

*Transfer of Social Competencies
to the Intercultural Environment.
The Relationship between Social
and Cultural Intelligence
Přenos sociálních kompetencí
do interkulturního prostředí.
Vztah sociální a kulturní inteligence*

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Abstract

Purpose of the article: The purpose of this quantitative empirical study is to examine the relationship between social and cultural intelligence. The aim is to determine whether social skills are transferable and applicable anywhere, regardless of external conditions given by cultural differences.

Methodology/methods: Data were collected using an online questionnaire, which was completed by 92 students studying economics and management at universities in the Czech Republic. Data were analyzed using the PLS-SEM method.

Scientific aim: The aim is to determine the predictive power of the social intelligence construct (SQ) (and their individual components - processing, skills and awareness) on the target variable, cultural intelligence (CQ). The mediation influence of two traditional antecedents of cultural intelligence, language skills and intercultural, experience is compared. The stability (immutability) of the basic theoretical model, the relationship between social and cultural intelligence, depending on gender, is also examined.

Findings: It has been found, that there is a statistically significant positive relationship between social and cultural intelligence. Social skills have the greatest effect on cultural intelligence, but our data did not confirm the statistically significant effect of one dimension of SQ (awareness). The relationship between SQ and CQ is well explained by language skills; complementary mediation was confirmed. On the contrary, the second mediator examined, intercultural experience, does not explain the SQ-CQ relationship. Only a direct effect was identified. The found relationship applies equally to men and women. No statistically significant difference was found between the two groups.

Conclusions: The results of our study are important for HR management and personnel management, who select new employees. The knowledge can also be used to make decisions about sending employees abroad: individuals with a high SQ are likely to do well and be work-efficient, both at home and abroad. A limitation of our research to some extent distorting its results and findings is a relatively small sample, or certain

problems associated with the measurement of individual constructs. Suggestions for further research are discussed.

Keywords

social intelligence, cultural intelligence, language skills, international experience, PLS-SEM

JEL Classification

M50, M54

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Abstrakt

Účel: Smyslem této kvantitativní empirické studie je prozkoumat vztah mezi sociální a kulturní inteligencí. Snahou je určit, zda jsou sociální dovednosti přenositelné a uplatnitelné kdekoli bez ohledu na vnější podmínky dané kulturní jinakostí.

Metodologie/metody: Data byla sesbírána pomocí online dotazníku, který byl vyplněn 92 studenty studujících v oboru ekonomika a management na vysokých školách v České republice. Data byla analyzována pomocí metody PLS-SEM.

Vědecký cíl: Cílem je určit predikativní sílu konstruktů sociální inteligence (SQ) (a jejich jednotlivých složek – processing, skills and awareness) na cílovou proměnnou, kulturní inteligenci (CQ). Je porovnán mediační vliv dvou tradičních antecedentů kulturní inteligence, jazykové dovednosti a interkulturní zkušenosti. Je také zkoumána stabilita (neměnnost) základního teoretického modelu, vztahu mezi sociální a kulturní inteligencí, v závislosti na pohlaví.

Výsledek: Bylo zjištěno, že existuje statisticky významný pozitivní vztah mezi sociální a kulturní inteligencí. Největší účinek na kulturní inteligenci mají sociální dovednosti, statisticky významný vliv jedné dimenze SQ (awareness) naše data nepotvrdila. Vztah mezi SQ a CQ je dobře vysvělen jazykovými znalostmi; byla potvrzena komplementární mediacce. Naopak druhý zkoumaný mediátor, interkulturní zkušenosti, vztah SQ-CQ nevysvětluje, byl identifikován pouze přímý efekt. Nalezený vztah platí stejně pro muže i ženy, statisticky významný rozdíl mezi oběma skupinami nalezen nebyl.

Závěr: Výsledky naší studie mají význam pro HR management a personalisty, kteří provádí výběr nových zaměstnanců. Poznatky jsou využitelné i pro rozhodování o vyslání zaměstnanců na práci do zahraničí: jedinci s vysokým SQ si nejspíš povedou dobře a budou pracovně efektivní jak doma, tak i v zahraničí. Omezením našeho výzkumu do jisté míry zkreslující jeho výsledky a zjištění je relativně malý výběrový soubor, popř. určité problémy spjaté s měřením jednotlivých konstruktů. Návrhy na další výzkum jsou dále diskutovány.

Klíčová slova

sociální inteligence, kulturní inteligence, znalosti jazyka, mezinárodní zkušenosti, PLS-SEM

Introduction

One of the most significant structures of skills used by HR specialists is high (and low) order thinking skills (HOT and LOT skills). High order thinking skills is the ability to “connect, manipulate, and change the knowledge and experience that is owned critically and creatively in determining decisions to solve problems in new situations” (Arif & Yuhdi, 2020). The Bloom’s taxonomy, and mainly the revised taxonomy, continues to be a source of inspiration for teachers and lecturers and for developing new HR strategies. The educational learning model that “used to be still conservative” (Arif & Yuhdi, 2020) because of sticking to LOTS with the teacher as the center of learning switched to the HOTS model. The business success (either at personal or organizational level) in the global era is not only restricted to the knowledge of English anymore; in this respect, other factors such as emotional, social and above all cultural intelligence start playing a crucial role as well.

Intelligence is commonly defined as the ability required to adapt in a contextual environment (Binet & Simon, 1916; Sternberg, 1997). Intelligence is one of the factors that influences the extent to which a person is effectively productive and efficient (Putranto et al., 2018). Such an individual is better employable. This concept began to be used in the early 20th century and was originally merged with the meaning of intellectual (cognitive) intelligence (IQ); it was not until the mid-1930s that Thorndike (1936) began to distinguish other layers of intelligence: mechanical, social, and abstract.

Social intelligence (SQ) attracted the attention of scientists to a large extent. Two aspects are distinguished: the interpersonal aspect (a person’s interaction with others is influenced by his moods, temperament, motivation and intentions) and the intrapersonal aspect, which focuses on how well a person understands his own feelings and how he can express them (Putranto et al. 2018). As a separate part of social intelligence, the concept of emotional intelligence (EI) was later divided, defined by Goleman (Goleman 1995) as the ability to control impulses, regulate one’s moods, empathy and experience of hope.

The construct of cultural intelligence (CQ) was developed by Ang and her colleagues (Earley & Ang, 2003a) and is based on the theory of intelligence. This construct consists of four components, which builds on the integration of different types of personality intelligence (Kerri A. Crowne, 2009; Kerri Anne Crowne, 2013). Although CQ is consistent with Gardner’s perspective of intelligence (Gardner, 2011), i.e the ability to adapt and adjust to the environment, it differs from other types of intelligence because it relates primarily to culturally diverse situations. The construct of cultural intelligence is a unique approach to understanding situations where intercultural interaction occurs; it is an expression of a different intellectual ability of an individual who is in a certain intercultural interaction (Starčević et al., 2017). Cultural intelligence is based on the growing interest in non-academic (really and truly) forms of intelligence; its conceptualization was motivated by the practical reality of globalization (Mahembe & Engelbrecht, 2014). Cultural intelligence is not (unlike IQ) unchangeable but it is constantly evolving throughout the life.

