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A Cross-Cultural Meta-Analysis of How Leader Emotional Intelligence Influences Subordinate Task Performance and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Abstract

Global human resource managers need to understand which personality characteristics contribute to leadership effectiveness in different cultures for both selection and training purposes. This meta-analysis demonstrates that leaders' emotional intelligence (EI) demonstrates incremental validity and relative weight in predicting subordinates' task performance and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) after controlling for the Big Five and cognitive ability. The relationship between leaders' EI and subordinates' task performance is stronger in collectivistic, feminine, and high uncertainty avoidance cultures. The relationship between leaders' EI and subordinates' OCB is stronger in high power distance, collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, long-term oriented, and restraint cultures.

Keywords: cross-culture; emotional intelligence; organizational citizenship behavior; meta-analysis; leadership.

Managerial Relevance

- Leader emotional intelligence is universally valued across cultures.
- The effects of leader emotional intelligence on subordinate performance and organizational citizenship behavior depend on cultural dimensions.
- Leader emotional intelligence is especially important in high power distance, collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, long-term oriented, and restrained cultures.
- Leader emotional intelligence and cognitive intelligence are the two best predictors of follower task performance and organizational citizenship behavior.
- Multinational corporations should consider the match between leaders' emotional intelligence and cultural dimensions when making cross-cultural assignments.

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Introduction

The increasingly competitive world economy makes leadership selection and development even more crucial to multinational corporations (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). As Caligiuri and Tarique (2012) noted, a survey by IBM found that global chief human resources administrators rated future leadership development as the top competency required to achieve business objectives, yet leadership development was also regarded as one of their least effective proficiencies (IBM, 2010). Other studies have also highlighted the difficulties that multinational enterprises (MNEs) face when developing talent, especially at the top leadership levels (Mellahi & Collings, 2010). In order to develop effective global leadership training programs, human resources managers need to know which personality traits and skills contribute to leadership effectiveness (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012).

Personality traits have been shown to be predictors of expatriates' success (Caligiuri, 2000) and of leadership success in global environments (Caligiuri, 1997; Gupta & Govindarajan, 2002). Personality traits, such as openness to new experiences and extraversion, that reduce ethnocentrism and that increase cultural flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity, may be particularly strong predictors of cross-cultural adjustment (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Other researchers have found that emotional intelligence (EI) aids cross-cultural communication (Lillis & Tian, 2009) and cross-cultural adjustment (Lin, Chen, & Song, 2012). This may be because skills related to learning about other cultures (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012), such as the ability to read others' emotions, attend to emotional cues, and show empathy (Yamazaki & Kayes, 2004; Yoo, Matsumoto, & LeRoux, 2006), are related to EI and promote cross-cultural adjustment.

The GLOBE study found that preferences for leadership styles varied considerably by culture (Dorfman & House, 2004; Javidan et al., 2005). Because personality traits and related competencies predict leadership styles, this suggests that the effectiveness of various traits and competencies will also vary by culture.

As Triandis (1989) convincingly demonstrated, culture has an important influence on human behavior. For example, he found that the degree to which cultures vary in individualism–collectivism, tightness–looseness, and cultural complexity interacted with facets of the self (private, public, and collective) to determine human behavior. Leaders who are unable to adjust their leadership styles and behaviors to fit the demands of the local culture will find themselves ineffective. In order to adjust their behaviors, they need to know which competencies are most effective in the culture they are operating in. Knowledge of these competencies, and how they are influenced by culture, would also help when it comes to assigning employees to leadership positions in other cultures. MNEs could assign leaders based on the match between their characteristics and the effectiveness of those characteristics in the cultures being considered.

In this study, we examine the effectiveness of one particular trait, EI, in different cultural settings. Below, we go over the research on emotions in the workplace, and then relate this research to the work on culture and leadership. Although we expect and hypothesize that culture will have a significant effect on the value of EI to leadership, we recognize that research has also shown that all cultures agree that some values exist (Schwartz, 1992). Despite this agreement, the degree to which these values influence managers' work behaviors may still depend upon cultural contexts (Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002). Den Hartog and her colleagues used the GLOBE data to show both culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable effects (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Likewise, Lee, Scandura, and Sharif (2014) examined leader-member exchange

relations and concluded that "cultures have consequences" with both mean differences in ratings and with moderation effects by national cultural dimensions. It may be that EI is universally valued across cultures, but that the strength of the relationship between EI and leadership effectiveness will still vary across cultures to a significant and meaningful degree.

Although reviews of the literature have generally found support for the importance of EI to leadership, no meta-analyses have yet established that emotionally intelligent leaders can increase the job performance of their followers. Thus, the second major purpose of this study is to test the leader EI—subordinate job performance relationship, using meta-analytic techniques to obtain the most precise estimates of effect sizes and of incremental validity. Although job performance has often been conceptualized as individual task performance, Organ (1997) convincingly argued that OCB is another important type of performance. This viewpoint is strongly supported by a meta-analysis which found that OCB improves both organizational and individual outcomes (Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). We will examine the leader EI—follower performance in terms of both task performance and OCB.

Theory and Hypotheses

What is Emotional Intelligence?

Best-selling books have advocated EI as important to life success and as crucial to leadership and organizational effectiveness (Cherniss, 2001; Goleman, 1995; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002). Although there are different ways to conceptualize EI, most definitions involve the ability to be aware of one's own and others' emotions, to regulate emotions, and to reason effectively using emotions (Goleman, 1995; Petrides, 2009a, 2009b; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The Ashkanasy and Daus (2005) classification of EI measures has become widely used in research articles and textbooks (e.g., Humphrey, 2013; Miao et al., 2016; Miao, Humphrey, &

Qian, 2017a; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011; Walter et al., 2011). They classified EI measures into three types, which are commonly referred to as ability EI, self-report EI, and mixed EI. Mayer and his colleagues created their ability scale, the MSCEIT V2.0 (Mayer, Salovey, Caruso, & Sitarenios, 2003), to show that EI measures can satisfy the traditional criteria for intelligence measures by having objective right and wrong answers. Other scholars maintain that EI has trait-like properties and should be assessed the way personality traits are assessed, i.e., through self-report EI measures (Jordan, Ashkanasy, Hartel, & Hooper, 2002; Jordan & Troth, 2011; Petrides, 2009a, 2009b; Petrides & Furnham, 2003; Saklofske, Austin, & Minski, 2003; Schutte et al., 1998; Siegling, Vesely, Petrides, & Saklofske, 2015; Wong & Law, 2002). According to Petrides and his colleagues, EI consists of "a constellation of behavioral dispositions and self-perceptions concerning one's ability to recognize, process, and utilize emotion-laden information." (Petrides, Frederickson, & Furnham, 2004, p. 278). Mixed EI measures also use self-report items; they are differentiated from the other self-report measures by their use of competencies as well as traits (e.g., Bar-On, 2000; Boyatzis, Brizz, & Godwin, 2011). More recently, a "behavioral approach" based on peer ratings of EI has also been examined, but more research on this needs to be done before it can be included in meta-analytical studies (Boyatzis, Rochford, & Cavanagh, 2017).

