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What determines emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence among managers in cross border business organisations? The effects of organisational culture and role stressors

ABSTRACT

During the last decade, researchers' attention to the defining role of organisational culture has consistently been refined in the context of different cultural settings. Similarly, the effects of role conflict, ambiguity, and overload in cross-cultural settings has also advanced, drawing inference to values and belief systems. The literature on the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence shows that little is known about the mediating roles of organisational culture and cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload. With a sample of 299 respondents across Australia, United Kingdom, United States of America, and Singapore, we found that organisational culture partially mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, and that only role ambiguity fully mediates that relationship. Furthermore, the results revealed emotional intelligence to have a positive relationship with cultural intelligence, organisational culture, and cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload. The results highlighted the degree of influence of organisational culture and role conflict, ambiguity, and overload between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence in a cross-cultural context.

Keywords: Cultural Intelligence, Emotional Intelligence, Organisational Culture,

INTRODUCTION

There has been much written during the last decade concerning the use and value of emotional intelligence theory (Bar-On, 2000; Boyatzis & Goleman, 2002; Clark, 2010; Danaeefard, Salehi, Hasiri, & Noruzi, 2012; Davies, Stankov, & Roberts, 1998; Emmerling & Goleman, 2003; Gohm, Corser, & Dalsky, 2005; Goleman, 1995; Hopkins & Yonker, 2015) and the way it intersects with other factors across a variety of personal and workplace domains based on self-emotion, other's emotional appraisal, the use and regulation of emotion, and its contribution to the way individuals behave and respond to others. Additionally, the four-factor model of cultural intelligence (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, & Ng, 2004; Ang, Van Dyne, & Koh, 2006) and its adaptability profile assumes that it is similarly reliant upon the features of emotional intelligence (Ang et al., 2006; Oginska-Bulik, 2005; Rastegari & Mehrabi Kermanii, 2015; Robertson, 2007; Sunindijo & Hadikusumo, 2014; Ugoani, 2015; Ward, Fischer, Zaid Lam, & Hall, 2009; Winter, 2012).

Equally important is the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational culture (Ang et al., 2006; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Lenaghan, Buda, & Eisner, 2007; Lyons & Schneider, 2005; Shipper, Kincaid, Rotondo, & Hoffman, 2003; Ugoani, 2015) with its paradigm of organisational performance and the assimilation of values. Organisational culture depicts, in part, levels of social responsibility, supportiveness, performance orientation and stability (Ahmad, Veerapandian, & Wee Yu, 2011; Judge & Cable, 1997; Schein, 1984, 1990). However, the literature also provides insight into the significance of emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, yet the effects of organisational culture on the level of cultural adaptability engaged by individuals in the cross-border context is limited (Balogh, Szabó, & Gaál, 2011; Danaeefard et al., 2012; Helmreich & Merritt, 1998; Kwantes, Arbour, & Boglarsky, 2007; McAleese & Hargie, 2004). Scholars agree that cultural intelligence has a

positive effect on organisational culture (Ang & Inkpen, 2008; Janssens & Brett, 2006; Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009; Triandis, 2006; Van Dyne, Ang, & Nielsen, 2007; Yitmen, 2013). However, research on the degree to which organisational culture impacts cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence is limited. Based on the propositions of previous research (Triandis, 2006; Yitmen, 2013), we further investigate the influence of organisational culture on emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence.

In catalysing these assertions, our research was also oriented to cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload, and the way in which emotional intelligence may have significance (Ang et al., 2006; Clark, 2010; Gohm et al., 2005; Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Jordan & Troth, 2004; Lenaghan et al., 2007; Lyons & Schneider, 2005; Oginska-Bulik, 2005; Sunindijo & Hadikusumo, 2014). The identification of role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload as separate constructs is used to investigate the possible direct and mediating relationship between them and emotional intelligence, and similarly cultural intelligence. This will be of interest to scholars, where research in this area has identified an increase in the tide of conflict, ambiguity, and overload as a result of broader scale issues such as a global economy, competitive business interactions across borders and in developing countries, ethnic diversity, and greater expectations in task performance at the organisational level (Bao & Chun-Chi, 2012; Beauchamp & Bray, 2001; Dierdorff & Rubin, 2007; Fisher & Gitelson, 1983; Gelfand, Leslie, Keller, & de Dreu, 2012; Hecht, 2001; Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Lane & Klenke, 2004; Mørk, Aanestad, Hanseth, & Grisot, 2008; Onyemah, 2008). However, there is limited research that identifies the scope of these relationships in a cross-border setting. As the impact of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload can be substantive, our research provides impetus in determining the degree to which these variables influence the relationship between

emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. Our proposition suggests all three variables mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence.

We believe the present study makes a number of contributions. First, we identified organisational culture as a mediating influence, thus developing scientific understanding of the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence that may enable organisations to utilise these constructs as effective interventions for practice.

Second, empirical research on the role of organisational culture has focused primarily on how individuals transition the beliefs and values of organisations in domestic national environments from within a primarily Western perspective (Sarros, Gray, Densten, & Cooper, 2005; Scheffknecht, 2011; Schein, 1984, 1990).

Third, researchers have only recently started investigating the significance of the relationship between these variables (Ahmad et al., 2011; Gimenez-Espin, Jiménez-Jiménez, & Martínez-Costa, 2013; Ugoani, 2015) from a global perspective, reporting findings that pave the way for further research such as ours.

Finally, having identified role ambiguity as having the strength to mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, and advancing the research conducted by other researchers in the field (Nair & Vohra, 2012; Nosratinia, Niknam, & Sarabchian, 2013; Rastegari & Mehrabi Kermanii, 2015), we and assert our studies expand on recent empirical work by focusing on cross-border organisational value systems, and inherent and learned intelligences, by identifying the relationship of additional mediators. Figure 1 illustrates our theoretical model which we further explain in the following sections.

The remainder of the article consists of three main sections. First, we review the literature on emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, and relate it to cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload to develop our hypotheses. Second, we discuss the research methodology adopted in this study, which includes sampling strategy, data collection procedures, and measures. Third, we present the results along with a discussion of implications, limitations and avenues for future research. A conclusion completes the article.

LITERATURE REVIEW AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

The review of the literature led to the development of several main hypotheses.

The relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

The cultural intelligence framework is based on the concept of cultural adaptability and adjustment (Earley & Ang, 2003) to consist of personality, capability and interest, and is considered to be part of an individual's capability (Ang et al., 2006; Earley & Ang, 2003; Ng & Earley, 2006). According to Moon (2010), cultural intelligence traits complement properties of emotional intelligence within the overall framework of both constructs. This allows the realisation of new cultures based on various types of prompts, as critical features seem to be symbiotic to both cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence. Moon (2010) puts forward a notion suggesting a relationship may exist between cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence in that social competence (within emotional intelligence) may support the notion of cultural adaptability. The proposition is that individuals may have capacity to adapt their emotional awareness and expression to choose what is most appropriate behaviour in cross-cultural interactions. This proposition is aligned to the idea that in order to be able to

adapt from one cultural situation to another, there may be a need for better skilled social management

With this in mind, emotional intelligence is considered to be a form of social intelligence that enables individuals to monitor the emotions of others and their own emotional status, to discriminate between them, emotions and to use this information to guide thinking and actions Mayer and Salovey (1997),. With emotional intelligence being abstracted as a set of noncognitive capabilities, competencies and skills, an individual may perceive and express emotion to assimilate such emotional traits to understand and reason within a cultural adaptability context. As cultural intelligence embodies elements of cognition, judgement (meta-cognition), motivation and behaviour (Earley & Ang, 2003), we therefore propose the emotional schema of self-awareness, self-management, social awareness and relationship management (emotional intelligence) (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2002) forms the conduit that supports cultural adaptability. We therefore posit:

Hypothesis 1: Emotional intelligence is positively related to cultural intelligence

The relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational culture

There are two streams of thought about the nature of emotional intelligence – the first elicited to be ability-based and the second to be mixed-based (Joseph & Newman, 2010). According to Joseph and Newman (2010), ability models of emotional intelligence are deemed as the ability to carry out accurate reasoning about emotions and the ability to use emotions and emotional knowledge to enhance thought (Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008). In contrast to ability models, mixed emotional intelligence models do not classify emotional intelligence as an intelligence, but rather as a combination of intellect and various measures of personality

and affect (Petrides & Furnham, 2001). This suggests the mixed model emotional intelligence is an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies and skills that influence a person's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures (Bar-On, 1997).

With this in mind, the relationship of emotional intelligence to organisational culture suggests emotional intelligence traits are closely related to the appreciation of organisational culture, which involves the traditions, values, policies and attitudes that contribute to a perceptive alignment between the organisation and society. Ugoani (2015) found a strong positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational culture, with a link to propositions put forward by Cherniss and Goleman (2001), suggesting emotional intelligence can determine levels of organisational teamwork, employee commitment and morale that encompass the organisational culture sphere. Hence, we propose:

Hypothesis 2: Emotional intelligence is positively related to organisational culture

The relationship between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload

As the notion of emotional intelligence differs with personality (J. D. Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer, Salovey, & Caruso, 2000), its relationship between role conflict, ambiguity, and overload has been the subject of much discussion amongst scholars (Hopkins & Yonker, 2015; Moeller & Kwantes, 2015; Rahim et al., 2002; Sunindijo & Hadikusumo, 2014; Thory, 2013).

Role conflict is defined by Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) as the contradicting roles carried out by an individual in an organisation. Research examining the relationship between conflict and how emotional intelligence shapes this behaviour (Moeller & Kwantes, 2015)

highlights that conflict management preferences predicted actual conflict management behaviours and emotional intelligence moderated this relationship. However, according to Moeller and Kwantes (2015) some of these moderating effects run contrary to the popular view of emotional intelligence being a pro-social concept – their research suggests emotional intelligence facets strengthen the link between aggressive conflict management preferences and subsequent conflict management behaviours. Thory (2013) research uncovered the degree to which emotion regulation strategies were applied in situations of interpersonal conflict (i.e. personality conflict, task/role conflict, decision making conflict), an observation in line with Jordan and Troth (2004), who suggest conflict management may be affected by emotional intelligence.

Hopkins and Yonker (2015) put forward several significant relationships between emotional intelligence abilities and conflict management styles. The emotional intelligence abilities of problem solving, social responsibility and impulse control were the most directly related to how participants managed conflict at the workplace. More importantly, noting research conducted across several Western and Asian countries to determine any discriminate difference (Rahim et al., 2002; Sunindijo & Hadikusumo, 2014), Rahim et al. (2002) asserts slight variance in the degree to which emotional intelligence may affect conflict, while Sunindijo and Hadikusumo (2014) suggest individuals with high emotional intelligence frequently use an accommodating conflict resolution style due to the collectivist nature of Asian culture to find win-win solutions that might also be contrary to socio-cultural norms (Sunindijo & Hadikusumo, 2014).

Role ambiguity is the result of uncertainty about what actions to perform to fulfil new roles, the lack of information necessary to perform tasks, or uncertainty about the expectations of

different members in the employee's role set (Fields, 2002; Hing & Nuske, 2012; Onyemah, 2008). The relationship between emotional intelligence and ambiguity as indicated by Rastegari and Mehrabi Kermanii (2015), suggests there is no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and the tolerance of ambiguity. Similarly, research conducted by Nosratinia et al. (2013) in the Middle East also identified emotional intelligence and ambiguity tolerance as having little statistical relationship. However, as Rastegari, Mehrabi, and Kermanii (2015) point out, realising the special features and capabilities of the intelligent use of emotions in dealing with uncertainties and problems facing an individual in a new context (Bar-On, 2000) makes it impossible to ignore its role.

Research conducted by Oginska-Bulik (2005) confirms the relationship between emotional intelligence and *role overload*. An essential, but not very strong, emotional intelligence role in perceiving occupational stress and overload was evident, and Oginska-Bulik (2005) concludes that the ability to effectively deal with emotions and emotional information in the workplace assists employees cope with occupational stress. The results of this research indicates the higher the level of emotional intelligence, the lower the experienced stress. Taking into account factors related to stress at work, Oginska-Bulik (2005) observes that the higher the level of emotional intelligence the sense of lack of control and lack of support. We therefore propose:

Hypothesis 3a: Emotional intelligence is positively related to role conflict Hypothesis 3b: Emotional intelligence is positively related to role ambiguity Hypothesis 3c: Emotional intelligence is positively related to role overload

The relationship between organisational culture and cultural intelligence

According to Triandis (2006) the composite traits of organisational culture may be differentiated by individuals who are allocentric in individualist organisations or idiocentric and counter-cultural in collectivist organisations. Triandis (2006) asserts the culture of the organisation may be identified through the disposition of its individuals who may effectively be counter-cultural and therefore highly motivated to change their social environment by leaving their organisation, or by changing it. As previously noted by Yitmen (2013) cultural intelligence on the organisational level is an organisation's capacity to reconfigure its capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse environments, and to gain and sustain its competitive advantage.

