MULTICULTURALITY AS AN ANTECEDENT TO WORK WELL-BEING AND WORK PASSION

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ABSTRACT

Within the workplace, promoting positive feelings in regard to work well-being and work passion has become essential to an increase in health, motivation, and consequently to an increase in productivity. This study aims to assess cultural values, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality as predictors of work well-being and work passion. Based on a sample of 240 workers aged 20 to 64 years (M = 36.78, SD = 10.22), multiple linear regression was carried out. The results of the multiple linear regression analysis show that the dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance have a negative influence on work well-being and work passion, whereas emotional stability is the dimension with the highest predictive value for both constructs. On the other hand, cultural intelligence has no significant predictor effect. As organisations must invest in enhancing work well-being and work passion, the identification of their predictors is of the utmost importance.

Keywords: Multiculturality, Cultural Values, Cultural Intelligence, Multicultural Personality, Work Well-Being, Work Passion.

JEL Classification: D23

1. INTRODUCTION

The growth of studies on positive psychology (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000) in recent years has led to an increased interest in organisational life. Rather than focus on the four D's—Diseases, Disorders, Damages and Disabilities (e.g., Seligman, 2002; Bakker, Rodriguez-Muñoz & Derks, 2012)—positive psychology seeks to focus on the dynamics that positively affect happiness and quality of life (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). This interest in the organisational context (e.g., Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011; Xanthopoulou, Bakker & Ilies, 2012) has shown positive aspects such as engagement (e.g., Schaufeli & Bakker, 2010), well-being (e.g., Diener, 1984), job satisfaction, positive experiences at work (e.g., Rodrígues-Muñoz & Sanz-Vergel, 2013) and work passion (e.g., Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). For organisations, promoting positive feelings such as work well-being and work passion becomes essential to an increase in employee health, motivation and consequently to productivity. Most of the investigations carried out in the context of well-being have focussed on the concept of subjective well-being and not specifically on work well-being. Although we have noticed a high interest in work passion, there is still too much to understand in particular with regard to the antecedents of positive work feelings. Concepts such as cultural intelligence and multicultural personality have been shown to be predictors of numerous variables. Although addressed mostly in regard to multicultural contexts, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality are attributes that can and should be examined as predictors of

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everyday situations—those that do not necessarily imply a context characterized by cultural diversity. This is because they are attributes that increase communicational effectiveness, performance, flexibility, satisfaction and adaptability to various situations (e.g., Earley & Ang, 2003; Van Dyne, Ang & Nielsen, 2007;Malek & Budhwar, 2013); promote creativity (e.g., Leung *et al*., 2008; Liu, Chen & Yao, 2011; Livermore, 2011); facilitate the avoidance and mediation of conflict (e.g., Chen, Wu & Bian, 2014; Polat & Metin, 2012); increase comfort with team management (e.g., Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000;Janssens & Brett, 2006); and promote leadership skills (e.g., Ng, Van Dyne & Ang, 2009a; Woerkom & Reuver, 2009; Tsaur & Tu, 2019). In sum, individuals who have these attributes are more likely to successfully face daily challenges, both at the social and professional level. Thus, it is our expectation that cultural intelligence and multicultural personality can function as predictors of work well-being and work passion, for those who are in culturally diverse contexts (e.g., situations of expatriation or immigration). Although it is not our goal in this study, we consider that these multicultural competences can also be important for those who are in work environments characterized by domestic multiculturalism (Gonçalves *et al*., 2016). Domestic multiculturalism is related to the fact that individuals from the same society do not have the same qualities, as people differ in biological, physical and sociocultural terms (Polat & Mettin, 2012). As expressed by Maugham, '(…) strange people live close to each other, with different languages and different thoughts; they believe in different gods and they have different values' (Maugham, 1921, as quoted in Adler, 2008: 128). For example, in America we can observe that there are norms and rules that vary from region to region, and as such, establish differences in the behaviours considered accepted, constituting the so-called 'melting pot' of the United States (Adler, 2008). In Switzerland, we can find a plurilingualism, since four languages are spoken (German, French, Italian and Romansh).

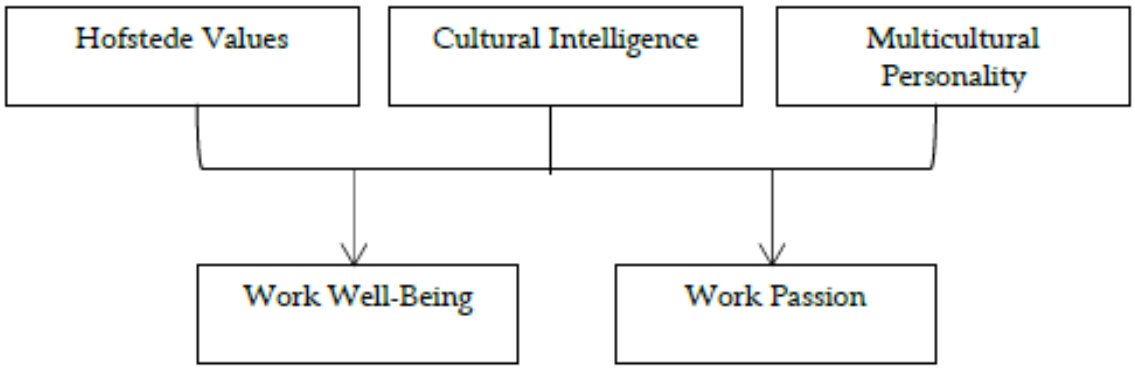
As globalization becomes more pronounced (Ritzer, 2011), countries' ability to suppress or erase cultural differences remains compromised (Arnett, 2002). Ultimately, multiculturalism is fully achieved, when demographic, sociopolitical and psychological factors converge to maintain cultural heritage among various ethnic and religious groups, encouraged by the promotion of positive group contact and fair and equitable participation in society in general (Berry, 2006). In recent years, several studies on multiculturalism have been conducted (see Arasaratnam, 2013, for a review), focussing in particular on attitudes toward multiculturalism (e.g., Apfelbaum *et al*., 2017; Goedert, Albert, Barros & Ferring, 2019), multicultural interactions (e.g., Sánchez-Sánchez, Salaberri & Sánchez-Pérez, 2017), multicultural education (e.g., Railevna, 2017), multicultural experience (Gonçalves, Reis, Sousa, Santos & Orgambídez-Ramos, 2015; Aytug, Kern & Dilchert, 2018) and multicultural identity (Arasaratnam, 2013). In general, there seems to be some variability resulting not only from the greater or lesser support given to multiculturalist policies, but also from the differences between the cultural values of each country. In this sense, Leong and Ward (2006) found that the dimensions of masculinity, distance to power, avoidance of uncertainty and collectivism were directly linked to weaker support of policies favouring multiculturalism. Masculinity and attitudes of superiority and mastery have also been associated with a greater pessimism towards multiculturalism. In general, studies indicate that in countries with a history of cultural plurality (e.g., Canada, New Zealand), multiculturalism works, albeit with some limitations. The challenge lies in the need to develop new solutions for a change in the management of cultural diversity (Leong & Liu, 2013).