Walter, Humphrey, and Cole (2012) argued that EI "unleashes" leadership potential. Support for this contention comes from studies that find that leaders score higher on EI than followers do (Siegling, Nielsen, & Petrides, 2014a; Siegling, Sfeir, & Smyth, 2014b). Other studies have also found that emotionally intelligent leaders are more effective in a variety of ways (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2002; Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011a, 2011b; Boyatzis, Brizz, & Godwin, 2011; George, 2000; Walter & Bruch, 2009). A review of the literature concluded that

leaders' EI was positively related to leadership emergence, the performance of effective leadership behaviors (such as transformational leadership), and to overall leadership effectiveness (Walter, Cole, & Humphrey, 2011). Finally, a meta-analysis found that leaders' EI was positively related to subordinates' job satisfaction (Miao et al., 2016).

Emotional Intelligence and Cross-Cultural Moderators

The major purpose of this investigation is to examine cross-cultural moderators of the leader EI—follower task performance and OCB relationships. National culture has a tremendous effect on the context where job roles are performed; hence, it is critical to examine the cross-cultural validity of EI (Di Fabio, Saklofske, & Tremblay, 2016; Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012; Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2016). Previous studies have demonstrated that cultural values can have an important influence on the development of EI. For example, Gunkel, Schlägel, and Engle (2014) surveyed a sample of 2,067 individuals in nine countries and demonstrated that cultural values influenced EI, with especially large effects on the cultural dimensions of collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and long-term orientation. In a later study, Gunkel, Schlaegel, and Taras (2016) examined how EI acts a mediator in the relationships between culture and conflict handling styles. Prior research (Jordan & Troth, 2004), along with a meta-analysis (Schlaerth, Ensari, & Christian, 2013), has demonstrated that EI is related to the use of positive conflict management techniques. Consistent with these earlier studies, Gunkel et al. (2016) found that EI mediated between cultural value dimensions and conflict handling styles. Research has also shown that EI positively influences the degree to which expatriates experience general living, interactional, and work-related cross-cultural adjustment (Koveshnikov, Wechtler, & Dejoux, 2014).

There is also considerable evidence that cultural values influence emotions and our outcome variables. For example, Reus (2012) found that cultural differences influenced "emotional attending" during mergers and acquisitions, and Reus stated (p. 342) that "emotional attending involves not only striving to make acquired organization members feel good but also instills a climate of recognizing and sharing emotions (cf. Druskat & Wolff, 2001; Huy, 1999)." Taras, Kirkman, and Steel (2010) meta-analyzed over three decades worth of studies on Hofstede's (2001; 2010) cultural value dimensions, and examined 598 studies with over 200,000 respondents. Their meta-analysis confirmed the long-held belief that cultural differences influence emotional expressivity. For example, they found that cultural values influenced characteristics such as a "tendency to display emotions", "openness in communication," and "sensitivity to others." Cultural values also influenced the levels of depression, anxiety, and "embarrassability." A variety of work-related behaviors were also influenced, including "effort", "cooperation with colleagues", "innovation" and "entrepreneurial behavior." Most importantly for our study, they also found that cultural values influenced "organizational citizenship."

The Taras et al. (2010) meta-analysis also found that preferences for leadership style varied by cultural value dimensions, including preferences for charismatic, directive, participative and inspirational leadership styles, with a particularly large difference regarding preferences for paternalistic leadership. The notion that preferences for leadership styles vary considerably by culture is further supported by the GLOBE study of 62 societies (Dorfman & House, 2004). The GLOBE study expanded the dimensions in the original Hofstede (2001; 2010) studies to include dimensions appropriate to leadership, and the results from this large-scale study support the conclusion that important differences in leadership preferences exist across cultures. Consequently, we believe that leaders' use of EI may also vary considerably across

cultures, and that cultural values should serve as important moderators of leader EI to follower relationships. We expand more upon the effects of culture on leader EI, and the expected directions of these effects, in later sections.

Emotional Intelligence and Task Performance

Three different meta-analyses have established that EI is related to individual task performance (Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). The study by O'Boyle et al. (2011) used relative weight analysis to reveal that EI (when measured by self-report EI and mixed EI) was the most important personality variable predicting task performance (ahead of any of the Big Five measures and only behind cognitive intelligence). Meta-analyses have also found that emotionally intelligent employees have higher job satisfaction and organizational commitment and lower turnover intentions (Miao et al., 2017a). Task performance also plays a crucial role in explaining how EI is related to job satisfaction. Miao et al. (2017a) reasoned that job performance should influence job satisfaction as well as organizational commitment and turnover intentions. In their meta-analysis, they found that job performance (as well as positive and negative state affect) mediated the effects of EI on employee job satisfaction. Miao, Humphrey, and Qian's (2017b) meta-analysis found that emotionally intelligent employees were better at gaining job resources, and that job resources mediated the relationships between EI and employee job satisfaction.

Although no meta-analyses have examined whether emotionally intelligent leaders can improve the task performance of their followers, a related meta-analysis examined whether emotionally intelligent leaders can improve the job satisfaction of their followers (Miao et al., 2016). This study found that leader EI was significantly related to a follower's level of job satisfaction, even when controlling for the follower's own EI. In part, this is likely to be because

of the substantial effect that emotionally intelligent leaders can have on followers' levels of task performance. EI is related to job performance (O'Boyle et al., 2011), so emotionally intelligent leaders are likely to know what leads to high performance and should be able to share this knowledge with their followers. Emotionally intelligent leaders may also have an advantage in motivating their followers because of their insight into human nature and their ability to influence others' emotions (Carmeli & Josman, 2006; George, 2000; Humphrey, 2002).

The workplace can be filled with frustrating events. As Humphrey (2002, p. 498) argued, "a key component of emotional intelligence is the ability to soothe oneself when upset, or—when leading groups—to soothe others who are upset." Emotionally intelligent leaders may be able to regulate their followers' moods because they are good at expressing their own emotions and creating empathic bonds (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2006). Through a process of emotional contagion, the positive moods transfer from the leaders to their followers. George (2000, p. 1034) also argued that emotionally intelligent leaders are good communicators, and states, "the accurate expression of emotion ensures that people are able to effectively communicate with others to meet their needs and accomplish their goals or objectives." As a result of their better communication and emotional expressivity, emotionally intelligent people are perceived to be higher on leadership (Kellett et al., 2006) and are more likely to emerge as leaders (Walter et al., 2011). Thus, our first hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Leaders' EI should positively relate to subordinates' task performance.

