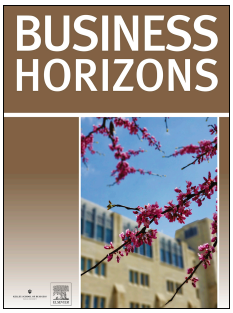

Is there a global-business-subculture effect on gender differences? A multisociety analysis of subordinate influence ethics behaviors

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Is there a global-business-subculture effect on gender differences? A multisociety analysis of subordinate influence ethics behaviors

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Is there a global-business-subculture effect on gender differences? A multisociety analysis of subordinate influence ethics behaviors

Abstract

While business studies on gender have increased, they continue to adopt traditional approaches with limited samples drawn from general populations (e.g., students and teachers). In contrast, we investigate gender differences with our focus solely on business professionals. Specifically, we study 40 societies using the four dimensions of subordinate influence ethics (SIE) behaviors: pro-organizational behaviors, image-management behaviors, self-serving behaviors, and maliciously intended behaviors. We employed crossvergence theory as our theoretical foundation, with its two competing forces, sociocultural (gender differences) and business-ideological (no gender differences), which translates to a global-business-subculture effect. We found no gender differences for three of the four SIE behaviors and minimal differences for the fourth for our sample of business professionals. Thus, our findings differ significantly from those of previous general-population samples. We also tested for societal-level moderating effects of collectivism and individualism using the business values dimensions (BVD) measure. Our individualism findings, the primary values dimension associated with business success, in conjunction with findings from other studies, support our nonsignificant SIE differences findings. In sum, the truly minimal gender differences that we found provide strong support for the perspective that there is a global-business-subculture effect. Our findings also suggest that ethical differences between genders are minimal across the global workforce. We discuss the implications for international business.

KEYWORDS: Global business subculture; Gender differences; Gender similarities; Subordinate influence ethics (SIE) behaviors; Business values dimensions (BVDs); Individualism and collectivism

1. Do businesspeople hold values similar to others in their society?

A review of the literature[1] indicates that studies on gender have been increasing exponentially. Thus, the importance of gender to the literature is clear. For the most part, however, these studies have continued to follow the traditional approaches of using limited samples (e.g., one to three countries) that are taken from general populations (e.g., students and teachers). In contrast, in this study, we investigate gender and the differences between genders (or the lack thereof), using samples drawn solely from professional employees in the business worlds of 40 societies across the globe. To investigate differences in gender across this wide-ranging set of samples, the focus of our study is the ethical behavior of subordinates in the workplace. Specifically, we study the four dimensions of subordinate influence ethics (SIE) behaviors (Ralston & Pearson, 2010). Further, we utilize crossvergence theory as our theoretical foundation. Crossvergence theory is composed of two oft competing forces. The first is the sociocultural force, which, for our study, equates to a gender-differences philosophy; and the second is the business-ideological force, which equates to a no-gender-differences philosophy and, which in turn, personifies the global-business-subculture effect. As we shall discuss, past research, which was substantially based on general population samples, consistently supported the gender-differences, sociological-force aspect of crossvergence. Is the same true for business professionals? This question is certainly worth exploring for those interested in the global workplace. Consequently, the fundamental underlying question of this study is: Do business professionals across these 40 societies differ by gender when it comes to their approaches to influencing superiors? These findings will inform us whether it is likely that there is a global-business-subculture effect or not.

First, we believe that it is important to recognize that subordinate influence attempts are an important part of the interpersonal dynamics within every organization. The literature on this subject dates back to the works of Kipnis and Schmidt (1988) and Yukl and Tracey (1992), and subordinate influence continues to be seen as an important organizational dynamic today (e.g., Deng et al., 2020; Lewis & Ryan, 2014; Sibunruang & Kawai, 2023; Wong, 2019). Because subordinate influence attempts involve a spectrum of influence behaviors that range from proactive to self-centered and ethically questionable behaviors, a fundamental aspect of this informal relationship relates to the strategies that subordinates see as ethical to use to influence superiors (Ralston et al., 2009). Given the increasing global mobility (Bonache et al., 2020) and diversity within many countries' workforces (Ralston et al., 2022), understanding the cross-cultural dynamics of the superior–subordinate relationship is crucial for employers in the global business world to fully understand their workforces. Further, in assessing the ethicality of subordinate influence behavior, a meaningful vantage point would be from the initiator of the influence, the subordinate (Ralston et al., 2009).

While a plethora of studies over the past 25 years have examined differences in intercultural values (e.g., Inglehart & Baker, 2000; Minkov & Kaasa, 2022; Taras et al., 2016), there have been very few large, multisociety studies investigating interpersonal influence processes within business organizations (e.g., Banalieva et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2004). Thus, it remains a substantially underresearched area, perhaps because of the informal, outside-the-organizational-structure nature of the interpersonal influence process (Ralston et al., 2014). Regardless of the

[1] The data cover three periods (1975-1990, 1991-2006, and 2007 to 30 October 2023) retrieved from www.scholar.com using keywords "gender equity" or "gender inequality," yielding 3,620 results for the period of 1975-1990, 64,700 results for 1991-2006, and 272,300 results for 2007 to present.

reason, understanding this process is critical for understanding the interpersonal relationships (e.g., subordinate–superior) within an organization because, ultimately, these relationships make that organization function effectively or not. Thus, our goal is to explore a largely uncharted part of this substantially underresearched area. Namely, we seek to identify whether there are gender differences on subordinate influence ethics across the 40 societies in our study.

To this end, we use the subordinate influence ethics (SIE) behaviors measure (Ralston & Pearson, 2010). The SIE is an internationally developed and validated typology that assesses the degree of ethicality in the organizational setting. Contrary to other influence typologies developed in and for the U.S. (e.g., Kipnis & Schmidt, 1988), the SIE behaviors dimensions are based on subordinate influence behaviors identified by business professionals from a broad spectrum of societies across the world, as discussed by Ralston and Pearson (2010). The SIE behaviors measure consists of four dimensions: pro-organizational SIE behaviors, image-management SIE behaviors, self-serving SIE behaviors, and maliciously intended SIE behaviors, as described in more detail later in this article.

We begin by applying crossvergence theory as our theoretical foundation (Ralston, 2008). Crossvergence theory proposes that there are two major forces operating at the individual level that shape subordinates' choice of influence behaviors. One is the *sociocultural influence*. One manifestation of sociocultural influence is the social role perspective, which includes the social role divide between male and female values and behaviors. The other is the *business-ideology influence*, a manifestation of which is the global-business-subculture effect, which results from the commonly held set of values that has evolved among businesspeople worldwide, a set of values that is not necessarily held in other sectors of those societies. In sum, the global business subculture consists of the business sectors of each society.

This global business subculture serves as a homogenizing force on the ethics and values of all—female and male—businesspeople worldwide. From this premise, we investigate the differences, or lack thereof, between female and male subordinate influence behavior across these 40 societies. Our findings provide insights into the extent to which the sociocultural influence (i.e., the social role effect) or the business-ideology influence (i.e., the global-business-subculture effect) prevails. In essence, in investigating whether gender differences exist within the global business subculture, we chart the extent of these two macro influences—sociocultural and business-ideology.

As noted, prior gender-differences research, based on general-population samples, has found substantial differences between the genders (e.g., Grund & Tilkes, 2023; Hauge et al., 2023). The respondents in these studies were not business professionals but were from other walks of life, frequently university students or teachers. This prior research, initially based on social role theory (Eagly, 1987), has identified substantial differences between the genders on a wide variety of issues, including the use of influence behavior (e.g., Barbuto et al., 2007). We draw attention to the use of general-population samples in prior research because our study uses samples exclusively from the business sectors of the 40 societies within its scope. This is relevant because there appears to be a global-business-subculture effect that has a homogenizing influence on the businesspeople across these societies, an effect to which the previously studied general-population respondents (e.g., students and teachers) were not subjected. Consequently,

we contend that businesspeople are unique because this pervasive effect instills a common set of values and other shared attributes among businesspeople, regardless of their gender or the society in which they are located. These commonalities include traits such as proficiency in English, an intensified work ethic with fast working pace, and a preference for making decisions based on evidence. Thus, in contrast to the many previous general-population studies that found a multitude of gender differences, we find limited gender differences in our multinational study conducted with respondents from the business sectors of these nations.

A prime importance of these findings resides in the fact that the effective use of SIE behaviors, or the ability to impact others at higher levels within the organization, has long been identified as being key to career success in early U.S.-based studies (Mowday, 1978; Porter et al., 1981; Thacker & Wayne, 1995). Other U.S.-based studies by Schilit and Locke (1982), Kipnis and Schmidt (1988), Yukl and Tracey (1992) specified the typologies of proactive influence strategies in examining how those strategies were associated with career advancement. Further, the comprehensive review of Terpstra-Tong and Ralston (2002) called for the need to examine contextual factors in influence strategies. Within the organizational setting, there has been a lack of attention to contextual factors, such as gender (see Bond & Wasco, 2017). Gender is a surrogate for a range of role behaviors that individuals internalize and assume in their upbringing, and it reflects the prototypical behaviors of those with whom they interact (Johns, 2018). In this study, we define gender as role behaviors with the underlying assumption that gender closely corresponds to the measurement of biological sex. In other words, it refers to a set of socialized expectations. Because of the socially constructed nature of gender roles, gender may determine the use of subordinate influence behaviors (Castro et al., 2003; Higgins et al., 2003). Similarly, we find it curious, given the growing numbers of female business professionals and executives in today's rapid-paced global economy, that more international business research (e.g., Paris et al., 2009) has not employed a large, multisociety approach, as ours does, to investigate cross-cultural variations in gender differences in organizations.

