decision Matrix

	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_4	C_5	C_6	C_7	C_8
RS	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
A_1	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	0.6667	0.3333	0.0000	0.25	1
A_2	0.5000	0.3333	0.3333	0.3333	0.0000	0.0000	1	0.8
A_3	0.7692	1.0000	0.3333	1.0000	0.3333	0.3333	0.75	0.4
A_4	0.3846	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0.5	0
A_5	0.9615	1.0000	0.6667	1.0000	0.6667	1.0000	0	0.2
A_6	0.5769	0.3333	1.0000	0.6667	1.0000	0.3333	0.25	0.2
A_7	0.1923	0.0000	0.0000	0.3333	0.6667	0.0000	0.25	0.8
A_8	1.0000	1.0000	0.3333	0.3333	0.0000	0.6667	1	0
A_9	0.8077	1.0000	0.3333	0.0000	0.3333	0.6667	0.5	0.2
A_{10}	0.0769	0.0000	0.6667	0.6667	0.3333	0.3333	0.5	0.2
A_{11}	0.0000	0.6667	0.6667	1.0000	0.6667	0.3333	0.25	1
A_{12}	0.8846	0.6667	1.0000	1.0000	0.0000	1.0000	0.75	1
A_{13}	0.0000	0.0000	0.3333	0.0000	1.0000	0.0000	0	0.8
A_{14}	0.3846	0.3333	0.0000	0.0000	0.6667	0.0000	0.25	0
A_{15}	0.5385	0.6667	0.0000	0.3333	1.0000	0.6667	0	0.2
A_{16}	0.6538	0.6667	0.3333	0.6667	0.0000	1.0000	0.75	0.2
A_{17}	0.1538	0.0000	0.6667	0.6667	0.3333	0.0000	0.5	0
A_{18}	0.3077	0.3333	0.0000	0.6667	0.3333	0.3333	0.5	0.4
A_{19}	0.8462	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	0.3333	0	0.8
A_{20}	0.7308	0.6667	0.6667	0.3333	0.6667	0.3333	0.25	1

Step 5: *Find the maximal Δmax and the minimal Δmin absolute difference of the comparison sequence and the target sequence and the weight of each criterion.*

As a result of the absolute difference calculations, Table 7.6 is presented.

Table 7.6: Maximum and Minimum ranges of Absolute Decision Matrix

	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_4	C_5	C_6	C_7	C_8
Max	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Min	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Weight	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125	0.125

Step 6: *Construct the Grey-Relational Coefficient Matrix*

Determine ζ, (here ζ = 0.05), it is used to select the grey-relational degree of average distribution. If 1 > ζ > 0.05, then the grey-relational degree moves toward the maximum value; if 0.05 > ζ > 0, then the grey-relational degree moves toward the minimum value. The grey-relational coefficient can be obtained through Equation 5.

$$\Upsilon\left(X_{(0)}(p), X_i(p)\right) = \frac{(\Delta\min + \zeta \times \Delta\max)}{\Delta oi(p) + \zeta \times \Delta\max} \quad (5)$$

As a result of the grey-relational coefficient calculations, Table 7.7 is presented.

Table 7.7: Grey-Relational Coefficient Matrix

	C_1	C_2	C_3	C_4	C_5	C_6	C_7	C_8
A_1	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	0.4286	0.6000	1.0000	0.6667	0.3333
A_2	0.5000	0.6000	0.6000	0.6000	1.0000	1.0000	0.3333	0.3846
A_3	0.3939	0.3333	0.6000	0.3333	0.6000	0.6000	0.4000	0.5556
A_4	0.5652	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000	0.3333	1.0000	0.5000	1.0000
A_5	0.3421	0.3333	0.4286	0.3333	0.4286	0.3333	1.0000	0.7143
A_6	0.4643	0.6000	0.3333	0.4286	0.3333	0.6000	0.6667	0.7143
A_7	0.7222	1.0000	1.0000	0.6000	0.4286	1.0000	0.6667	0.3846
A_8	0.3333	0.3333	0.6000	0.6000	1.0000	0.4286	0.3333	1.0000
A_9	0.3824	0.3333	0.6000	1.0000	0.6000	0.4286	0.5000	0.7143
A_{10}	0.8667	1.0000	0.4286	0.4286	0.6000	0.6000	0.5000	0.7143
A_{11}	1.0000	0.4286	0.4286	0.3333	0.4286	0.6000	0.6667	0.3333
A_{12}	0.3611	0.4286	0.3333	0.3333	1.0000	0.3333	0.4000	0.3333
A_{13}	1.0000	1.0000	0.6000	1.0000	0.3333	1.0000	1.0000	0.3846
A_{14}	0.5652	0.6000	1.0000	1.0000	0.4286	1.0000	0.6667	1.0000
A_{15}	0.4815	0.4286	1.0000	0.6000	0.3333	0.4286	1.0000	0.7143
A_{16}	0.4333	0.4286	0.6000	0.4286	1.0000	0.3333	0.4000	0.7143
A_{17}	0.7647	1.0000	0.4286	0.4286	0.6000	1.0000	0.5000	1.0000
A_{18}	0.6190	0.6000	1.0000	0.4286	0.6000	0.6000	0.5000	0.5556
A_{19}	0.3714	0.3333	0.3333	0.3333	0.3333	0.6000	1.0000	0.3846
A_{20}	0.4063	0.4286	0.4286	0.6000	0.4286	0.6000	0.6667	0.3333