People who are culturally intelligent are more flexible in their ability to adapt to different organisational cultures (Triandis, 2006). Moreover, according to Zammuto and Krakower (1991), the types of organisational culture are reflected in four quadrants – internal, external, flexibility and control. Indeed, the personal domains associated with the four-factor model attributes associated with cultural intelligence reflect a group culture model gauged within a 'flexibility' and 'internal' organisational culture quadrant highlighting attributes that are personal, warm and caring, loyal to tradition, cohesive and moral, and equitable. We therefore assert such organisational cultural attributes may promote the cognitive, meta-cognitive, motivational and behavioural features that are indicative of cultural intelligence. Hence, we posit:

Hypothesis 4: Organisational culture is positively related to cultural intelligence

The relationship of cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload with cultural intelligence

Role stress theory (Hecht, 2001; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Leung, Chan, & Yuen, 2010; Lu, 2011) identifies three major stressors – conflict, ambiguity, and overload. Cross cultural research conducted by Glazer and Beehr (2005) suggests that stress is a culture-general process and not culture defined, although there has been acknowledgement of the synergies that exist between the four-factor model of cultural intelligence and role stress theory (Glazer & Beehr, 2005; Hecht, 2001; Jamal, 2010).

Conflict is defined as a situation in which people are aware that their own wishes are incompatible with the wishes of others or when people become frustrated in their efforts to achieve important goals (Boulding, 1962). With the advent of a global economy and the increasingly frequent interactions across borders, there is greater opportunity for cultural differences to create conflict (Kaushal & Kwantes, 2006). Appropriately managing conflict is reliant upon an individual's adaptability, and their emotional traits highlight the willingness for resolution. Research conducted by Peterson et al. (1995) suggest role stress (i.e. conflict, ambiguity, and overload) varies more by country than by individual traits; however, this study was based on the propositions of Hofstede's research (Hofstede, 1980, 1991) on cultural traits oriented more to country than to individuals.

Correspondingly, theorists such as Rahim and Magner (1995) identify several conflict resolution styles that appear universal by way of an individual application. These include an integrating style involving collaboration between parties; an obliging style involving low concern for self and high concern for the other party involved in conflict; a dominating style involving high concern for self and low concern for the other party involved in conflict; and an avoiding style associated with low concern for self as well as for the other party involved in conflict. Given the individual and personal styles of managing conflict, the conflict process may indeed be influenced by the nature of social culture in how these personal interactions are dealt with. As Campbell and Chong (2008) note, a person's cultural background will influence every aspect of the conflict process, ranging from goals that are considered incompatible, why these goals are seen as so, what the individual chooses to do about it, and whether the outcome is considered satisfactory or not.

As such, the nature and degree of the conflict itself is seen very differently across cultures and therefore gauging the levels of conflict is paramount. We assume the fundamental principle of cultural adaptability and adjustment as highlighted in the four factor model of cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Ng & Earley, 2006) – meta-cognitive, cognitive and behavioural – is key to establishing a platform of understanding conflict based on the 'adaptability' proposition put forward in the cultural intelligence model.

The relationship of *ambiguity* to cultural intelligence promotes several assumptions within and across cultures. Ambiguity in the context of this research focused the degree of clarity towards tasks and responsibilities. Empirical research (Pereira, 2004; Yeoh & Wong, 2010) suggests that while ethnic cultures may be the same, the level of understanding and acceptance may well differ from an intra-perspective. For example, in the case study of Singaporean Chinese doing business with mainland Chinese (Pereira, 2004; Yeoh & Wong, 2010) evidence suggested that while cultural sensitivities were acknowledged, the degree of ambiguity to the contextual relationship of cultures was unknowingly elevated within the negotiation stage. Their study provides an interesting proposition to the way assumptions interplay within the cultural intelligence model's meta-cognitive, cognitive and behavioural factors. Adaptability and understanding within an intra-cultural context is preceded by the understanding required for cross-cultural scenarios where vagueness and ambiguity can lead to misunderstandings (Morley & Flynn, 2003). By the same token, Pathak, Chauhan, Dhar, and Van Gramberg (2009) underscore their research in the Indian/Fijian context, asserting that national culture may indeed predispose managers to a greater or lesser tolerance for ambiguity, which then has an effect on their managerial effectiveness. In part their results, as consistent with the assertions put forward by other scholars (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Ng & Earley, 2006), suggest that managerial effectiveness is enhanced as a result of having adaptability and a greater tolerance to ambiguity.

The relationship of *overload* to cultural intelligence considers the over-burdening and increased level of responsibility in relation to the four factor model of cultural intelligence. Beehr (1981) suggests that role theory, specifically the component of role overload, has been used to conceptualise findings regarding job stress. Beehr (1981) puts forward the proposition that role overload and the underutilisation of skills are indeed related to overall job dissatisfaction and low self-esteem, but concludes that people who experience this phenomenon blame the social system in the organisation. As the study was conducted some time ago, consideration for a global and ethnically diverse workforce may not have been prevalent at the time. However, the social system of the organisation in today's terms may indeed consist of a strong cultural mix where adaptability to cultural difference might be the norm. In this sense, these findings may still hold true. Furthermore, in a study of migrant construction workers in Hong Kong conducted by Leung et al. (2010), several stressors were identified in the workplace that included role/work overload.