Accordingly, the overarching research question for our study is: Are there differences in the behaviors that women and men exhibit when they attempt to exert influence on their superiors, as they work in the global business subculture? To answer this question, we begin by laying the theoretical foundation with crossvergence theory, and then we draw on social role theory and the global-business-subculture perspective to build our hypotheses. In sum, we expect our findings to contrast with, not to replicate, those of prior general-population studies, which found a myriad of gender differences.

2. Gender differences

2.1. Crossvergence theory of values evolution

Ralston's (2008) crossvergence theory identifies two types of influences that shape individuals' values through their respective temporal effects. The first comprises the sociocultural forces that individuals' first experience early in childhood through the process of socialization. The impact of these forces tends to be long-lasting, and it takes an extended period, perhaps generations, for these to evolve. Social roles are part of the sociocultural influences experienced by each society over its generations. They are deeply imprinted in individuals' minds and serve as a guide for

behavior within that society. The other type of influence comprises the business-ideological forces that reflect the prevailing norms, beliefs, and values embedded in the economy, politics, and technology of a society. These values tend to influence most predominately those engaged in business in a society. When these values are integrated across the societies of the world participating in global commerce, they represent the rules of the game in the global business world. These business-ideological forces can evolve much more quickly—at the pace of technology—than the sociocultural influences; at the same time, their impact on individuals' behaviors can be profound. Thus, the sociocultural influence and the business-ideology influence, which may be in conflict with each other, provide our crossvergence theoretical foundation (Ralston, 2008). As subsequently discussed, the sociocultural influence, as operationalized by social role theory, argues that genders differ in their use of influence behaviors, while business-ideology influence, as operationalized by the global business subculture, argues that genders do not differ in this respect.

2.2. Social role theory

Since the 1970s, gender has become increasingly important as a business research topic (see Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly et al., 1995). A primary focus of prior research has been the nurture–nature argument (e.g., Buss & Kenrick, 1998; Costa et al., 2001; Eagly & Wood, 1999; Lippa, 2010; Malach-Pines & Kaspi-Baruch, 2008; Schmitt et al., 2017). Many of these studies have debated whether women are structurally socialized toward helping behavior, are evolutionarily driven, or are both. Regardless of which side of the debate one was on, this early research supported the existence of gender differences. More recent research presented biosocial models that proposed that there were interactions of nature and nurture in explaining behavioral and psychological differences between men and women (see Eagly & Wood, 2013). One such integrative biosocial model is social role theory, created and developed by Eagly and her associates (Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Wood, 2011). It purports that the most efficient division of labor, based on evolved differences in human biology for most human societies, is for men to play the provider role and women to play the caregiver role. In industrialized societies, this translates to gender differentiation, whereby men engage in economic and employment activities and women stay home to care for the family and raise children. These traditional gender roles turn into society-wide beliefs, or gender stereotypes, and from these, societies form expectations of its members as to how men and women should behave. These social expectations are best described by the agentic–communal dichotomy (Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Men are expected to be agentic (i.e., assertive, dominant, competent) while women are expected to be communal (i.e., benevolent, nurturing, emotionally expressive). Through the socialization process, individuals internalize these social expectations and adopt them as part of their self-concepts and, hence, their identities. Thus, the persistence of gender stereotypes depends on two regulating mechanisms: societal regulation (external) and self-regulation (internal). Societies embrace the gender norms they develop and impose sanction on or judge negatively those members who fail to perform gender-consistent behavior. Individuals who internalize traditional gender roles develop these as their personal standards and, in turn, use them to make decisions. As a result, societal members develop unconscious biases concerning gender roles. This is evinced in Harvard's (2019) Implicit Project. In its gender-career test, 75% of the 846,000 respondents expressed automatic association of men with career and women with family. In addition, scientific evidence also demonstrated that internalized roles and role expectations could change individuals' hormones, making them better suited to the expected specific social roles (Gettler et

al., 2011; Wood & Eagly, 2010). Thus, this amalgamation of biological, social, and cognitive processes perpetuates gender stereotypes and gender-stereotypical behaviors.

These perspectives have inspired many empirical, general-population studies on gender differences. The findings in the following studies indicate that women, compared to men:

1. Experience more enhanced positive mood through helping and receiving help in a relationship context (Sprecher et al., 2007);
2. Put more emphasis on social ties and commitment (Lin & Wang, 2020);
3. Rate benevolence-related traits as more important for trusting others (Qiu et al., 2022);
4. Place higher importance on job stability and security (Aguilar & Vlosky, 2010);
5. Have a more favorable attitude toward moral objectivism (Bageac et al., 2011);
6. Have higher level of ethnic or cultural empathy (Cundiff & Komarraju, 2008);
7. Have a greater aversion to lying (Gylfason et al., 2013);
8. Have higher ethical sensitivity (Hadjicharalambous & Walsh, 2012);
9. Prefer to compete in teams than as individuals (Healy & Pate, 2011);
10. Place higher importance on benevolence and security (Lan et al., 2010);
11. Are more receptive to teamwork (Meliou et al., 2010);
12. Place more emphasis on communication and on supporting leader-employee development (Muchiri et al., 2011);
13. Are more empathetic (Toussaint & Webb, 2005);
14. Are rated more communal in both male- and female-dominated occupations (Froehlich et al., 2020); and
15. Are more ethical and altruistic (Valentine et al., 2009).

In sum, women in these general-population studies were found to consistently exhibit substantially more communal characteristics than their male counterparts.

2.3. Global-business-subculture perspective

The global business subculture is a distinctive segment of the all-encompassing, macro-level culture that pervades a society. It may be argued that it represents the business-ideology influences of crossvergence theory. Simply expressed, this segment may be described as

consisting of those individuals who engage in business in societies that are part of the global economy (i.e., not individuals who are teachers, doctors, homemakers, etc.). Furthermore, the global business subculture has its own pervasive set of values, values that differ from those of the other members of its society. Significantly, the values of the global business subculture are fairly consistent across the businesses of the world because they are determined by the norms and rules of the game as prescribed by the current global business community members (e.g., multinational corporations). In fact, a review of the mission statements of top global companies in 20 countries found that they embrace the similar core values of excellence, responsibility, respect, integrity, innovation, and customer orientation (see Supplementary Materials/Appendix). As such, any individual, company, or government wishing to be a member of the global business community must essentially commit to these values in order to be accepted as a participant by the community's existing members. This results in a pronounced consistency in values/behaviors across the global business subcultures of all societies in the global business community, to which the remaining members of these societies, the general populations, need not subscribe.

In fact, prior research has raised the issue of subcultures within the general populations and suggested the need to differentiate business and nonbusiness respondents (e.g., Nahum-Shani & Somech, 2011; Terpstra-Tong et al., 2020; Triandis & Singelis, 1998). Thus, the agentic and communal gender characteristics of the sociocultural influences, which are fundamental to social role theory, may be overshadowed in business subcultures by the values generated by the global business community.

Thus, this global-business-subculture perspective, while reflecting an agreement on values worldwide—likely a crossvergence of values—across the business subcultures of societies, also reflects a convergence of proactive influence practices between men and women within the business sectors of these societies. Following the social role perspective (Alesina et al., 2013; Eagly & Wood, 2011), the origin of social role differentiation reflects a divergence influence linked with optimal division of labor. Therefore, to reiterate a point made previously, the persistence of gender stereotypes depends on two regulating mechanisms: societal regulation (external) and self-regulation (internal). Given the emergence of feminist movements across the globe in recent decades, we have seen a weakening, albeit still influential, societal regulation mechanism, as evinced by a general increase in women's representation on company boards (International Labour Organisation, 2019). On the other hand, we have documented an increase in agentic values, empowering women to pursue career advancement and leadership roles.[2] Reflected in the global business subculture, ambitious (i.e., self-regulated) women are less constrained by external sociocultural forces to conform to traditional gender roles. Consequently, they can better compete with their male counterparts to advance their careers. The implication is that individuals who function within the global business community have forces acting upon them that shape their behaviors in a consistent manner—regardless of gender—making the macro, sociocultural differentiating gender roles (agentic and communal) much less relevant for those working in the global business subculture.

A review of the literature since 2000 indicates that studies of business subculture have used gender as a control variable (e.g., Cullen et al., 2004; Egri et al., 2000; Parboteeah et al., 2008; Ralston et al., 2015). But only a very limited number of cross-cultural studies have regarded

[2] See Donnelly and Twenge (2017) for evidence from the U.S. and Terpstra-Tong et al. (2022) for a global study on masculinity and femininity.

gender as an independent variable. Further, the substantial majority of the studies that we identified use respondents who are not from the business sector but who are from the general population (Bleidorn et al., 2016; Costa et al., 2001; Galinha et al., 2014; Guimond et al., 2007; Lippa, 2010; Ma, 2010; Malach-Pines & Kaspi-Baruch, 2008; Schmitt et al., 2008; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Snir & Harpaz, 2009). Nevertheless, we did identify a few cross-cultural studies that did use businesspeople as respondents in their testing of gender differences (e.g., Egri et al., 2012; Lerner & Malach-Pines, 2011; Paris et al., 2009; van Emmerik et al., 2008). An interesting, albeit inconclusive, observation from a review of this limited sample is that it appears that significant gender differences were found substantially more in general-population studies than in studies where the respondents were businesspeople. But we were unable to identify any study that directly investigated this observation.