Step 7: *Calculate the average value of the grey-relational coefficient*

In this step, the average value of the grey-relational coefficient for n comparison sequences is obtained from equation 6.

$$\Upsilon(X_i) = (1/n) \sum \Upsilon\left(X_{(0)}(p), X_i(p)\right) \quad (6)$$

As a result, Table 7.8 is presented.

Table 7.8: The Average Value Matrix

Alternative	The Average Value
A_1	0.5938
A_2	0.6471
A_3	0.4755
A_4	0.6557
A_5	0.4740
A_6	0.5082
A_7	0.6240
A_8	0.5894
A_9	0.4988
A_{10}	0.5747
A_{11}	0.4367
A_{12}	0.4234
A_{13}	0.6419
A_{14}	0.6384
A_{15}	0.5582
A_{16}	0.5452
A_{17}	0.6653
A_{18}	0.5235
A_{19}	0.4445
A_{20}	0.4879

For grey relational analysis in order to find the method with the highest grey-relational degree, that is, the relatively best employee for the job. This study applied the maximum criteria method to find the grey-relational generation for each attribute listed in Table 7.1. The results are shown in Table 7.4. To explain all previous steps more clearly, let us take C_2 in Table 7.4 as an example:

Step 1: $X_i(p)$ = (1, 0.67, 0, 0.67, 1, 0, …..0.33).

Step 2: $X_{(0)}(p)$ = *(*1, 1, 1, 1, 1, ……1).

Step 3: $\Delta oi\ (p)$ = *(0, 0.33, 1, 0, 1, 0.33, …….0.66).*

Step 4: $\Delta max = 1$.

Step 5: $\Delta min = 0$.

Step 6: $\zeta = 0.5$.

Step 7: Using Equation (5),

$$(X_{(0)}(p), X_i(p)) = \frac{(0 + 0.5 \times 1)}{(0 + 0.5 \times 1)} = 1$$

Step 8: Using Equation (6), the average value of the grey-relational coefficient for A_1 can be obtained as:

$$(1/8)(1 +1 +1+ 0.4286+ 0.6000 +1 +0.6667 +0.3333) = 0.7536$$

Others can be calculated similarly.

Step 8: *Ranking alternatives according to the average value of the grey-relational coefficient*

Table 7.9: Ranking Alternatives

Ranking	Alternative	Grey Coefficient
1	A4	0.799819
2	A13	0.789744
3	A14	0.782557
4	A1	0.753571
5	A7	0.725259
6	A17	0.715231
7	A10	0.642262
8	A2	0.627244
9	A15	0.62328
10	A18	0.612897
11	A8	0.578571
12	A9	0.569818
13	A16	0.542262
14	A11	0.527381
15	A6	0.51756
16	A5	0.489192
17	A20	0.486496
18	A3	0.47702
19	A19	0.461172
20	A12	0.440377

8. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The objectives stated for the current research were to examine the role of emotions in DM process. Also, to measure the effects of emotions' aspects on the process of DM as a whole as well as measuring the personal and professionals traits effects such as age, gender, qualifications, and years of experience as managers.

In IAU, the process of DM is considered as an important process. Decisions in IAU could be related to the university itself as a whole, students, academic staff, and society. As the employee selection decision is considered one of the serious decisions, I have tried in the current study to combine three terms together (emotions, DM, and employee selection) in order to obtain best results as most studies were talking about emotion and its relation with DM as a whole and no one specialized in selecting employee decision as a specific one.