Associated with multiculturalism and new multicultural attributes is the concept of culture, and the importance of the recognition and integration of cultural differences. Culture, defined as content, modes of thought and behaviours (e.g., language, history, religion, customs, values) transmitted through the process of socialization (Almeida, 2012), is not assimilated in the same way by all individuals. Despite sharing a common cultural

basis, people have different experiences and different perceptions of the same reality, because individual personality is influenced by the correlation between heredity and the environment in which the individual lives. That is, the strategic guidelines and behaviours adopted by an individual depend on that person's personality characteristics (Cunha *et al.*, 2005).

If multicultural personality and cultural intelligence are attributes that not only encourage and potentiate individuals' interactions and effective performance in multicultural contexts, but also provide them with a variety of tools that allow them to experience greater satisfaction, better relationships or greater creativity, it is unequivocally essential to study their effects as possible predictors of work well-being and work passion. On the other hand, both multicultural personality and cultural intelligence are relatively recent constructs; that is, there is a paucity of studies particularly in Portugal. Thus, our goal is to analyse the relationship between cultural values, multicultural personality and cultural intelligence in an organisational context, and to examine their effect on work well-being and work passion (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Proposed Model



Source: Own Elaboration

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Cultural values

Culture is a set of meanings, ways of thinking and behaviours (e.g., language, history, religion, habits and values) transmitted through the socialization process (i.e., it encompasses the human ability to adapt to the environment, changing and reinventing it). Several models have been proposed to assess and analyse cultural values (e.g., Schwartz, 1992; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 1997). Despite his work having been preceded by a number of studies on culture (e.g., Kuhn & McPartland, 1954; Rokeach, 1973), Hofstede was the first to present a theoretical model with quantitative indices describing different national cultures (Taras, Steel & Kirkman, 2012). As defined by Hofstede (1991), culture is a 'collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category or people from another' (19). Hofstede's model consists of six dimensions: 1) Power distance concerns the way in which a society manages the inequalities among individuals, i.e., this dimension expresses the degree to which less powerful individuals accept and expect an unequal distribution of power. 2) Collectivism vs. individualism distinguishes a preference for social environments where individuals are expected to take care of themselves and their relatives from a preference for social environments where people expect their relatives or members of a particular group to take care of them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.

The social status in these dimensions is reflected in a personal image defined relatively as 'I' or 'We'. 3) Masculinity vs. femininity demarcates a social preference for success, heroism, assertiveness and the material reward for success from a preference for cooperation, modesty, quality of life and caring for the 'weak' and underprivileged. 4) Uncertainty avoidance defines the extent to which the members of a society feel uncomfortable with uncertainty and ambiguity. 5) Pragmatic orientation vs. normative orientation[3] describes how people understand the fact that not everything that happens can be explained. 6) Indulgence vs. restraint contrasts the natural acceptance of fun and joy in life as basic human needs with the oppression of those needs through rules and norms (Hofstede, Hofstede & Minkov, 2010; Hofstede & Minkov, 2010). This last dimension emerged in 2010 as a result of the research of Hofstede and Minkov (2010).

2.2 Multicultural Personality (MP)

Some researchers (e.g., Kealey & Ruben, 1979; Bennett & Arthur, 1995; Basow & Gaugler, 2017) have identified a number of specific personality traits that determine sensitivity in cross-cultural interaction, such as empathy, respect for local culture, flexibility, tolerance, self-confidence, sociability, initiative and courage (Horverak *et al.*, 2013). Accordingly, several studies have analysed the aspects of personality and social development that predispose individuals to an effective interaction between cultures and adaptation to multicultural communities. Multicultural personality (MP) emerges as one of the constructs that focus on cultural adaptation, intercultural competence and multicultural effectiveness (Ponterotto *et al.*, 2011). Based on an analysis of the set of characteristics pointed out by several authors and previous studies, Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000) have identified a number of specific personality characteristics, grouping them into five dimensions of multicultural competence: 1) Cultural empathy refers to the ability to empathize with the feelings, thoughts and behaviours of members from a different cultural group. 2) Open-mindedness refers to an openness and unprejudiced attitude towards different members, norms and cultural values. 3) Emotional stability describes a tendency to remain calm in stressful situations vs. a tendency to show strong emotions under stressful circumstances. 4) Flexibility has been reported by authors (e.g., Hanvey, 1976; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Arthur & Bennett, 1995) as a dimension of utmost importance, especially when expectations about the host country do not correspond to the actual situation. Elements of flexibility, such as the ability to learn from mistakes and new experiences, are crucial to multicultural effectiveness (Spreitzer, McCall & Mahoney, 1997). 5) Social initiative includes an attitude of openness to new cultures; a predisposition to seek and explore new situations, facing them as challenges; and the ability to establish and maintain contacts easily (Van der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2000, 2001).

The structure of personality arises from its various dimensions (dispositional factors that continuously determine personality), which are the result of grouping personality traits together (Almiro & Simões, 2010). Intercultural traits are tailored to face intercultural contexts, denoting specific behavioural predispositions that are predictive of effective adaptation in multicultural environments (Erp *et al.,* 2014). In general, studies report that cultural empathy is a predictor of life satisfaction and social support received by the host country; flexibility is a strong predictor of job satisfaction and social support; social initiative is a strong predictor of psychological well-being; and emotional stability is the most consistent predictor of adjustment (Suanet & Vijver, 2009).

[3] This dimension has replaced the dimension of long-term vs. short-term orientation.