Emotional Intelligence and Organizational Citizenship Behavior

In his classic definition of OCB, Organ (1988, p. 4) stated that "OCB represents individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the

organization." In a key reconceptualization of OCB, Organ (1997, p. 95) proclaimed that OCB is "performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place." This new focus on the social and psychological environment implies that traits and skills related to social and psychological knowledge (like EI) should be highly relevant to OCB. In support of this, a recent meta-analysis by Miao, Humphrey, and Qian (2017c) found that after controlling for cognitive intelligence, the Big Five Personality traits, general self-efficacy, self-rated job performance, and ability EI, that self-report and mixed EI had incremental validity and relative weight when predicting OCB and counterproductive work behavior.

It is important to study the traits and skills behind OCB because OCB influences employee well-being and the overall performance of an organization (Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount, & Oh, 2014). Koys (2001) found in a longitudinal study that OCB improves organizational effectiveness. The beneficial effects of OCB was confirmed by a meta-analysis (Podsakoff et al., 2009). At the organizational level, this meta-analysis concluded that OCB reduces costs and unit-level turnover and improves productivity, efficiency, and customer satisfaction. At the individual level, the meta-analysis concluded that individuals who perform OCB garner higher rewards and performance evaluations, and have lower turnover intentions, actual turnover, and absenteeism.

Leaders high on EI may encourage their followers to perform OCB because EI is closely related to empathy. Moreover, EI is negatively related to manipulative behavior and Machiavellianism (Austin, Farrelly, Black, & Moore, 2007), so people high on EI are more likely to use their abilities for pro-social purposes. Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2013) illustrated the importance of empathy to EI by stating that empathy is "the fundamental competence of social awareness" and "the sine qua non of all social effectiveness in working life" (p. 50). Researchers have tested what has become known as the empathy-altruism hypothesis

(Batson, Eklund, Chermok, Hoyt, & Ortiz 2007; Paciello, Fida, Cerniglia, Tramontano, & Cole, 2013). This hypothesis is supported by meta-analytic evidence for both surveys and lab studies (Eisenberg & Miller, 1987). EI scales predict leader empathy (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002; Kellett et al., 2006), so highly emotionally intelligent leaders are likely to be both high on empathy and supportive of subordinate prosocial behavior and OCB. Thus our next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 2: Leaders' EI should positively relate to subordinates' OCB.

To show that EI measures are useful for cross-cultural research, it is first necessary to show that EI measures show incremental validity and relative importance over and above measures of the Five-Factor Model personality factors (FFM, also known as the Big Five) and cognitive intelligence (Miao et al., 2016, 2017a; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Saklofske et al., 2003; Siegling et al., 2015; Walter et al., 2011). Although no prior meta-analysis has tested the incremental effects of leader EI on subordinate performance, a seven-year longitudinal study provided good evidence that leader EI adds incremental validity over cognitive intelligence and personality when predicting subordinate performance (Boyatzis, Massa, & Good, 2012). Thus, our next hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: Leaders' EI should contribute incremental validity and relative importance in the prediction of subordinates' task performance in the presence of the FFM and cognitive ability.

Hypothesis 4: Leaders' EI should contribute incremental validity and relative importance in the prediction of subordinates' OCB in the presence of the FFM and cognitive ability.

National Culture

We examined the moderator effects of national cultural dimensions based on trait activation theory. This theory proposes that trait-relevant cues in a context will activate one's

expression of their psychological traits and prompt one to behave in ways in line with the trait-relevant cues (Farh et al., 2012; Tett & Burnett, 2003; Tett & Guterman, 2000). National cultures should include trait-relevant cues that may trigger one's expression of psychological traits because national cultures influence the formation of social norms and stipulate the kinds of values that are rewarded (Miao et al., 2016; Oh et al., 2014). In addition, we believe that effects of leader EI on followers operate at least partly through a process of emotional contagion (Ashkanasy & Humphrey, 2011a). Indeed, the cultural moderation effects described in our hypotheses may be strongly influenced by how culture either facilitates or hinders emotional contagion from leaders to followers. The studies summarized in our meta-analyses report the location of the study, but not necessarily the leaders' countries of origin. Thus, the following hypotheses refer to the effects of the national culture on the effectiveness of the leaders' EI, regardless of where the leaders originally came from.

Power distance indicates how a society handles inequalities among people and denotes the degree of equality of power distribution; in addition, individuals located in high power distance countries absolutely conform to a hierarchical power order and do not request justification for inequalities of power (Hofstede, 2001; Hoftede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). Research has demonstrated that people located in low power distance cultures tolerate and observe others' emotions better than people located in high power distance cultures (Gunkel et al., 2014; Hofstede, 2001). As such, leaders may not need to regulate their followers' emotions as much in low power distance cultures. Such cultures make it less necessary for leaders to use their EI to influence their followers because their followers are relatively more emotionally savvy and are thus less dependent on their leaders' EI to get things done or to display OCB. In high power distance societies, it is not normative for leaders to treat their followers with a great

deal of empathy and understanding. In such societies, leaders who are high on EI and who display empathy and care and concern for their followers will stand out more from other less emotionally intelligent leaders, and followers are likely to be more appreciative of high EI leaders.Therefore, we offer the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) subordinates' OCB in high power distance cultures than in low power distance cultures.

People from individualistic cultures care more about the achievement of personal goals; in addition, they are inclined to care about themselves because of a preference for a loosely-knit social network (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). On the contrary, due to a preference for group membership and interdependence with others, people from collectivistic cultures are inclined to be part of a tightly-knit social network via developing relationships with others; further, they also assume that others in their social network will look after them in exchange for their absolute allegiance (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). Due to a preference for maximizing self-interest in individualistic cultures, followers are less likely to display OCB regardless of the level of their leaders' EI, because accomplishing personal goals to maximize self-interest is more important than engaging in OCB in order to solve others' personal- or work-related problems. Support for this comes from a study of leadership styles across cultures, which found that supportive leader behavior was less positively associated with followers' OCBs in individualistic cultures compared to collectivistic ones (Euwema, Wendt, & Van Emmerik, 2007). Because emotionally intelligent leaders tend to be high on empathy and supportive relationship-oriented leadership (Kellett et al., 2002, 2006), a similar pattern of results should occur for the EI cross-cultural relationships. Moreover, leaders located in individualistic cultures

may be somewhat less likely to use their EI skills to motivate followers to perform OCB. In a similar vein, people from individualistic cultures do not control their negative emotions as well as people from collectivistic countries (Gunkel et al., 2014); hence, leaders located in these cultures may not be as proficient as leaders located in collectivistic cultures in utilizing their EI to regulate their negative emotions. Leaders' failure to suppress negative emotions may induce negative emotions in their followers so that their followers may behave in very unproductive ways (i.e., poor performance) (Greenidge, Devonish, & Alleyne, 2014; Spector & Fox, 2002). Moreover, leaders located in collectivistic cultures must strictly regulate their emotions to conform to collectivistic demands, and leaders high in EI should have an advantage in managing their emotions and thus meeting collectivistic expectations. Thus, we derive the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) subordinates' OCB in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures.