The present study attempts to provide answers to the question of gender differences in the global-business community in two important ways. First, instead of studying values, we focus on the ethics of subordinates' behavior as measured by the SIE behaviors instrument, which consists of scenario items derived from observations of behavior in the work setting (Ralston & Pearson, 2010). Thus, these SIE behavior scenarios are much more business-concrete measures of business behavior than of values, which by their nature tend to be abstract. Second, all respondents in our study are business professionals who were born and raised in the society that each represents. Thus, all respondents come from the business subcultures of the societies in our study.

In summary, companies, particularly multinational ones, are interested in knowing how business professionals in other cultures do business, more so than what the values of the general public are. Thus, the gender-difference findings of prior studies, which do not use businesspeople as their respondents and do not use concrete measures of behavior, may not be truly applicable when trying to assess gender similarities and differences across the global business community. In essence, within the global business community, the norms of the global business subculture may be more dominant than the general sociocultural norms. Consequently, these global-business-subculture norms may be instrumental in determining how business professionals have learned to behave in order to survive and thrive in the global business world.

3. SIE behaviors

3.1. Gender differences in SIE behaviors

Despite efforts to date, there have been no definitive answers as to whether female business professionals behave differently than their male counterparts in the business world. The few non-U.S. studies focusing on gender differences in subordinate influence behavior have been either single-society studies that indicate significant gender differences within the selected society (e.g., Izraeli, 1985, 1987; Rajan & Krishan, 2002), or studies that relied on student samples (e.g., Campbell et al., 1993; Tomkiewicz et al., 2004). Although cross-cultural researchers have recently examined the effectiveness of upward influence strategies across multiple societies (Banalieva et al., 2017; Fu et al., 2004; Karam et al., 2013; Ralston et al., 2001, 2009, 2010), none of these studies investigated gender differences. They merely used gender as a control variable. Hence, there is a need for large-scale, cross-cultural research to ascertain whether, or

where, gender differences in subordinate influence behavior exist across the global business community.

3.2. Typology of SIE behaviors

The culturally entrenched role of women in society, and changes in how women act and succeed within organizations, provide a platform for insights regarding globalization and cultural forces. We focus our efforts on the organizationally important aspect of how those in subordinate positions attempt to influence their superiors. To do so, we use the SIE behaviors measure, as shown in Figure 1, which consists of four dimensions: Pro-organizational SIE behaviors, image-management SIE behaviors, self-serving SIE behaviors, and maliciously intended SIE behaviors (Ralston & Pearson, 2010).

[Insert Figure 1 About Here]

4. Hypotheses

4.1. The global-business-subculture consistency of SIE behaviors

We believe that the global business subculture will have a converging effect (Ralston et al., 2015) on the values and behaviors of the women and men working in the business sector, such that we can expect substantially fewer individual-level differences compared to those that have previously been found in general-population studies. But to hypothesize support for the global-business-subculture perspective would require hypothesizing the null. Further, to date, empirical support for the global-business-subculture perspective has yet to be developed. Therefore, ironically, we base our hypotheses on the traditional sociocultural-differences perspective, not on a global-business-subculture perspective, and then we let our data do the talking.

Accordingly, Gilligan's (1982) classic work on gender differences suggests that women's moral reasoning differs from men's reasoning in that women consider a web of interconnected relationships when dealing with ethical dilemmas, while men tend to follow a hierarchical ordering and, in turn, adopt a logic-of-justice approach. That results in women focusing more on an ethic of care for others, while men are typically more self-centered. Despite criticism by Brown and Treviño (2006), who drew on moral development literature in the 1980s, when ethics studies involved primarily Western-based samples (Rest, 1986; Schlaefli et al., 1985; Walker, 1984), recent empirical studies continue to identify gender differences in cognitive processes when dealing with ethical dilemmas involving others (Capraro & Sippel, 2017; Fumagalli et al., 2010). Thus, while Gilligan (1982) approaches the gender difference issue from a different perspective than other social role theorists (e.g., Eagly, 1987), their conclusions, that genders are different, coincide. As a result, social role logic sees women as generally engaging in more prosocial behaviors, which focus on maintaining social relationships, while men are seen as engaging in more egoistic behaviors, which include dominating, status-seeking, and riskier behaviors (see Browne, 2006). Men are also likely to be less concerned with the potential negative impact that certain behaviors may have on the organization (Drory & Beaty, 1991), which may explain why women identify unethical business practices more readily than men do (Franke et al., 1997). Cross-cultural studies have shown that men are viewed as more dominant, autonomous, and aggressive. That is, they are more agentic, to use a term from social role theory.

Conversely, women are seen as more nurturing, deferential, and affiliative (Schwartz & Rubel, 2005; Williams & Best, 1990), or as more communal, according to social role theory. Accordingly, women are more likely to engage in beneficial behaviors and to view such behaviors more positively than men. Concomitantly, women are more likely to view assertive, manipulative types of behavior (i.e., image-management, self-serving, or maliciously intended behaviors) less positively than men.

In sum, based on social role theory (Eagly, 1987), Gilligan's (1982) work and the plethora of general-population studies previously cited indicate that female business professionals are expected to be more accepting of pro-organizational SIE behaviors and less accepting of image-management, self-serving, and maliciously intended SIE behaviors than male business professionals, if no global-business-subculture effect exists. Therefore, we propose the following hypotheses regarding gender differences in the relative acceptability of the four categories of SIE behaviors. In review, if the findings for our study of business professionals are consistent with the previous/current findings for general-population studies, then these hypotheses should be supported. But if the predicted global-business-subculture effect is correct, then none of these hypotheses should be supported.

- Hypothesis 1a: Female business professionals view pro-organizational SIE behaviors as more acceptable than do male business professionals.

- Hypothesis 1b: Female business professionals view image-management SIE behaviors as less acceptable than do male business professionals.

- Hypothesis 1c: Female business professionals view self-serving SIE behaviors as less acceptable than do male business professionals.

- Hypothesis 1d: Female business professionals view maliciously intended SIE behaviors as less acceptable than male business professionals.

4.2. The moderating impact of societal values on SIE behaviors

Consistent with the general-population literature that proposes that there are societal values differences that might moderate gender differences (Dutta et al., 2021; Schwartz & Rubel, 2005), we examine societal antecedents that might moderate the impact of the SIE behaviors–gender relationship. To this end, we focus on individualism and collectivism, the two primary societal values dimensions (Terpstra-Tong et al., 2020; Triandis, 2018), and on their impact on gender differences. Davis and Williamson (2019) found that individualist values of autonomy and self-determination legitimized women's pursuit of individuality and choices, hence reducing their psychological constraints in pursuing employment and self-fulfillment. Nikolaev et al. (2017) argued that societies with higher individualistic values adopted more inclusive institutions that are more willing to provide equal opportunity for all members of society. In contrast, collectivist values were more likely to subordinate women's personal goals to their social obligations, allowing higher acceptance of gender inequality. Similarly, Dutta et al. (2021) found that collectivist beliefs were barriers to women's economic rights, as they prevented social trust from extending beyond traditional gendered roles. Thornhill and Fincher (2014) found that collectivism emphasized lower tolerance for change, hence perpetuating traditional divides on

gender.

Building upon this literature, we argue that in more individualistic cultures, women may focus more on enhancing their personal status (e.g., attaining significant organizational positions), just as men do in individualistic cultures. Individualistic norms allow for an increased focus on oneself, for women and men alike. This not only enables women to notice when they are in inequitable positions but also provides them with support to exhibit more initiative and to better their personal situations, bringing them into parity with their male counterparts. We expect that both women and men will experience less validation of their gender-specific roles from the cultural environment. We, therefore, expect that gender differences in the four SIE behaviors will be smaller in highly individualistic societies but greater in highly collectivist societies.

We measured individualism and collectivism with the business values dimensions (BVD) instrument (Ralston et al., 2018). The BVD instrument measures values in global business subcultures and consists of five dimensions. Three of the BVDs, the Ethical Achievement, Power, and Globally Responsible Innovation values dimensions, create the higher-order dimension of individualism, which, as Triandis and Singelis (1998) have argued and Ralston and colleagues (1997) have empirically shown, is a multidimensional construct. A fourth BVD dimension, Other-Oriented, represents the collectivistic perspective. For it, we would expect a positive impact on, and a preservation of the degree of gender differences in, the more traditional collectivistic cultures. Collectivist societies are other-oriented, and so the conventional gender divide, which has been developed to maintain patriarchal hierarchy and other society-accepted gender differences, is encouraged. Individuals, particularly women, would feel validated about performing their gender-specific roles because of the society's emphasis on conformity and the communal and altruistic values in collectivistic, other-oriented cultures. Therefore, we expect that business professionals are likely to exhibit gender-differential behaviors when compared to those in more individualistic cultures. The fifth BVD dimension, Universal Order (including national security, family security, and world of peace values), was not considered relevant to this study, and therefore, it was not included. Thus, we hypothesize:

- Hypothesis 2a. In societies where an individualistic values orientation dominates (Ethical Achievement, Power, or Globally Responsible Innovation), societal values are less likely to influence gender differences in the global business subculture.