Until now, much attention has been paid to examining the relationship between CQ and EQ (Ang et al., 2007a; Earley & Peterson, 2004; Putranto et al., 2018), to a lesser extent the relationship between SQ and CQ. With this study, we try to fill this gap in knowledge. The

impact of social intelligence on cultural intelligence is examined. An earlier study showed a positive impact of CQ (in all dimensions) on all dimensions of social skills (emotional expressivity, emotional sensitivity, emotional control, social expressivity, social sensitivity and social control) (Koc & Turan, 2018). In our exploratory study, this causal relationship is reversed: the extent to which social intelligence affects (or predicts) cultural intelligence and how much weight can be attributed in this aspect to individual dimensions of social intelligence (processing, skills, and awareness). Findings on this issue may be relevant for HR and HR recruiters, because during an interview or selection process they may be primarily interested in (or measure, test) the social abilities of candidates for the advertised position. They will gain additional information: a candidate with a high SQ will probably be successful abroad (in negotiations with foreign partners, in their placement, sent to foreign branches of the company).

In addition, the basic theoretical model of SQ - CQ is extended by two mediators (language skills and international experience) and it is investigated which of them can better explain the indirect relationship between the two constructs. Findings of this kind are again important for personnel managers, as it determines what information (knowledge of foreign languages or the extent of foreign experience) they should observe when recruiting new employees in terms of their effective use for the needs of the company. Last but not least, the influence of gender on the examined relationship is determined.

1 Literature review

1.1 Culture and Identity

Culture is defined (Livermore, 2013) as “the organized set of beliefs, values, customs, and behaviors that separate one group from another. [...] It is the way we’ve been socialized to think and behave in the world”. Culture is something more than just a group of people; there must be some organizing values and assumptions that put all members of culture together. There are many types of culture: ethnic, professional, organizational, political, religious. However, what the most strongly shapes our thinking and behavior is our national culture, i. e., ‘where we are from?’.

Culture is often depicted as a metaphor of an iceberg because the most of our cultural experience is not obvious at first sight; the most significant aspects of cultural differences lie beneath the water. In this metaphor, the tip of the iceberg represents the shared (common) attributes of humanity (of all the humankind). The below sea level layer represents culture and the bottom of the iceberg represents individual personality.

As the individual opinions within a culture differ considerably, it is necessary to distinguish between micro and macro views on culture. The most famous proponent of the macroview is G. Hofstede who has been examining the cultural dimensions at the national level; the approach to culture on the micro level is represented by the concept of cultural intelligence (Frías-Jamilena et al., 2018). The former view on culture (that of Hofstede) holds that the existence of the cultural differences is a necessary condition for establishing

the intercultural relationships. The cultural differences should not be considered at the individual level and should be measured in the culturally different units (nations). On the contrary the proponents of the micro view state (Frias-Jamilena et al., 2018) that the cultural differences may vary depending on the individual's ability to adapt to the different cultural contexts.

Both views intertwine with one another. The cultural dimensions exist on the individual (micro) level. For example, the Hofstede's dimension of individualism/collectivism can be observed in the individual dimension as well. At the same time, however, there are big differences between individuals in the cultures that are characterized by the dimension of individualism. Regardless of an individual's affiliation to either individualistic or collectivist culture, it depends on one's experience and acquainted knowledge whether he/she is thinkin more in accordance with individualistic or collectivist culture.

Culture is linked to identity. In other words, identity is shaped and influenced by culture. This interrelation stems from the social psychological tradition in sociology called "social structure and personality perspective" (Côté, 1996). Cultural identity expresses the extent to which an individual perceives his/her own connection with members of his/her original culture in terms of shared values. It is a specific type the collective identity that puts together the individuals who belong to the same social group and at the same time are different from other social groups. People with a strong cultural identity are less flexible in adjusting to new cultures. They may even show certain ethnocentric responses to new cultures because they are not able to switch flexibly between different cultural symbols and behaviors. These individuals are less effective in a new intercultural setting (Peng et al., 2015).

1.2 Social Intelligence: a need for satisfactory economic and financial performance of an organization in the home market

The modern concept of the term social intelligence has its origin in E. L. Thorndike's division of intelligence into three facets in dependence of the ability to understand and manage ideas (abstract intelligence), objects (mechanical intelligence) and people (social intelligence). Social intelligence (SQ) can be defined as an ability to get along with other people (Kihlstrom & Cantor, 2000). D. Handa specifies SQ as the knowledge and ability to perceive, understand, and remember the behavior of others and to adapt one's behavior to achieve social goals (Handa, 2018). It is wise action in human relationships, the ability to perceive one's own inner states, motives, and behaviors of others and to treat them appropriately based on this information (Marlowe, 1986; Salovey & Mayer, 1990). Emmerling and Boyatzis (Emmerling & Boyatzis, 2012) define social intelligence competency as "the ability to recognize, understand and use emotional information about others that leads to or causes effective or superior performance".

By definition, it is clear that social intelligence is an important disposition for overall success. E.g. a slightly positive relationship was found between social intelligence and

academic performance of university students (Baggiyam & Pankajam, 2017). Developed social intelligence also has a beneficial effect in other areas: it helps the individual to function in social groups, to achieve job satisfaction or to maintain intimate relationships and friendships; it is a predictor of psychological resilience, reduces suicidal thoughts and behavior (Baggiyam & Pankajam, 2017). In certain professions (high school teachers) social intelligence does not significantly affect, but predicts changes in mental health (Ghahfarokhi et al., n.d.).

SQ is very close to empathy (Björkqvist et al., 2000) and emotional intelligence (Bar-On, 2006). SQ is influenced by one's own mood, temperament, motivation or intentions (the so-called interpersonal dimension of SQ); the second (intrapersonal) dimension of SQ concerns the ability to understand oneself and express one's feelings. Social intelligence is about trust; the degree of trust is reflected in the quality of social interactions. Those who trust others more are more sensitive to various manifestations of social behavior and are able to recognize (and subsequently adapt) the manifestations of certain risky behavior in social contact. These abilities, are not so well developed by less trustful people. Social intelligence is important in terms of the ability to assess certain risks of various social contacts and not avoid them (Yamagishi, 2001). It has been found that college students are more satisfied with their lives, the higher their social intelligence (Rezaei & Bahadori Khosroshahi, 2018).

Both, teachers (Gkonou & Mercer, 2017), and leaders in organizational management need social competence. The importance of social intelligence for effective leadership increases with the shift up in the corporate hierarchy, as the complexity of social relationships is also likely to increase (Zaccaro, 2002). Socially intelligent people can deal better with their colleagues. Strengthening social skills increases work productivity and performance (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017). In this regard, leaders should be characterized by social perception and flexible behavior (= adaptability) (Zaccaro et al., 1991).

Measuring social intelligence is not at all straightforward and simple, because there is no uniform definition of this indicator and it is a multidimensional construct. However, relatively accurate SQ measurements already exist today (Silvera et al., 2001). One model for measuring emotional and social intelligence has been developed by Bar-on (Bar-On, 2006). Habib et al. (Habib et al., 2013) created and validated measurements of social intelligence in the population of university students. Another measurement model was developed by Silver (Silvera et al., 2001). It's called The Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale (TSIS). In this study, we used an adapted version of this measurement.

1.3 Cultural Intelligence: a need for satisfactory economic and financial performance of an organization in the foreign market

Cultural intelligence (CQ) is defined as the ability to function effectively in intercultural situations (Earley & Ang, 2003b). The CQ indicator does not focus only on recognizing and detecting cultural differences, but mainly on effective functioning in situations

characterized by these cultural differences. Ang and Van Dyne describe CQ as a “real world” image (Van Dyne et al., 2017).

