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The Cross-Cultural Moderators of the Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Abstract

This meta-analysis found that the emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship is stronger in long-term oriented and restraint cultures. However, this relationship does not differ between individualistic and collectivistic cultures, masculine and feminine cultures, high uncertainty avoidance and low uncertainty avoidance cultures, and high power distance and low power distance cultures. The emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationship is stronger in collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, high power distance, long-term oriented, and restraint cultures. Emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior/counterproductive work behavior relationships are mediated by both state positive affect and state negative affect. Human resource development managers from cultures where the effects of emotional intelligence are stronger are especially recommended to hire emotionally intelligent employees and/or provide emotional intelligence training to stimulate organizational citizenship behavior and to restrain counterproductive work behavior. Although there are important cross-cultural differences, emotional intelligence universally encourages organizational citizenship behavior and almost universally diminishes counterproductive work behavior across cultures.

Keywords: emotional intelligence; organizational citizenship behavior; counterproductive work behavior; cross-culture; meta-analysis; human resource development managers

The Cross-Cultural Moderators of the Influence of Emotional Intelligence on Organizational Citizenship Behavior and Counterproductive Work Behavior

Introduction

The intensely competitive global market makes effective employee recruitment and training essential to international businesses. Consequently, human resource development (HRD) managers need to understand how national culture influences the degree to which various personality traits and competencies contribute to employee effectiveness. When making international assignments or when managing within a particular culture, HRD managers need to know which characteristics they should be selecting for and developing. A variety of factors are important to HRD in global contexts, such as training, experience, and individual differences (Budworth & DeGama, 2012). In this study we focus on one key trait or characteristic, emotional intelligence. Although there may be innate differences in emotional intelligence abilities, most emotional intelligence researchers believe that it can be developed through human resource training and development programs (Cherniss, 2000; McEnrue & Groves, 2006). Studies have shown that emotional intelligence development programs have been successful in a variety of settings, such as health care and project management (Clarke, 2006a; 2006b; 2010a; 2010b). In his review of emotional intelligence developmental training programs, (Kunnanatt, 2004, p. 495) concluded that:

In organizations, the contribution of EI training to human resource development can be tremendously beneficial. In fact, companies that have adopted EI competency models have experienced quick and powerful changes in employee behavior that can be sustained over time.

Although studies have found that emotional intelligence developmental programs can be successful, little is known about the cross-cultural universality of the effects of emotional intelligence on work outcomes. As McEnrue and Groves (2006, p. 36) state, “It is likely that culture plays a role in the definition, expression, measurement, interpretation, and perceived value of EI.” ~~I~~Although it is easy to assume that emotional intelligence will demonstrate considerable cross-cultural variability in its effects, ~~Nevertheless,~~ it must be acknowledged that some HRD variables may be universally valued across cultures. For example, a study of managerial effectiveness found that “the vast majority of managerial behaviors (87.75% South Korean and 90.53% British) that distinguish effective managers from ineffective managers being found to be the same, similar, or congruent in meaning” (Hamlin, Kim, Chai, Kim, & Jeong, 2016, p. 237). Thus, it is imperative that HRD researchers study the cross-cultural validity of emotional intelligence.

Emotional intelligence is the ability to use knowledge about emotions to reason effectively, and it involves the ability to perceive emotions, as well as to regulate and manage emotions (Ashkanasy & Daus, 2005; Goleman, 1995; Mayer & Salovey, 1997). People high on emotional intelligence are good at perceiving and managing others’ emotions as well as their own. Although emotional intelligence can be conceived as a type of cognitive ability (Mayer & Salovey, 1997), it can also be conceptualized as a type of personality trait. For example, using a trait perspective, Petrides and his coauthors defined trait emotional intelligence as “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). Opengart (2005) analyzed the role of emotional intelligence with regard to HRD, and classified emotional intelligence measures into three streams: ability-based (such as Mayer

& Salovey, 1997), personality-based models, and mixed models that include a variety of developed skills and competencies (Bar-On, 2006).

More recently, scholars have taken a behavioral approach to measuring emotional intelligence (Boyatzis, 2009; 2016; 2018). As defined by Boyatzis (2009, p. 757), behavioral emotional intelligence is:

(a) an emotional intelligence competency is an ability to recognize, understand, and use emotional information about oneself that leads to or causes effective or superior performance; and (b) a social intelligence competency is the ability to recognize, understand and use emotional information about others that leads to or causes effective or superior performance.

Moreover, according to Boyatzis (2018, p. 7), behavioral emotional intelligence “is operationalized as informants’ or direct observations by others of a person’s behavior.” Although the behavioral approach has considerable potential, too few studies have been done using this approach to be included in our cross-cultural meta-analysis.

Emotional intelligence has been argued to be the sine qua non of leadership (Goleman, 1998) and it is one of the most studied topics in the domains of emotions and management (Ashkanasy, Humphrey, & Huy, 2017). The popularity and significance of emotional intelligence has been documented by a stream of primary empirical studies (Boyatzis, Brizz, & Godwin, 2011; Boyatzis, Thiel, Rochford, & Black, 2017; Petrides & Furnham, 2000, 2003; Petrides et al., 2004; Petrides, Pita, & Kokkinaki, 2007), conceptual studies and qualitative reviews (Boyatzis, 2016; Goleman, 1995; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2002; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Petrides, 2009a, 2009b; Petrides et al., 2016; Walter, Cole, & Humphrey,

2011), and quantitative reviews (e.g., Andrei, Siegling, Aloe, Baldaro, & Petrides, 2016; Joseph & Newman, 2010; Martins, Ramalho, & Morin, 2010; Schutte et al., 2007; van der Linden et al., 2017). ~~MOF particular importance, meta-analytic findings (e.g., Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2016, 2017a, 2017b, 2018; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011)~~ have demonstrated that emotional intelligence contributes not only meaningful incremental validity but also noticeable relative importance in predicting job attitudes and job behaviors after cognitive ability and Big Five personality traits are controlled (e.g., Miao, Humphrey, & Qian, 2016, 2017a, 2017b, 2018; O'Boyle, Humphrey, Pollack, Hawver, & Story, 2011).