Cultural Intelligence (CQ)

In recent years, the ability to adapt to others has been emphasised through the identification of various types of intelligence (e.g., Gardner, 1993) such as emotional intelligence (e.g., Goleman 1996), social intelligence (Cantor & Kihlstrom, 1985; Goleman, 2006) or interpersonal intelligence (e.g., Gardner, 1993). Although CQ is consistent with the conceptualizations of intelligence (adaptability and adjustment to the environment) (Gardner, 1993; Sternberg, 2000), it differs from other types of intelligence because it focusses specifically on culturally diverse interactions (Van Dyne, Ang & Koh, 2008). Despite its close relation to emotional intelligence, cultural intelligence is making headway where emotional intelligence leaves off (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004): an individual with high emotional intelligence integrates what makes us simultaneously human and different from each other, whereas a person with high cultural intelligence is able to apprehend certain features of human behaviour specific to a person or group, as well as those that are neither universal nor idiosyncratic. CQ is a set of attributes and competences that facilitate adaptation to different cultural situations and allow us to interpret unfamiliar behaviours and situations (Van Dyne, Ang & Livermore, 2010).

Earley and Ang (2003) define CQ as a multidimensional construct comprising four dimensions: 1) metacognitive refers to cultural awareness and sensitivity during interaction with different cultures, promoting active thinking about people and situations in an unfamiliar environment; 2) cognitive refers to the cultural knowledge of norms, behaviours, practices and conventions in different cultures, obtained through experience and education, and encompassing knowledge of the economic, social and legal systems/cultures; 3) motivational conceptualizes the ability to direct attention and energy towards cultural differences, i.e., it is a form of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation in intercultural situations (Van Dyne *et al*., 2008); and 4) behavioural is the ability to express, verbally and nonverbally, appropriate behaviours when interacting with people from different cultures (Van Dyne *et al*., 2008). The empirical research on CQ is somewhat recent, but the initial results are significant and promising (Van Dyne, Ang & Nielsen, 2007). So far, authors such as Ang, Van Dyne and Koh (2007) and Ng, Van Dyne and Ang (2009a, 2009b) have shown that individuals with higher CQ are more efficient in decision-making in intercultural situations and are more likely to adapt to culturally diverse situations. The higher the metacognitive dimension of CQ, the higher the performance ability; and the higher the behavioural dimension, the better the performance in culturally diverse settings. Other studies have focussed on the relation between CQ and factors such as selection and training of expatriates (Ng *et al*., 2009a), adjustment of expatriates (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Shaffer & Luk, 2005; Ang *et al*., 2007; Ramalu, Wei & Rose, 2011) and performance of expatriates (Ang *et al*., 2007; Elenkov & Manev, 2009; Lee, 2010; Gertsen & Sodeberg, 2010). In addition to expatriates' other investigations have deepened for example, global leadership (House *et al*., 2004;Ng *et al.,* 2009b), innovative work behaviour (Korzilius, Bücker & Beerlageand, 2017), impact of cultural exposure on intelligence (Crowne, 2008), social adaptability (Soltani & Keyvanara, 2013), teachers' cultural intelligence (Petrovic, 2011) and international students (e.g., Shu, McAbee & Ayman, 2017). The CQ also showed to be related to the negotiation styles (e.g., Caputo, Ayoko, Amoo & Menke, 2019) and conflict management styles (Gonçalves *et al.,* 2016).

The influence of cultural dimensions, multicultural personality and cultural intelligence on work well-being and work passion

Based on the definition of well-being proposed by Diener and Diener (1995), who consider well-being a personal evaluation of life itself either in terms of satisfaction (cognitive evaluation) or affectivity (stable emotional reactions), Bakker and Oerlemans (2011) define work well-being (WWB) as a situation where an employee is satisfied with his or her work, frequently experiencing positive emotions (e.g., pleasure and satisfaction) and seldom having negative emotions (e.g., sadness and anger). Surveys conducted on the well-being concept have stressed the importance of joint personality, social environment and circumstances in determining levels of subjective well-being (SWB), related to experiencing a high degree of satisfaction with life, a high level of positive affect and low level of negative affect (e.g., DeNeve & Cooper, 1998; Deci & Ryan, 2008; Luhmann *et al.*, 2012). Differences in personality have shown effects on the well-being self-evaluations and influences on how individuals react to unfolding events (Helliwell, 2003). Steel and colleagues (2008) based on the analysis of various personality models (NEO, EPQ and EPI) and in order to determine the relationship between the personality and the subjective well-being, they concluded that 'personality is extremely important to understand the well-being' (151). In turn, investigations in the field of multicultural personality have suggested that individuals with certain traits of this attribute have higher levels of satisfaction with work (Van Oudenhoven, Mol & Van der Zee, 2003) and of subjective well-being (Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven & Bakker, 2002; Ponterotto *et al.,* 2007). High results in the five dimensions of MP are predictors of success in complex, unfamiliar and stressful professions and in tasks that require specific skills to cope with different types of people (Van der Zee, Van Oudenhoven & Grijs, 2004a). Regarding the CQ, some studies have shown that individuals who possess a higher CQ are more efficient at decision-making and adaptation to different situations (Van Dyne *et al.*, 2007), and they exhibit more effective leadership skills (Deng & Gibson, 2009). CQ plays an important role in reducing anxiety and in satisfaction with work (Bücker *et al*., 2014). Thus, if the personality exerts influence on the SWB and the CQ is strictly related to the personality, and both emerge as predictors of satisfaction with work, of performance or of adjustment, it is our expectation that these influence positively the WWB.

Hypothesis 1: Cultural intelligence affects work well-being.
Hypothesis 2: Multicultural personality affects work well-being.

In addition, cultural and social differences are determinants in the differences of SWB at the international level (Diener, 2000). Some cultures seem to produce higher levels of SWB than others. One of the reasons for these differences is related to the fact that people value differently the concept of SWB (Diener, Oishi & Lucas, 2003). In other words, nationality influences the values of individuals and their visible physical behaviour, and affects their cognitive schema and their linguistic tendencies (Rego & Cunha, 2009), i.e., the culture facilitates or promotes certain behaviours and attitudes but also inhibits them as well. Additionally, different sociocultural traditions and legislative frameworks can perform a relevant role in defending employee interests with respect to, for example, social benefits and work conditions (Brewster, 2007). Thus, some cultural characteristics can be predictive of higher levels of SWB and WWB. For example, in feminist cultures, harmony between work and family prevails, there is a minimal differentiation of the social and emotional role between genders and there is a higher preference for cooperation and quality of life (Hofstede, 2011). In indulgent cultures, there is a higher percentage of happy people, greater importance is given to leisure and there is a greater number of people engaged in sports activities (Hofstede, 2011). In cultures where there is a low avoidance of uncertainty, there are high levels of subjectivity regarding health and well-being, and low levels of stress and anxiety (Hofstede, 2011). In pragmatic cultures, for example, which are characterized

by rapid economic growth, people readily accept the setbacks of life, adapt according to circumstances, have a strong tendency to save and invest in the future, and exhibit an attitude of parsimony and perseverance in achieving results (Hofstede, 2011).