The CQ construct consists of four factors: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioral (Earley & Ang, 2003b). The first component of CQ includes the ability not only to acquire cultural knowledge, but above all, to process and understand it. The metacognitive component of CQ is crucial, whether one is aware of the experience gained and uses it in intercultural interaction or adapts it to an unknown culture. Cognitive CQ is a direct knowledge of a particular culture, its differences and similarities. It is a knowledge of the legal and economic system, grammatical (language) rules, cultural values and religious beliefs of a foreign culture. Motivational CQ involves the desire to learn about foreign cultures; people with a high CQ are convinced, that they will succeed in new and unknown cultural situations. They believe that they are able to adapt to the new environment, or to adjust to it. Possible failures won't discourage them. Not only do they not avoid communication and interaction with members of foreign cultures, they actively seek out these situations. The behavioral component of CQ, expresses the ability to adapt one's verbal (accent, tone, speed of speech) and nonverbal expressions (change of facial expression or attitude) to a foreign culture (Van Dyne et al., 2017).

The CQ indicator differs from traditional indicators of intelligence and other abilities: its unique telling ability (e.g. compared to emotional intelligence) relates to the international / intercultural environment; in addition, it also reflects typical personality traits (such as openness to experience or extraversion) and the individual's international experience. People with a high CQ are able to deal with complicated situations, think deeply about what is happening around them and respond adequately to the stimuli that come to them in the context of different cultural influences (Jyoti & Kour, 2015).

Cultural intelligence is of great importance for cross-border business activities. It is important in terms of efficiency in today's global world. Cultural intelligence is a key competence of managers who manage international activities (Rockstuhl et al., 2011). Cultural intelligence can be developed through classical education (university courses), direct contact with foreign culture (study, work abroad, travel, frequent interaction with foreigners), i.e. learning through one's own experience, or training in intercultural competences (Van Dyne et al., 2017).

High CQ plays an important role in successful business negotiations and adaptation in an intercultural environment. It is beneficial not only for an individual who comes into contact with members of a foreign, unknown culture in various situations (work, personal), but also for a company or work teams operating in an international environment.

2 Development of hypotheses: the relationship between individual variables

2.1 The relationship between social and cultural intelligence

The relationship between the two concepts can be indirectly inferred from their definitions. In both cases, it is the ability to understand the feelings, thoughts, and behaviors of others (without excluding oneself) and, accordingly, to arrange oneself in behaviors and actions so that this adaptation strategy leads to success (eg, avoiding conflicts). The only difference is in the nature of the cultural context, where different patterns of behavior apply. It is likely that a person with a high SQ will perceive the disparity of a foreign environment, but the question is whether he can orientate himself and transfer his social competencies from his home environment to another. What may work in one company may not work in another. It is true that behavior viewed and perceived as socially intelligent may have different manifestations in different cultures. Specific behaviors, that might contribute in one culture, can take away a part of one's perceived social intelligence in another culture. Although Habib et al. (Habib et al., 2013) admit that the general concept of social intelligence remains fairly stable across cultures, it is true only partly, as showed in another study (Frankovský et al., 2019): social intelligence attributes are trans-culturally fixed with the existence of certain cultural specifics of this issue observable in one culture, but not in the other.

In this regard, Crowne believes (Kerri Anne Crowne, 2009), that the two concepts are closely related. Both skills can be developed through training. According to Crowne (2009) CQ is a subset of SQ. He explains this assumption by saying that social awareness skills enable one to perceive cultural stimuli; in particular, the sensitive perception of difference or otherness and the adequate response to this state, combine both concepts. Based on this, Crowne concluded that people who are able to function effectively in an unfamiliar cultural environment and successfully deal with foreigners, will most likely be able to do so within their own cultural group. Therefore, cultural intelligence correlates with social intelligence.

This can be explained by the fact that people react kindly or openly to people similar to themselves and restrained, distrustful, perhaps with a certain amount of aggression and hostility to otherness (Blanchard & Thacker, 2007). These behaviors are largely influenced and regulated intraculturally by SQ and interculturally by CQ, as understanding and adapting to differences through a sensitive perception of otherness and openness to the new, is an important characteristic of both concepts (Handa, 2018). Today, companies are looking for people with high social skills and advanced intercultural skills, as they need employees who understand the needs of customers (often from other parts of the world in today's interconnected, globalized world) and try to meet them to the fullest. The high SQ and CQ ensures, that such employees will be more successful in this regard. Companies also need employees, who can deal with other colleagues within one organization, but also work with foreign partners. In both cases, SQ and CQ have a positive effect.

Based on similar beneficial effects on a number of variables such as performance (Dippenaar & Schaap, 2017; Rockstuhl & Van Dyne, 2018) life satisfaction, etc. (Le et al.,

2018; Rezaei & Bahadori Khosroshahi, 2018) Ascalon et al. (Ascalon et al., 2008) combined two approaches to measuring intracultural and intercultural competences into one concept and created the Cross-Cultural Social Intelligence (CCSI). This concept reflects knowledge of different cultures, communication and interpersonal skills and self-efficacy for dealing with people from different cultures.

Therefore, we assume that

H1: Social intelligence (incl. All their dimensions: processing, skills, awareness) positively correlates with cultural intelligence.

2.2 Mediation and moderation of the SQ-CQ relationship

In this study, the relationship between the two constructs is explained by two mediators: language competence (level of language skills) and experience in the international (intercultural) environment. The incremental predictive validity of CQ in relation to the experience gained from the international environment and the level of mastery of the host country's language has previously been demonstrated (Cao et al., 2016; Robledo-Ardila et al., 2016; Shannon & Begley, 2008). CQ is also related to world travelling and the intensity of social contacts with foreigners, i.e. people who profess other values (J. Lee et al., 2019). However, it is not possible to claim that all individuals will benefit from the international experience gained equally. It depends not only on the personal predispositions and characteristics of each individual separately, such as his social intelligence, i.e. how he can participate in events in a new environment and process (or absorb) cognitive signals coming to him in a culturally different society (Fischer, 2011; Sahin et al., 2014), but also on the nature of international experience: non-work stays (tourist, language) have a stronger impact on the development of CQ than work experience from abroad (Moon et al., 2012). The relationship of CQ to a very good knowledge of foreign languages, foreign practice associated with studying at foreign universities and long-term stays abroad was confirmed in a large sample of university teachers teaching accounting (Tharapos et al., 2019). In addition, the ability to speak another foreign language is a strong predictor of CQ (Miele & Nguyen, 2019).

Other studies have also shown that international travel, work placements, study tours (Kerri Anne Crowne, 2008; MacNab & Worthley, 2012), language skills, life in diverse cultural environments, work experience from other cultural backgrounds (Triandis, 2006), language and multicultural experience (Engle & Nehrt, 2012), international work experience (L.-Y. Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Shannon & Begley, 2008) and non-work (not business) trips abroad (Engle & Crowne, 2014) have a great influence on CQ.