- Hypothesis 2b. In societies where a collectivistic values orientation dominates (Other-Oriented), societal values are more likely to influence gender differences in the global business subculture.

5. Methods

5.1. Participants in our study

We collected data from 9,058 business professionals from a cross-section of organizations and industries in 40 societies during 2001–2011. Our dataset provides a broad geographic representation, with societies comparable to those in Ronen and Shenkar's (2013) 11 cultural clusters. All respondents were born and raised in the society in which they were sampled; none

were new immigrants to the society. All local data-collection collaborators were provided with identical, detailed instructions in writing on how to carry out their data collection. For example, to ensure that each society sample was not dominated by a small number of organizations, local collaborators were instructed that no more than five respondents per employer were to be included within a society. The local collaborators provided the potential respondents with the questionnaire either through a mail survey or prior to personnel development programs. All respondents were ensured anonymity, participated voluntarily, and received identical survey completion instructions. The average response rate was 23%, with all societies exceeding a 15% rate and 43% being the highest rate. We followed the data-cleaning process discussed in Karam and Ralston (2016) on a society-by-society basis. The sample demographic characteristics for the 40 societies are presented in Table S1 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix.

5.2. Procedure and measures

In societies where English is not the official language, we followed the standard translation–back-translation procedure (Brislin, 1986) to translate the survey questionnaire into the native languages of the societies in the study, with the exception of India, where the English language questionnaire was used. The translator and back-translator resolved any translation differences, and when necessary, a third party was engaged to assist.

5.3. Dependent variables

We used the SIE behaviors instrument to measure participants' views on the acceptability of various influence behaviors (Ralston & Pearson, 2010; Ralston et al., 2014). The SIE behaviors instrument consists of 24 short scenario items, of which 22 items comprise the four SIE behaviors dimensions: pro-organizational (6 items), image-management (5 items), self-serving (6 items), and maliciously intended (5 items). See Table S1 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix for the full SIE questionnaire.

5.4. Measurement model, common method variance, and measurement invariance

We conducted a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the measurement model that comprised the four SIE dimensions. The four-factor CFA model showed a good fit (n = 9058, $\chi^2_{(203)}$ = 4352.733, comparative fit index [CFI] = 0.935, Tucker-Lewis index [TLI] = 0.926, root-mean-square error of approximation [RMSEA] = 0.048). The scale composite reliabilities (Raykov's ρ) were all at an acceptable level (ρ = 0.74 pro-organizational, ρ = 0.72 image-management, ρ = 0.86 self-serving, ρ = 0.79 maliciously intended). To assess common method variance, we ran a Harman's single-factor test by loading all items onto one common factor. The data of the single-factor model did not converge, possibly owing to our large database at both the lower and the upper levels. We then proceeded with two theoretically possible two-factor measurement models. The four-factor model had superior fit compared to those two alternative models (see Table S2 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix for details). In sum, these analyses indicate that common method variance was not a significant issue for these data.

We subsequently conducted a series of nested, multigroup CFAs to assess cross-societal invariance of each SIE behaviors measure (see Steenkamp & Baumgartner, 1998). We secured partial metric invariance of the measurement models of image-management, self-serving, and maliciously intended SIE behaviors but only configural invariance for pro-organizational SIE

behaviors (see Table S2 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix for details). Considering that our study focused on the associations of variables instead of comparing mean values, we followed the advice of Boer et al. (2018) to proceed with analyses with only partial metric invariance of the measurement models of image-management, self-serving, and maliciously intended SIE behaviors. Also, considering that the absence of partial metric invariance does not remove the value of data collected from a large-scale survey, we proceeded with the subsequent analyses for the pro-organizational SIE behaviors (Boer et al., 2018).

The fact that cross-national metric or scalar invariance was not found could be attributed to cross-cultural differences in scale response styles (Johnson et al., 2005). We addressed the cross-cultural differences in scale response by using Hanges' (2004) procedure, which involved regressing within-subject standardized scores onto raw scale scores and then retaining the scale scores adjusted for overall scale response style. The adjusted society means, standard deviations, and scale-composite reliabilities for the four SIE behaviors dimensions are presented in Table S3 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix. The composite reliabilities for the self-serving and maliciously intended SIE behaviors variables were above 0.62 for all societies. But the composite reliabilities were below 0.60 for five societies (China, the Netherlands, Lithuania, Switzerland, and Thailand) for the pro-organizational SIE behaviors variable, and for one society (Russia) for the image-management SIE behaviors variable. Subsidiary analyses conducted with and without these societies showed very similar results; therefore, all 40 societies were retained in the analyses.

5.5. Individual-level and societal-level predictors of SIE behaviors

At the individual level, the independent variable was gender (coded: 0 = male and 1 = female). Societal-level values were measured using the businessperson respondent scores for the BVD values dimensions for each of the 40 societies (Ralston et al., 2018). These data were part of the same data collection in which the SIE behaviors data were collected.

5.6. Control variables

We controlled for the following individual-level covariates that might have confounding effects on the dependent variables:

- age (years)
- education level (1 = 4 or fewer years completed; 2 = 5–8 years completed; 3 = 9–12 years completed; 4 = bachelor's degree; 5 = master's degree; 6 = doctorate degree)
- position level (1 = professional/nonsupervisor; 2 = first-level manager; 3 = middle-level manager; 4 = top-level manager)
- company size (1 = less than 100 employees; 2 = 100–1000 employees; 3 = more than 1000 employees)
- industry sector (0 = manufacturing/resource-based and 1 = services).

Explanations for our selection of control variables are provided in Table S2 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix.

5.7. Analyses

We used an intercepts-as-outcomes modeling procedure in hierarchical linear modeling (HLM; Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002) to test the hypotheses. Prior to that, we assessed the intraclass correlation coefficients (ICCs) for the null models (four SIE behaviors dimensions), which indicated sufficient between-group variance to proceed with HLM analyses (8.86% pro-organizational, 10.73% image-management, 11.22% self-serving, 7.70% maliciously intended). Further, the power to detect significant differences is supported in that our multilevel sample of 9,058 respondents in the 40 societies (average 226 per society, range of 67 to 553) well exceeds the 30-30 rule that there be 30 upper-level units with at least 30 lower-level entities (Kreft & de Leeuw, 1998). To reduce Type 1 errors in the conclusions drawn about the effects of the variables in a large sample, we adopted a p value of 0.01 to determine statistical significance, except for the much smaller sample size, single-society analyses ($p < 0.05$), which are reported in the robustness test section. We groupmean-centered individual-level variables and grandmean-centered societal-level variables (Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). To illustrate significant cross-level moderating results, we plotted relationships at high and low (+/− 1 *SD*) levels of variables.

We assessed the variance explained by the addition of variables by the reduction in the deviance values (−2 times the log-likelihood of the maximum-likelihood estimate) for nested HLM models with and without respective variables (see Raudenbush & Bryk, 2002). Better model fits are indicated by smaller significant deviance values between nested models.

6. Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics and correlations for the individual-level and societal-level variables.

[Insert Table 1 About Here]

6.1. Hypothesis 1: Main effects

Hypothesis 1 proposed that female business professionals would view pro-organizational SIE behaviors (H1a) as more acceptable than male business professionals, and that they would view image-management (H1b), self-serving (H1c), and maliciously intended SIE behaviors (H1d) as less acceptable than male business professionals. The HLM analyses identified no significant gender effects nor cross-cultural interaction effects for pro-organizational, image-management, or self-serving SIE behaviors. But female respondents, across societies, viewed maliciously intended SIE behaviors as less acceptable than did male respondents (γ range from −0.045 to −0.058, p value range from <0.0001 to 0.002, H1d supported). Further, we found a cross-cultural interaction effect for maliciously intended SIE behaviors. Therefore, we present the significant findings for the maliciously intended SIE behaviors dimension in Table 2. In sum, there were no significant gender differences found regarding the acceptability of pro-organizational (H1a), image-management (H1b), and self-serving (H1c) SIE behaviors across the 40 societies. Only the most negative influence behavior, maliciously intended (H1d), was supported. The findings for these four hypotheses are pictorially displayed in Figure 2. For the positive and two less

negative SIE behaviors (H1a, H1b, H1c), the lack of differences across genders is consistent with the global-business-subculture perspective. For nonsignificant findings, see Tables S4.2–S4.4 of the Supplementary Materials/Appendix.