Several prior meta-analytic reviews on emotional intelligence have focused on task performance (e.g., Joseph & Newman, 2010; O'Boyle et al., 2011; Van Rooy & Viswesvaran, 2004). ~~Yet~~ whereas full job performance consists of three associated, yet distinct, components: task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior (Choi, Miao, Oh, Berry, & Kim, 2019). In his original definition of organizational citizenship behavior, Organ (1988) stated that organizational citizenship behavior “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.” (p. 4) In a major modification of his description of organizational citizenship behavior, Organ (1997) argued that it is “performance that supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place.” (p. 95) This focus on the social and psychological environment suggests that emotional intelligence should play a role in organizational citizenship behavior. Research has shown that positive and negative emotions, and the intensity of these emotions, influence ethical decision-making (Connelly, Helton-Fauth, & Mumford, 2004). Emotional intelligence includes the ability to regulate and modify the intensity of emotions. Consequently,

it makes sense ~~that emotional intelligence that emotional intelligence, which includes the ability to regulate and modify the intensity of emotions,~~ would influence the degree to which people ~~decide to~~ engage in positive, prosocial behavior.

Counterproductive work behavior has also emerged as a major topic in its own right. Spector and Fox (2002) defined counterproductive work behavior as “behavior intended to hurt the organization or other members of the organization.” (p. 271). Counterproductive work behavior includes an assortment of harmful behaviors, ranging from physical or verbal abuse, workplace sabotage of equipment or physical property, theft, to performing work slowly or incorrectly (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). Meta-analyses have consistently shown that organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior have wide-ranging effects on both individual and organizational level outcomes (Gonzalez-Mulé, Mount, & Oh, 2014; Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, & Blume, 2009). Consequently, it is important to study how national cultural dimensions moderate relationships with these two important types of performance variables.

Miao, Humphrey, and Qian (2017a) performed a meta-analysis on emotional intelligence—organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships. ~~They and~~ found that emotional intelligence is positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and negatively related to counterproductive work behavior. A closer examination of Miao et al. (2017a) indicated that there was still a substantial amount of heterogeneity in effect sizes across many meta-analytic distributions in their study, suggesting the existence of more unidentified moderators.

It was only recently that researchers began examining cross-cultural moderators of emotional intelligence (e.g., Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012; Gunkel, Schlägel, & Engle, 2014;

Gunkel, Schlaegel, & Taras, 2016; Miao et al., 2016, 2018; Walter et al., 2011). National cultures shape individuals' preferences and values and influence the way in which emotions are appraised, identified, and utilized. For example, national cultural norms influence how people code and decode their own and others' emotions (Gunkel et al., 2014). This means that what is considered as emotionally intelligent behavior in one culture may not be in another culture (Walter et al., 2011). One unidentified source of moderators in Miao et al. (2017a) may be national culture. ~~Because~~ the studies included in their meta-analytic review were based on samples drawn from many different countries and this cross-cultural sampling may partly account for the heterogeneity in effect size distributions. Hence, the first purpose of the present study is to examine whether national cultural dimensions moderate emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships. In other words, are these emotional intelligence relationships stronger in some cultures (such as high power distance cultures) than in other cultures (such as low power distance cultures)?

The fruitfulness of our approach is suggested by Miao et al.'s (2018) meta-analysis on cross-cultural influences on the relationship between leader emotional intelligence and subordinate task performance and organizational citizenship behavior. Their study found that national culture was an important moderator of the effects of leader emotional intelligence on followers' performance. Our study expands upon this study in several important ways. First, the Miao et al. (2018) study examined leader emotional intelligence, not employee or follower emotional intelligence. As a result, it did not examine the influence of followers' emotional intelligence on their own organizational citizenship behavior, so the influence of culture on this relationship is unknown. Second, the Miao et al. (2018) study did not examine counterproductive

work behavior, so cross-cultural influences on emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships are also unexplored. Third, far fewer studies have looked at leader emotional intelligence compared to employee emotional intelligence, so the Miao et al. (2018) study is based on a small number of cross-cultural studies. For example, when examining the moderating effects of power distance on the leader emotional intelligence – follower organizational citizenship behavior relationship, the Miao et al. (2018) study had a k of 4 for low power distance cultures, and an N of only 793 subjects, with $k = 12$ and $N = 2,525$ subjects for the high power distance cultures. In contrast, for the effects of employee emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior, this study has $k = 23$, $N = 4,520$ for low power distance cultures, and $k = 41$, $N = 10,810$ for high power distance cultures. Thus, the current study provides an important confirmation of the moderating effects of national culture on the emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship.

Research on organizational citizenship behavior and social responsibility also supports the utility of looking at cross-cultural moderators. For example, Mahajan and Toh (2017) found that power distance and uncertainty avoidance influenced interpersonal citizenship behavior. In the same way, Fischer and his coauthors found that national uncertainty norms influenced the effects of formalization practices on organizational citizenship behaviors (Fischer et al., 2017). Likewise, studies have shown that support for a related variable, social responsibility, also varies across cultures. For example, Waldman and his coauthors used two of the GLOBE cultural dimensions (power distance and institutional collectivism) to demonstrate cross-cultural variations in senior managements' support for social responsibility values (Waldman, Sully de Luque, Washburn, House, et al., 2006). Similarly, Muethel, Hoegl, and Parboteeah (2011) found that employees' prosocial values varied by national business ideology.