People from masculine cultures tend to be competitive and prioritize accomplishment and assertiveness, whereas people from feminine cultures tend to be consensus-oriented and tend to collaborate with others and take care of the weak (Hofstede, 2001; Hoftede et al., 2010). On the contrary, femininity relates to good work relationships with others and collaboration at work (Hofstede, 2001); as such, feminine cultures promote and encourage emotional expressiveness, emotional stability, and expression of positive emotions, which are all key to EI (Gunkel et al., 2014). These positive emotional expressions would facilitate effective work relations, exchanges, and collaborations at work (which are closely linked to task performance and OCB) in feminine cultures. Thus, leaders high in EI located in feminine cultures will find that their emotionally

intelligent behaviors are more appreciated. Hence, leaders' EI will be activated in feminine cultures because such cultural norms will unlock the full potential of leaders' EI to enhance their followers' task performance and OCB. Therefore, we offer the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 7: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) subordinates' OCB in feminine cultures than in masculine cultures.

Uncertainty avoidance captures societal tolerance toward ambiguities and an unknown future; should they try to control the future or just let it occur (Hofstede, 2001; Hoftede et al., 2010)? In high uncertainty avoidance cultures, ambiguities create feelings of anxieties, and followers expect that leaders will resolve the ambiguities by issuing clear statements, accompanied by the appropriate emotional displays. Consequently, we expect that leaders' high in EI located in high uncertainty avoidance cultures are more likely to be appreciated because such cultures create social systems that promote the clear and unambiguous expression of emotion (Gunkel et al., 2014; Hofstede, 2001; Sharma et al., 2009); further, leaders high on EI located in high uncertainty avoidance cultures are more likely to clearly communicate their feelings with their followers about processes, procedures, and regulations so that followers are more comfortable with tasks (Macik-Frey, 2007), thus resulting in higher task performance and OCB. These high EI leaders are also more likely to be able to help their followers cope with the anxieties that arise from uncertainty.

Hypothesis 8: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) subordinates' OCB in high uncertainty avoidance cultures than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures.

People from long-term oriented societies value thriftiness and try to plan for the future; in contrast, people from short-term oriented societies prefer instant gratification and spend now

rather than save for the future (Hofstede, 2001; Hoftede et al., 2010). Individuals from long-term oriented cultures value relationship building and leaders high on EI should be better at relationship-building because of their ability to accurately observe and understand others' emotions (Gunkel et al., 2014). Compared to short-term oriented cultures, we expect that leaders high on EI located in long-term oriented cultures will have an advantage in building long-term and harmonious relationships with their followers. These harmonious relationships should contribute to higher follower task performance and OCB. Moreover, people in long term societies may appreciate and value leaders high on EI more due to their relationship building skills. We provide the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 9: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) subordinates' OCB in long-term oriented cultures than in short-term oriented cultures.

According to Hofstede (2011, p. 8), the indulgence versus restraint dimension is, "related to the gratification versus control of basic human desires related to enjoying life." A key dimension of EI concerns the ability to control and regulate emotions, which may be especially important in situations requiring the control of gratification (Goleman, 1995). Thus, EI may be especially important in restraint cultures, because according to Hofstede (2011, p. 15), "Restraint stands for a society that controls gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms." In contrast, "Indulgence stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun" (Hofstede, 2011, p. 15). Thus indulgence corresponds to relatively weak control and restraint corresponds to relatively strong control (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). Individuals in indulgent cultures are inclined to follow the call of their impulses and releasing their impulses is considered acceptable

(Hofstede, 2001; Hoftede et al., 2010). Thus, when leaders are located in indulgent cultures, their EI may be deactivated because using EI to manage impulses and emotions may be less necessary. In contrast, we anticipate that leaders' EI is more likely to be activated when they are located in restraint cultures because such cultures require people to regulate their impulses so that they behave in more socially desirable ways. In these cultures, EI is especially useful and helps leaders build effective social exchanges and harmonious relationships with their followers. This results in higher task performance and OCB.

Hypothesis 10: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) subordinates' OCB in restraint cultures than in indulgent cultures.

Method

Literature Search

We applied the following search methods to capture relevant studies. First, we searched electronic databases, such as *ABI/INFORM, EBSCO Host* (e.g., *Academic Search Complete* and *Business Source Complete*), *JSTOR, Google, Google Scholar, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, PsycNET* (e.g., *PsycInfo* and *PsycArticles*), *ScienceDirect,* and *Social Sciences Citation Index.* Second, we manually searched the relevant journals in the fields of management and psychology, such as *Academy of Management Journal, Administrative Science Quarterly, Journal of Applied Psychology, Journal of Management, Journal of Management Studies, Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology, Journal of Organizational Behavior, Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, Journal of Vocational Behavior, Journal of World Business, Leadership Quarterly, Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, Organization Science, Personality and Individual Differences,* and *Personnel Psychology*. Third, we searched pertinent management and psychology conference papers, such as *Academy of*

Management, *Southern Management Association*, and *Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Finally, we contacted EI scholars to request unpublished manuscripts, correlation matrices, and raw data.

Inclusion Criteria

We considered a study to be eligible for inclusion in our meta-analysis if it met the following criteria. First, primary studies had to be empirical and quantitative. Second, primary studies needed to report a correlation coefficient either between leaders' EI and subordinates' task performance or between leaders' EI and subordinates' OCB. We used Lipsey and Wilson's (2001) and Peterson and Brown's (2005) methods to convert statistics into effect sizes if primary studies did not report correlation coefficients, yet provided enough statistics to allow us to perform effect size conversion. Third, primary studies had to use real employee samples. Studies using non-employee samples (e.g., student samples) were eliminated from our analysis. Fourth, we removed the studies that used proxy measures of EI (e.g., self-monitoring scales). We finally had 12 samples and a sample size of 2,764 for leaders' EI—subordinates' task performance relation and 17 samples and a sample size of 3,601 for leaders' EI—subordinates' OCB relation. The studies included in the meta-analysis have an asterisk (*) in the reference section.