Language knowledge and skills are also positively correlated with social intelligence (Ahmad & Mohammed, 2020). The relationship between social intelligence and language proficiency level was explored by Abbasian and Merati (Abbasian & Merati, 2014). Participants were asked to respond to the Tromsø Social Intelligence Scale questionnaire. The study found significant differences among participants of the advanced proficiency group with respect

to their social skills and social intelligence. Moreover, a statistically significant relationship between cultural and social intelligences (and their subscales), on the one hand, and student translator's ability in translating cultural and social texts, on the other hand, was found (Saffarian et al., 2015). Social intelligence is a prerequisite for a person to be a successful intercultural communicator (Wawra, 2009). To do this, however, it is necessary to know foreign languages (or one at a high level). In addition, he must be well acquainted with a foreign environment and have practical experience of life abroad. Therefore, we assume two variables that explain the relationship between social and cultural intelligence.

H2: Knowledge of foreign languages (mediates) explains (mediates) the relationship between social and cultural intelligence.

H3: Intercultural experience explains (mediates) the relationship between social and cultural intelligence.

This study also examines the impact of gender (= dichotomous moderator) on the SQ-CQ relationship. The relationship between gender and social intelligence is ambiguous. For example, it was found that gender does not predict social intelligence, but on the other hand gender moderates the relationship between parenting style (authoritative vs. liberal) and social intelligence (Terwase et al., 2016). Gender also plays a role in the relationship between social intelligence and adolescent relational aggression (i.e., gossip, rumors, manipulation targeting another's social status). This was only true for women (Loflin & Barry, 2016). CQ also depends on gender. Bucker et al. Stated this fact in their modified model of cultural intelligence (Bucker et al., 2015). However, it is not clear whether men or women have greater intercultural competences. The results are contradictory in this area (Mahasneh et al., 2019). No difference in CQ depending on gender was found in the sample of students in Saudi Arabia (AL-Dossary, 2016). To this inconsistency of results, there can be added another study (Khodadady & Ghahari, 2011), which found that Iranian university female students show higher scores in the metacognitive component of CQ than male students. Therefore, we assume

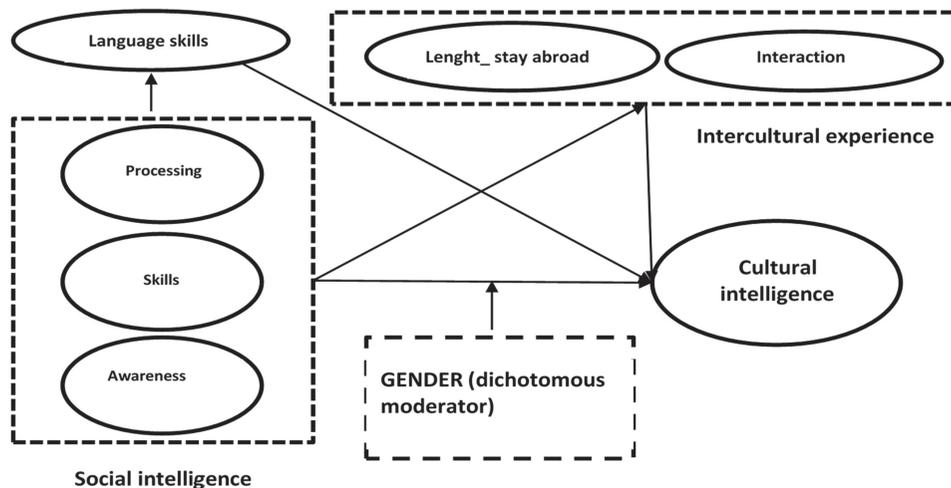
H4: There is a difference in the relationship between social and cultural intelligence depending on gender.

Fig. 1 shows a conceptual (theoretical) model of this study. The simple model of social intelligence (SQ) as an independent variable and cultural intelligence (CQ) as an output variable is extended by the two mediators: language skills and international experience. Moreover, the direct relationship between SQ and CQ is explored through the moderation effect of one dichotomous variable: gender. The latent variables SQ and CQ were modeled reflectively.

The conceptual framework (Fig. 1) represents a multiple (parallel) mediation model that has two mediators: M1 = Language Skills construct, M2 = Intercultural Experience construct. In this case, the model elements are extended to: direct effect between SQ and CQ, specific indirect effects, total indirect effect and total effect (Hair Jr et al., 2016). All hypothesized mediators were included into the model (they were not tested sequentially). Individual mediating effects (e.g., M1 only) were tested by comparing the total indirect

effect with the direct effect. Then, joint mediating effects (ie, M1 and M2) were tested by comparing the total indirect effect with the direct effect.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework



Source: own research

3 Research Strategy

3.1 Data collection and participants

The online questionnaire was created in English and sent out by email; the link to the questionnaire was also distributed through social media. The target group was university students in economics and management. The questionnaire was filled out by 92 respondents (64% women, 36% men). In the age group 70% of respondents were in the age group 18-30, 25% of respondents were in the age 31-50 years. Most respondents (71%) come from the Czech Republic; other relatively large groups of respondents were Kazakhs (7%) and Russians (9%). The questionnaire was also completed by respondents from Ukraine, Slovakia, China, Belarus, Azerbaijan, Moldova, Germany and Slovakia. Respondents were also asked about their assessment of the frequency of international contacts and interactions. Only 16% of respondents stated that they are in contact with foreigners regularly, 58% of the respondents occasionally. When asked about the length of stay abroad (study, work) 52% of the respondents stated a period shorter than 3 years. In total, more than 37% of respondents stayed abroad for more than a year. Responses of respondents who did not complete more than 5% of the items of the monitored constructs (Hair Jr et al., 2016), were excluded from the analysis. Likewise, the answers of the so-called “non-participating” respondents, who answered all items of the questionnaire monotonously and stereotypically, were not analyzed. This phenomenon was determined using the standard deviations of individual constructs. Responses with a standard deviation of less than 0.1 were automatically discarded, and responses with a standard deviation of less than 0.4 were carefully examined and, at discretion, either

discarded or retained. The data were also examined for kurtosis and skewness. The values of the items of individual constructs ranged in the recommended range + 2, -2 and for this reason there was no need to exclude any item from the questionnaire. A total of 79 respondents were analyzed.

3.2 Measures

Cultural intelligence was measured using the CQS scale, which is often used in similar research (Ang et al., 2007b). This scale consists of four dimensions: metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral. On a scale of 1 - 7, respondents had to evaluate their agreement or disagreement with individual items. Examples of such statements are: "I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds" or "I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me". To increase the response, the measurements were shortened and adapted. From the original 20-item CQS measurement, 15 items measuring all four dimensions were used in our research. Nevertheless, Cronbach's alpha for this adapted construct was very high $\alpha = 0.845$.

Social intelligence was measured using the Social intelligence scale (Silvera et al., 2001). This scale measures the ability to process social information, social skills and awareness in three dimensions. Respondents, on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 - strongly disagree, 5 - strongly agree), expressed their agreement on individual measurement items. Examples of this measurement are: "I can predict other people's behavior" or "I am good at getting on good terms with new people". 5 negative items were recoded. Of the 21 items of the original measurement, 15 items were used. In the hope of increasing the response, the omission of some items from the measurement may be the reason for the lower Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.639$). However, this reduced value for intrinsic consistency and reliability of measurements ($\alpha < 0.7$) is acceptable for exploratory type studies (Hair Jr et al., 2016).

According to the recommendations (Netemeyer et al., 2011) the questionnaire checked "social desirability bias", i.e. the respondent's effort to make a "good impression" in self-assessment and to improve his image, e.g. when assessing undesirable characteristics (such as selfishness). Therefore, the phenomenon of social desirability response bias was controlled using the previously used 10-item impression management measurement (Alexandra, 2018). A questionnaire example is: "I never cover up my mistakes".