Investigations carried out with regard to SWB have shown that there are differences in the levels of SWB between cultures and between ethnic groups of the same culture (e.g., Inglehart & Klingemann, 2000; Diener *et al*., 2003; Tov & Diener, 2007). It is also worth mentioning some studies carried out on the influence of culture and differences between societies (Diener, 2000; Kitayama, Markus & Kurokawa, 2000; Diener *et al*., 2003; Tov & Diener, 2007); on aspects of work in different cultural environments (Aalto *et al*., 2014); and on the well-being of immigrants (Akay, Constant & Giulietti, 2014; Lara, 2014), including the relationship between immigrant co-workers and the host population, and their influence on well-being (Bergbom & Kinnunen, 2014). Other studies have additionally related organizational culture to work well-being (Santos, Gonçalves & Gomes, 2013). Also important is a study conducted by Schimmack and colleagues (2002), which aimed to relate personality, subjective well-being and culture (two individualist cultures—the United States and Germany—and three collectivist cultures—Japan, Mexico and Ghana), concluding that the personality influences the affective balance and that culture mediates the relationship between the affective and cognitive dimensions of subjective well-being (Schimmack *et al*., 2002). To our knowledge, investigations on work well-being are generally scarce. Most studies focus mainly on the concept of subjective well-being and not on the concept of work well-being. But considering the information available on the studies referred to, if subjective well-being varies according to cultural characteristics, then it is our expectation that work well-being is influenced by cultural dimensions (e.g., Hofstede) so we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 3: Cultural dimensions affect work well-being.

Passion can be defined as a strong inclination for an activity that an individual likes (or even loves), thinks is important, and in which he or she invests time and energy on a regular basis (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). Passion can feed motivation, increase welfare and excite our daily life; however, it can also cause negative emotions, lead to obsessive behaviours and interfere with the achievement of a balanced and successful life (Orgambídez-Ramos *et al*., 2014). In the face of this duality between type and intensity of passion, Vallerand and Houlfort (2003) considered a dualistic model of passion: obsessive passion (motivational force that pushes the individual to the activity) and harmonious passion (motivational force that does not dominate the will, i.e., the individual pursues labour activity enthusiastically but without feeling compelled to do so) (Vallerand & Houlfort, 2003). According to Mageau *et al*. (2009), there are some contextual factors that may influence the development of passion for an activity, as for example the social environment in which the individual develops (e.g., family, education, values). Thus, there seems to be an influence on the process of internalization, not only of the personality (Vallerand *et al*., 2006), but also of the culture where the individual exists. Some investigations have pointed to a relationship between personality and work passion (WP), although using the dimensions proposed by Big Five (e.g., Balon, Lecoq & Rimé, 2013). Regarding CQ, some authors have found a positive relationship between CQ and job involvement (e.g., Chen, 2015). People who were involved in their work considered it as an important aspect of their lives, identifying themselves with it psychologically (e.g., Lodahl & Kejner, 1965; Kanungo, 1982; Naumann, 1992; Chen & Chiu, 2009; Chen, 2015). Involvement in work promotes attitudes of motivation, personal responsibility and concern (e.g., Zhao & Namasivayam, 2009). Following this line of thinking, CQ, by increasing the use of skills and knowledge learned in order to

improve work and performance, is likely to increase involvement in work (e.g., Chen, 2015). Similarly, engagement (Kodwani, 2011) and organisational commitment (Anvari *et al.,* 2014) have also been pointed out as variables that are positively influenced by CQ. Since work passion is a variable that shares elements with either engagement, job involvement or organisational commitment (e.g., Zigarmi *et al*., 2009), it is expected that CQ will present itself as a predictor of work passion. Thus, it seems appropriate to analyse the influence of MP and CQ on work passion. This is because their dimensions can be positively associated with harmonious passion, to the extent that they supply individuals with greater sensitivity, greater openness, curiosity and imagination, as well as greater stability and flexibility. Thus, we suggest the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4: Cultural intelligence affects work passion.
Hypothesis 5: Multicultural personality affects work passion.

To our knowledge, there is scant literature on cultural dimensions with respect to the work passion variable. Thus, and starting from the premise that culture exerts influence on the behaviours, values, norms and characteristics of work, it is our expectation that certain characteristics such as masculinity, high power distance and high aversion to uncertainty have a negative influence on work passion. These dimensions can mirror inequalities, either in terms of gender, income distribution or even existential inequality; demotivation, which may stem from the fact that people remain in jobs even though they do not like them because of high avoidance of uncertainty; and high levels of stress, anxiety and emotional instability in the workplace (Hofstede, 1991).

Hypothesis 6: Cultural dimensions affect work passion.

In short, it is important to identify whether these variables work as predictors of work well-being and work passion, because it will enable organisations to increase their productivity and improve the performance of their employees. While promoting well-being at work, organisations are contributing to the satisfaction of their employees (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011) and to the increment of work passion. This may be manifested in a greater affective commitment to work (Forest *et al.,* 2011), an increase in creativity (e.g., Liu *et al*., 2011) and an improvement in professional performance (e.g., Ho, Wong & Lee, 2011).

3. METHOD

3.1 Sample and procedures

This study used a convenience sample comprising participants who were required to conform to the following inclusion criteria: age above 18 years, Portuguese nationality and active employment. Upon approval of the institutional committee responsible for monitoring the procedures and ethical safeguards of research, and assurance of ethical criteria (e.g., information about the voluntary and anonymous nature of the study), participants were asked to answer a self-report questionnaire with an average completion time of 15 minutes. Data collection was performed in several places, collectively and individually: university classes, public and private companies, public libraries and other public places. Only the questionnaires completed correctly were considered. The sample consists of 240 participants, 35.4% male (N = 85) and 64.6% female (N = 155). Ages ranged from 20 to 64 years (M = 36.78, SD = 22.10). In terms of marital status, 50.8% of participants were married or living in common law, 38.8% were single, 9.6% were divorced/separated, and 0.8% were

widowed. In educational level, the distribution of the participants was: basic education (1.3%), secondary education (24.6%), graduates (56.3%), postgraduate (3.3%), masters (8.8%) and doctorates (5.8%). In regard to professional activity, there was a prevalence of administrative staff (47.5%), followed by specialists of intellectual and scientific activities (28.7%); intermediate technicians (21.7%); representatives of the legislative power (1.3%); workers of personal services, safety and security (0.4%); and skilled industrial workers (0.4%).