[Insert Table 2 and Figure 2 About Here]

6.2. Robustness tests

Further, individual country regression analyses (see Table 3) of the maliciously intended ethics behaviors dimension, with gender as the predictor and age, education, position, company size, and industry as covariates, showed that 30 societies, similar to our findings for pro-organizational, image-management, and self-serving SIE behaviors, had no significant gender differences. Three societies (Brazil, $p = 0.003$; India, $p = 0.002$; and Mexico, $p = 0.041$) had a positive relationship, contrary to our global findings; and seven societies (Canada, Croatia, Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, Slovenia and the U.S.; p values range from < 0.000 to 0.073) had a significant negative relationship, consistent with our HLM findings. If we used the conventional cutoff, p value of 0.05, then only four Eastern European societies (Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, and Slovenia) had a significant negative relationship. Thus, had it not been for these latter societies that drove the overall significant negative relationship for maliciously intended SIE behavior, all four SIE behavior dimensions would have been nonsignificant. To this point, and as pictorially indicated in Figure 2, while the gender difference for maliciously intended SIE behaviors may be significant, the effect size was very small. As measured by Cohen's d, the values ranged from 0.07 to 0.09.

[Insert Table 3 About Here]

6.3. Hypothesis 2: Moderating influence of sociocultural values

We hypothesized that the global-business-subculture, as delineated into two broad categories—individualistic-values-oriented (valuing achievement, power, and innovation) and collectivistic-values-oriented (other-oriented)—would moderate the relationship between gender and subordinate influence behavior (H2a and H2b, respectively). Our cross-level moderating analyses identified that only other-oriented (collectivistic) cultures had a significant effect on the gender–maliciously-intended-SIE-behaviors relationship, and the effect was positive (Model 4: $\gamma = 0.157$, $p = 0.001$; H2b supported) but small (Cohen's $d = 0.253$). As illustrated by the slopes in Figure 3, the gender effect on maliciously intended SIE behaviors was stronger in less other-oriented (low collectivistic values) cultures and weaker in highly other-oriented cultures. This finding reflects a compensatory effect of gender and culture on maliciously intended behavior.

[Insert Figure 3 About Here]

7. A discussion of the answer to the question that we posed

We began our article by asking: Do men and women working in the global business subculture exhibit different behaviors when they attempt to exert influence on their superiors? Across our 40-society sample, we found that for pro-organizational, image-management, and self-serving SIE behaviors, female and male business professional respondents did not differ significantly from each other. We also found that female business professionals viewed maliciously intended

SIE behaviors as less acceptable than did their male counterparts. But as previously discussed, these differences were due to seven societies, the majority of which were East European or Latin American (see Table 3), possessing a negligible effect size. Thus, the global-business-subculture perspective is reflected by our finding of a convergence of influence practices across genders for pro-organizational, image-management, and self-serving SIE behaviors, and for 36 of the 40 societies in our study for maliciously intended SIE behaviors. Further, as stated in our prior discussion, crossvergence theory is a dynamic, evolving process (Ralston, 2008). As in most studies, our data are cross-sectional, not longitudinal. Accordingly, we cannot observe the actual evolutionary process that might be taking place. We speculate, however, that these seven societies where gender differences still exist could be in an evolutionary state; that is, they could still be adjusting to the global-business-subculture effect.

Regardless, as they stand, the findings of this study reveal a straightforward pattern of global gender similarities in the acceptance of SIE behaviors. As portrayed in Figure 2, we found largely consistent individual-level gender similarities in views on ethical behaviors for subordinates across all societies of business professionals. Consequently, in contradiction to the plethora of general-population studies, which consistently have found gender differences, the individual-level gender similarity found in our study of business professionals supports the perspective that there is a global-business-subculture effect that is influencing these individual-level outcomes.

From a historical perspective, the emergence of a global business subculture is a logical phenomenon resulting from the rise of the bourgeoisie (i.e., middle class). The bourgeoisie arose amid the instability of the 18th century French sociopolitical system (Lefebvre, 1957). The Industrial Revolutions of North America and Western Europe greatly contributed to the international growth of this bourgeois class (Hudson, 1992). It eventually evolved into the present-day middle class, which includes managers and professionals, the participants in our study (Clegg et al., 2014; Cousin & Chauvin, 2021; Motadel et al., 2019). Over the decades, the middle class has seen its size ebb and flow (Partington, 2019). But in general, the middle class has experienced growth and is projected to continue to grow substantially worldwide (Parker, 2009). To this point, Amoranto et al. (2010) found pro-economic-growth values to be common among the middle class in a study of 80 countries. Underlying these values are the capitalistic principles of pursuing self-interest and competition (Screpanti, 1999). Although their study does not aim to provide a comprehensive list of values within the global business subculture, it recognizes that these growth values are accompanied by both desirable and undesirable elements.

Another important point is that the global business subculture tends toward being more masculine in nature, valuing agentic traits such as being driven, instrumental, and strategic. This is notable, especially since both agentic and communal characteristics are considered essential for successful leadership (Terpstra-Tong et al., 2022). Investigating the extent to which gender intersects with the global business culture presents an intriguing academic research opportunity.

Further, as our study did not have a control group, we cannot definitively prove that a global business subculture effect exists. Accordingly, given no control group, the logical, contradicting argument might be that all individuals, worldwide, have become or are becoming less gender-difference oriented, as opposed to just members of the global business subculture. But

challenging the likelihood of this possibility, recent general-population studies by Atari et al. (2020), Falk and Hermle (2018), and Gloor et al. (2020) found significant gender differences. Consequently, these three general-population studies serve as quasicontrol groups for our study of the business-subculture sector. More conclusively, recent research provides even greater support for the global business subculture effect. A six-country study (n = 2,878) spanning the Americas, Asia, and Europe (East and West), which included both students (general population) and business professionals (global business subculture), found significant gender differences for students on individualism, while finding no gender differences for business professionals (Ralston et al., in press). Additionally, this study found no gender differences on collectivism for either group. Thus, clearly there is support for the global-business-subculture effect based on individualism, the primary values dimension associated with business success (see Kirkley, 2016; Triandis, 2018). Consequently, our study, in conjunction with the findings of these three other recent general-population studies, provides substantial evidence that a global-business-subculture effect exists.

Finally, only the other-oriented (collectivistic) BVD construct had a significant impact on the findings concerning maliciously intended SIE behaviors. First, the minimal cross-level values findings suggest that the individual-level findings may be robust. Second, this cross-level moderating effect suggests an interesting perspective on the impact of the global business subculture on the effect of maliciously intended SIE behaviors. Our finding, that this effect was weaker in highly other-oriented (collectivistic) cultures but stronger in less other-oriented cultures, supports our assertion that the global business subculture exerts a homogenizing effect. When the cultural environment places high emphasis on concern for others (i.e., when it is highly collectivist), both male and female business professionals exhibit more similar ethicality toward maliciously intended SIE behaviors because of the strong external social control found in socialistic societies. Using the internal–external regulation typology, which we presented in our literature review, we posit that when the external regulatory force is strong, individual differences or preferences could be minimized to the point that internal (self-) regulation could become superfluous. This situation is aligned with what social psychologists describe as the "power of the situation" (Zimbardo, 2016). Male and female professionals simply behave in a manner that follows the strong norms prevalent in the environment. Thus, a gender difference is absent. The situation is different in a less other-oriented environment, where external control is weak and individual differences dominate. In this environment, the self-regulation mechanism would be activated. Thus, the communal, altruistic orientation of female professionals would encourage them to exercise ethical choices. Hence, there would be a significant difference in gender outcomes between more and less other-oriented environments. Consequently, the dynamics of external and internal mechanisms suggest that maliciously intended SIE behaviors and other-oriented BVD values have a complementary relationship in characterizing gender.

7.1. Limitations and suggestions for future research

We identify three limitations of this study. Fortunately, these may also serve as opportunities for future research initiatives.

First, our 40-society sampling was relatively extensive and diverse, and did include Lebanon. But it did not include any of the traditional Arab societies (e.g., Iraq, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates). Previous research has found Arab societies to be unique, likely because of their

patriarchal culture and religion (Alexander & Welzel, 2011; Sidani, 2005). This is particularly relevant regarding the role of women in these societies. Therefore, it is unfortunate that we were not able to include any of these societies in our study. This does, however, present the opportunity for others to explore the subordinate influence behaviors of women in the Arab world in juxtaposition to the findings of our study.

Second, we focused on four society-level moderators (BVD values), which together identified the two most important values constructs, collectivism and individualism. With these, we found a small moderating effect by collectivism, suggesting the robustness of our study findings. Nonetheless, we only focused on these four moderators. Thus, further research is needed to examine the possible influence of other facets, such as socioeconomic indicators of the societal context. In addition, potentially confounding variables need to be identified. For example, two other individual-level variables that might moderate this relationship are perceptions of organizational ethical climate (Zhou et al., 2018) and religiosity (Sulaiman et al., 2021), since both have been found to be related to ethical behavior.

Third, while our findings, especially in contrast with the previous general-population findings, strongly support our contention of a global-business-subculture effect, our hypotheses could not definitively test or prove such an effect. Thus, while we have set the stage, ultimately, we must leave this to future research endeavors, which, as noted, have already begun. Also, it might be interesting to revisit the 15 research topics identified in the Social Role Theory section of the article, where general-population studies identified significant gender differences. But with a new study, the purpose would be to use samples of business-sector respondents to ascertain whether similar differences are or are not found with these samples of business professionals. In sum, we have presented these study limitations in a manner that we believe also provides directions for future research to explore.