Gender was measured by a dichotomous variable (0 = women, 1 = male), knowledge of foreign languages was measured by 4 questions on a scale of 1 - 3 (1 = bad, 3 = very good): "How confident do you feel in a foreign language speaking (writing, reading, listening)?" The frequency of interactions with foreigners (1 = regularly, 2 = often, 3 = sometimes) was measured by one question: "How often do you interact internationally?" It was also asked, "How long have (the respondents) lived / worked / studied abroad?". The construct of intercultural experience was created from the frequency of interactions with foreigners and stay abroad depending on the length.

3.3 Procedure and statistical plan

Collected data were analyzed, using the PLS-SEM technique and the SmartPLS software (v.3.3.2). PLS-SEM results were reviewed and evaluated using a systematic process. The process of the systematic evaluation of the results involved separate assessments of the measurement model and the structural model.

The evaluation of the reflective measurement models concerns internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha, composite reliability), convergent validity (indicator reliability, average variance extracted), discriminant validity. The evaluation of the structural model deals with coefficients of determination (R^2), predictive relevance (Q^2), size and significance of path coefficients, f^2 effect sizes and q^2 effect sizes.

There are different measures of internal consistency reliability: Cronbach's alpha or a more conservative measure of composite reliability (ρ_A , ρ_c). Both of them apply the same rules of thumb. They range between 0 and 1; the higher the values, the higher the reliability. Values between 0.70 and 0.90 can be considered as satisfactory (Hair Jr et al., 2016). Cronbach's α can be considered the lower bound and the composite reliability ρ_c the upper bound of the true internal consistency reliability. ρ_A aims at approximating the true reliability and usually lies between Cronbach's α and ρ_c . ρ_A should be significantly higher than 0.7 and significantly lower than 0.9.

A common rule of thumb for the assessment of indicator reliability is that the standardized outer loadings should be 0.708 or higher (Hair Jr et al., 2016). Therefore, values of at least 0.70 are required (0.80 for established constructs). Values greater than 0.60 are acceptable for early stages in research. On the other side values higher than 0.90 (or 0.95) are not desirable. Cronbach's alpha increases with the number of indicators. In our study a lot of weaker loadings (<0.70) were obtained; the elimination of these indicators (and item removed) was examined in the light of the composite reliability (or the average variance extracted; indicators with outer loadings between 0.40 and 0.70 were removed from the scale when its deleting led to an increase in the average variance extracted) above the suggested threshold value. The reflective indicators with very low outer loadings (below 0.40) should (and were in our study), however, always be eliminated from the construct because this construct is not able to explain much of the variance of the underlying indicator (Hair et al., 2011).

A common measure to establish convergent validity on the construct level (or construct communality) is the average variance extracted (AVE) which represents a grand mean value of the squared loadings of all indicators associated with the construct. Each construct should account for at least 50% of the assigned indicator's variance ($AVE \geq 0.5$). Furthermore, the discriminant validity, one of the key building blocks of model validation, was assessed. Discriminant validity requires a test that a correlate too highly with constructs from which it is supposed to differ or in other words, constructs of distinct conceptual variables should also be empirically distinct. One of the oldest criteria to establish the discriminant validity is the Fornell-Larcker criterion, which is based on the idea that a construct should better explain the variance of its own indicators than the variance of other constructs. This means that the AVE of a construct should be higher than the squared correlations between the construct and all other constructs. The discriminant validity has also been assessed by

the other criterion: heterotrait-monotrait ratio (*HTMT*). *HTMT* equals the disattenuated correlation between two constructs. *HTMT* values of close to 1 indicate lack of discriminant validity. Having the result lower than 1 is desirable, but the question is how much lower it should be. For this purpose, two cut off values are defined, namely the value of 0.85 (Kline, 2011) or a more liberal value of 0.9 (Gold et al., 2001).

To assess collinearity, each set of predictor constructs needs to be assessed separately for each subpart of the structural model. For all examined regression models, it must be ensured that no critical level of collinearity has been reached, otherwise estimated coefficients would be negatively affected and the relationships could not be interpreted. For this purpose, the look was taken into the variance inflated factors (*VIF*) which should be less than 5 or 3 ($AVE \leq 5$ or even better $AVE \leq 3$) (Hair Jr et al., 2016).

Significance and relevance of path coefficients were assessed by means of bootstrapping technique. Path coefficients usually vary between -1 and +1. Higher values denote stronger (predictive) relationships between the constructs. Assessing the model's predictive relevance (explanatory power) requires analyzing in-sample prediction and out-of-sample prediction. For the former, the entire data are used to estimate the model and predict observations from this dataset through two indicators: coefficient of determination R^2 and effect size f^2 ; for the latter, the model estimates are used to predict new observations (future observations, holdout sample) through two indicators: blindfolding-based Q^2 and PLSpredict. R^2 is a measure of the model's predictive accuracy and represents the amount of variance in the endogenous constructs explained by all of the exogenous constructs linked to it. It usually ranges between 0 and 1 with higher values indicating higher levels of predictive accuracy. A rough guidelines for R^2 values sets the following rules of thumb: weak ($R^2 \approx 0.25$), moderate ($R^2 \approx 0.50$), substantial ($R^2 \approx 0.75$) (Hair Jr et al., 2016). Because R^2 increases when additional predictor constructs are included, the adjusted R^2 , which controls for model complexity when comparing different set-ups, was used. Effect size f^2 assesses how strongly one exogenous construct contributes to explaining a certain endogenous construct in terms of R^2 . The rules of thumbs are: weak effect ($0.02 \leq f^2 \leq 0.15$), moderate effect ($0.15 \leq f^2 \leq 0.35$), strong effect ($f^2 \geq 0.35$) (Hair Jr et al., 2016). To determine the out-of-sample prediction, the blindfolding technique was used. It is an iterative procedure in which different parts of the data matrix are omitted (i.e, data points). Estimates based on the reduced datasets are used to predict the omitted data points. Prediction error was used as an indicator of predictive relevance. It was set an omission distance D (rule of thumb: $5 \leq D \leq 10$). After running all $1, \dots, D$ blindfolding rounds, each data point once has been omitted and predicted. SSE represents the sum of squared prediction errors when using the PLS-SEM predictions. A mean value prediction becomes the naïve benchmark and the SSO represents the sum of squared errors of the mean value predictions. The results of all blindfolding rounds determine, in sum, the predictive relevance of the PLS path model for a certain endogenous latent variable. The following rule of thumb allows to interpret the Q^2 results (based on the cross-validated redundancy): weak predictive power ($0.02 \leq Q^2 \leq 0.15$), moderate predictive power ($0.15 \leq Q^2 \leq 0.35$) and strong predictive power ($Q^2 \geq 0.35$) (Hair Jr et al., 2016). Effect size q^2 allows assessing each exogenous construct's predictive relevance for a certain endogenous construct:

$$q^2 = (Q^2_{included} - Q^2_{excluded}) / (1 - Q^2_{included}) \quad (1)$$

The interpretation of effect size q^2 is identical as the interpretation of f^2 : weak predictive effect size ($0.02 \leq q^2 \leq 0.15$), moderate predictive effect size ($0.15 \leq q^2 \leq 0.35$), strong predictive effect size ($q^2 \geq 0.35$) (Hair Jr et al., 2016). To assess Q^2 of the endogenous latent variables through the blindfolding approach, the following setting was used in SmartPLS-SEM: omission distance (= 7), cross-validated redundancy.