The other important objective of this research is to explore the mediators for emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships. Prior research on these relationships almost exclusively focused on direct effects, ~~although authors~~ ~~whereas they~~ often alluded to some potential mediating mechanisms when theorizing ~~about these~~ relationships. One missing mediating mechanism that deserves examination is state affect. Prior research indicates that state positive affect elicits organizational citizenship behavior whereas state negative affect stimulates counterproductive work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002). One of the major branches of emotional intelligence consists of the ability to regulate one's emotion so that one may experience more positive feelings and less negative feelings (Wong & Law, 2002). This implies that emotional intelligence may indirectly influence organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior through state affect. State affect denotes “what one is feeling at any given moment in time” (Thoresen et al., 2003, p. 915). State positive affect consists of positive emotions (e.g., joy and energetic), whereas state negative affect is comprised of momentary negative emotions like anger and fear (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988; Watson, 2000). Therefore, the second objective of this study is to test whether state positive and state negative affect mediates emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships.

Theory and Hypotheses

Trait Activation Theory and the Moderating Role of National Culture

The context-based approach to emotional intelligence suggests that the validity of emotional intelligence may be contingent on contexts. This is because contexts may contain salient trait-relevant cues (i.e., emotion-based cues) that are likely to activate the expression of

emotional intelligence and thus may strengthen its association with ~~some~~ workplace outcomes (Farh, Seo, & Tesluk, 2012). This context-based approach is in line with trait activation theory which suggests that traits are more predictive of outcomes when a context has trait-relevant cues. ~~T~~~~because~~ these cues will activate the expression of one's psychological traits and stimulate one to behave in a manner that corresponds to contextual cues (Farh et al., 2012; Tett & Guterman, 2000). In the following section, we ~~couch~~~~ed~~ our moderator hypotheses in trait activation theory. ~~We~~~~and~~ examined how six cultural dimensions condition emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships.

Individualism. National cultures have trait-relevant cues that may trigger one's psychological traits because national cultures shape social norms and determine the values and behaviors that are rewarded (Oh et al., 2014). People from individualistic countries are more concerned with the accomplishment of personal goals; they are prone to take care of themselves due to a preference for a loosely-knit social framework (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). People from collectivistic countries value group membership and interdependence with others. ~~T~~~~hey~~ prefer to be part of a tightly-knit social network by building relationships with others and they also anticipate that others will take care of them in exchange for their absolute loyalty (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010).

We expect the effect of emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior will be stronger in collectivistic cultures than individualistic cultures. In individualistic cultures, emotionally savvy individuals know that the achievement of personal goals is more critical than other goals. ~~T~~~~and~~ thus they may be less likely to perform organizational citizenship behavior and to refrain from performing counterproductive work behavior. Due to a preference for self-interest maximization in individualistic cultures, the use of

emotional intelligence is likely to be somewhat weaker because people high on emotional intelligence may feel it less necessary to perceive others' need for help for either work or personal-related problems (Carmeli & Josman, 2006). Further, people from individualistic countries do not control their negative emotions as much as people from collectivistic countries do (Gunkel, Schlägel, & Engle, 2014). Failure to control negative emotions, such as anger and feeling of frustration, may induce deviant behaviors (Greenidge, Devonish, & Alleyne, 2014; Spector & Fox, 2002). In contrast, emotionally savvy people from collectivistic cultures are more likely to display organizational citizenship behavior and refrain from deviant behaviors. They will be motivated to appear prosocial and to show their commitment and intimate ties with their coworkers, supervisors, and organization. They will ~~Emotionally intelligent employees in collectivistic cultures~~ recognize that expressing their commitment to their group identity via organizational citizenship behavior (and reduced counterproductive work behavior) will be highly valued and rewarded. This leads to ~~We provided~~ the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. The relationships are stronger in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

Masculinity. Masculine (“tough”) societies are competitive and have a preference for accomplishment and assertiveness, whereas feminine (“tender”) societies are more consensus-oriented and have preferences for cooperation, for caring for the weak, and for quality of life (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). We predict the effect of emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior will be stronger in feminine cultures than in masculine cultures. People are more likely to use emotional intelligence to display organizational citizenship behavior and constrain counterproductive work behavior in feminine countries because they are good at emotion regulation and perception. ; Mmoreover,

emotionally intelligent workers will they more frequently feel the positive emotions that will induce organizational citizenship behavior and constrain counterproductive work behavior (Gunkel et al., 2014; Spector & Fox, 2002). In addition, emotional intelligence is likely to be activated in these countries because showing altruistic behaviors and suppressing destructive behaviors are highly valued and rewarded in such countries. In comparison, people from masculine countries are less likely to use emotional intelligence to boost organizational citizenship behavior. They do not benefit from using emotional intelligence to promote organizational citizenship behavior as much as people from feminine countries. This is because showing organizational citizenship behavior in masculine countries is not as strongly supported and rewarded because of cultural preferences for assertiveness and aggressiveness. In addition, people from masculine countries may feel higher frequencies of negative emotions due to societal competitiveness and their somewhat lower control over negative emotions. As previously mentioned, negative emotions increase counterproductive work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002), thus lowering the emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior association (Gunkel et al., 2014). We provide the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 2. The relationships are stronger in feminine cultures than in masculine cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

Uncertainty Avoidance. Uncertainty Avoidance refers to the extent to which the members of a society are comfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). Since uncertainties may engender feelings of anxieties in high uncertainty avoidance cultures, countries high in uncertainty avoidance have emotionally expressive cultures and thus form social systems that permit clear emotion expression (Gunkel et al., 2014; Hofstede, 2001). Due to these reasons, we predict that the use of emotional intelligence is more

likely to be activated in high uncertainty avoidance cultures than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures. Since display and use of emotion is highly encouraged in high uncertainty cultures as a way to reduce feeling of ambiguities, emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to accurately and thoroughly perceive others' needs for help. This perception of need would then activate the empathic components of emotional intelligence and increase organizational citizenship behavior.