On the positive side, this study does overcome several limitations present in existing work. First, respondents in this sample were chosen to represent a wide range of cultural, economic, and geographically diverse societies, in contrast to previous gender cross-cultural studies that focused on two- and three-society samples. Second, this study sampled from populations of working business professionals across diverse industries. In doing so, we avoid the problems of generalizability within the business world and of trying to make valid extrapolations from student populations to practicing business professionals, which has been shown to be problematic (Bello et al., 2009). Finally, controlling for individual and organizational differences while simultaneously studying sociocultural relationships provides more reliable findings regarding societal-level phenomena.

7.2. The managerial relevance of our findings

Our primary finding is that there were no differences in the ethical and behavioral responses found between women and men in over 95% of the ethicality–society combined situations across the 40 societies. It is widely recognized, however, that gender gaps in relation to career success and outcomes are still prevalent (World Economic Forum, 2020). This could imply that it is not women's dissimilarities in subordinate influence strategies that hinder their advancement but some other factor or factors prolonging gender inequity in the workplace (Toh & Leonardelli, 2012; Walby, 2015).

This, therefore, requires organizations, their human resource managers—often tasked with an organization's gender equity agenda—and their leaders to explore and act upon the potential of micro (e.g., unconscious bias against professional women) and meso (e.g., male-dominating organizational culture) barriers that might be responsible for the persistence of gender inequity in the workplace (Diehl & Dzubinski, 2016; Williamson et al., 2020). Organizations that aim to build a gender-inclusive workplace need to ensure sound policy formulation, training (Mills et al., 2012), and strategies for removing gender barriers (El Arnaout et al., 2019), while realizing that securing a fair and nondiscriminatory work environment for women (Kossek & Zonia, 1993; Nishii, 2013) is only the first step. To create a constructive, long-term impact, not only on gender equity but also on firm outcomes, organizations must consider how internal dynamics and processes are affected by external (macro) circumstances.

Looking at the internal dynamics from a micro perspective, individuals engage in social comparisons to evaluate themselves, to reduce uncertainties, to improve themselves, and to preserve or enhance their own positions (Brown et al., 2007; Wood, 1989). This implies that social comparison and competition processes need not necessarily lead to detrimental effects, if managed well inside the organization. In support of this, organizations can design their organizational structures in such a way that enhances the benefits of social comparison and competition processes, which will support self-improvement of their employees and minimize social comparison costs (Nickerson & Zenger, 2008; Obloj & Zenger, 2017). Hierarchical levels can be designed in such a way that social comparisons induce favorable effects. Organizations can create environments that facilitate or reveal advantages of upward comparison, so that female employees can identify with other successful colleagues (male and female) to see that they can also achieve rewards and success. Global talent pools, mentorships, and international networking can exemplify upward mobility for female employees on a global scale. This can also be connected to female employee retention strategies, promotions, and career advancement. Minding and managing the contextual factors, ensuring organizational/management accountability via clearly designed gender-related policies and protocols (Eden & Wagstaff, 2021), facilitating career opportunities and providing appropriate support, and averting negative consequences for female colleagues could help secure the favorable effects of social comparison.

7.3. Conclusion: Nothing can be something

The findings of our study extend the current knowledge on gender differences in business organizations. Interestingly, it presents a contrast to most of the gender literature that has preceded it, which has been primarily single- or few-country investigations of general-population samples. Our 40-society study is directed specifically to the interests of the business sector. Further, to the best of our knowledge, this study is the first to present a large, multisociety analysis of gender differences/similarities in influence behavior ethics in the global workplace.

Not long ago, failure to find an abundance of significant differences was the kiss of death for a study, as recently discussed by Aguinis et al. (2017) and Meyer et al. (2017). But the discovery of nonsignificance has itself been shown to be an important finding (Hambrick, 2007; Pfeffer, 2007). This is particularly true in a study on gender differences, where the norm has been to find a plethora of differences. This makes failure to find said plethora, in a specific sector, a significant finding. Accordingly, our finding of virtually no gender differences in the global

business subculture provides support for our initial proposition. It is highly likely that a global-business-subculture effect is driving our consistent gender findings across all of these societies. And it is worth noting that the existence of a global-business-subculture effect has received growing support in the literature (e.g., Bush et al., 2017; Taras et al., 2016). Consequently, we should be actively investigating the global business subculture as a values/behaviors cluster. Its implications, as exemplified by this study, are crucial to understanding the global workforce environment. This, however, is work for the future. While no one empirical study can constitute definitive proof, the key—and encouraging—takeaway from our study is that across 40 societies worldwide, the ethical values in the business sectors of these societies exhibited no discrimination across the genders.

[Insert Supplementary Materials/Appendix Here]

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics and correlations

	Individual level [a]	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	SIE pro-organizational	6.25	0.61									
2.	SIE image-management	4.78	1.11	−0.13								
3.	SIE self-serving	2.52	1.13	−0.63	−0.03							
4.	SIE maliciously intended	1.71	0.62	−0.33	−0.44	0.04						
5.	Gender	0.39	0.49	−0.02	−0.01	0.02	−0.03					
6.	Age	36.9	10.64	0.08	−0.11	−0.02	0.03	−0.16				
7.	Education	4.08	0.90	−0.01	0.04	0.00	−0.04	−0.13	0.12			
8.	Position level	2.35	1.10	0.07	−0.04	−0.04	0.01	−0.23	0.38	0.25		
9.	Company size	2.09	0.82	0.03	0.06	0.00	−0.07	−0.08	0.02	0.08	−0.01	
10.	Industry: Services	0.67	0.47	−0.02	0.01	0.01	−0.01	0.11	−0.01	0.08	−0.08	−0.16

	Societal level [b]	Mean	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1.	SIE pro-organizational	6.24	0.19							
2.	SIE image-management	4.78	0.38	0.16						
3.	SIE self-serving	2.53	0.39	−0.83	−0.14					
4.	SIE maliciously intended	1.71	0.18	−0.49	−0.70	0.24				
5.	BVD achievement	5.00	0.16	0.32	−0.31	−0.30	0.02			
6.	BVD power	3.16	0.33	−0.40	0.01	0.24	0.25	−0.42		
7.	BVD innovation	4.24	0.23	0.08	−0.34	−0.06	0.14	0.47	−0.35	
8.	BVD other-oriented	3.66	0.30	0.09	−0.05	−0.10	0.14	−0.18	0.07	−0.50

[a] Individual level N = 9,058. Categorical variables coded as follows:

- Gender: 1 = female, 0 = male
- Position level: 1 = professional/nonsupervisor, 2 = first-level manager, 3 = middle-level manager, 4 = top-level manager
- Education level: 1 = 4 or fewer years completed, 2 = 5–8 years completed, 3 = 9–12 years completed, 4 = bachelor's degree, 5 = master's degree, 6 = doctorate degree
- Company size: 1 = under 100 employees, 2 = 100–1000 employees, 3 = over 1000 employees
- Industry: 0 = manufacturing, 1 = services
- Correlations: $r \geq |0.03|$ significant at $p < 0.01$ level

[b] Societal level N = 40. Correlations $r \geq |0.41|$ significant at $p < 0.01$ level.

Table 2. HLM analyses: Maliciously intended SIE behaviors, gender, and societal cultural values

	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5
Level 1 variables					
Intercept	1.837***	1.839***	1.835***	1.832***	1.842***
Gender	-0.055***	-0.058***	-0.055***	-0.045**	-0.056***
Age	0.004***	0.004***	0.004***	0.004***	0.004***
Education	-0.019	-0.020	-0.020	-0.020	-0.020
Position	-0.017	-0.017	-0.017	-0.018	-0.017
Company size	-0.050***	-0.050***	-0.050***	-0.050***	-0.050***
Industry	0.030	0.030	0.031	0.031	0.030
Level 2 variables					
BVD achievement		-0.188			
BVD power			0.215		
BVD other-oriented				-0.114	
BVD innovation					-0.077
Cross-level moderators					
Achievement*gender		0.148			
Power*gender			-0.035		
Other-oriented*gender				0.157**	
Innovation*gender					0.006
Deviance (−2*log likelihood)	15375.662	15372.824	15371.142	15363.072	15375.144
Deviance difference from M1 (Δdf=2)		2.8	4.5	12.6**	0.5

***p < .01; ***p < .00*

Note: N = 40 at the societal level (level 2), but *N* = 9,058 at the individual level (level 1).

Table 3. Significant results of regression analyses of gender differences in maliciously intended behaviors by society

Country	*n*	β of gender	*SE*	*p*	95% CI	
					lower	upper
Brazil	400	0.160	0.054	0.003	0.054	0.266
Canada	254	−0.094	0.051	0.066	−0.193	0.006
Croatia	266	−0.189	0.105	0.073	−0.395	−0.018
Czech Republic	287	−0.221	0.056	0.000	−0.332	−0.110
Estonia	247	−0.212	0.088	0.017	−0.386	−0.039
India	255	0.380	0.122	0.002	0.139	0.621
Lithuania	309	−0.154	0.060	0.010	−0.271	−0.037
Mexico	511	0.112	0.055	0.041	0.005	0.220
Slovenia	300	−0.275	0.088	0.002	−0.447	−0.102
United States	211	−0.114	0.063	0.071	−0.238	0.010

Notes:
The *p* values for the remaining other 33 societies range from 0.101 (Sri Lanka) to 0.978 (South Africa). Shaded societies had a *p* value slightly larger than 0.05. CI = confidence interval.