3.2 Measures

Value Survey Module. Cultural dimensions were assessed through the Portuguese version of the Value Survey Module (VSM 94) developed by Hofstede (1980). This is a 20-item questionnaire using a 5-point Likert scale and comprising five cultural dimensions: 1) individualism vs. collectivism (e.g., item 1: 'Have sufficient time for my personal or family life'; item 4: 'Have security of employment'); 2) masculinity vs. femininity (e.g., item 15: 'Most people can be trusted'; item 20: 'When people have failed in life it is often their own fault'); 3) uncertainty avoidance (e.g., item 13: 'How often do you feel nervous or tense at work'; item 18: 'Competition between employees usually does more harm than good'); 4) power distance (e.g., item 3: 'Have a good working relationship with the direct superior'; item 6: 'Be consulted by your direct superior in his/her decisions'); and 5) long-term vs. short-term orientation (e.g., item 10: 'Thrift'; item 12: 'Respect for tradition'). This version of VSM does not include a sixth dimension, later added by Hofstede and Minkov (2010). The VSM reveals alpha values above 0.70 in all dimensions.

Cultural Intelligence. The Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS), adapted for the Portuguese population by Sousa *et al*. (2015), was originally developed in English by Van Dyne and colleagues (2008). This 20-item tool, rated according to a Likert-type scale from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree), is a multidimensional measure that includes four dimensions of 'intelligence': 1) metacognitive (four items, e.g., item 1: 'I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds'); 2) cognitive (six items, e.g., item 7: 'I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures'); 3) motivational (five items, e.g., item 11: 'I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures'); and 4) behavioural (five items, e.g., item 18: 'I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it'). The Cronbach's alpha of the scale was 0.95; the alpha of the scale dimensions ranged from 0.89 (Metacognitive) to 0.91 (Cognitive).

Multicultural Personality. Multicultural personality was assessed through the Portuguese version of the Multicultural Personality Questionnaire (reduced version) by Sousa *et al*. (2015). Originally developed in English by Van der Zee and Van Oudenhoven (2000), the questionnaire consists of 91 items assessing the five dimensions of intercultural competence: 1) cultural empathy (e.g., item 21: 'I am attentive to facial expressions'); 2) open-mindedness (e.g., item 4: 'I am interested in other cultures'); 3) social initiative (e.g., item 2: 'I make contacts easily'); 4) emotional stability (e.g., item 11: 'I am optimistic'); and 5) flexibility (e.g., item 24: 'I have fixed habits'). More recently, Van der Zee *et al.* (2013) have proposed a short version consisting of 40 items. The adaptation for the Portuguese population also resulted in a reduced 40-item version (eight items by dimension), assessed using a 5-point Likert scale (1, Totally Not Applicable, to 5, Completely Applicable). The reliability coefficient of the scale was 0.91 and the alpha for the five dimensions ranged between 0.68 (flexibility) and 0.85 (cultural empathy).

Work Well-Being. The Work Well-Being Scale, validated and adapted for the Portuguese population by Santos and Gonçalves (2010), was originally developed in English by Warr (1990). It consists of 12 items and includes two dimensions: job-related anxiety-contentment (items 1–6) and job-related depression-enthusiasm (items 7–12). The items describe different psychic states through adjectives (e.g., item 1: 'tense'; item 2: 'anxious'; item 5: 'satisfied'; item 12, 'optimistic') that match the feelings and emotions experienced by individuals over the past weeks on a Likert scale from 1 (Never) to 6 (All Times). The reliability coefficient of the scale was 0.92 and the alpha values for anxiety-contentment and depression-enthusiasm were, respectively, 0.87 and 0.91.

Work Passion. In this study, we used the adaptation of the Passion Scale for the Portuguese population by Gonçalves *et al.* (2014), originally developed by Vallerand and colleagues (2003). This scale consists of two subscales of seven items: harmonious passion (e.g., item 3: 'This activity allows me to live memorable experiences'; item 5: 'This activity is in harmony with the other activities in my life') and obsessive passion (e.g., item 8: 'I cannot live without this activity'; item 13: 'I have almost an obsessive feeling for this activity'). This scale can be adapted to any type of activity, assessed according to a 7-point Likert scale (1, Strongly Disagree, to 7, Strongly Agree). The Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was 0.87, and scores of reliability on the scale dimensions ranged from 0.82 (harmonious passion) to 0.91 (obsessive passion).

In addition to the scales, items on the biographical variables (age, gender, marital status, employment status and educational level) were included in order to characterize the sample.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Confirmatory factor analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis to evaluate the adjustment of the proposed model in this study, using AMOS 18 software. The values obtained were: χ^2 (125) = 286.15, p = 0.00, χ^2/df = 2.29, RMSEA = 0.07, CFI = 0.90, TLI = 0.87, AGFI = 0.83, IFI = 0.90; these values met the criteria suggested by various researchers (e.g., Bentler, 1990; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Byrne 2001; Ullman, 2006).

To detect the existence of common variance method (CVM), a Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003) was conducted. We entered all scale items into a principal component analysis and examined the unrotated factor solution. This analysis did not produce a single or assigned factor, since the main factor only explains 17.51% of the total variance. In addition, the analysis produced 18 factors with eigenvalue greater than 1, which are necessary to explain 63% of the variance and indicate the absence of the CVM.