The results of analyses revealed that stress is predicted by work overload and conflict; however, the concept of cultural adaptability in these settings may only be assumed. Van De Vliert and Van Yperen (1996), though, observe in a multi-nation study that across nations a national dimension of power distance (Hofstede, 1980) is positively related to role overload, yet maintain this might be an artefact of the relationship between role overload and ambient temperature, or other third factors. Once again the national as opposed to the individual quadrant perspectives of cultural intelligence can only be assumed, however the empirical evidence of role overload being positively related to cultural intelligence is at best weak. Therefore, we propose:

Hypothesis 5a: Role conflict is positively related to cultural intelligence Hypothesis 5b: Role ambiguity is positively related to cultural intelligence Hypothesis 5c: Role overload is negatively related to cultural intelligence

Organisational culture mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

Organisational culture is defined as a pattern of shared basic assumptions learned by a group to solve its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. It is based on underlying assumptions that include unconscious beliefs and values that determine behaviour, perception, and thought (Schein, 2010). Noting the paradigm of external adaptation and internal integration is espoused by unconscious beliefs that determine thought, it may be presupposed that organisational culture similarly espouses underlying elements that are symbiotic to both cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence. Emotional intelligence is considered to be a social intelligence that enables individuals to monitor emotions (Mayer & Salovey, 1997; Mayer et al., 2000; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) as compared to the notions of adjustment and adaptability within the realms of cultural intelligence. This has been widely discussed in the literature (Kodwani, 2012) with reference to multinational organisations engaged in international assignments and expatriation. Expatriate performance and cross-cultural adaptation have been deemed problematic when assimilating to national culture and the culture of the cross-border organisations (Ng et al., 2009; Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2009b; Van Dyne, Ang, & Livermore, 2010).

Indeed a platform for such cultural assimilation could be built on the nature of the crossborder organisational culture. From this perspective, engaging the principles of emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence requires a form of engagement that Baumruk (2004) cites as being the emotional and intellectual commitment of people towards their work and the organisation. In view of this, 'organisational culture' becomes operative when facilitating and promoting such engagement. As Triandis (2006) notes, organisations differ in the extent to which they have individualist or collectivist attributes, with evidence to suggest individuals who are counter-cultural effect change by leaving the organisation or alternatively adversely steering and influencing the culture of the organisation (Triandis, 1990, 2006).

Moreover, Triandis (2006) maintains that organisations that have compatible cultures with an individual's personality may serve to promote enhanced levels of cultural intelligence in concert with the emotional intelligence within the organisation. Similarly Triandis (2006) highlights is that in collectivist cultures, organisations tend to select employees based on their in-group membership as a starting block for cultural fit. This suggests the influence of organisational culture may act as the mediator between cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence. Hence, we posit:

Hypothesis 6: Organisational culture mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

Cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

Based on the conditions of mediation put forward by Baron and Kenny (1986), cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload should be fully or in part an influencing variable linking emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. As cultural intelligence embraces the concept of the ability to manage people who have dissimilar cultural backgrounds and understanding (Ang et al., 2006; Earley & Ang, 2003; Ng & Earley, 2006), emotional intelligence serves to utilise self-emotion and other's emotional appraisal, and the use and regulation of emotions (Boyatzis & Goleman, 2002; Emmerling & Goleman, 2003; Goleman, 1995). Cultural intelligence is based on personality, capability and interest, and is considered to be part of an individual's capability (Ang et al., 2006; Earley & Ang, 2003; Ng & Earley, 2006). While these traits appear to overlap (Moon, 2010), we note the limited available literature on cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload as mediators of the symbiotic framework of cultural intelligence and emotional intelligence.

We acknowledge recent research examining the relationship between *role conflict* and the influence this may have on emotional intelligence to impact this behaviour. Moeller and Kwantes (2015) assert conflict management preferences predict conflict management behaviours to suggest emotional intelligence moderates this relationship. Thory (2013) and Jordan and Troth (2004) similarly note the degree to which emotion regulation strategies are applied in task/role conflict, suggesting conflict management may indeed be affected by emotional intelligence. As the perception of task and role conflict may vary across cultures,

the primary factors of cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Ng & Earley, 2006) may, as with emotional intelligence, provide some scope to drawing a link to role conflict mediating this relationship based on the 'adaptability' proposition and the 'regulation of emotion' proposition put forward in the respective intelligence constructs.

As scholars assert, *role ambiguity* is the lack of information or the uncertainty of the performance of tasks (Fields, 2002; Hing & Nuske, 2012; Onyemah, 2008), the relationship of ambiguity and emotional intelligence has been the subject of debate amongst scholars (Al-Kahtani & Allam, 2015; Nosratinia et al., 2013; Rastegari, Mehrabi and Kermanii, 2015) with some research identifying emotional intelligence and ambiguity having little statistical significance. However, Dierdorff and Rubin (2007) note more optimistic results in their studies to assert supportive results illustrating the effects of cognitive complexity and role ambiguity on ratings. This assumes cognition to be a construct of emotional intelligence that is influenced by ambiguity. In a similar standpoint, Al-Kahtani and Allam (2015) maintain a supportive communication climate is a significant predictor of role ambiguity, noting the influence of role ambiguity between cognitive variables.

As noted in research conducted by Pereira (2004), Yeoh and Wong (2010), and Morley and Flynn (2003), adaptability and understanding within an intra-cultural context is preceded by the understanding required for cross-cultural scenarios where vagueness and ambiguity can lead to misunderstandings. Notwithstanding, Pathak et al. (2009) highlights a greater or lesser tolerance for ambiguity has an effect on managerial effectiveness that similarly may engage the tenets of emotional and cultural intelligence. As suggested previously these assertions put forward by scholars (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004; Ng & Earley, 2006) suggest a plausible platform where effectiveness is enhanced by a tolerance to ambiguity,

where role ambiguity mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence.

The results of research conducted by Oginska-Bulik (2005) presented an essential, but weak role of emotional intelligence in perceiving stress and *role overload*. What appeared prevalent in this research was the higher the level of emotional intelligence, the lower the experience of stress. Leung et al. (2010) reveal that stress is predicted by work overload and conflict, yet cultural adaptability may remain hidden. The dividing factor in this relationship is put forward by Van De Vliert and Van Yperen (1996), who state the national as opposed to the individual quadrant perspectives of cultural intelligence can only be implied. Hence we propose:

Hypothesis 7a: Role conflict mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

Hypothesis 7b: Role ambiguity mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

Hypothesis 7c: Role overload mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence

METHODS

This section outlines the data collection methods and how the data were measured.