Figure 1. Four dimensions of the SIE measure

Pro-organizational SIE behaviors	These are the standard, accepted, and most welcomed employee behaviors by organizations. Such behaviors are perceived as productive and include enacting roles to get the job done, as well as going beyond the basic, organizationally required behaviors. These behaviors were found to be the most ethical (Karam et al., 2013).
Image-management SIE behaviors	These are nonconfrontational behaviors, which have as their goal getting others to like or admire the individual. These behaviors are considered to be assertive as opposed to being defensive (Tedeschi, 1990). They can include volunteering for undesirable tasks and attempting to act in a manner that individuals believe will result in others admiring them and making their superior dependent upon them. These behaviors are considered the second most ethical.
Self-serving SIE behaviors	These are actions motivated by individual self-interest, rather than by the interests of others or of the organization. These behaviors tend to be aggressive. They can include taking credit for the work of others and spreading rumors about someone or something that stands in the way of advancement (Thomason et al., 2018). These behaviors are considered the third most ethical.
Maliciously intended SIE behaviors	These are extremely self-interested and harmful actions that often have a negative impact on others as well as on the organization, and they are considered illegal in many industrialized societies. These behaviors can include industrial espionage and offering inappropriate favors and gifts, and are considered the most unethical of the four categories of subordinate influence behaviors (Karam et al., 2013).

Figure 2. Average SIE behavior scores of men and women for the 40 societies

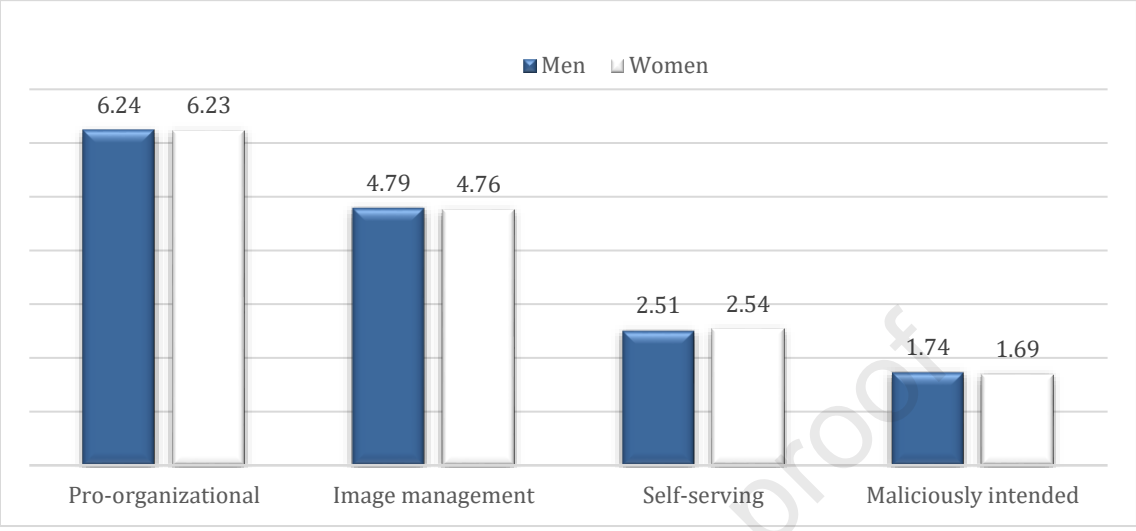
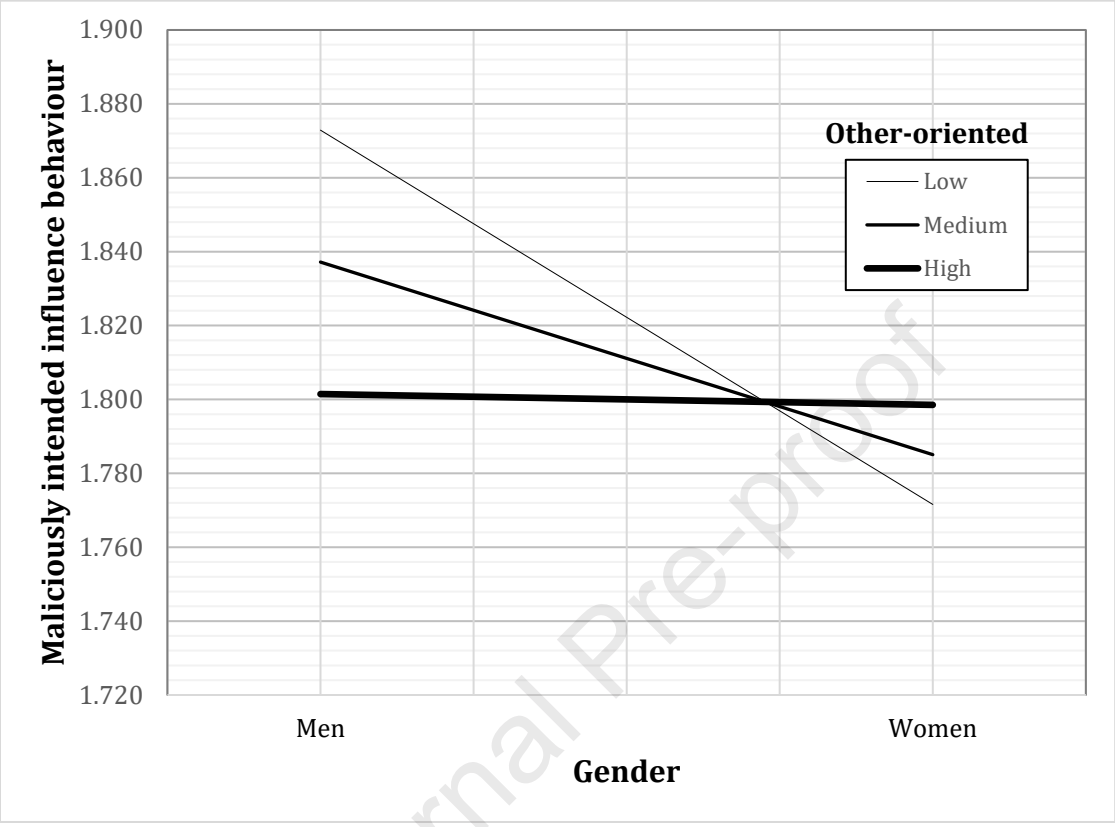


Figure 3. Moderation of gender effect on maliciously-intended behavior by other-oriented culture



Supplementary Materials/Appendix

Table S1. Society sample demographic characteristics

		Gender	Age	Education	Position	Company size	Industry
	N	(% female)	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	(% services)
Australia	187	29	30.3	3.9	2.1	2.0	0.8
Austria	100	64	32.7	3.7	1.3	2.3	0.7
Brazil	400	33	41.2	4.2	2.3	2.6	0.8
Bulgaria	87	40	36.0	3.9	2.1	1.5	0.8
Canada	254	40	39.7	4.3	2.1	2.1	0.9
China	363	31	33.1	3.7	2.1	2.2	0.6
Colombia	157	43	40.1	3.4	3.1	2.1	0.7
Costa Rica	67	40	32.4	3.7	2.1	1.9	0.8
Croatia	266	54	38.4	3.8	2.1	1.8	0.8
Czech Rep	287	55	38.8	3.9	1.8	1.7	0.5
Estonia	247	72	31.7	2.9	1.6	1.9	0.5
Finland	131	27	47.9	4.5	3.3	1.8	0.6
France	194	39	37.0	4.9	3.3	2.2	0.4
Germany	159	36	38.5	3.9	2.0	1.9	0.7
Hong Kong	93	67	33.7	3.6	1.8	1.8	0.8
Hungary	126	41	38.5	4.6	2.3	1.6	0.7
India	255	27	39.2	4.5	2.8	2.2	0.6
Israel	129	34	33.0	4.8	2.0	2.4	0.8
Italy	285	23	43.2	4.7	2.4	2.3	0.7
Lebanon	89	44	33.7	4.1	2.9	1.9	0.8
Lithuania	309	44	43.6	4.3	2.9	1.3	0.7
Malaysia	328	39	34.6	3.8	2.1	3.0	0.0
Mexico	511	38	32.8	3.9	2.7	2.2	0.5
Netherlands	122	24	37.4	3.3	2.7	2.2	0.5
New Zealand	122	46	43.5	4.0	2.6	1.8	0.9
Pakistan	338	13	32.5	4.5	2.5	2.3	0.6
Peru	328	31	34.1	4.3	2.4	2.1	0.7
Portugal	553	46	34.4	4.1	2.2	2.0	0.8
Russia	110	30	31.7	5.1	3.0	2.2	0.4
Slovenia	300	71	28.5	3.2	1.3	1.5	0.7
Spain	77	16	40.1	3.4	2.6	1.3	0.7
South Africa	188	37	40.0	4.0	2.3	2.3	0.8
South Korea	273	20	39.0	4.2	1.9	2.4	0.7
Sri Lanka	120	23	31.4	4.3	2.6	2.2	0.8
Switzerland	358	23	40.9	4.1	2.8	1.9	0.7
Taiwan	271	30	42.5	4.0	2.3	2.3	0.7