4.2 Descriptive statistics and correlation analysis

The mean scores, standard deviations and correlations among all research variables are displayed in Table 1. The masculinity dimension presents significant and negative correlations with all variables in the study, except for the flexibility, harmonious and obsessive dimensions. Cultural intelligence also presents correlations with most variables. It is also possible to verify that cultural intelligence and multicultural personality are related to each other.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations and correlations (n = 240)

	Variables	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Hofstede Dimensions	**1. MAS**	2.27	0.50	-																			
	2. PDI	2.22	0.57	0.42**	-																		
	3. UAI	2.97	0.55	0.23**	0.23**	-																	
	4. LTO	2.26	0.72	0.21**	0.27**	0.03	-																
	5. IDV	1.70	0.60	0.61**	0.51**	0.09	0.37**	-															
CQ	**6. Global**	4.21	0.97	-0.20**	0.00	0.14	0.37	-0.01	-														
	7. MC	4.57	1.04	-0.21**	-0.06	0.04	-0-08	-0.01	0.80**	-													
	8. COG	3.62	1.11	-0.16**	-0.02	-0.02	0.07	0.03	0.86**	0.57**	-												
	9. MOT	4.41	1.19	-0.18**	0.04	-0.01	0.07	-0.01	0.87**	0.60**	0.65**	-											
	10. BEH	4.38	1.18	-0.15*	0.03	0.05	0.02	-0.03	0.88**	0.67**	0.63**	0.69**	-										
MP	**11. CE**	3.67	0.50	-0.18**	-0.03	-0.01	-0.11	-0.05	0.54**	0.50**	0.41**	0.48**	0.47**	-									
	12. SI	3.63	0.55	-0.14*	-0.08	0.01	-0.09	-0.06	0.31**	0.24**	0.29**	0.31**	0.22**	0.47**	-								
	13. ES	3.48	0.80	-0.25**	-0.21**	-0.10	-0.16*	-0.10	0.33**	0.29**	0.29**	0.32**	0.23**	0.45**	0.55**	-							
	14. FX	3.11	0.40	0.06	0.06	-0.08	0.17*	0.03	0.12	-0.01	0.14*	0.22**	0.01	-0.03	0.14*	0.05	-						
	15. OM	3.51	0.60	-0.25**	-0.21**	-0.10	-0.16*	-0.10	0.65**	0.53**	0.55**	0.61**	0.51**	0.71	0.46**	0.46**	0.12	-					
WWB	**16. WWB**	4.11	0.90	-0.21**	-0.29**	-0.22**	-0.15*	-0.10	0.19**	0.18**	0.18**	0.17**	0.12	0.21**	0.30**	0.46**	0.08	0.25**	-				
	17. ANX	3.74	1.00	-0.18**	-0.26**	-0.27**	-0.10**	-0.10	0.15*	0.16*	0.14	0.14*	0.09	0.14*	0.20**	0.36**	0.85	0.20**	0.90**	-			
	18. DEP	4.48	1.01	-0.20**	-0.26**	-0.13*	-0.10	-0.10	0.13**	0.16*	0.18**	0.16*	0.12	0.25**	0.32**	0.47**	0.06	0.25**	0.90**	0.61**	-		
WP	**19. WP**	3.61	1.06	-0.14*	-0.16*	-0.08	-0.20**	-0.08	0.12	0.14*	0.10	0.08	0.10	0.20**	0.22**	0.32**	-0.07	0.21**	0.43**	0.30**	0.50**	-	
	20. HAR	4.53	1.33	-0.12	-0.13*	-0.17*	-0.02	-0.07	0.22**	0.23**	0.17**	0.17**	0.19**	0.33**	0.32**	0.44**	-0.03	0.32**	0.48**	0.30**	0.57**	0.85**	-
	21. OBS	2.69	1.20	-0.11	-0.14*	-0.60*	-0.18**	-0.11	-0.03	-0.01	-0.01	-0.04	-0.03	-0.01	0.03	0.07	-0.09	0.02	0.22**	0.15*	0.24**	0.82**	0.39**

Note: MAS – Masculinity, PDI – Power distance index, UAI – Uncertainty avoidance index, LTO – Long-term orientation index, IDV – Individualism index; CQ – Cultural Intelligence, MC – Metacognitive, COG – Cognitive, MOT – Motivational, BEH – Behavioural; MP – Multicultural Personality, CE – Cultural empathy, SI – Social Initiative, ES – Emotional Stability, FX – Flexibility, OM – Open-mindedness; WWB – Work well-being, ANX – Anxiety dimension, DEP – Depression dimension; WP – Work Passion, HAR – Harmonious Passion, OBS – Obsessive Passion

*p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01

Source: Own Elaboration

4.3 Hypotheses testing

We applied multiple hierarchical regression analysis to test all the hypotheses. Model A (Table 2) evaluates the predictive effect of the cultural dimensions, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality in work well-being and its two dimensions. Model A1 (Hofstede's dimensions) explains 14% of work well-being, 15% of anxiety-contentment and 9% of depression-enthusiasm. The predictive effect increases 3% (R^2 = 0.17) by adding the variable cultural intelligence. The third model (A3) combines the variable multicultural personality with cultural intelligence and Hofstede's dimensions, increasing the predictive percentage by 12%; this is the model with the best predictive effect on the dependent variable (p = 0.00), explaining about 29% of work well-being, 24% of anxiety-contentment and 26% of depression-enthusiasm.

Model B evaluates the predictive effect of the dimensions of culture, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality on work passion and its two dimensions. Model B1 (Hofstede's dimensions) accounts for 6% of work passion, 4% of harmonious passion and 6% of obsessive passion. The inclusion of cultural intelligence increases the predictive effect only 1% (R^2 = 0.08). In the third model (B3), by adding the variable multicultural personality to cultural intelligence and Hofstede's dimensions, the predictive percentage that explains work passion increases 7%; this model explains about 15% of work passion, 24% of harmonious passion and 7% of obsessive passion.

This is the model with the best predictive effect on work passion (p = 0.00) and harmonious passion (p = 0.00), except for the obsessive passion dimension (p = 0.24) (Table 2). The

values showed by the Durbin-Watson test are close to 2, indicating no autocorrelation of residuals.