From this point, I have tried to examine the relationship between emotions and DM as a whole, then I have presented an application of Grey-Relational Analysis which shows how managers or decision makers can select among alternatives in order to have effective decisions.

According to our sample characteristics, the statistics indicate that male respondents are the majority in our study with a percentage of 55.6%; the same percentage (55.6%) is for the respondents who are between 30-40 years old; 36.1% for those having Advanced degree; and 44.4% for those having experience with 5-10 years.

In general, we can generate from chapter 6 the following conclusions:

1. 27.61% of the decision makers in IAU don't agree with the existence of non-acceptance of emotional responses in the university. This issue is considered very important when they tend to make effective decisions because having negative secondary responses to negative emotions or not accept emotional reactions will affect

performing their duties, achieving their goals as well as IAU goals, and also the DM process.

2. 28.55% of the decision makers in IAU don't agree with the existence of difficulties when engaging in the goal-directed behavior. This issue is considered very important when engaging in DM process because having difficulties concentrating and accomplishing tasks when experiencing negative emotions will be harmful to the university.
3. 28.55% of the decision makers in IAU don't agree with the existence of control difficulties. This is so essential for decision makers who want to remain in control of behavior even though they have experienced negative emotions. Taking this issue into consideration will be beneficial for the decision makers in general.
4. 30.27% of the decision makers in IAU agree with their lack of emotional awareness which means having difficulties associated with attending to and acknowledging emotions. Actually, as they know that they lack emotional awareness, this is so important because at least their knowledge will encourage and motivate them for trying always to acknowledge their emotions in different situations. Taking this issue into consideration is very important for today's managers and decision makers to effectively reach their institution's goals in addition to make effective decisions in logical manners.
5. 22.58% of the decision makers in IAU don't agree with that they have limited access to emotion regulation strategies which means having a belief that once they get upset, they have little to do to regulate their emotions. Considering this issue will help them always to regulate their emotions, thus making effective decisions and reaching their institution's goals effectively.
6. 30.27% of the decision makers in IAU accept their lack of emotional clarity which means how much they know and understand the emotions they are experiencing even though there is 31.39% of them who consider expressing their emotions in words easy.
7. 30.41% of the decision makers in IAU have the rational DM style.
8. 30.20% of the decision makers in IAU have the Intuitive DM style.
9. 30.55% of the decision makers in IAU have the spontaneous DM style which is considered as the dominant DM style for decision makers in IAU.

10. We have a positive relationship between non-acceptance of emotional responses and dominant DM style.
11. We have a positive relationship between difficulty engaging in goal-directed behavior and dominant DM style.
12. We have a positive relationship between difficulty control difficulties and dominant DM style.
13. We have a positive relationship between emotional awareness and dominant DM style.
14. We have a negative relationship between access to emotion regulation strategies and dominant DM style.
15. We have a positive relationship between emotional clarity and dominant DM style.
16. The personal trait "gender" has no effect on emotions and dominant DM style.
17. The personal trait "age" has an effect on emotions and no effect on dominant DM style.
18. The personal trait "qualifications" has an effect on emotions and dominant DM style.
19. The personal trait "years of experience as a manager" has no effect on emotions and an effect on dominant DM style.

Finally, the following sentences are our recommendations for IAU, its' decision makers, and all people who may relate to decision making process.

1. Decision makers should increase their emotional awareness and take it into account when making decisions to not having any difficulty in achieving their goals and IAU goals in a logical manner.
2. IAU should train its decision makers in special and employees in general on how to regulate their emotions through developing special programs related to these important issues.
3. Decision makers should take their emotional clarity into account to know and understand what it is happening when experiencing an emotion that could have negative effects on their DM process.
4. IAU should develop tools to measure the level of emotions and inner and intrapersonal skills and incorporate them into the recruitment of potential decision makers.
5. For decision makers who want to take a decision related to employee selection, without any negative influence produced by negative emotions, Grey-Relational

analysis method could be used for selecting an optimal applicant out of different alternatives. They can apply it and adjust the weight of the identification coefficient ζ [0.50] according to their needs.

6. Decision makers can use the Grey-Relational analysis method to study the selection of factor strengths in applicants.
7. Using the Grey-Relational analysis method will be helpful for decision makers as an efficient way to select the optimal applicant for a job because it reduces the time and effort that can be spent when selecting using other ways. Some decision makers can use other applications or same application but other criteria or even other weights of the criteria and all of this depends on their requirements and needs.