Regulation of emotion is also encouraged in high uncertainty avoidance cultures. In these cultures, individuals need to regulate and control their emotions to reduce uncertainties concerning their behaviors in the eyes of others and to avoid misunderstandings and unpleasant situations (Gunkel et al., 2014). Because of these reasons, emotionally intelligent individuals from high uncertainty avoidance cultures are more likely to frequently monitor and regulate their emotions. This regulation of potentially disruptive emotions will reduce counterproductive work behavior. We provide the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3. The relationships are stronger in high uncertainty avoidance cultures than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

Power Distance. Power distance delineates how a society deals with inequalities among people and how equal the power is distributed in a society; ~~F~~ further, individuals from high power distance countries unquestioningly adhere to a hierarchical order and do not demand justification for inequalities of power (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). Emotional intelligence may benefit subordinates in high power distance countries because it allows them to perceive the power-holders' emotions (e.g., recognize others' need/demand for organizational

citizenship behavior) and regulate their own emotional reactions to the power differences. This could allow them to have more positive appraisals of work events and their work environment, fewer negative feelings, and thus less counterproductive work behavior (Spector & Fox, 2002) and more organizational citizenship behaviors. Their ability to regulate their emotions would help them comply with conformity pressures from those in authority, and this would aid them in getting rewarded and in their careers (Gunkel et al., 2014).

We note that the relationships between emotional intelligence, altruistic behaviors, and power distance may be different for leaders and followers. In high power distance societies, followers have to regulate their emotions to conform to their leaders, but the reverse is not true. Thus, leaders in high power distance societies may have less need to activate their emotional intelligence skills and less need to perform organizational citizenship behaviors. This may be one reason why research has shown that top leaders in high power distance societies were less likely to endorse social responsibility values (Waldman et al., 2006). We suggest the following hypothesis for our meta-analysis, which looks at employees, not leaders:

Hypothesis 4. The relationships are stronger in high power distance cultures than in low power distance cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

Long-Term Orientation. Long-term oriented societies have preferences for being thrifty and planning for the future, whereas short-term oriented societies have preferences for immediate gratification and spending now rather than saving for the future (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). Individuals from long-term oriented societies are more likely to utilize emotional intelligence to engage in organizational citizenship behavior and refrain from counterproductive work behavior. This is because long-term oriented cultures reward and value

relationship-building behaviors and practices to maintain harmonious relationships (Gunkel et al., 2014; Hofstede, 2001). Since displaying organizational citizenship behavior is a great way to facilitate social exchange and to build relationships and trust, individuals from long-term oriented societies are likely to use their emotional intelligence to recognize others' need for organizational citizenship behavior and to display organizational citizenship behavior to others. In a similar vein, individuals from long-term oriented societies are more adept at using emotional intelligence to control negative emotions to constrain their counterproductive work behavior that may hurt long-term relationships (Gunkel et al., 2014). We advanced the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 5. The relationships are stronger in long-term oriented cultures than in short-term oriented cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

Indulgence. Hofstede and his colleagues (Hofstede et al., 2010) added another dimension, named indulgence versus restraint, to Hofstede's original (2001) model. Indulgence cultures permit relatively free gratification of human needs concerning enjoying life and having fun (relatively weak control of desires and impulses). In contrast, ~~whereas~~ restraint cultures suppress gratification of human needs and regulate gratification via stringent social norms (relatively strong control of desires and impulses) (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede et al., 2010). We predict that emotional intelligence is likely to be activated in restraint cultures because regulation of emotion and impulses is encouraged and valued in restraint cultures. Therefore, emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to use their emotional intelligence to meticulously manage their emotion to curb experience of negative emotions that may elicit counterproductive work behavior and suppress organizational citizenship behavior. On the contrary, in indulgence cultures where releasing emotion and impulses and acting as they please are relatively acceptable

and normative, individuals may find it less necessary to use their emotional intelligence to constantly regulate their emotion. This lower regulation will thus weakening emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior and emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationships. We offered the following hypothesis.

Hypothesis 6. The relationships are stronger in restraint cultures than in indulgence cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

The Mediating Role of State Affect

According to Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), affect influences people's reactions to workplace events. Previous meta-analytic findings have related state affect levels to important outcomes such as emotional exhaustion, depersonalization, job satisfaction, and personal accomplishment (Thoresen et al., 2003). According to Affective Events Theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), workplace events cause state mood to vary throughout the day, and this variation in mood produces strong influences on both attitudes and behavior.

Emotionally intelligent individuals are better at managing affective processes and variations in mood because they develop self-regulatory actions and strategies to experience more state positive affect and less state negative affect (Dong, Seo, & Bartol, 2013; Karim, 2009). These heightened positive emotional states and lessened negative emotional states would prompt emotionally savvy individuals to display more organizational citizenship behavior and less counterproductive work behavior (Judge & Kammemeyer-Mueller, 2008). As such, per this theory, the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior should be at least partially mediated by state affect. No other meta-analysis has examined whether state affect mediates the relationships among

emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior, so this is a unique contribution of our study. Thus, we hypothesize that:

Hypothesis 7: State positive affect and state negative affect mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 8: State positive affect and state negative affect mediate the relationship between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.

Method

Identification of Studies

The main objective of this study is to uncover important cross-cultural moderators on the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior. Our study is based on athe prior meta-analysis that analyzed main relationships but did not assess cross-cultural moderators. Such an approach of using prior meta-analytic databases for further analyses has been utilized in prior meta-analyses (e.g., Oh, Schmidt, Shaffer, & Le, 2008) and has been shown to be acceptable (e.g., Bergh et al., 2016; Chiaburu, Oh, Wang, & Stoverink, 2017).

Miao et al. (2017a) conducted a meta-analysis on the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior. Before extracting and recoding the studies included in Miao et al. (2017a), we performed a computerized search of literature databases to ascertain whether this is the only meta-analysis on this topic. Our search confirmed that Miao et al. (2017a) is the only study on this topic. Hence, we extracted the studies included in Miao et al. (2017a) and coded for additional variables.