Apart from the assessment of the measurement and structural model the mediation analysis was carried out. "A mediator is a variable that accounts for all or part of the relationship between a predictor and an outcome" (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In order to compare the difference between the two groups (male and female respondents) in terms of the relationship between social and cultural intelligence, multigroup analysis (MGA) was done (Conway & Lance, 2010). We enhance the theoretical precision of cultural intelligence (CQ: capability to function effectively in culturally diverse settings) by developing and testing a model that posits differential relationships between the four CQ dimensions (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational and behavioral) and three intercultural effectiveness outcomes (cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance in culturally diverse settings). Before testing the model, we describe development and cross-validation ($N = 1,360$) of the multidimensional cultural intelligence scale (CQS) across samples, time and country. We then describe three substantive studies ($N = 794$) in field and educational development settings across two national contexts, the USA and Singapore. The results demonstrate a consistent pattern of relationships where metacognitive CQ and cognitive CQ predicted cultural judgment and decision making; motivational CQ and behavioral CQ predicted cultural adaptation; and metacognitive CQ and behavioral CQ predicted task performance. We discuss theoretical and practical implications of our model and findings (Ang et al., 2007).

Because common method variance (CMV) is often a problem in research that is based on data collection through questionnaires filled in by the same respondents, at the same time and often by self-assessment (Conway & Lance, 2010). As a result of CMV, there is an erroneous internal consistency, i.e. an obvious correlation between variables having essentially the same reason (Chang et al., 2010). Therefore, it is important to check that the individual variables (and questionnaire items) have been measured properly. In order to avoid CMV, an extra variable (additional marker variable) (Social Desirability Scale composed of 10 items: SD1-SD10) was measured, which is completely unrelated to the research variables; items of social desirability scale were systematically included in the questionnaire among other variables. This approach can be found in CMV data if this problem occurs. Using this method it is assumed that the point (measured) marker on independent and dependent variable hopefully does not change the beta coefficients too much. The β -coefficients (R^2) for the CQ construct were: 0.519 (for the 'without marker variable') and 0.539 (for the 'with marker variable'). The values of β -coefficients (R^2) for the self-efficacy construct were: 0.251 (for 'without marker variable') and 0.259 (for 'with marker variable'). Since the value of R^2 did not increase by more than 10% (specifically it increased by 4.9%, resp. by 3.19%) CMV is not a problem in the target variables although it has to be noted that the CMV problem was found in other implemented variables (international experience and language skills), when the R^2 values increased by more than 10% after the measured variable (social desirability scale) being added.

4 Results

4.1 Assessment of the measurement model

In our case, one value of ρ_A (although very slightly) is above the set threshold (for Language skills = 0.905) which is not desirable because it indicates that all the indicator variables are measuring the same phenomenon and are therefore not to be a valid measure of the construct. Moreover, there are some values below the recommended threshold (in the Table 1 greyed boxes) of 0.60 which indicates a lack of internal consistency reliability. Nevertheless, despite the fact that reliability does not meet a more conservative criteria (given by Cronbach's α), it does meet a more liberal one (given by composite reliability ρ_c). Because ρ_A aims at approximating the exact reliability, Hair et al. (Hair Jr et al., 2016) recommend to focus on this criterion. If we look into the structure of the construct SQ (see the Table 1), the internal consistency reliability does not fit perfectly into the set cut-off values (the problematic values are greyed in the Table 1), the more liberal criteria given by ρ_c are met.

Table 1: Construct validity and reliability

	Cronbach's Alpha	ρ_A	Composite Reliability (ρ_c)	(AVE)
CQ	0.841	0.856	0.880	0.513
International experience	0.516	0.525	0.804	0.673
Language Skills	0.863	0.903	0.905	0.705
SQ	0.639	0.784	0.788	0.558
Awareness	0.569	0.579	0.822	0.698
Processing	0.671	0.692	0.817	0.599
Skills	0.629	0.866	0.784	0.550

Source: own research

Reliability indicator is shown by outer loadings (see Table 2). The indicators MC1, MC2, COG5, BEH1-BEH5, SOC1-6, SOC9-14 were removed from the scales and the rest of indicators (see Table 2) were retained. Outer loadings are above the threshold value of 0.70 except for the following indicators: COG1 (outer loading: 0.676), COG4 (outer loading: 0.658), MOT1 (outer loading: 0.658), SOC15_R (outer loading: 0.635). The values of outer loadings suggest a relatively good indicator reliability.

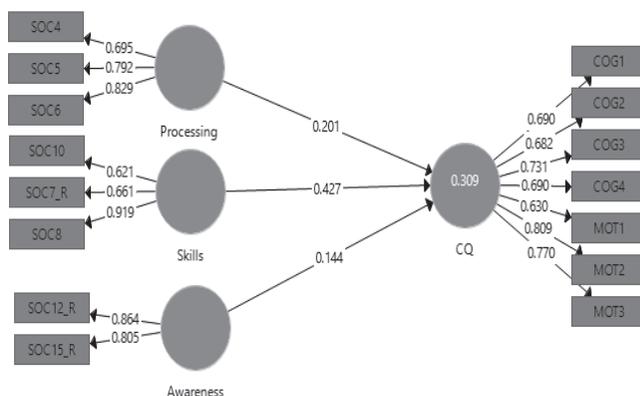
Table 2: Measurement model and multicollinearity (VIF)

Construct	Items	Outer loadings	VIF (inner)
CQ	COG1: I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	0.676	1.724
	COG2: I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	0.726	1.546
	COG3: I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	0.702	1.790
	COG4: I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	0.658	1.691
	MOT1: I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	0.626	1.541
	MOT2: I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	0.831	3.082
	MOT3: I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.	0.775	2.608
SQ	SOC7_R: I often feel uncertain around new people who I don't know.	0.703	1.326
	SOC8: I fit in easily in social situations.	0.880	1.212
	SOC15_R: I find people unpredictable.	0.635	1.252
Language Skills	Listening: How confident do you feel in a foreign language LISTENING?	0.857	2.406
	Speaking: How confident do you feel in a foreign language SPEAKING?	0.894	2.443
	Reading: How confident do you feel in a foreign language READING?	0.838	2.599
	Writing: How confident do you feel in a foreign language WRITING?	0.765	2.135
INTER. EXPER.	Interact: How often do you interact internationally?	0.788	1.138
	Stay_abroad: How long have you lived/worked/ studied abroad ?	0.852	1.138

Source: own research

The Figure 2 depicts the outer loading of CQ indicators and of the three SQ subdimensions (processing, skills and awareness) indicators that were retained (after deleting some of them with regard to improving AVE and composite reliability values). Instead the figure reports the path coefficients (0.201, 0.427, 0.144) between corresponding constructs and $R^2_{adjusted}$

Figure 2: Dimensions of SQ and their relationship with CQ



Source: own research

The values of *AVE* are shown in the Table 3. Each construct should account for at least 50% of the assigned indicator's variance ($AVE \geq 0.5$), which is, in our case, accomplished. The Fornell-Larcker criterion is reported in the Table 3. As can be seen, the squared root of *AVE* for each construct (the diagonal numbers in bold) is higher than the correlations of other constructs in the structural model. Therefore, based on this criterion, the discriminant validity has been established. In our study, all values of *HTMT* meet the Cline's threshold except for the value between the two variables, international experience and language skills, when the cut-off value is slightly exceeded ($HTMT = 0.905$) which might indicate a lack of discriminant validity between the two constructs. This was confirmed by a bootstrapping method to test whether *HTMT* is significantly different from 1. It was examined whether the 90% bootstrap confidence interval of *HTMT* included the value 1 or not (if yes, then there is no discriminant validity). The results (in the Table 3 the boxes are greyed) show that there is a lack of discriminant validity in two pairs of constructs (CQ - International Experience and Language Skills - International experience). It can also be stated that the discriminant validity between CQ and SQ has not been established if we consider a more conservative Kline's cut-off value of 0.85 but it has been established when using the more liberal cut-off value of 0.90.