Data survey

Data were collected through surveys from a total of 299 respondents. Country of birth was limited to four countries that aligned to the synthesised cultural clustering of countries (Ronen & Shenkar, 2013). Employment industry or profession was categorised in eight risk-type industries – aviation/airline, rail transport, shipping and maritime, natural resources sector, construction, manufacturing and medical. Participants were sought over four predominant

country clusters (Ronen & Shenkar, 2013) that included Australia, Singapore, United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, and United States of America. Other countries with a lower number of grouped samples included Brazil, Ethiopia, Fiji, Greece, Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, Indonesia, Iraq, Japan, Netherlands, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Thailand, United Arab Emirates, and United Republic of Tanzania. The major cluster countries all had English as their official language with the exception of Singapore where there is more than one official language. All respondents had fluency in English as a native language or as a fluent second language taught within their respective school system.

Respondents participated anonymously in an on-line survey either by internet or through their organisation's intranet. In total, 427 surveys were returned by a completion cut-off date following a pilot test of 40, with a sum of 299 surveys deemed usable for the study after excluding the incomplete questionnaires, representing a response rate of 40%. The greater percentage of participants were in the 46–55 years age range (n = 100). Country of birth was limited to four countries in keeping with Ronen and Shenkar's (2013) synthesised cultural clustering of countries.

Measures

Dependent, independent and mediating variables were measured.

Dependent variable – Cultural intelligence

Cultural intelligence was measured with the 20-item, self-reported four-factor model of the Cultural Intelligence Scale developed and validated by Ang et al. (2006). The scale includes four items for meta-cognitive cultural intelligence, six for cognitive cultural intelligence, five for motivational cultural intelligence, and five for behavioural cultural intelligence.

Respondents were asked to use a seven-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to indicate the extent to which each item described them (S. Ang et al., 2006).

Dependent variables – Cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload

Cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload was measured using a scale developed by Peterson et al. (1995) that included five role ambiguity items, three role conflict items, and five role overload items that retained their factor structure in the countries studied (M. F. Peterson et al., 1995) and was therefore used in this study utilising a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Independent variable – Emotional intelligence

The Wong and Law Emotional Intelligence Scale (WLEIS) (Law, Wong, & Song, 2004) is based on a four-dimensional definition of emotional intelligence (Davies et al., 1998) that consists of appraisal and expression of emotion in the self, appraisal and recognition of emotion in others, regulation of emotion in the self, and the use of emotion to facilitate performance. The WLEIS consists of 16 items with each subscale measured with four items. The WLEIS is measured with a five-point Likert-type scale, ranging from 1 (totally disagree) to 5 (totally agree).

Mediating variable – Organisational culture

The study adopted the 40-item version of the organisational culture profile measure (Cable & Judge, 1996; Judge & Cable, 1997) which has been widely used in the literature (Sarros et al., 2005). To assess individual preferences for organisational culture, respondents were asked to rate 40 items based on "How important is it for this characteristic to be a part of the

organisation you work for?" The categories ranged from "most desirable" to "most undesirable" on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (0%) to 5 (100%)

Control variables

Consistent with previous research, a number of control variables were included to indicate the range of age, country of birth, language skills, country of schooling, highest level of formal education attained, industry or profession, home base country, country of sign-on for duty, duration of employment with the current organisation, and employment status prior to joining their organisation. Organisations were considered within professions that were considered 'high risk' and that also engaged an ethnically diverse workforce. Key to the cultural ethnicity component of the study, country of birth was considered a basis for country cluster.

ANALYTIC APPROACH

Construct validity and reliability

We conducted a series of CFAs to examine the discriminate validity of the scales. A full measurement model was examined in which all the nomological network of factors relating to emotional intelligence loaded onto a general emotional intelligence factor. All the factors relating to risk perception and organisational culture were allowed to load onto their respective factors. Goodness of fit indices (GFI) were computed to determine the sustainability of the model and how the model fitted the data. The root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and standardised root mean square residual (SRMSR) values less than 0.06 indicate good model fit, and values less than 0.10 an acceptable fit (Arbuckle, 2006; Browne & Cudeck, 1993). For the comparative fit index (CFI), a normed fit index (NFI) value close to 0.95 is recommended as an indication of good model fit (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2009).

Table 1 presents means, standard deviation, and scale reliabilities and interscale correlations for all the variables. All the variation inflation factors (VIF) were below 1.69, indicating multicollinearity was not an issue in the present study (Kleinbaum, Kupper, & Muller, 1988). Before testing the hypotheses, additional analyses were carried out to assist the construct validity of measures used in the study. The full measurement model showed a good fit χ^2 = 2692, *df* = 1590, CFI = 0.89, NFI = 0.78, RMSEA = 0.048, SRMR = 0.047. Subsequently, the full measurement model was compared to 11 alternative nested models. The GFI statistics results as shown in Table 2 revealed that model fit decreased significantly, which provides evidence for the distinctiveness of construct validity. As can be seen from Table 2, all constructs in the present study were distinct from each other. To test the convergent validity we calculated average variance extracted (AVE) and composite reliability (CR) based on the recommendation of Fornell and Larcker (1981).

Furthermore, the factor loadings in each of the four variables were statistically significant which demonstrates a satisfactory convergent validity (Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). According to (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), the AVE were according to the recommended threshold of 0.5 (Hair et al., 2009). The CR were calculated for each variable to highlight cultural intelligence $\alpha = 0.86$, emotional intelligence $\alpha = 0.86$, organisational culture $\alpha = 0.82$, role conflict $\alpha = 0.82$, role ambiguity $\alpha = 0.89$, and role overload $\alpha = 0.85$. Based on the above results we conclude that all variables in this study have obtained satisfactory psychometric soundness. To analyse the mediation effects, we used the four-step procedure recommended by Baron and Kenny (1986).

Hypotheses testing

Table 3 presents the results for Hypotheses 1 to 7. To test Hypothesis 1, we examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. Results demonstrated that emotional intelligence is positively related to organisational culture ($\beta = 0.59$; p > 0.01), therefore Hypothesis 1 received support.

Next, Hypothesis 2, indicating the relationship between emotional intelligence and organisational culture, was tested. The results revealed that emotional intelligence is positively related to organisational culture ($\beta = 0.31$; p > 0.01), lending support to Hypothesis 2.

In Hypothesis 3a we predicted that emotional intelligence was positively related to role conflict. The results showed there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and role conflict, therefore Hypothesis 3a is not supported. For Hypothesis 3b, we found that emotional intelligence is related to role ambiguity ($\beta = 0.37$; p > 0.01) which lends support. For Hypothesis 3c, we tested the relationship between emotional intelligence and role overload. The results indicated there is no relationship between emotional intelligence and role overload, therefore Hypothesis 3c is not supported.