The computerized database search in Miao et al. (2017a) covered multiple electronic databases, such as ABI/INFORM, EBSCO Host, PsycNET, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, ScienceDirect, Google, Google Scholar, and Social Sciences Citation Index. They also manually searched pertinent journals (e.g., *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *Academy of Management Journal*, *Journal of Management*, *Journal of Management Studies*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, *Personality and Individual Differences*, *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, *Personnel Psychology*, *Organization Science*, and *Psychological Science*) and relevant conferences (e.g., Academy of Management, Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, and Southern Management Association). Finally, they also contacted the scholars from the field of emotional intelligence to ask for correlation matrices, raw data, and unpublished studies.

Inclusion Criteria

The meta-analytic database used in Miao et al. (2017a) contains 68 samples for emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship and 17 samples for emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationship. ~~These samples~~ which serves as the basis for the meta-analytic database used in the present study. For the parsimony of reporting ~~and to be consistent with prior meta-analyses (e.g., Oh, Schmidt, Shaffer, & Le, 2008) which involved the re-analyses of existing meta-analytic databases~~, we refer readers to Miao et al. (2017a) to get access to the references for the included studies in order to avoid reiterating the same information. This is consistent with prior meta-analyses (e.g., Oh, Schmidt, Shaffer, & Le, 2008) which involved the re-analyses of existing meta-analytic databases.

We reviewed the studies included in Miao et al. (2017a) and considered the studies to be eligible for inclusion in the present meta-analysis if these studies reported not only effect sizes but also the information about the countries where the samples were drawn. Further, the countries where the samples were drawn also had to be the ones within the scope of the countries captured by Hofstede's cultural studies.

Out of 68 samples for emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship, there were 2 studies based on the samples from Barbados and Brunei which had to be excluded from the analyses because Hofstede's cultural studies do not cover these two countries. In addition, out of 17 samples for emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationship, 3 studies had to be excluded. ~~Two because 2~~ of them were based on the samples from Barbados ~~which are out of the scope of the countries in Hofstede's cultural studies~~ and 1 of them only reported the broad region of the country rather than the specific location of the country where the sample was drawn.

Variable Coding Procedures

We employed Hofstede's cultural dimensions to code country cultures of these studies (Hofstede et al., 2010). Based on the geographic location of the sample in each study, we coded six cultural dimensions, which are individualism (versus collectivism), masculinity (versus femininity), uncertainty avoidance, power distance, long-term orientation (versus short-term orientation), and indulgence (versus restraint). For example, according to Hofstede's cultural scores, United States has scores of 40 for power distance, 91 for individualism, 62 for masculinity, 46 for uncertainty avoidance, 26 for long-term orientation, and 68 for indulgence. ~~B~~based on these scores, ~~the~~ United States can be categorized as a low power distance, individualistic, masculine, low uncertainty avoidance, short-term oriented, and indulgent

country. Hofstede and his colleagues provided a list of scores for a series of countries so we repeated the same procedure and used relevant information to code national cultural dimensions for each sample.

We chose Hofstede's cultural framework rather than other cultural frameworks (e.g., House et al., 2004; Schwartz, 1992; Smith et al., 1996) for two reasons. First, Hofstede's cultural framework has been proven to be theoretically robust and valid (Taras, Kirkman, & Steel, 2010). Second, the information for both cultural scores and categorization type was provided for different countries across all six cultural dimensions, thus fitting our moderator analyses.

However, we note that some empirical studies have not always found support for the cross-cultural differences in work behaviors as implied by Hofstede's framework. For example, Hamlin et al. (2016) found that effective Korean managers engaged in many of the behaviors that were supposed to be characteristic of Anglo managers. Thus, Hamlin et al. (2016) did not find support for the cultural differences in Hofstede's model. Therefore, we believe it is important to test for these cultural differences rather than simply assuming they exist.

Two coders participated in coding the studies. The initial intercoder agreement is high (Cohen's Kappa = 0.92). The disagreement was addressed via discussion and 100% consensus was reached after discussion.

Meta-Analytic Procedures

We conducted random-effects meta-analysis developed by Schmidt and Hunter (2015). We corrected measurement errors in both independent and dependent variables for each effect size. We calculated and reported both $\hat{\rho}$ (corrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation) and \bar{r} (uncorrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation). We computed corrected 95% confidence intervals to examine whether effect sizes are statistically significant. We considered an effect

size to be statistically significant at 0.05 level when the corrected 95% confidence interval of this effect size excluded zero. We calculated both $\text{Var}_{\text{art}}\%$ statistic and corrected 80% credibility interval to evaluate the heterogeneity in effect sizes (i.e., potential presence of moderators). We concluded there were moderators in a meta-analytic distribution if less than 75% of the variance in effect sizes was explained by statistical artifacts (i.e., $\text{Var}_{\text{art}}\% < 75\%$). A wide corrected 80% credibility interval also indicated the potential presence of moderators.

We did moderator analyses by employing subgroup analysis (i.e., z-test) in line with prior meta-analysis studies (e.g., Miao, Qian, & Ma, 2017). This test assesses the statistical significance of between-group effect size difference. We constructed meta-analytically derived corrected correlation matrix based on the meta-analytic estimates from prior meta-analyses (i.e., Dalal, 2005; Miao et al., 2017a, 2017b; Shockley, Ispas, Rossi, & Levine, 2012) and conducted meta-analytic structural equation modeling. We utilized harmonic mean sample size since sample sizes were different across the cells in the correlation matrix. Harmonic mean sample size produces more conservative estimates because less weight is given to large samples (Garrett, Miao, Qian, & Bae, 2017).