Coding Procedures

We coded the EI measures (ability EI, self-report EI, and mixed EI) of each study in line with the EI classification proposed by Ashkanasy and Daus (2005). We used the Hofstede cultural dimensions to code national cultural dimensions based on the geographic locations where samples were drawn (Hofstede et al., 2010), although there are several alternative cultural frameworks (e.g., House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Schwartz, 1994; Smith, Dugan, & Trompenaars, 1996). There are several reasons why we used Hofstede's cultural

framework. First, meta-analytic tests support the view that Hofstede's cultural framework is valid and robust (Taras et al., 2010). Second, Hofstede's cultural framework is the most widely used categorization system and provides the foundation for many other cross-cultural studies. Third, Hofstede's cultural framework is built on a theoretical model with an elegant set of indices (Taras et al., 2010; Taras, Steel, & Kirkman, 2012). Fourth, from a methodological perspective, Hofstede and his colleagues provided clear categorization (i.e., high versus low level) of each country's cultural dimensions, which is ideally suitable for Hunter and Schmidt's (1990) z-test (i.e., moderator test); thus, this framework is frequently used in cross-cultural meta-analyses (e.g., Choi, Oh, & Colbert, 2015).

Two coders independently coded each sample, which resulted in an initial coding agreement of 98%. All coding discrepancies were resolved via discussion. A third coder was invited to join the discussion to handle any coding disagreements in cases where the first two coders could not reach complete agreement, and a 100% consensus was reached.

Meta-Analytic Procedures

We performed Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) psychometric meta-analysis to analyze the data. We corrected for measurement errors in each individual effect size for both independent and dependent variables. Some primary studies did not report reliability coefficients. Hence, we imputed missing reliabilities for both independent and dependent variables by using the mean of reliabilities of the studies that reported reliability information (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). We calculated corrected 95% confidence intervals; effect sizes are statistically significant if corrected 95% confidence intervals do not include zero. We computed both Var_{art}% and 80% credibility intervals to gauge the potential existence of moderators. Var_{art}% denotes the percentage of the variance in $\hat{\rho}$, explained by statistical artifacts. Hunter and Schmidt (2004)

suggested that moderators may operate in a meta-analytic distribution if less than 75% of effect sizes' variance is accounted for by statistical artifacts. We also calculated a corrected 80% credibility interval to examine the existence of moderators, because a wide 80% credibility interval signals the potential existence of moderators (Whitener, 1990). We performed the z-test developed by Hunter and Schmidt (1990) to examine moderator effects. This test assesses the statistical significance of between-group effect size difference (Miao, Qian, & Ma, 2017).

We constructed meta-analytically derived corrected correlation matrices and performed both hierarchical multiple regression analyses and relative weight analyses (Johnson, 2000; Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011) to examine both the incremental validity and the relative weight (also known as relative importance) of leaders' EI in predicting subordinates' task performance and OCB in the presence of cognitive ability and the FFM. We followed the criteria developed by O'Boyle et al. (2011) to assess the magnitude of relative importance of each predictor. We computed harmonic mean sample size (Viswesvaran & Ones, 1995) when conducting hierarchical multiple regression analyses because sample sizes differed across the cells in the meta-analytically derived correlation matrices. Computing harmonic mean sample size will yield more conservative estimates because less weight is given to large samples (Garrett, Miao, Qian, & Bae, 2017; Miao, Coombs, Qian, & Sirmon, 2017).

Results

Main and Moderator Effects

Table 1 and Table 2 show the results for the main and moderator effects of the relationships between leaders' EI and subordinates' task performance and OCB. Leaders' EI is significantly and positively related to subordinates' task performance ($\hat{\rho}$ = .48 [overall leaders' EI], $\hat{\rho}$ = .46 [self-report EI], $\hat{\rho}$ = .52 [mixed EI]) because none of the corrected 95% confidence

intervals for these effect sizes include zero. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 is supported. Analogously, leaders' EI is significantly and positively related to subordinates' OCB ($\hat{\rho}$ = .39 [overall leaders' EI], $\hat{\rho}$ = .24 [ability EI], $\hat{\rho}$ = .41 [self-report EI], $\hat{\rho}$ = .34 [mixed EI]). Hypothesis 2 is supported.

Only 8% and 13% of the variance in $\hat{\rho}$ (see the Var_{art}% column in Table 1 and Table 2) was accounted for by statistical artifacts for the overall leader EI—subordinate task performance and the overall leader EI—subordinate OCB meta-analytic distributions respectively. These two values satisfied Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) 75% rule, indicating the potential existence of moderators. This also justified our search for moderators.

(Table 1 about here)

(Table 2 about here)

We conducted multiple z-tests to examine moderator effects. Hypothesis 5 posits that leaders' EI is more strongly and positively associated with (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in high power distance cultures than in low power distance cultures. With respect to subordinates' task performance, we found that effect sizes do not significantly differ between high power distance ($\hat{\rho}$ = .44) and low power distance cultures ($\hat{\rho}$ = .31). With respect to subordinates' OCB, we found that effect size is significantly larger in high power distance cultures ($\hat{\rho}$ = .37) than in low power distance cultures ($\hat{\rho}$ = .23). Accordingly, Hypothesis 5 (b) is supported whereas Hypothesis 5 (a) is rejected. We repeated the same procedures to analyze all other moderators. We tabulated the results for all hypotheses in Table 3. The associations between leaders' EI and subordinates' task performance are stronger in collectivistic, feminine, and high uncertainty avoidance cultures. The connections between leaders' EI and subordinates' OCB are stronger in high power distance, collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, long-term oriented, and restrained cultures.

(Table 3 about here)

Multiple Regression Analyses and Incremental Validity

We assessed the incremental validity of EI by using multiple regression analyses and tabulated the results in Table 4 and Table 5. When the dependent variable is subordinates' task performance (see Table 4), Model 1 demonstrated that leaders' cognitive ability and the FFM altogether explained 26% ($p < .001$) of the variance in subordinates' task performance. The other two models show the incremental validity of each type of leaders' EI above and beyond the control variables (cognitive ability and the FFM). Model 2 and Model 3 show that leaders' self-report EI and leaders' mixed EI contributed an additional 17% ($p < .001$) and an additional 34% ($p < .001$) respectively of the variance above and beyond leaders' cognitive ability and the FFM in the prediction of subordinates' task performance.

When the dependent variable is subordinates' OCB (see Table 5), Model 2, Model 3, and Model 4 demonstrate that leaders' ability EI, self-report EI, and mixed EI contributed an additional 2% ($p < .001$), 12% ($p < .001$), and 9% ($p < .001$) respectively of the variance above and beyond cognitive ability and the FFM in predicting subordinates' OCB.