Next, we examined Hypothesis 4 where we anticipated a positive relationship between organisational culture and cultural intelligence. Results indicated that there is a significant negative relationship ($\beta = -0.41$; p > 0.01). This hypothesis is thus not supported, although it fulfils one of the conditions of Baron and Kenny (1986).

In Hypothesis 5a we examined the relationship between role conflict and cultural intelligence, where no relationship was found. Therefore this hypothesis is not supported. In Hypothesis 5b we predicted the relationship between role ambiguity and cultural intelligence and found a significant positive relationship ($\beta = 0.37$; p > 0.01). Therefore Hypothesis 5b is supported. Hypothesis 5c received no support, as the results showed there was no significant relationship between role overload and cultural intelligence.

In Hypothesis 6 we examined the mediating role of organisational culture in the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. In the regression analysis when emotional intelligence and organisational culture were entered into the regression together as independent variables, emotional intelligence no longer significantly influenced cultural intelligence, while organisational culture still had significant relationship on cultural intelligence. ($\beta = 0.28$; p > 0.01). Therefore Hypothesis 6 is fully supported.

In Hypothesis 7 we predicted that cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. Hypothesis 7a and Hypothesis 7c were not considered for testing as the results showed role conflict and role overload did not have any relationship with the independent or dependent variable, and therefore failed to qualify for any test of mediation. Finally, Hypothesis 7b was considered, where we predicted that role ambiguity mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. The results demonstrated that when emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence were entered into the regression together as independent variables, emotional intelligence no longer significantly influenced cultural intelligence. Therefore Hypothesis 7 is supported.

We used bootstrapping confidence intervals (CI) to test our mediation hypothesis (Hypothesis 6) based on the recommendations of Edwards and Lambert (2007). The results in Table 4 show that a significant indirect effect between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence was observed (Z = -1.5). A one-tailed Sobel test also confirmed the significance of the indirect effect emotional intelligence had on cultural intelligence through organisational culture (Z = 1.8). Again we used a bootstrapping procedure to test our mediation Hypothesis 7. Results showed a significant indirect effect between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence true role ambiguity (Z = 0.10). In addition, a one-tailed Sobel test was conducted to examine the indirect effect. The results confirmed the indirect effect (Z = 1.5), as the bootstrapping results shown that 95% bias correlated CI did not contain zero. As such, Hypothesis 7 is supported.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Contribution to theory

The current study has several theoretical implications that contribute to theory. First, we integrated the expanded theory of emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1995; Salovey & Mayer, 1990) and the four-factor model of cultural intelligence (Earley & Ang, 2003) to identify the complementary links between the two constructs as those put forward in recent research by Moon (2010). We contribute to this research literature by identifying that emotional intelligence can exert influence on the power to culturally adapt and adjust to others in different cultural environments. As such, rather than focusing on emotional intelligence as an individual construct, we have articulated the importance of how the innate features of emotion can be moulded by experience to contribute to an individual's social schema where cross-cultural adjustment and capabilities may be learned.

We found empirical evidence for the positive role of the constructs of emotional intelligence above and beyond the influence these constructs have alone, but more importantly, the way in which they add efficacy to the role of cultural intelligence. Furthermore we addressed the role of emotional intelligence to organisational culture, confirming the results found by Ugoani (2015) and Cherniss and Goleman (2001) in a positive relationship between the two. The contribution to this research with respect to our study differentiated from previous research in that our study highlighted a cross-cultural focus to ensure a broader scope of ethnically diverse respondents and organisational cultures. We believe this adds value to this theoretical proposition as it combines a Western Anglo and Asian perspective, which the scope of our research covered by broadening the current perspective generally based on a Western lens.

The second contribution implicated from our study adds further light to the relationship between organisational culture, emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. Based on the evidence of prior research, our studies expanded on these theories. We proposed and found evidence of the mediating role of organisational culture between the relationship of emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence enhancing the findings of similar research put forward in the literature (Balogh et al., 2011; Catanzaro, Moore, & Marshall, 2010; Leovaridis & Cismaru, 2014; Triandis, 2006; Yitmen, 2013). Our findings suggest the complexity and framework of organisational culture based on the emotional needs of the individual and the need for cultural adaptability resulting from organisational cultural and ethnic diversity would indeed be of some significance in the way the theoretical and practical constructs overlap. As emotional intelligence highlights the principles of the use and regulation of emotion, meeting these emotional needs while adapting to the cultural environment would hold that it would be influenced by the values and belief systems held within organisational culture. While this may appear to be a relatively plausible explanation, the positive effect of this mediation is only partial and therefore, the weight of the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence remains significant.

Our third contribution relates to empirical research in role stress theory (Hecht, 2001; Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964; Lu, 2011). Cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload research has primarily focused on examining the antecedents and consequences of how individuals relate to role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload in local ethnically diverse environments and cross-border settings (Jamal, 2010; Leung, Chan, & Yuen, 2010; Lu, 2011; Lu & Lee, 2007; Morley & Flynn, 2003; Peterson et al., 1995; Van De Vliert & Van Yperen, 1996). We contribute to this theory by filling the gap on whether any, or all, of the constructs of role stress theory influences the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. As our findings provided evidence that role ambiguity fully mediates the relationship between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, they articulate and test the themes of prior research (Nosratinia, Niknam, & Sarabchian, 2013; Rastegari & Mehrabi Kermanii, 2015). This prior research indicated a statistically non-significant relationship between the variables of emotional intelligence and ambiguity. As the fully mediated role of ambiguity exists between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, satisfying the condition of mediation (Baron & Kenny, 1986), the significance of the relationship between emotional intelligence and ambiguity is highlighted. Examining the influence of these characteristics and factors can significantly advance understanding of the conditions and structures that surround ambiguity. The results from the present study elicit other factors of role theory (Kahn et al., 1964), such as role conflict and role overload, to determine that neither mediate emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence. As the literature asserts the context of the role of conflict and conflict management preferences, other

studies note it is moderated by emotional intelligence (Jordan & Troth, 2004; Moeller & Kwantes, 2015; Thory, 2013). Our assumptions on how this may be the influencing link between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence was unsupported in the analysis. Unexpectedly, research conducted by Oginska-Bulik (2005) indirectly supported our results insofar as determining the mediating role of ambiguity, as the results of the research noted minimal significance in the relationship between emotional intelligence and overload. Our results demonstrate that the mediating constructs of cross-cultural role conflict, ambiguity, and overload is more complicated than previously understood, in that the relationship appears to vary with each construct. By utilising the mediation conditions as put forward by Baron and Kenny (1986) we found that the mediating effect of role ambiguity on the link between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence may add to empirical research.