Results

Moderator Effects

Table 1 and Table 2 display the results of moderator effects of cultural dimensions on the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. The results of moderator analyses are displayed in the last column of Table 1 and Table 2. We performed a series of z-tests to examine the statistical significance of between-group differences (i.e., moderator effects). With regard to first hypothesized moderator (individualism versus collectivism), we did not find the emotional

intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship significantly different between individualistic cultures and collectivistic cultures. Yet, we found that emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationship was significantly stronger in collectivistic cultures ($\beta = -0.44$) than in individualistic cultures ($\beta = -0.16$) ($\Delta\beta = -0.28, p < 0.05$). Hence, hypothesis 1(a) is not supported whereas hypothesis 1(b) is supported. We repeated the same procedure to analyze all other moderators and tabulated all results in Table 3.

~~In sum,~~ the emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship was stronger in long-term oriented and restraint cultures. ~~However,~~ emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationships did not differ between individualistic and collectivistic cultures, masculine and feminine cultures, high uncertainty and low uncertainty avoidance cultures, and high and low power distance cultures. Emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior relationship was stronger in collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, high power distance, long-term oriented, and restraint cultures. Overall, these findings indicate that cultural differences are important moderators of emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior relationships.

Insert Tables 1, 2, and 3 about here

Mediator Effects

We performed meta-analytic structural equation modeling to examine the hypotheses that the effects of emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behavior and on counterproductive work behavior are mediated by state positive and state negative affect. A significant indirect path would suggest a mediation effect. We compared a set of alternative models to determine our choice of final model. We compared a partial mediation model to a

model with full mediation ($\Delta\chi^2 = 838.31, p < 0.001, CFI = 0.71, NFI = 0.71, RMSEA = 0.40, SRMR = 0.12$) and to a model without mediation ($\Delta\chi^2 = 499.59, p < 0.001, CFI = 0.83, NFI = 0.83, RMSEA = 0.31, SRMR = 0.15$). Both χ^2 difference test and model fit indices demonstrated that the partial mediation model exhibited best model fit ($\chi^2 = 0.00, CFI = 1.00, NFI = 1.00, SRMR = 0.00$) relative to the other two alternative models. Hence, we chose the partial mediation model (see Figure 1 for path coefficients) and conducted Sobel test, Aroian test, and Goodman test to assess the statistical significance of indirect effect. In the partial mediation model, emotional intelligence had significant direct paths to both organizational citizenship behavior (0.54) and to counterproductive work behavior (-0.19).

Insert Figure 1 about here

When the dependent variable was organizational citizenship behavior, we found that the indirect effect from emotional intelligence to organizational citizenship behavior through state positive affect was statistically significant (indirect effect = 0.08, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect from emotional intelligence to organizational citizenship behavior through state negative affect was statistically significant as well (indirect effect = -0.10, $p < 0.001$). When the dependent variable was counterproductive work behavior, we noted that the indirect effect from emotional intelligence to counterproductive work behavior through state positive affect is statistically significant (indirect effect = -0.02, $p < 0.001$). The indirect effect from emotional intelligence to counterproductive work behavior through state negative effect was statistically significant as well (indirect effect = -0.13, $p < 0.001$). Based on these results, we concluded that hypotheses 7 and 8 are supported. While state positive affect was positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and negatively related to counterproductive work behavior, state negative affect had positive paths to both organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work

behavior, suggesting that some people in bad moods lash out at others by doing counterproductive work behavior, whereas others try to make themselves feel better by helping others.

Discussion

Implications for Theory

Cross-cultural differences. In spite of a cornucopia of emotional intelligence research, little attention has been paid to the cross-cultural implications of emotional intelligence. The validity of emotional intelligence has been confirmed in Western cultures whereas the cross-cultural comparisons between Western cultures and other cultures still needed investigation (Gökçen, Furnham, Mavroveli, & Petrides, 2014). Some research has suggested cultural differences across a wide spectrum of emotion-related capacities that indispensably comprise the construct of emotional intelligence (Karim & Weisz, 2010; Von Glinow, Shapiro, & Brett, 2004). In light of the maturity of emotional intelligence research, we believe now is the time to employ meta-analytic techniques to collate prior emotional intelligence research and analyze cross-cultural validity of emotional intelligence research. The present study undertakes this task by extending Miao et al.'s (2017a) meta-analysis and explores the cross-cultural moderators and mediators for emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior relationships.

The cross-cultural results are interesting and shed some light on the common belief that many traits operate differently in other cultures. With regard to organizational citizenship behavior, the long-term–short-term oriented cultural dimension and indulgent–restraint cultural dimension were significant moderators, with the emotional intelligence – organizational citizenship behavior relationship being especially strong in long-term oriented cultures ($\beta = .61$)

and restraint cultures ($\hat{\rho} = .58$). For counterproductive work behavior, all six cultural dimensions acted as moderators. Thus, it is safe to conclude that culture is an important moderator of the strength of the emotional intelligence relationships, especially for counterproductive work behavior. These results extend trait activation theory to emotional intelligence research because we found that some cultures have societal norms that especially promote the use of emotional intelligence to influence individuals' behaviors (i.e., especially high activation of emotional intelligence).

Universal value of emotional intelligence. Although culture is an important moderator of emotional intelligence, the results also support the view that emotional intelligence is universally valued across cultures. Because each of the six cultural dimensions has two bipolar types, twelve cultural types were tested. With regard to organizational citizenship behavior, all 12 cultures show a significant positive relationship between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior (see Table 2). Indeed, the smallest corrected correlation $\hat{\rho}$ was .44, still a sizeable correlation with important practical implications. With regard to counterproductive work behavior, 10 out of the 12 cultures showed a statistically significant relationship with emotional intelligence. Thus, although there are important cross-cultural differences that practitioners and scholars should be aware of, our results imply that emotional intelligence universally promotes organizational citizenship behavior across cultures and almost universally reduces counterproductive work behavior across cultures. Our results are consistent with other research on international HRD, which has also found that there is a high degree of universality for some variables (for example, see Hamlin et al. [2016]).