In conclusion, both leaders' self-report EI and mixed EI demonstrate statistically significant incremental validity above and beyond cognitive ability and the FFM in the prediction of subordinates' task performance. Similarly, all three types of leaders' EI measures (ability, self-report, mixed) contribute statistically significant incremental validity above and beyond leaders' cognitive ability and the FFM in predicting subordinates' OCB.

(Table 4 about here)

(Table 5 about here)

Relative Importance Analysis

The relative importance of each EI stream is shown in the last two columns in each model in Table 4 and Table 5 (see RW and RW% indices). When the dependent variable is subordinates' task performance, leaders' self-report EI (see Model 2 in Table 4) and mixed EI (see Model 3 in Table 4) accounted for 42.4% (R^2 = .181) and 47.6% (R^2 = .284) respectively of the explained variance in subordinates' task performance. Leaders' cognitive intelligence and leaders' self-report EI have roughly equal relative weights (44.9% vs. 42.4%). However, leaders' mixed EI has a noticeably larger relative weight compared to leaders' cognitive intelligence (47.6% vs. 33.6%).

When the dependent variable is subordinates' OCB, leaders' ability EI (see Model 2 in Table 5), self-report EI (see Model 3 in Table 5), and mixed EI (see Model 4 in Table 5) account for 29.3%, 61.3%, and 48.3% respectively of the explained variance in subordinates' OCB. Leaders' self-report EI has a relative importance of 61.3%, which is larger than the sum of the relative importance of the other six predictors in that model. Leaders' mixed EI also has a sizeable relative importance of 48.3%, which is very close to the sum of the relative importance of the other six predictors in that model. Both Hypotheses 3 and 4 are supported.

Discussion

Theoretical Implications

The competitive world economy makes the selection of leaders especially difficult for MNE (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Mellahi & Collings, 2010). This selection process is complicated because the traits and characteristics that are effective in one national culture may be less so in other cultures. The relationship between leader traits and leader effectiveness may vary across national cultures, because in accordance with trait activation theory culture may contain trait-relevant cues that trigger the expression of relevant leader traits (DeRue et al., 2011;

Farh et al., 2012; Tett & Burnett, 2003). The present study makes a noteworthy contribution to EI literature by weaving trait activation theory and national cultural literature into EI research. Our findings shed light on how national culture impacts the role of EI for leadership (Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012; Walter et al., 2011) in that we found some cultural contexts do activate the expression of leaders' EI to amplify its impact on subordinates' task performance and OCB. For example, we found that the relationship between leaders' EI and subordinates' task performance is stronger in collectivistic, feminine, and high uncertainty avoidance cultures, and that the relationship between leaders' EI and subordinates' OCB is stronger in high power distance, collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, long-term oriented, and restrained cultures. These findings not only confirm the predictions based on trait activation theory but also answer the calls from prior research (e.g., Walter et al., 2011; Wong, Wong, & Law, 2007) by demonstrating the cross-cultural implications for leaders' EI.

The impressive incremental validities and relative importance of the EI measures demonstrate that leader EI is one of the most important characteristics of effective leaders when it comes to follower task performance and OCB. These results are consistent with a prior meta-analysis, which examined how leader EI influences subordinate job satisfaction (Miao et al., 2016). This study controlled for the FFM and cognitive intelligence, and found that leader self-report EI had a relative importance of 25.3% and tied for first place in terms of importance, whereas leader mixed EI had a relative importance of 49.9%, roughly as much as the other six predictors combined. Together, these studies demonstrate that leader EI has an important influence on follower task performance, OCB, and job satisfaction.

Practical Implications

Practicing managers should pay attention to the cross-cultural implications we identified in the present study. Some cultural norms make EI especially useful for increasing follower task performance and OCB (e.g., high power distance, collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, long-term oriented, and restrained cultures). Although the effects of leader EI may be more important in some cultures than in others, the effects of leader EI are still statistically significant in every culture. For task performance, the smallest is $\hat{\rho}$ = .31; for OCB, the smallest is $\hat{\rho}$ = .23. Thus, the effects of leader EI on subordinate task performance and OCB are important in every culture. These results are consistent with the research which has shown that all cultures agree that some values exist (Schwartz, 1992), but that the degree to which they influence leaders' behaviors is contingent upon cultural contexts (Smith, Peterson, & Schwartz, 2002). Thus when assigning leaders to work in other cultures, MNE should consider the fit between leaders' level of EI and the importance of EI in that culture. Because EI is universally valued, organizations should still select and train for EI in every culture.

Leaders' EI has been shown to influence subordinates' job attitudes in prior research (Miao et al., 2016). The present study adds to prior research by showing cumulative evidence that leaders' EI is also positively related to both subordinates' task performance and OCB, two outcomes of utmost importance to organizational performance. Our findings also demonstrate that leaders' self-report EI and mixed EI predict subordinates' task performance above and beyond personality and cognitive ability tests. In addition, leaders' ability EI, self-report EI, and mixed EI predict subordinates' OCB above and beyond personality and cognitive ability tests. These impressive findings suggest that organizations should consider using EI assessments when recruiting leaders.

Moreover, MNE may also want to train managers in emotional competencies and skills as a way to increase job performance and helping behaviors. Research has found that people can be trained to alter their behavior to fit the cultural context; for example, Triandis and Singelis (1998) developed questionnaires to help employees assess their individualism and collectivism. In the same way, training in emotional competencies may improve leader performance in those cultures where subordinates especially value emotionally intelligent leadership.

Limitations and Future Directions

First, a few moderator subgroups in our meta-analysis had a relatively small number of samples, which may subject some of our results to second-order sampling error (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004); as such, we encourage readers to exercise caution when interpreting the results based on a small number of samples. In spite of this limitation, the preliminary results based on small numbers of samples are still quite conducive to advance the literature by offering an interim assessment of literature and pinpointing the areas where more research is needed (Garrett et al., 2017; Miao, Rutherford, & Pollack, 2017).

Second, Var_{art}% values for some meta-analytic distributions are still less than 75%. This indicates that in addition to the moderators identified in the present study there may still be some unobserved moderators, thus creating avenues for future studies to identify additional moderators.

Third, our meta-analysis was dominated by the studies using cross-sectional research design. Due to this reason, we cannot rule out the possibility of reverse causality (or reciprocal causation). Hence, we encourage future research to use longitudinal designs to derive strong causal inferences.