Table 2. Hierarchical regression for the prediction of WWB and WP – Models

Model A		*Work Well-Being*				*WWB Anxiety*				*WWB Depression*		
		r^2	ΔR^2	*p*		r^2	ΔR^2	*p*		r^2	ΔR^2	*p*
1	HD	0.14	0.14	0.00		0.15	0.15	0.00		0.09	0.09	0.00
2	HD+CQ	0.17	0.03	0.00		0.17	0.03	0.00		0.12	0.03	0.00
3	**HD+CQ+MP**	**0.29**	**0.12**	**0.00**		**0.24**	**0.07**	**0.00**		**0.26**	**0.14**	**0.00**
		d = 1.91				*d* = 2.03				*d* = 1.86		
Model B		*Work Passion*				*Harmonious Passion*				*Obsessive Passion*		
		r^2	ΔR^2	*p*		r^2	ΔR^2	*p*		r^2	ΔR^2	*p*
1	HD	0.06	0.06	0.01		0.04	.044	0.06		0.06	0.06	0.01
2	HD+CQ	0.08	0.01	0.03		0.09	.048	0.01		0.06	0.00	0.09
3	**HD+CQ+MP**	**0.15**	**0.07**	**0.00**		**0.24**	**0.15**	**0.00**		**0.07**	**0.01**	**0.24**
		d = 1.71				*d* = 1.78				*d* = 1.74		

Note: HD – Hofstede´s Dimension, CQ – Cultural Intelligence, MP – Multicultural Personality.

d - Durbin-Watson test; $\Delta R^2 = R^2 change$

Source: Own Elaboration

The predictive effect of the dimensions of the independent variables on work well-being (model A3) and work passion (model B3) is presented in Table 3. There are only a few dimensions with significant contributions. The power distance (PDI) dimension contributes negatively to work well-being (β = -0.20, $p < 0.01$) (the higher the distance, the lower the work well-being levels) and its dimensions—anxiety-contentment (β = -0.17; p = .019) and depression-enthusiasm (β = -0.18, p = 0.01)—meaning that the higher the power distance, the lower the contentment and enthusiasm. Uncertainty avoidance (UAI) also contributes significantly and negatively to work well-being (β = -0.15, $p < 0.01$) and anxiety-comfort (β = -0.21, p = 0.001), which may indicate that the higher the uncertainty avoidance of comfort, the higher the anxiety felt. The long-term orientation dimension (LTO) shows a marginally significant contribution to the anxiety-contentment dimension (β = -0.07, p = 0.05). There is no significant contribution of the cultural intelligence dimensions to work well-being. In terms of multicultural personality, stability is the only dimension with a significant contribution to work well-being (β = 0.34, p = 0.00) and its two dimensions—anxiety-contentment (β = 0.26, p = 0.001) and depression-enthusiasm (β = 0.35, p = 0.00). This means that the higher the emotional stability, the higher the work well-being (with higher levels of contentment and enthusiasm, and lower levels of anxiety and depression). Overall, the three variables significantly explain 29% of work well-being (R^2 = 0.29, p = 0.00).

In regard to model B3, there are few dimensions with significant contributions. Uncertainty avoidance (β = -0.15, p = 0.03) and long-term orientation (β = -0.14, p = 0.05) are negatively associated with obsessive passion. Cultural intelligence has no predictive effect on work passion. As to multicultural personality, emotional stability is the only dimension with a predictive effect on work passion (β = 0.22, $p < 0.01$) and harmonious passion (β = 0.33, p = 0.00), similar to model A3. Together, these three variables explain about 15% of work passion and 24% of harmonious passion, and the explanatory value of obsessive passion is not significant (R^2 = 0.07, p = 0.24).

The VIF values indicated that there is no multicollinearity (Montgomery & Peck, 1982).

Table 3. Results of the predicting effects of Hofstede dimensions, CQ and MP on WWB and WP

		Model A3				Model B3			
		WWB	WWB Anx	WWB Dep	VIF	WP	WP Har	WP Obs	VIF
		β		β		β	β		
Hofstede´s dimensions	MAS	-0.03	-0.02	-0.04	1.39	-0.01	0.04	-0.06	1.39
	PDI	-0.20**	-0.17**	-.018**	1.50	-0.06	-0.06	-0.04	1.50
	UAI	-0.15**	-0.21***	-0.06	1.06	-0.05	0.06	-0.15**	1.06
	LTO	-0.07	-0.13*	0.00	1.17	-0.13	-0.08	-0.14*	1.17
	IDV	0.09	0.10	0.06	1.64	0.02	0.01	0.01	1.64
CQ	MC	0.04	0.07	-0.00	2.12	0.02	0.05	-0.02	1.99
	COG	0.01	-0.02	0.04	2.04	-0.01	-0.03	0.02	2.00
	MOT	-0.02	-0.00	-0.03	2.32	-0.07	-0.00	-0.04	2.27
	BEH	0.00	0.01	0.00	2.58	0.03	0.06	-0.01	2.54
MP	CE	-0.05	-0.12	0.03	2.33	-0.01	0.07	-0.09	2.19
	SI	0.05	0.01	0.08	1.67	0.05	0.06	0.03	1.64
	ES	0.34***	0.26***	0.35***	1.71	0.22**	0.33***	0.02	1.57
	FX	0.05	0.07	0.03	1.19	-0.07	-0.02	-0.09	1.06
	OM	0.08	0.13	0.02	2.76	0.12	0.12	0.08	2.18
r^2		0.29	0.24	0.26		0.15	0.24	0.07	
p		0.00	0.00	0.00		0.00	0.23		

Notes: WWB – Work well-being, ANX – Anxiety dimension, DEP – Depression dimension; WP – Work Passion, HAR – Harmonious Passion, OBS – Obsessive Passion.

*p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01; *** p ≤ 0.001; VIF – Variance Inflaction Factor

Source: Own Elaboration

5. CONCLUSION

The organisational complexity caused by cultural diversity is now a challenge for human resource management. Work well-being and work passion are presented as important factors for organisational success. By developing multicultural competences such as cultural intelligence and multicultural personality, individuals are more capable of facing cultural differences and other aspects of organisational life (e.g., leadership, motivation, team and conflict management, innovation and interpersonal relationships). The purpose of this study was to examine to what extent cultural characteristics, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality influence work well-being and work passion.

A multiple linear regression was run to find the best predictive model of work well-being and work passion, according to the independent variables (Hofstede's dimensions, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality). Several models for determining the influence of these variables (cultural values, cultural intelligence and multicultural personality) on work well-being and work passion were carried out. The hypotheses were all confirmed, except for hypotheses 1 and 4 (H1: 'Cultural intelligence affects work well-being'; H4: 'Cultural intelligence affects work passion'). The results indicate that the models with great

explanatory power were those comprising the independent variables together. Respecting the variables with the greatest predictive power, those of greatest importance were power distance, avoidance of uncertainty, long-term orientation and emotional stability. With regard to cultural variables, these showed a negative relationship. Portugal is a country with a strong power distance, where the unequal distribution of power in society and organisations (and the inequality between the top and the base) generate lack of motivation and initiative, which may explain its negative influence on work well-being and work passion. Similarly, characterized by a high level of uncertainty avoidance, Portuguese workers have high levels of stress, surface-level emotion, anxiety, instability and emotional need for rules. There is a disposition for low levels of subjectivity towards health and well-being (and to stay in jobs without even liking them), which predictably leads to a negative effect on well-being and work passion. In contrast, emotional stability, considered a strong predictor of adjustment and life satisfaction and a key to deal with psychological stress, has emerged as a positive predictor of both variables.