State positive and negative affect as mediators. Our mediation analysis showed strong support for the importance of state positive and negative affect to the emotional intelligence to

organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior relationships. Both state positive and state negative affect were partial mediators, and this was true for both organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior. Thus, our findings provide support for affective event theory by showing that emotionally intelligent individuals are able to use their emotional intelligence to foster state positive affect and to stifle state negative affect. Their more positive affect allows them to display more organizational citizenship behavior and to refrain from engaging in counterproductive work behavior. In addition, the mediating role of state affect also yields support for affect-congruence models (~~Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2008; Shockley et al., 2012~~) which maintain that state affect is an important mediator between dispositions and behaviors (Judge & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2008; Shockley et al., 2012). As expected, emotional intelligence was positively related to state positive affect, and state positive affect was positively related to organizational citizenship behavior and negatively related to counterproductive work behavior.

Doing good feeling good. The findings also shed some light on the “doing good, feeling good” controversy. The “doing good, feeling good” hypothesis states that some people who experience state negative affect perform good deeds (i.e., organizational citizenship behaviors) as a way of making themselves feel better (Glomb, Bhave, Miner, & Wall, 2011). In our path analysis, state negative affect was positively related to organizational citizenship behavior when emotional intelligence and state positive affect were controlled for. Thus, this provides some support for the “doing good, feeling good” hypothesis. In addition, state negative affect was also positively related to counterproductive work behavior, suggesting that some employees may choose to take their bad moods out on others or on the organization. In addition to the mediated paths, emotional intelligence also had direct effects on both organizational citizenship behavior

and counterproductive work behavior, which indicates that emotional intelligence has effects independent of state affect as well.

Implications for Practice

Cross-cultural implications. The present study has significant practical implications that Human Resource Development practitioners should pay attention to. Due to the rapid growing pace of globalization, many firms may choose to internationalize their operations by setting up multinational divisions and/or employing workers from different cultural settings. Although emotionally intelligent individuals are more likely to show organizational citizenship behavior and to refrain from counterproductive work behavior in general, the strength of these relationships varies across cultures. Human Resource Development practitioners should heed that different cultures have different norms and values.; ~~As such,~~ emotionally intelligent workers are more likely to display organizational citizenship behavior in long-term oriented and restraint cultures and to refrain from counterproductive work behavior in collectivistic, feminine, high uncertainty avoidance, high power distance, long-term oriented, and restraint cultures. ~~Practicing~~ managers from these cultures are advised to hire emotionally intelligent employees and/or assign more emotional intelligence training to employees. This ~~w~~~~because one~~ could capitalize on the advantages from these cultural norms to elicit more organizational citizenship behavior and to curb more counterproductive work behavior from emotionally intelligent individuals.

State affect implications. Global human resource managers and Human Resource Development practitioners may also benefit by knowing how state affect mediates the effects of emotional intelligence on organizational citizenship behaviors and on counterproductive work behaviors. From a practical standpoint, there are many ways to increase both emotional

intelligence and state affect. Training programs designed to teach people how to manage their emotions and moods would improve both emotional intelligence competencies as well as state affect. In addition, Human Resource Development practitioners~~global human resource managers~~ may specifically develop programs targeting state affect. People in bad moods should be taught that they can more effectively improve their moods by helping others, rather than by performing counterproductive work behaviors.

Limitations and Future Directions

First, some subgroups in the emotional intelligence – counterproductive work behavior meta-analytic distribution were based on small numbers of samples; thus, some results may be subject to second-order sampling error. Readers should interpret the results of moderator analyses based on small numbers of samples with caution.

Second, in spite of the cultural moderators we identified, per Schmidt and Hunter 75% rule, there is still heterogeneity in effect sizes across many meta-analytic distributions. We encourage future research to use our results as a roadmap to examine more moderators to further refine this field of research.

Third, more studies need to be done investigating the behavioral level of emotional intelligence (Boyatzis, 2018). These studies need to assess if the behavioral measures of emotional intelligence show the same patterns with regard to organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior as do the other methods of measuring emotional intelligence.

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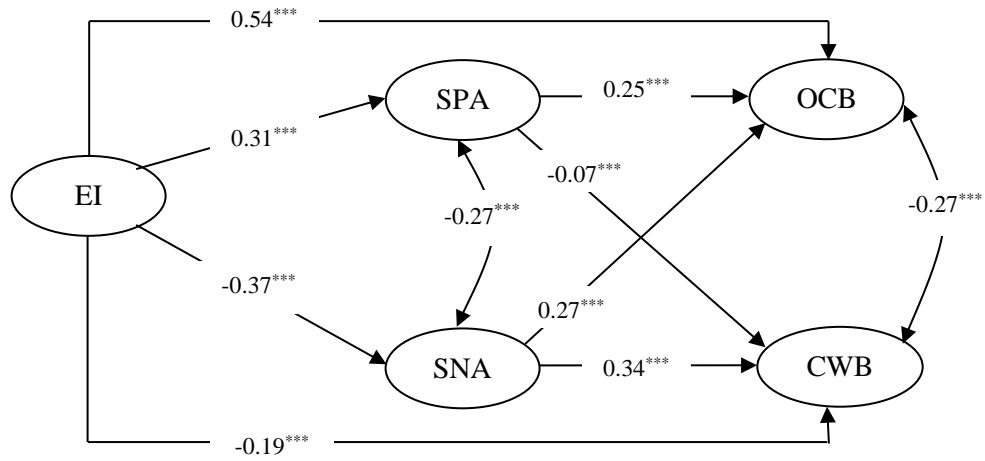
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Figure 1. Path models of the mediating roles of state affect in the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior and counterproductive work behavior.



Note. Standardized path coefficients are reported. EI = emotional intelligence; SPA = state positive affect; SNA = state negative affect; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; CWB = counterproductive work behavior.