Fourth, since meta-analysis is an analytical tool based on secondary data, it is not possible for us to obtain data on the individual-level cultures of leaders and subordinates;

moreover, many studies do not report this data regularly (Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012). Hence, we can only use the geographic locations where samples were drawn as a proxy for that. We understand that this is not an ideal approach. Having said that, we would like to point out that according to Taras et al.'s (2010) meta-analysis, they used a large dataset to compare the data at country-level to the data at individual-level to address the issue of ecological fallacy. Their meta-analytic results demonstrated no substantive differences between individual-level data and national-level data. That is why the approach used in the present study to meta-analyze the moderating effect of national cultures is a popular and common one in meta-analytic reviews. We encourage future cross-culture studies to be more comprehensive in data reporting so that more optimal meta-analytic approach can be applied.

For years, scholars have been urged to include measures of the FFM and cognitive intelligence as routine controls in their studies. Given the number of meta-analyses that show the incremental validity and substantial relative importance for EI across a wide range of outcomes, perhaps it is time now for scholars to routinely include EI measures (Ashkanasy, Humphrey, & Huy, 2017). Including EI measures may in many cases increase the overall predictability of the researchers' models and give greater insight into whatever phenomena is under investigation.

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Figure 1

A conceptual model of how leaders' EI influences subordinates' task performance and OCB

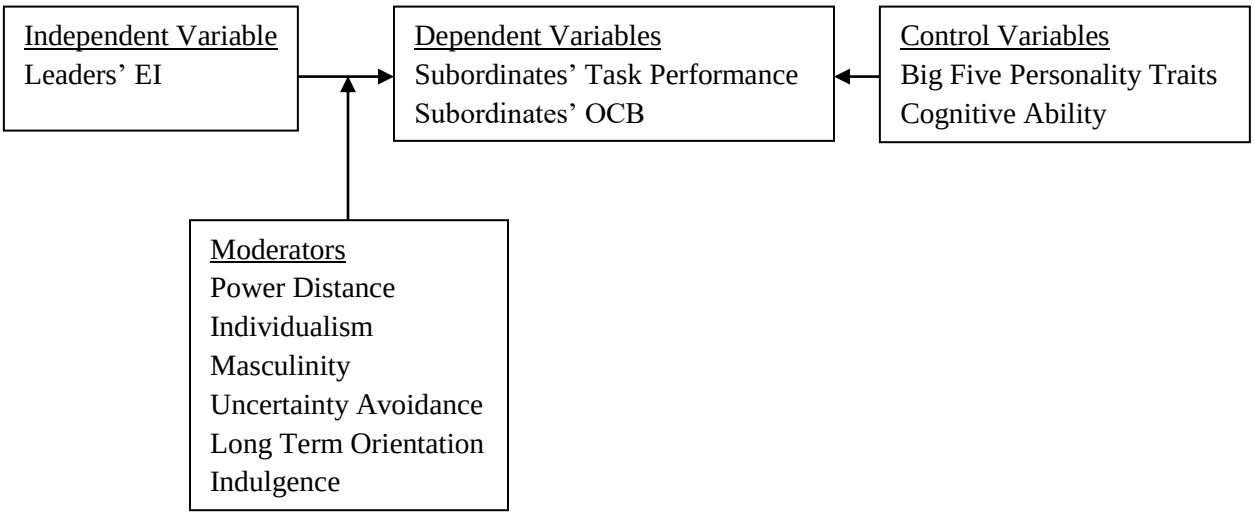

Table 1

Psychometric meta-analysis results for the relationship between leaders' EI and subordinates' task performance

	k	*N*	$\bar{r}_o$	SD_r	$\hat{\rho}$	SD_ρ	CI LL	CI UL	CV LL	CV UL	Var_{art}%	Sig. Diff.
Leader EI – Subordinate TP	12	2,764	.41	.21	.48	.22	.35	.60	.20	.75	8%	
EI Type												
a. Self-Report EI	8	2,183	.40	.21	.46	.22	.31	.62	.19	.74	7%	
b. Mixed EI	4	581	.46	.21	.52	.21	.30	.74	.25	.79	11%	
National Culture												
PDI												
a. Low Power Distance	3	462	.27	.14	.31	.12	.14	.47	.15	.47	32%	-
b. High Power Distance	8	2,019	.38	.14	.44	.13	.34	.54	.27	.60	18%	-
IDV												
a. Individualism	3	462	.27	.14	.31	.12	.14	.47	.15	.47	32%	b†
b. Collectivism	9	2,302	.44	.21	.51	.21	.37	.65	.24	.78	7%	a†
MAS												
a. Masculinity	6	1,398	.27	.10	.32	.08	.23	.40	.21	.42	44%	b
b. Feminism	3	703	.53	.08	.60	.07	.50	.69	.50	.69	33%	a
UA												
a. Low Uncertainty Avoidance	7	1,628	.29	.09	.34	.08	.27	.41	.24	.44	45%	b
b. High Uncertainty Avoidance	3	886	.66	.17	.73	.16	.54	.92	.52	.94	5%	a
LTO												
a. Short-Term Orientation	6	992	.29	.10	.34	.08	.25	.42	.23	.44	51%	-
b. Long-Term Orientation	3	1,086	.33	.11	.39	.10	.27	.52	.26	.52	23%	-
IND												
a. Restraint	4	1,369	.45	.25	.52	.25	.28	.77	.20	.84	4%	-
b. Indulgence	6	992	.29	.10	.34	.08	.25	.42	.23	.44	51%	-

Note. *k* = number of independent samples; *N* = sample size; $\bar{r}_o$ = uncorrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation; SD_r = sample-size-weighted standard deviation of observed mean correlations; $\hat{\rho}$ = corrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation; SD_ρ = sample-size-weighted standard deviation of corrected mean correlations; CI LL and CI UL = lower and upper bounds of corrected 95% confidence interval; CV LL and CV UL = lower and upper bounds of corrected 80% credibility interval; Var_{art}% = percent of variance in $\hat{\rho}$ explained by statistical artifacts; Sig. Diff. = significant difference. Letters in this column correspond to the letters in rows and indicate that effect sizes significantly differ from one another at .05 level. The sign "-" denotes there is no significant between-group difference. The sign "†" denotes that the between-group difference is significant at .10 level. EI = emotional intelligence; TP = task performance.