Contrary to what would be expected, cultural intelligence showed no significant contribution relative to work well-being and work passion (H1 and H4). This may be due to the existence of varied cultural intelligence profiles. According to Van Dyne and colleagues (2012), while some individuals may experience high levels in all cultural intelligence dimensions, others may experience them only in some dimensions, suggesting the existence of different cultural intelligence profiles. Another reason may be related to the fact that the scale used in this study is currently the only tool developed to measure cultural intelligence (Van Dyne *et al*., 2008) and has some limitations. One is its small size (20 items), which cannot capture all the knowledge, skills and abilities associated with cultural intelligence (Huff *et al*., 2014). In this case, different results might be obtained by using alternative means for measuring the dimensions of cultural intelligence, as proposed by Thomas and colleagues (2008). Future research is suggested to look into the different cultural intelligence profiles, relating them to multicultural personality and cultural values. Other investigations may use the cultural competence variable (Johnson *et al*., 2006) that combines aspects of cultural intelligence and multicultural personality.

Another issue is related to the work itself. As suggested by Warr (2007), work well-being is related to individual (intelligence, personality) and work characteristics, which can increase well-being and happiness or lead to unhappiness and less well-being. In this case, the sample of this study may show some dissatisfaction with the attributes of their job or the tasks performed. It would be interesting to examine this point, i.e., to identify the level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with the very nature of the work (which would allow us to identify the factors with greater influence on work well-being and work passion). The sample size used in this study can also be considered a restriction on the results, since it is relatively small and homogeneous (collected only in Portugal). A larger sample would lead to a closer analysis. Larger sample sizes from different countries should be included in future research, in order to conduct comparative research. It would also be pertinent to construct an instrument to further deepen the concept of domestic multiculturalism and its practical implications. Future studies on predictive validity may also provide additional insights into the nature of work well-being and work passion.

Notwithstanding its limitations, this study allowed us to observe that the emotional stability dimension has a positive predictor effect either on work well-being or on work passion, and that a high power distance and a high uncertainty aversion exert a negative influence on them.

5.1 Practical Implications and Contributions

Working with people from different cultures can be a complex process for individuals and their organisations, since cultural barriers can create misunderstandings that undermine multicultural interactions (Adler, 2008). For Nardon and Steers (2008), this intercultural reality is more complex than it appears to be, for several reasons: 1) individuals are often influenced by multiple cultures (national, regional, organisational, functional and professional); 2) in no country are people monolithic in their beliefs, values and behaviours; people are different even though they are from the same country of origin; 3) culture itself is very complex and may seem paradoxical to outsiders; and 4) business partners are also learning to interact with foreigners, which may make them deal with others in a way that is not typically characteristic of their culture (Nardon & Steers, 2008). Having as a final purpose the success of their business, organisations must offer conditions of integration and good communication. For that it is of the utmost importance to understand the cultural differences of the individuals and to know the cultural values of their society. The values that prevail in a society end up mirroring the culture of their organisations. For example, organisations based in societies with a more autonomous culture and with less rooted values may be relatively more open to change and cultural diversity. All organisational culture is influenced by the general societal culture, whether at the level of rewards policy (e.g., Erez & Earley, 1993), feedback (e.g., Morrison, Chen & Salgado, 2004), job satisfaction (e.g., Diener *et al.,* 2003; Posthuma, Joplin & Maertz, 2005), organisational commitment (Meyer *et al.,* 2002), psychological contract (Rosseau & Schalk, 2000;Pekerti & Thomas, 2003), leadership (Ensari & Murphy, 2003), performance evaluation or even dismissal practices (Rego & Cunha, 2009). The simple motivation to reach individual objectives and goals varies according to the culture of the society. Kurman (2001) has shown that in collectivist and far-reaching cultures, choosing moderate and achievable goals is more motivating than more complex and challenging goals and objectives. In the area of recruitment and selection, cultural competences can determine the contracting trend in the organisation. According to Horverak and colleagues (2013), those who demonstrate a less open attitude tend to be more detrimental when hiring an individual of another nationality (Horverak *et al*., 2013). On the contrary, when individuals are open to the diversity of social categories they tend not to show discriminatory attitudes towards those who are different, whether of a different race, gender or age (Lauring & Selmer, 2013). Directors, managers and employees of organisations that operate globally interact daily with various cultures (Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou, 1987). For an accurate assessment of what motivates workers in a multicultural environment, organisations should understand the differences in values as well as the patterns of behaviour of individuals from other cultures (Ralston *et al*., 1997) once the knowledge of such differences and behaviours is central to multicultural workers, not only for those working with individuals from other cultures but also for those working in a foreign country (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). In this multicultural context, competences such as cultural intelligence and multicultural personality may be the key to success for organisations dealing with cultural diversity on a daily basis (Sousa, Gonçalves & Cunha, 2015). Organisations should focus on the training of their collaborators, both in regard to cultural intelligence and multicultural personality as well as to knowledge of cultural values, and not only in regard to expatriates and immigrants but also to all of their collaborators, who, even without leaving their homeland, interact daily with members of other nationalities (Sousa *et al*., 2015). From our point of view, an effective adjustment to cultural differences in the workplace will increase both well-being and work passion. In addition, incremental positive changes in these attributes present several advantages, not only for individuals, but also for their organisations, whether in terms of satisfaction, engagement, commitment, performance or motivation. Thus, the importance of identifying their predictors becomes a key factor in

enabling organisations to devise strategies for their growth, seeking to promote a healthy organisational environment where multiculturalism is perceived as an asset. In summary, this study contributes to a greater understanding of cultural intelligence, multicultural personality and cultural dimensions, especially regarding outcome variables such as work well-being and work passion, for which studies are still scarce. Multicultural competences are key variables that support the employees of international organisations and also the employees of the host countries, who interact daily with colleagues or foreign clients. This is a group often neglected in international research because it is working in its home country (Bücker *et al*., 2014). However, these collaborators may experience anxiety or demotivation due to communication barriers and the lack of knowledge of certain cultural characteristics, which can mean, in the medium term, demotivation, malaise and dissatisfaction. Thus, increasing well-being at work and work passion can contribute to effective employee performance and also to the success of the entire organisation.

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