Table 3: Fornell-Larcker criterion and *HTMT* (in italics; lower and upper bound between parentheses)

	CQ	International experience	Language Skills	SQ
CQ	0.716			
International experience	0.485	0.820		
Language Skills	0.658 [0.500; 0.801]	0.905 [0.694; 1.381]	0.840	
SQ	0.645 [0.498; 0.857]	0.356 [0.212; 0.834]	0.330 [0.172; 0.626]	0.747

Source: own research

Overall, it can be stated that there is no lack of discriminant validity for the subconstructs of SQ.

4.2 Structural model evaluation

All values of *VIF* (see the Table 2) are below 5 (and even better below 3) and it was concluded that the results being below 5 (or even better below 3, except for the indicator MOT2) are not at the critical collinearity level. The same can be stated about the dimensions (processing, skills, awareness) of the social intelligence construct: all *VIF* values are below the cut-off values of 5.

In our model, three R^2 values can be found. The highest value of the CQ variable (R^2 adjusted = 0.500) is affected by the three variables (language skills, international experience and social intelligence). It means that 50% of variance is explained by these constructs and their effect on CQ can be classified as moderate. The effect size of international experience on CQ is weak (0.029), the variable of language skills and social intelligence have a moderate effect size ($f^2 = 0.202$, resp. $f^2 = 0.243$) on the target construct CQ. The social intelligence construct influences CQ the most. The predictive relevance of our path model explaining CQ is moderate because the Q^2 of the endogenous latent variable (CQ) equals to 0.244. No effect size q^2 of international experience on CQ ($Q^2_{included} = 0.244$, $Q^2_{excluded} = 0.241$, $q^2 = 0.004$) was found; the effect size q^2 of both language skills and social intelligence on CQ is rather weak ($Q^2_{included} = 0.244$, $Q^2_{excluded} = 0.200$, $q^2 = 0.058$), resp. ($Q^2_{included} = 0.244$, $Q^2_{excluded} = 0.176$, $q^2 = 0.09$).

As far as the impact of the three SQ dimensions (processing, skills, awareness) on the target construct CQ concerns, $R^2_{adjusted}$ equals to 0.309 ($R^2 = 0.336$) which means that 36% of the CQ construct variance is explained by the three SQ subdimensions. On the whole, their influence on CQ can be described as rather weak. The effect size f^2 of the processing and awareness subdimension on CQ is weak ($f^2 = 0.051$, resp. $f^2 = 0.024$), the effect size of skills on CQ is moderate ($f^2 = 0.208$). The predictive relevance of the three SQ subdimensions explaining CQ construct is of the moderate predictive power ($Q^2 = 0.156$). The effect size q^2 is weak (or almost none) for two out of three subdimensions, only for the subdimension of skill can be characterized as moderate ($q^2 = 0,082$).

Table 4: Hypotheses testing (direct, indirect effect), MGA results

Hypotheses	Relationship	Std Beta	Std Error	[t-value] [^]	CI LL	CI UL	Decision
H1	SQ -> CQ	0.391	0.072	5.296***	0.212	0.507	Supported
H1a	Awareness -> CQ	0.159	0.100	1.446	-0.051	0.339	NOT
H1b	Processing -> CQ	0.208	0.099	2.044**	-0.044	0.357	Supported
H1c	Skills -> CQ	0.444	0.090	4.719***	0.196	0.567	Supported
Indirect effects (IE)	SQ -> Language Skills	0.307	0.098	2.894***	0.057	0.452	
	Language Skills -> CQ	0.402	0.098	4.057***	0.192	0.579	
H2 (specific IE)	SQ -> Language Skills -> CQ	0.118	0.042	2.698***	0.035	0.196	Supported
Indirect effects (IE)	SQ -> International experience	0.244	0.097	2.314**	0.005	0.384	
	International experience -> CQ	0.156	0.090	1.724*	-0.024	0.321	
H3 (specific IE)	SQ -> International experience -> CQ	0.035	0.027	1.285	-0.009	0.100	NOT
	SQ -> CQ (Total indirect effect)	0.153	0.047	3.113***	0.040	0.227	
	SQ -> CQ (Total effect)	0.547	0.080	6.632***	0.311	0.657	
H4	SQ -> CQ (MEN)	0.339	0.148	2.207**	-0.042	0.567	
	SQ -> CQ (WOMEN)	0.421	0.112	3.692***	0.092	0.581	
	Parametric test (MEN vs. WOMEN)			0.481			NOT

Note: * (p < 0.1), ** (p < 0.05), *** (p < 0.01)

Source: own research

The table 4 shows the bootstrapping results. The direct, indirect effects and the results of multigroup analysis are reported. H1 predicted a positive relation between social intelligence (SQ) and cultural intelligence (CQ). The results supported a positive relationship, which was also statistically significant ($\beta = 0.391$; $p < 0.01$). Thus, H1 was supported. If we look at the specific dimensions of social intelligence, both dimensions (processing and skill) were found to be statistically significant, i.e. for processing ($\beta = 0.208$; $p < 0.05$) and for skills ($\beta = 0.444$; $p < 0.01$), and for one dimension (awareness) not ($\beta = 0.159$; $p > 0.05$). Skills have the strongest effect on CQ. Thus, H1a-c are only partially supported. Next, the explaining function was examined for the two mediators: language skills and intercultural experience.

Only language skills partially mediate the relationship between social intelligence and cultural intelligence ($\beta = 0.118$; $p < 0.01$). The mediation is complementary. The international experience construct was not supported as a mediator of the explored relationship by data. In this case, there is no mediation, only a direct effect. Thus, the hypothesis H2 is supported by data, H3 is not. The relationship between social and cultural intelligence was found to be moderately weakened within a group of male respondents ($\beta = 0.339$; $p < 0.05$) and mildly strengthened within a group of female respondents ($\beta = 0.421$; $p < 0.01$). Nevertheless, this group difference is not statistically significant. Thus, the hypothesis H4 is not supported by our data.

Figure 3 (see Appendix) depicts the path coefficients and t-values (in the parentheses) of our theoretical model. Because the bootstrapping process is a random process, the values in Figure 3 and the Result tables can be slightly different.