Table 2

Psychometric meta-analysis results for the relationship between leaders' EI and subordinates' OCB

	k	*N*	$\bar{r}_o$	SD_r	$\hat{\rho}$	SD_ρ	CI LL	CI UL	CV LL	CV UL	Var_{art}%	Sig. Diff.
Leader EI - Subordinate OCB	17	3,601	.33	.18	.39	.19	.30	.48	.15	.63	13%	
EI Type												
a. Ability EI	1	54	.21	.00	.24	.00	-.01	.50	.24	.24	-	
b. Self-Report EI	12	2,623	.34	.20	.41	.20	.29	.53	.15	.66	11%	
c. Mixed EI	4	924	.31	.14	.34	.14	.19	.49	.16	.53	18%	
National Culture												
PDI												
a. Low Power Distance	4	793	.21	.07	.23	.00	.16	.29	.23	.23	100%	b
b. High Power Distance	12	2,525	.31	.10	.37	.08	.32	.43	.28	.47	48%	a
IDV												
a. Individualism	4	793	.21	.07	.23	.00	.16	.29	.23	.23	100%	b
b. Collectivism	12	2,751	.37	.19	.44	.19	.33	.55	.20	.68	11%	a
MAS												
a. Masculinity	8	2,018	.26	.06	.29	.04	.24	.34	.24	.34	76%	b
b. Feminism	6	920	.40	.10	.46	.08	.38	.55	.36	.57	51%	a
UA												
a. Low Uncertainty Avoidance	10	2,398	.25	.06	.28	.02	.24	.33	.25	.32	90%	b
b. High Uncertainty Avoidance	5	803	.55	.23	.63	.21	.43	.82	.35	.90	8%	a
LTO												
a. Short-Term Orientation	6	1,173	.20	.06	.23	.00	.17	.28	.23	.23	100%	b
b. Long-Term Orientation	5	1,571	.31	.05	.37	.00	.32	.41	.37	.37	100%	a
IND												
a. Restraint	7	1,911	.39	.20	.47	.20	.31	.62	.21	.72	8%	b
b. Indulgence	6	1,173	.20	.06	.23	.00	.17	.28	.23	.23	100%	a

Note. *k* = number of independent samples; *N* = sample size; $\bar{r}_o$ = uncorrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation; SD_r = sample-size-weighted standard deviation of observed mean correlations; $\hat{\rho}$ = corrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation; SD_ρ = sample-size-weighted standard deviation of corrected mean correlations; CI LL and CI UL = lower and upper bounds of corrected 95% confidence interval; CV LL and CV UL = lower and upper bounds of corrected 80% credibility interval; Var_{art}% = percent of variance in $\hat{\rho}$ explained by statistical artifacts; Sig. Diff. = significant difference. Letters in this column correspond to the letters in rows and indicate that effect sizes significantly differ from one another at .05 level. The sign "-" denotes there is no significant between-group difference. The sign "†" denotes that the between-group difference is significant at .10 level. EI = emotional intelligence; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

Table 3

Summary of results of all hypotheses

Hypotheses	**Results**
Hypothesis 1: Leaders' EI should positively relate to subordinates' task performance.	Supported.
Hypothesis 2: Leaders' EI should positively relate to subordinates' OCB.	Supported.
Hypothesis 3: Leaders' EI should contribute incremental validity and relative importance in the prediction of subordinates' task performance in the presence of the FFM and cognitive ability.	Supported.
Hypothesis 4: Leaders' EI should contribute incremental validity and relative importance in the prediction of subordinates' OCB in the presence of the FFM and cognitive ability.	Supported.
Hypothesis 5: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in high power distance cultures than in low power distance cultures.	Hypothesis 5(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 5(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 6: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures.	Hypothesis 6(a) is partially supported. Hypothesis 6(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 7: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in feminine cultures than in masculine cultures.	Supported.
Hypothesis 8: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in high uncertainty avoidance cultures than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures.	Supported.
Hypothesis 9: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in long-term oriented cultures than in short-term oriented cultures.	Hypothesis 9(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 9(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 10: Leaders' EI is more strongly and positively related to (a) subordinates' task performance and (b) OCB in restrained cultures than in indulgent cultures.	Hypothesis 10(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 10(b) is supported.

Table 4

Hierarchical multiple regression and relative weight analyses for leaders' EI in predicting subordinates' task performance

	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	β	RW	RW%	β	RW	RW%	β	RW	RW%
Cognitive Ability	.48***	.200	77.2%	.46***	.192	44.9%	.49***	.200	33.6%
Neuroticism	.07***	.004	1.6%	.17***	.009	2.0%	.35***	.031	5.2%
Extraversion	.10***	.006	2.4%	.03*	.005	1.2%	-.13***	.018	3.1%
Openness	-.10***	.003	1.2%	-.18***	.009	2.1%	-.23***	.019	3.2%
Agreeableness	-.01	.002	0.8%	-.02	.003	0.6%	-.08***	.009	1.6%
Conscientiousness	.26***	.043	16.7%	.15***	.029	6.8%	.18***	.035	5.9%
Self-report EI				.48***	.181	42.4%			
Mixed EI							.80***	.284	47.6%
R^2	.26***			.43***			.60***		
ΔR^2				.17***			.34***		
N_{harmonic}	6,216			5,281			4,593		

Note. N_{harmonic} = harmonic mean sample size; β = standardized regression weights; RW = relative weight; RW% = percent of relative weight (computed by dividing individual relative weight by the sum of individual relative weight and multiplying by 100); R^2 = multiple correlations; ΔR^2 = incremental change in R^2; EI = emotional intelligence.

*$p < .05$

***$p < .001$

Table 5

Hierarchical multiple regression and relative weight analyses for leaders' EI in predicting subordinates' OCB

`	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4		
	β	RW	RW%	β	RW	RW%	β	RW	RW%	β	RW	RW%
Cognitive Ability	.23***	.050	50.3%	.18***	.039	33.4%	.21***	.046	21.0%	.23***	.050	26.1%
Neuroticism	.04*	.004	3.7%	.04	.003	2.8%	.12***	.006	2.5%	.18***	.009	4.5%
Extraversion	.02	.003	2.7%	.02	.002	2.1%	-.04**	.003	1.4%	-.10***	.006	3.1%
Openness	.06***	.009	9.2%	.05	.008	6.6%	-.01	.006	2.9%	-.01	.007	3.6%
Agreeableness	.07***	.010	9.8%	.04	.007	6.0%	.07***	.008	3.8%	.04*	.008	4.2%
Conscientiousness	.17***	.024	24.3%	.18***	.023	19.7%	.08***	.016	7.2%	.13***	.019	10.1%
Ability EI				.15***	.034	29.3%						
Self-report EI							.41***	.136	61.3%			
Mixed EI										.41***	.092	48.3%
R^2	.10***			.12***			.22***			.19***		
ΔR^2				.02***			.12***			.09***		
N_{harmonic}	6,052			1,200			5,266			5,046		

Note. N_{harmonic} = harmonic mean sample size; β = standardized regression weights; RW = relative weight; RW% = percent of relative weight (computed by dividing individual relative weight by the sum of individual relative weight and multiplying by 100); R^2 = multiple correlations; ΔR^2 = incremental change in R^2; EI = emotional intelligence; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior.

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

***$p < .001$