*** $p < 0.001$

Table 1. The Results of Meta-Analytic Moderator Analyses for Emotional Intelligence – Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Relationship

	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{r}	SD_r	$\hat{\rho}$	SD_{ρ}	CI LL	CI UL	CV LL	CV UL	Var _{art} %	Sig. Diff.
Emotional Intelligence – Organizational Citizenship Behavior												
IDV												
a. Individualism	20	3,906	0.36	0.26	0.44	0.30	0.31	0.58	0.06	0.83	6%	-
b. Collectivism	36	10,327	0.45	0.16	0.53	0.17	0.47	0.59	0.30	0.75	9%	-
MAS												
a. Masculinity	37	8,651	0.42	0.21	0.51	0.24	0.43	0.59	0.20	0.82	7%	-
b. Femininity	19	4,370	0.44	0.17	0.53	0.18	0.44	0.61	0.29	0.76	11%	-
Uncertainty Avoidance												
a. High	22	5,158	0.45	0.18	0.55	0.20	0.46	0.63	0.30	0.80	9%	-
b. Low	40	9,446	0.42	0.20	0.51	0.23	0.43	0.58	0.21	0.80	7%	-
Power Distance												
a. High	41	10,810	0.44	0.15	0.53	0.17	0.47	0.58	0.31	0.74	11%	-
b. Low	23	4,520	0.37	0.25	0.46	0.29	0.34	0.58	0.09	0.83	6%	-
LTO												
a. Long-Term Orientation	20	5,144	0.50	0.16	0.61	0.17	0.53	0.69	0.39	0.83	10%	b
b. Short-Term Normative Orientation	40	9,042	0.38	0.20	0.45	0.22	0.38	0.52	0.16	0.74	9%	a
IND												
a. Indulgence	28	6,601	0.37	0.21	0.44	0.23	0.35	0.52	0.14	0.73	8%	b
b. Restraint	28	7,075	0.48	0.17	0.58	0.19	0.51	0.66	0.34	0.83	9%	a

Note. *k* = number of independent samples; *N* = sample size; \bar{r} = 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 denote that effect sizes are significantly different from one another at 0.05 level. The sign “-” indicates there is no significant between-group difference. Z-test is performed to assess the statistical significance of between-group difference in effect sizes.

Table 2. The Results of Meta-Analytic Moderator Analyses for Emotional Intelligence – Counterproductive Work Behavior Relationship

	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	\bar{r}	SD_r	$\bar{\rho}$	SD_ρ	CI LL	CI UL	CV LL	CV UL	Var _{art} %	Sig. Diff.
Emotional Intelligence – Counterproductive Work Behavior												
IDV												
a. Individualism	8	1,475	-0.12	0.27	-0.16	0.31	-0.37	0.06	-0.55	0.24	7%	b
b. Collectivism	6	1,804	-0.38	0.16	-0.44	0.16	-0.57	-0.30	-0.64	-0.23	11%	a
MAS												
a. Masculinity	9	1,645	-0.14	0.26	-0.18	0.30	-0.38	0.02	-0.56	0.20	8%	b
b. Femininity	2	760	-0.51	0.14	-0.57	0.16	-0.81	-0.34	-0.78	-0.37	7%	a
Uncertainty Avoidance												
a. High	3	920	-0.49	0.14	-0.55	0.15	-0.73	-0.37	-0.75	-0.35	9%	b
b. Low	11	2,359	-0.18	0.23	-0.22	0.25	-0.37	-0.06	-0.54	0.11	9%	a
Power Distance												
a. High	5	1,644	-0.38	0.16	-0.44	0.17	-0.59	-0.28	-0.66	-0.22	9%	b
b. Low	8	1,475	-0.12	0.27	-0.16	0.31	-0.37	0.06	-0.55	0.24	7%	a
LTO												
a. Long-Term Orientation	2	489	-0.55	0.17	-0.63	0.19	-0.90	-0.35	-0.87	-0.38	6%	b
b. Short-Term Normative Orientation	10	2,189	-0.16	0.23	-0.21	0.26	-0.37	-0.04	-0.54	0.13	8%	a
IND												
a. Indulgence	10	2,189	-0.16	0.23	-0.21	0.26	-0.37	-0.04	-0.54	0.13	8%	b
b. Restraint	4	1,090	-0.46	0.14	-0.52	0.15	-0.68	-0.36	-0.72	-0.32	11%	a

Note. *k* = number of independent samples; *N* = sample size; \bar{r} = uncorrected sample-size-weighted mean correlation; SD_r = sample-size-weighted standard deviation of observed mean correlations; $\bar{\rho}$ = 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 $\bar{\rho}$ explained by statistical artifacts; Sig. Diff. = significant difference. Letters in this column correspond to the letters in rows and denote that effect sizes are significantly different from one another at 0.05 level. The sign “-” indicates there is no significant between-group difference. Z-test is performed to assess the statistical significance of between-group difference in effect sizes.

Table 3. Summary of Results for All Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Results
Hypothesis 1. The relationships are stronger in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Hypothesis 1(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 1(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 2. The relationships are stronger in feminine cultures than in masculine cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Hypothesis 2(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 2(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 3. The relationships are stronger in high uncertainty avoidance cultures than in low uncertainty avoidance cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Hypothesis 3(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 3(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 4. The relationships are stronger in high power distance cultures than in low power distance cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Hypothesis 4(a) is not supported. Hypothesis 4(b) is supported.
Hypothesis 5. The relationships are stronger in long-term oriented cultures than in short-term oriented cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Supported.
Hypothesis 6. The relationships are stronger in restraint cultures than in indulgent cultures (a) between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior, and (b) between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Supported.
Hypothesis 7: State positive affect and state negative affect mediate the relationships between emotional intelligence and organizational citizenship behavior.	Supported.
Hypothesis 8: State positive affect and state negative affect mediate the relationships between emotional intelligence and counterproductive work behavior.	Supported.