Implications for practice

The findings of the study also have practical implications. First, our results highlighting the mediating role of organisational culture between emotional and cultural intelligence (McAleese & Hargie, 2004) suggest beliefs and values of an organisation may, to a partial extent, influence the emotional appraisal of the individual that similarly impacts on the way cultural intelligence may be developed. This may be in keeping with the framework of organisational culture offered by McAleese and Hargie (2004) – suggesting the way organisations develop and enhance their culture may be to formulate overall strategies that develop cultural leaders, share the culture by communicating effectively with staff, measure performance, and communicate culture in all dealings with customers.

Second, the results of our study indicate the influence of organisational culture may be a supporting tool that assists in harnessing the attributes of emotional intelligence and the way

it transgresses into the domains of cultural adaptability and adjustment (Gimenez-Espin, Jiménez-Jiménez, & Martínez-Costa, 2013; Ugoani, 2015). We therefore assert the attributes of an organisation, with respect to its belief and value systems, serve to complement the behaviour of its employees, and the way it relates to cultural and ethnic diversity in the workplace. As globalisation has impacted on trade and commerce across a variety of spectrums, having the ability to adjust to change and associated cultural settings becomes more prevalent and places greater demands on both organisations and their workforce. Understanding the impact organisations play in navigating, understanding and contributing to enhancing the behaviour of the organisation's human resource will add value in the pursuit of conducting successful business operations.

Congruently, the way in which role ambiguity fully mediates emotional and cultural intelligence promotes further practical implications from our findings. The concept of ambiguity and tolerance, and their relationship with emotional intelligence, is becoming more defined (Nosratinia, Niknam, & Sarabchian, 2013; Rastegari & Mehrabi Kermanii, 2015). The most dominant view of role ambiguity is the observation that individuals lack the information necessary to effectively perform a job or task, leading them to feel helpless (Onyemah, 2008). As the nature of ambiguity asserts different things to different people based on factors such as comprehension, level of perception, availability of data, communication methodology, and/or historical practice, the linchpin rests with temperate levels of a role stressor (role ambiguity or conflict), as they are associated with superior performance, while low and high levels of stressor are associated with inferior performance (Onyemah, 2008). Organisational operational and performance strategies may therefore need to consider how the varying degrees of ambiguity influence the emotional and cultural psychometric profile

of their employees at a point that either engages with or detracts from, effective levels of task performance.

However, while organisations may deploy resources that engage such strategies, our studies highlight there is no mediation of conflict or overload between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence, and therefore a clear separation must exist between the effects of ambiguity upon emotional and cultural intelligence in the practice of these strategies.

Limitations and directions for further research

The study was subject to several limitations that need to be acknowledged. The range and design of our study confines our ability to determine the direction of causality among the variables, and therefore cause and effect relationships should not be assumed from our results. Our combined findings across the number of hypotheses put forward demonstrated empirical evidence of the role of organisational culture and role ambiguity across Australia, United States of America, United Kingdom and Northern Ireland, and Singapore, but cannot be taken as authoritative.

The second limitation is that while we made use of a quantitative methodology, future research may consider a mixed methods approach that could initially address issues in more complex environments. A mixed methods approach may provide scope aimed at identifying further issues from a professional practice standpoint where qualitative approaches may discover deeply embedded issues from an ordinal data standpoint that may pre-empt the research path. Quantitative methodologies could then be employed utilising multi-level wave data over several phases. A wave-data approach may serve to discover trends in the schema

of emotional and cultural intelligence development while addressing the prospect of how the mediating variables form relationships over time.

The third limitation raises questions about common method variance blending the relationships between variables due to social identification and negative effectivity when measured from the same source (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Our strategies were aimed at minimising this effect based on recommendations followed by Podsakoff et al. (2003) whereby our model involved testing mediating relationships that could be considered less likely to be detected when relationships are artificially inflated (Edwards & Lambert, 2007). This was further supplemented by the use of Harman's single factor test that indicated there was an unlikelihood of the presence of common method variance. Also, our methodology incorporated validated scales, which are less sensitive to common method variance (Doty & Glick, 1998); however, we acknowledge this could also be supplemented by a wave data approach that would similarly increase confidence in the data results.

The fourth potential limitation to our study is that we are unable to directly compare our results to similar studies (Jamal, 2010; M. Peterson et al., 1995). We note the country cluster formations recommended by Ronen and Shenkar (2013) and on this basis consider similarities and differences cannot be drawn, as the country clustering patterns have not been represented collectively within empirical research. Scholars are invited to conduct further research to determine whether the pattern of our findings may be generalised, or are specific to the context.

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, our findings provide support for many aspects of the models we hypothesised, in particular the influence of organisational culture and role ambiguity as mediators between emotional and cultural intelligence. We therefore consider our work as a starting point for future research to help uncover other antecedents to determine a pattern of resemblance to our findings. Although there are limitations, we acknowledge the scope of research methodologies based on suggestions and ideas, and recommend a mixed methodological approach coupled with a data set on a much wider range of dimensions for future studies. We believe this will assist in understanding the characteristics of the mediating variables put forward, and their relationship with the constructs presented.