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Internet Resources:

Url-1 <*http://www.the-philosophy.com*>
Url-2 <*http://www.theomniview.com*>
Url-3 <*http://www.selectinternational.com* >
Url-4 <*http://* mylifematters.com>

APPENDIX

I. Personal and Professional Traits

1- Gender:

□ Male □ Female

2- Age:

□ Less than 30 years □ Between 30-40 years

□ Between 40-50 years □ Between 50-60 years

□ More than 60 years

3- Qualification:

□ Less than Diploma □ Diploma

□ Bachelor □ Advanced Degree

4- Experience as a manager:

□ Less than 5 years □ Between 5-10 years

□ Between 10-15 years □ More than 15 years

II. Emotions

Instructions: For the next several questions, please choose a number from 1-5 that best reflects your degree of agreement or disagreement with that statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree

	1	2	3	4	5
It is easy for me to express my emotions with words.					
I can see things from another person's viewpoint.					
I do not find it difficult to regulate my emotions.					
I can deal effectively with people.					
I am able to deal with stress.					
I can figure out what emotion I am feeling.					
There is a probability to be influenced by other's emotions.					
I show my affection to those closed to me.					
I am usually able to find ways to control my emotions when I want to.					
I often pause and think about my feelings.					
I have much personal strength.					
I tend to "back down" even if I know I am right.					
I am clear about my feelings.					
I pay attention to how I feel.					
I experience my emotions as overwhelming and out of control.					
I have no idea how I am feeling.					
I have difficulty making sense out of my feelings.					
I am attentive to my feelings.					
I know exactly how I am feeling.					
I care about what I am feeling.					
I am confused about how I feel.					
When I'm upset, I have difficulty getting work done.					
When I'm upset, I become out of control.					
When I'm upset, I believe that I will remain that way for a long time.					
When I'm upset, I believe that I'll end up feeling very depressed.					
When I'm upset, I believe that my feelings are valid and important.					
When I'm upset, I have difficulty focusing on other things.					
When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on what caused the feeling to change how I am feeling.					
When experiencing negative emotion, I usually focus on changing the feeling by doing something else (distract myself, think about it differently, etc.)					

III. Dominant decision-making style

Instructions: For the next several questions, please choose a number from 1-5 that best reflects your degree of frequency or infrequency with that statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Very Infrequently	Infrequently	Neutral	Frequently	Very frequently

	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
I enjoy making decisions.					
I rely on "gut feeling" when making decisions.					
I like to consult with others.					
I stick to my decisions no matter what may happen.					
When I find one option that will just about do, I leave it at that.					
I remain calm when I have to make decisions very quickly.					
I feel in control of things.					
My decisions are often governed by my ideals regardless of practical difficulties.					
I make decisions without considering all of the implications.					
I change my mind about things.					
I take the safe option if there is one.					
I prefer to avoid making decisions if I can.					
I plan well ahead.					
When making decisions, I find myself favoring first one option then another.					
I carry on looking for something better even if I have found a course of action that is just about ok.					
I find it difficult to think					
I make up my own mind about things regardless of what others think.					
I avoid taking advice over decisions.					
I work out all the pros and cons before making a decision.					
In my DM, practicalities are more important than principles.					
My DM is a deliberate logical process.					

RESUME

Name **:** Haneen Jafar Kamel Dweik

Current Address **:** Turkey – Istanbul - Güngören

Permanent Address **:** Palestine - Jerusalem- Wadi El- Joz

Current Mobile number **:** 05319441639

Permanent Tel or mobile number **:** 02-6286348 / 0526292054

E-mail: Haneen.dwaik.1993@gmail.com

PERSONAL CONTACT

Date of Birth **:** 21.12.1993

Sex **:** Female

Marital status: Single

Nationality **:** Palestinian (Jerusalem ID holder)

EDUCATION

Istanbul Aydin University

Master of Business Administration

Major in Business Management program

Expected to Graduate in 2017

Bethlehem University

Bachelor of Business Administration 2015

Major in Business / Minor in Marketing

Al-Shabbat al- Muslimat 2011

Average of 84.5% in the arts

HONOURS

Got a degree certificate of honor in spring 2014 of an average of 3.17 / 4.00

Got a degree certificate of honor in fall 2013 of an average of 3.15 / 4.00

RELATED COURSES

Strategic management, consumer behavior, organizational behavior, human resources, marketing, statistics, enterprise, political science, philosophy.

PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

- 2-24/6/2015: Training as a salesperson and marketer in Cellcom Company where I have gained an experience in that job of telecommunication and how to affect customers and close the deal.
- 30/5/2015: Completing the workshop on The Conflict Management comprising 3 actually hours at Academy for training center.
- 16 -19/ 4/ 2015 (Market project) : A group work activity (was consisting of 5 students in their 4th year at Bethlehem University), opening the first project on the ground at Bethlehem University theatre to complete the graduation requirements (graduation project); where there was an opening of an exhibition selling different kinds of products, and our idea for that project was selling different types of roses, plants and seedlings, interior and exterior decorations, planting those seedlings for customers, making distinctive designs for agricultural pots, dealing with many suppliers in the Palestinian market, making financial statements, marketing our products, and applying what we have learnt during our four years at Bethlehem University in terms of marketing skills, communication skills with customers, persuasion skills, and others.
- June 2014: Training as a salesperson and marketer in Maslamani group for electrical devices (200 hours) where I have known Maslamani products and agents -at Maslamani group Jerusalem Branch.
- September - December 2013: Working on marketing products of Ardy company for beverages- located in Ramallah- as part of a promotional project for a Palestinian company in the course of advertising at Bethlehem University; where the head of that company adopted our leaflets, posters and the advertisement which we have made for the company's products and disseminated them for a certain period in the areas of Ramallah and the West through the war on Gaza and the boycott of Israeli products.

VOLUNTEER EXPERIENCE

- Participating in the first international ICYF-DC youth camp under the theme of "youth in action: peace, solidarity and common values" organized by the Islamic conference youth forum for dialogue and cooperation along with the ministry of youth and sports of the Republic of Turkey held on 18-24.8.2016 in Antalya.
- Participating in the fifth training camp held by al-Razi Association for Culture and Society and the Department of Youth Development in the Arab Studies Society entitled "Jerusalem camp" and that was on 07.08.2010.
- Volunteering at the Center of Jerusalem children with children of different ages in "hope camp" at an actual rate of 130 hours in 2009.
- Participating in a program of public awareness "roving of Palestine" in the period from 01.10.2007 until 30.08.2008 at a rate of 70 actual hours of training in the following subjects, "young leadership, drama and theater, and tours identifiable in the old towns of Palestine."
- Participating in activities of the twenty-third Okaz market "legitimacy and independence Festival" held by Al-Razi Association for Culture and Society on 10.05.2008.
- Participating in the second youth training camp held by educational activities faculty at the Department of Razi Association for Culture and Society in Jerusalem within the project of civic participation in the period from 28.2 to 01.03.2008.
- Participating in the fourth Ramadan contest by al-Razi association for culture and society entitled "decamp to the Al-Aqsa mosque" in Jerusalem on 15.11.2007.
- Participating in Okaz market and the Spring Festival of 2005.
- Volunteering in Saraya center for a period of (50 hours) which has been working with groups of children of different ages.

COURSES

- Successfully completed "Modern Management Skills" training program designed by ARQA foundation for training and development in Istanbul- Turkey for the period from 27.2-1.3.2017.
- Successfully completed "Creating Personal Development Plan "workshop program designed by SADA Levant Academy in Istanbul- Turkey on 9.2.2017.
- Successfully completed "Preparing and managing projects "training program designed for master's students by Meshale – international student association – in Istanbul-Turkey on 21.2.2016.
- Successfully completed "creating management concepts" training program designed for master's students by Meshale – international student association – in Istanbul-Turkey on 6.12.2016.
- Attending the workshop of "FIRST AID" held in Istanbul- Turkey on 26-27.11.2016.

- Successfully completed and passed the comprehensive training course “Professional Marketing and Customer Service” which was held in Istanbul- Turkey in November 2016.
- Successfully completed 8 hours training course “ Will power and success opportunities attract” which was conducted according to standards and guidelines established by STA.TD held in Istanbul- Turkey on 30.10.2016.
- Attending the workshop of “how to change yourself” which was presented by the international trainer Fayiz Guma in Istanbul- Turkey on 29.10.2015.
- Successfully completed Osool Training Program designed for undergraduates by the Arab Bank from June 24-July 04, 2013.

SKILLS

Languages

- Arabic language

Reading – excellent, Writing – excellent, Talking – excellent.

- English language

Reading – excellent, Writing – excellent, Talking – excellent.

Computer Skills

Proficiency in Windows and Microsoft Office software and Internet.

Personal Skills

- Ability to work within a team.
- Ability to form groups and work with them skillfully.
- Ability to work under pressure.
- Proficiency in official work reports.
- Excellent ability to build constructive social relations.

Note: I have a valid driving license.