5 Discussion

The results of our study confirmed that there is a relationship between social and cultural intelligence, as suggested by the findings of previous studies. In particular, it can be stated that SQ predicts cultural intelligence to some extent (Thomas, 2006); Social skills (from simple to more complex) can be transferred from one cultural context to another, which refers to the concept of cultural intelligence (Brislin et al., 2006). Cultural intelligence as an ability to cooperate with people of other cultural and mental settings emphasizes the cultural elements of social contacts. An individual's CQ will have a major impact on his or her acceptance by the new social community abroad. While SQ allows you to collaborate and interact effectively with other people, CQ defines (narrows) these interactions into intercultural interactions. CQ is therefore referred to as a subset of SQ (Kerri Anne Crowne, 2009). CQ is a dynamic quantity that is constantly changing and evolving depending on interactions in intercultural social contexts (Thomas et al., 2008). This in itself suggests a connection between SQ and CQ. However, our data did not confirm what K. Crowne claims: good social awareness also applies to cultural stimuli and signals (Kerri Anne Crowne, 2009). A socially intelligent individual is likely to notice if he registers a certain phenomenon as socially inappropriate, unseemly and risky. However, it is not at all certain whether this culturally colored phenomenon will not be assessed in the perspective of one's own (domestic) social norms, and thus erroneously. The individual also does not have to perceive the "safety" of a certain behavior in the cultural context, because he assesses the situation from the perspective of his own social norms, with which he is firmly bound and does not have to know the social customs of the host country. Due to this ignorance, his social "sensors" can remain deactivated until he switches to the social mode of his hosts.

However, our data confirmed the predictive validity of CQ for the two remaining dimensions of SQ (processing and skills). Crowne (Kerri Anne Crowne, 2009) explains this fact quite clearly. CQ includes both interpersonal and intrapersonal aspects. The first of them are well visible, observable. Behavioral CQ leads to adaptation in certain behaviors and manner, and this is positively reflected in interactions with members of foreign cultures.

Crowne (2009) presented arguments (and confirmed by our data) why interpersonal skills are represented in both SQ and CQ. Therefore, a positive relationship of social skills to CQ could be found. The metacognitive, cognitive and motivational components of CQ include intrapersonal aspects, such as understanding one's own cultural knowledge and processing information, i.e. thinking about cultural aspects during intercultural interactions, and this can lead to thinking about one's own culture (the SQ aspect). CQ refers to the knowledge of my own roots (where I come from), cultural knowledge and information flow management. All of these belong to the intrapersonal aspects, because they are related to knowledge acquired either through education or one's own experience. An individual may also have the motivation to learn something about a foreign culture. In this way, Crowne (2009) explains why CQ is a subset of SQ and this is in line with our results, which have shown that SQ (specifically social skills) will very strongly predict CQ.

It is likely that individuals with high CQ will also have highly developed SQ, because an individual who can act effectively and move in other cultures, will be able to do the same in their own (Crowne, 2009). In our study, we have shown that this is most likely also true for the opposite situation: a person who is socially intelligent can quickly orient himself in a foreign culture, make quick contacts that will make it easier for him to adapt to other conditions, gain new information and be happier in general in a new environment (Le et al., 2018). And gender does not play a role in this respect, although the relationship between the two concepts is stronger in the group of women, the difference compared to the male group of respondents was not statistically significant.

High-level language skills help in this process. A socially intelligent individual will find it easier to learn a foreign language (Ahmad & Mohammed, 2020). His good language skills will help him to establish social contacts more easily in a foreign environment. On the contrary, ignorance of the language could demotivate him, discourage contact with local people and lead to the strengthening of social relations with members of one's own ethnic, national community living in a foreign environment. Thus, good language skills can explain (and our data confirm a statistically significant indirect effect of SQ on CQ through language skills) the relationship between SQ and CQ.

However, the mediation effect of intercultural experience on the relationship between SQ and CQ was not confirmed in our data. This can be explained by the fact that a person firmly anchored in his social bubble or community, here relatively successful and satisfied, may not feel motivated to leave it and establish contacts with foreigners or go abroad for a longer period of time. So social intelligence may not be related to the search for intercultural experiences.

The non-confirmation of the third hypothesis can also be caused by a small research sample (which can be viewed as a serious limitation of our findings) or a somewhat unreliable construct of intercultural experience, as shown by the results of the measurement model or *CMV*. Another limiting factor may be the method of questionnaire self-assessment or shortening of previously validated and reliable measurements (CQ, SQ) in order to increase the response. In future research, these shortcomings could be eliminated and, for example use a by other studies validated questionnaire to measure intercultural experience (Starčević et al., 2017). It is also possible to consider other mediators and

test the relationship between social and cultural intelligence, e.g by using the variables openness to experience or extraversion.

Conclusion

This quantitative empirical study examines the relationship between social and cultural intelligence. It deals with the question of whether an individual can use his social skills abroad, in an environment where different customs, morals, different cultural values are applied and there are different social norms. The results of our study showed that an individual with high social intelligence has good preconditions to be successful even in a culturally different environment; social skills are to some extent transferable and usable in another cultural environment. This is true for both women and men, and it cannot be said that one sex is more predisposed in this respect. The relationship between the two constructs applies mainly to two dimensions of SQ: social skills and information processing, new stimuli. Based on our results, social awareness, the third dimension of the SQ construct, does not apply as much abroad. The relationship between SQ and CQ can be explained by mediated language skills that will help individuals with high SQ to develop the full potential of their social skills; ignorance of foreign languages is thus not an obstacle to establishing social contact with locals. On the contrary, another important antecedent of CQ, intercultural experience, does not explain the relationship between SQ and CQ.

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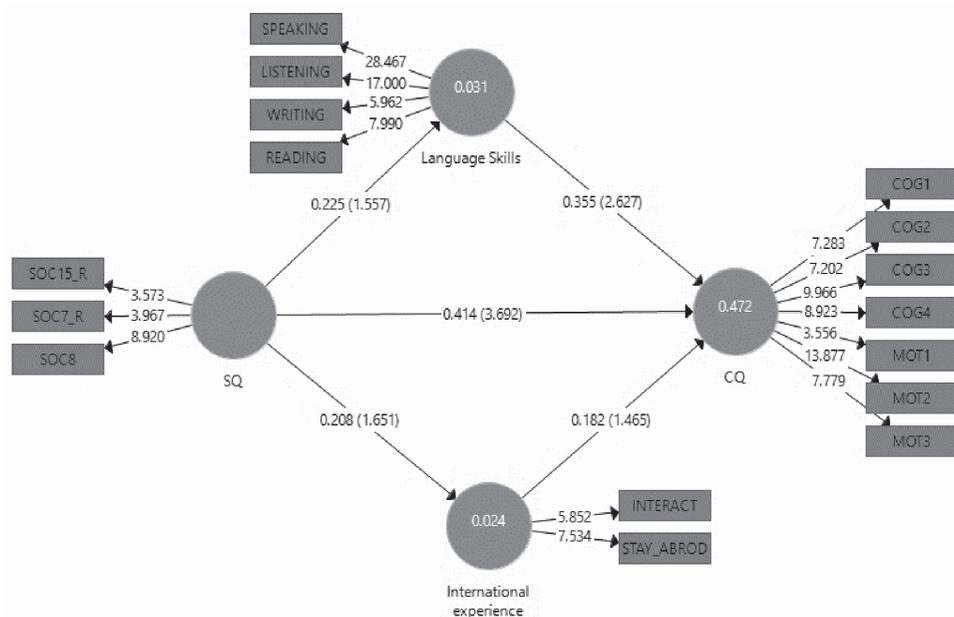
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Appendix

Theoretical model and bootstrapping results



Source: own research