No.	Item	Mean	SD							Pairv	vise Cori	relation							
				1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	Industry or profession of employment	0.95	0.21																
2	Home base country	0.49	0.50	-0.034															
3	Country of sign-on for duty	0.50	0.50	-0.001	.980**														
4	Years of experience with organisation	0.41	0.49	0.024	0.07	0.078													
5	Previous employment within industry	0.57	0.50	-0.003	171**	151**	213**												
6	Age	0.28	0.45	0.069	0.088	0.098	421**	0.089											
7	Fluency in language besides English	0.48	0.50	0.055	472**	452**	0.065	-0.005	0.045										
8	English as native language	0.82	0.38	-0.02	.162**	.130*	-0.039	.158**	-0.038	359**									
9	Country of birth	0.40	0.49	0.051	.821**	.802**	0.056	197**	0.109	442**	.234**								
10	Country of schooling	0.42	0.49	0.029	.835**	.829**	0.071	194**	0.078	443**	.219**	.911**							
11	Education level	0.77	0.42	120*	213**	209**	0.048	0.055	136*	.220**	-0.043	309**	264**						
12	Role Conflict	1.68	0.48	138*	120*	141*	0.018	0.104	152**	0.037	0.043	-0.104	-0.088	.154**					
13	Role Overload	2.40	0.75	-0.053	-0.042	-0.063	0.094	-0.006	0.005	.154**	0.085	-0.04	-0.005	0.082	.413**				
14	Role Ambiguity	3.52	0.70	0.015	0.021	0.013	0.052	-0.002	-0.104	-0.001	-0.094	-0.022	-0.035	0.049	149*	129*			
15	Cultural Intelligence	3.66	0.58	-0.112	126*	133*	0.129*	.124*	140*	.128*	-0.001	164**	156**	.232**	0.112	0.004	.254**		
16	Emotional Intelligence	4.88	0.73	-0.068	-0.026	-0.03	0.190**	0.05	148*	-0.018	0.09	-0.103	-0.098	.185**	0.01	-0.041	.337**	.610**	
17	Organisational Culture	2.74	0.60	-0.019	173**	177**	-0.086	0.093	.182**	0.076	0.042	168**	188**	.130*	116*	-0.055	.304**	.125*	.298**

Table 1 - Descriptive statistics and correlation

Table 2 - Fit statistics measurement model comparison	Table 2 -	 Fit statistics 	measurement	model	comparison
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Models	χ^2	df	CFI	NFI	RMSEA	SRMR	χ^2 diff	df _{dif}
Full Measurement Model	2692	1590	0.898	0.786	0.048	0.047		
Model A: EI – CQ	977	467	0.916	0.852	0.061	0.048	1715	1123**
Model B: EI – OC	769	429	0.939	0.873	0.052	0.044	1923	1161**
Model C: EI – RC	299	143	0.950	0.909	0.060	0.049	2393	1447**
Model D: EI – RA	389	180	0.944	0.901	0.062	0.046	2303	1410**
Model E: EI – RO	290	143	0.955	0.915	0.059	0.042	2402	1447**
Model F: OC – CQ	774	459	0.943	0.872	0.049	0.043	1918	1131**
Model G: RC – CQ	370	160	0.934	0.891	0.066	0.051	2322	1430**
Model H: RA - CQ	401	199	0.946	0.899	0.058	0.047	2291	1391**
Model I: RO - CQ	316	160	0.952	0.909	0.057	0.046	2376	1430**
Model J: EI – OC – CQ	1858	1049	0.909	0.816	0.051	0.046	834	541**
Model K: EI – RC – RA – RO – CQ	1559	847	0.909	0.823	0.053	0.049	1133	743**

Notes: N = 299, **p < 0.001

 x^2 = chi-square discrepancy, df = degrees of freedom; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; RMSEA = root mean square error of approximation; SRMR = standardised root mean square residual; χ^2 diff = difference in chi-square, df diff = difference in degrees of freedom; EI = emotional intelligence; CQ = cultural intelligence; OC = organisational culture; RC = role conflict; RA = role ambiguity; RO = role overload

in all measurement models, error terms were free to covary between one pair of well-being items to improve fit and help reduce bias in the estimated parameter values (Reddy, 1992)

Table 3 - Hierarchical regression analysis for testing mediation

	Organisational Culture	Role Conflict	Role Ambiguity	Role Overload		Cultural Intelligenc	e
Control, independent and mediating variables	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5	Step 6	Step 7
Control variables	Standardised ß	Standardised ß	Standardised ß	Standardised ß	Standardised ß	Standardised ß	Standardised ß
Industry or profession of employment	0.00	-0.11	0.05	-0.04	-0.08	-0.06	-0.17
Home base country	0.00	0.36	0.30	0.60	0.24	0.13	0.11
Country of sign-on for duty	-0.15	-0.54	-0.22	-0.64*	-0.22	-0.21	-0.22
Fluency in any other language besides English	-0.01	0.01	-0.01	0.21**	0.08	0.11	0.13*
English as native language	0.05	0.02	-0.15*	0.15*	0.02	-0.04	-0.03
Country of birth	0.05	-0.02	0.08	-0.21	-0.02	0.03	0.03
Country of schooling	-0.09	0.14	-0.10	0.27	-0.05	0.05	0.05
Education level	0.07	0.12	-0.01	0.05	0.17**	0.08	0.11
Age	0.24**	-0.13*	-0.09	0.07	-0.07	-0.05	0.00
Years of experience with organisation	-0.03	0.00	-0.06	0.13*	0.13*	0.01	0.02
Previous employment within industry	0.01	0.11	0.01	0.01	0.14*	0.11*	0.12*
Independent variable							
Emotional Intelligence	0.31**	-0.04	0.35**	-0.08		0.59**	0.47**
Mediating variables							
Organisational culture							-0.10*
Role conflict							0.09
Role ambiguity							0.08
Role overload							-0.02
<i>F-Statistic</i>	5.46	2.30	4.04	2.35	3.28	17.22	13.59
R^2	0.19	0.09	0.15	0.09	0.11	0.42	0.44
ΔR^2					0.11	0.31	

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

Table 4– Bootstrapping (5000)

			Bootstrap	o-based method					
Mediator: Organisational culture		Product of Coefficients		Bias-Corrected 9	MacKinnon's PRODCLIN 95% CI				
	Estimate	Bootstrap Standard Error	Z Score	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Total effect	0.4655	0.0378	12.3147	0.3911	0.5399	0.3911	0.5399		
Indirect effect	-0.0214	0214 0.0143 -1.4965		-0.0538	0.0035	-0.0517	0.0057	-0.0463	0.0055
Direct effect	0.4870	0.0396	12.2818	0.4089	0.5650	0.4089	0.5650		
Mediator: Role ambiguity									
Total effect	0.4655	0.0378	12.3147	0.3911 0.5399	0.3	911	0.5399		
Indirect effect	0.0155	0.0158	0.9810	-0.0122 0.0500	-0.0	-0.0146		-0.0137	0.0435
Direct effect	0.4501	0.0402	11.2091	0.3710 0.5291	0.3	0.3710			



Figure 1. Multi-mediation model, organisational culture, role conflict, role ambiguity, role overload mediating between emotional intelligence and cultural intelligence.

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