		Gender	Age	Education	Position	Company size	Industry
	N	(% female)	Mean	Mean	Mean	Mean	(% services)
Thailand	279	57	37.2	4.3	2.3	2.0	0.8
Turkey	124	23	41.0	4.1	3.2	2.0	0.4
U.K.	260	48	41.6	4.1	3.0	2.3	0.8
U.S.	211	34	32.6	4.8	1.8	2.5	0.8
Total	9,058	39	36.9	4.0	2.3	2.1	0.7

Table S2. Comparison of measurement models

Alternative models	ΔCFI compared to the four-factor model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	TLI	RMSEA
4-factor models (all four SIE dimensions as separate factors)	NA	4352.733	203	0.935	0.926	0.048
2-factor model [A] (PO+IM, SS+MI)	−0.160	14626.07	208	0.775	0.750	0.087
2-factor model [B] (PO, IM+ SS+MI)	−0.219	18433.99	208	0.716	0.684	0.098

Notes: We used a maximum-likelihood-missing-values (MLMV) estimation method and counterweighted all individual society samples to be of equal size prior to assessing the fit of the possible measurement models. Per Cheung and Rensvold's (2002) guidelines for fit comparison, a ΔCFI $\leq$ 0.01 indicates a nonsignificant difference, a ΔCFI between 0.01 and 0.02 indicates a possible significant difference, and ΔCFI > 0.02 indicates a significant difference. PO = pro-organizational SIE; IM = image-management SIE; SS = self-serving SIE, and MI = maliciously intended SIE. CFI = comparative fit index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis index; RMSEA = root-mean-square error of approximation.

Table S3. SIE: Adjusted means, standard deviations, and composite reliabilities (ρ)

	Pro-organizational					Image management					Self-serving					Maliciously intended				
	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ
Australia	5.98	6.06	6.00	0.80	0.80	5.05	4.50	5.03	1.01	0.70	2.94	2.62	2.84	1.30	0.88	1.74	1.58	1.69	0.97	0.86
Austria	6.11	6.43	6.31	0.49	0.76	4.70	4.71	4.71	1.03	0.74	2.82	2.34	2.51	1.05	0.84	1.72	1.54	1.60	0.56	0.82
Brazil	6.41	6.38	6.40	0.55	0.67	4.43	4.00	4.24	1.15	0.75	2.33	2.54	2.42	0.99	0.86	1.69	1.82	1.75	0.52	0.82
Bulgaria	5.61	5.80	5.69	0.60	*0.39*	4.04	4.00	4.02	1.28	0.75	3.45	3.06	3.29	1.47	0.85	2.12	2.13	2.12	0.56	0.62
Canada	6.40	6.42	6.42	0.46	0.77	5.15	4.95	5.07	0.93	0.75	2.24	2.27	2.25	1.04	0.90	1.58	1.50	1.55	0.39	0.76
China	6.22	6.22	6.22	0.49	0.50	5.34	5.44	5.37	0.94	0.72	2.52	2.40	2.48	0.92	0.83	1.53	1.48	1.51	0.51	0.73
Colombia	6.30	6.46	6.37	0.57	0.69	4.58	4.29	4.45	1.15	0.78	2.21	1.99	2.11	0.93	0.85	1.86	1.91	1.89	0.58	0.87
Costa Rica	6.18	6.29	6.23	0.54	0.75	4.52	4.41	4.48	1.00	0.67	2.17	2.24	2.20	1.01	0.87	1.95	1.97	1.96	0.50	0.73
Croatia	5.91	5.87	5.89	0.81	0.65	4.35	4.41	4.39	1.08	0.69	3.21	3.36	3.29	1.46	0.87	2.02	1.83	1.92	0.85	0.81
Czech Rep	6.30	6.33	6.32	0.61	0.65	4.61	4.69	4.65	1.04	0.71	2.57	2.58	2.58	1.22	0.90	1.82	1.57	1.68	0.47	0.71
Estonia	6.22	6.30	6.28	0.60	0.76	4.44	4.42	4.42	1.13	0.73	2.67	2.62	2.64	0.99	0.80	1.93	1.73	1.79	0.61	0.81
Finland	6.39	6.46	6.41	0.35	0.77	4.19	4.21	4.20	0.94	0.77	2.17	2.21	2.18	0.59	0.74	1.73	1.70	1.72	0.33	0.62
France	6.17	6.18	6.18	0.77	0.83	4.98	5.06	5.01	0.99	0.75	2.37	2.39	2.38	1.31	0.80	1.85	1.78	1.81	0.91	0.74
Germany	6.17	6.08	6.13	0.75	0.81	5.01	5.05	5.03	1.14	0.79	2.64	2.74	2.68	1.23	0.84	1.68	1.73	1.70	0.79	0.81
Hong Kong	6.33	6.22	6.26	0.59	0.75	5.34	5.13	5.20	1.07	0.75	2.27	2.86	2.67	1.09	0.86	1.48	1.40	1.43	0.63	0.84
Hungary	6.24	6.05	6.16	0.60	0.71	5.18	5.03	5.12	1.01	0.71	2.79	3.27	2.99	1.21	0.86	1.50	1.52	1.51	0.49	0.71
India	6.25	5.98	6.18	0.76	0.78	4.25	4.11	4.21	1.26	0.82	2.67	3.02	2.77	1.31	0.93	1.71	2.15	1.83	0.84	0.88
Israel	6.21	6.30	6.24	0.48	0.77	5.23	5.26	5.24	0.86	0.65	2.29	2.07	2.20	1.07	0.86	1.47	1.54	1.49	0.44	0.82
Italy	6.35	6.35	6.35	0.55	0.70	5.00	4.85	4.96	0.95	0.77	2.89	3.00	2.91	1.22	0.88	1.56	1.46	1.54	0.44	0.65
Lebanon	6.39	6.19	6.30	0.59	0.71	4.54	4.47	4.51	1.10	0.75	2.61	2.72	2.65	1.07	0.88	1.75	1.71	1.73	0.63	0.74
Lithuania	6.23	6.11	6.18	0.49	*0.54*	4.46	4.44	4.45	0.96	0.63	2.35	2.64	2.48	1.08	0.83	1.83	1.74	1.79	0.47	0.68
Malaysia	6.14	6.14	6.14	0.56	0.73	4.99	5.01	5.00	0.99	0.68	2.64	2.91	2.74	1.04	0.80	1.76	1.64	1.72	0.71	0.87
Mexico	6.41	6.36	6.39	0.65	0.75	4.54	4.39	4.48	1.10	0.70	2.01	2.20	2.08	0.80	0.83	1.90	2.02	1.95	0.58	0.76
Netherlands	6.41	6.40	6.41	0.27	0.59	5.06	5.11	5.07	0.83	0.68	1.81	1.82	1.81	0.43	0.79	1.63	1.61	1.62	0.34	0.64

	Pro-organizational					Image management					Self-serving					Maliciously intended				
	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ	Mean (M)	Mean (F)	Mean (All)	*SD* (All)	ρ
New Zealand	6.57	6.50	6.54	0.44	0.77	5.01	5.07	5.04	1.00	0.80	2.28	2.37	2.32	1.00	0.86	1.59	1.51	1.55	0.33	0.74
Pakistan	5.70	5.70	5.70	0.84	0.68	4.47	4.56	4.48	1.30	0.68	3.47	3.18	3.43	1.51	0.85	2.13	2.15	2.31	1.01	0.79
Peru	6.33	6.34	6.34	0.50	0.65	4.47	4.38	4.45	1.00	0.71	2.16	2.06	2.12	0.85	0.84	1.81	1.71	1.78	0.51	0.77
Portugal	6.37	6.27	6.33	0.49	0.68	4.76	4.90	4.82	1.03	0.78	2.32	2.44	2.37	1.04	0.89	1.59	1.52	1.56	0.42	0.70
Russia	5.97	6.15	6.03	0.77	0.72	4.71	5.09	4.83	1.18	0.55	3.22	2.78	3.09	0.93	0.69	1.98	1.74	1.90	0.74	0.79
Slovenia	6.08	6.12	6.11	0.72	*0.56*	4.69	4.70	4.70	1.09	0.70	2.87	2.95	2.92	1.18	0.80	1.92	1.69	1.76	0.68	0.81
So. Africa	6.12	6.01	6.08	0.87	0.78	4.82	4.75	4.80	1.09	0.74	3.02	3.26	3.11	1.43	0.90	1.74	1.70	1.72	0.83	0.90
So. Korea	6.37	6.21	6.34	0.47	0.77	5.13	5.30	5.16	0.99	0.71	1.99	2.03	2.00	0.65	0.94	1.85	1.84	1.85	0.49	0.78
Spain	6.38	6.37	6.38	0.53	0.80	4.37	4.83	4.44	1.13	0.75	2.19	2.51	2.24	0.79	0.82	1.98	1.72	1.94	.64	0.77
Sri Lanka	6.34	6.18	6.30	0.49	0.76	4.50	4.58	4.52	1.15	0.74	2.37	2.70	2.44	1.12	0.85	1.75	1.58	1.71	0.60	0.82
Switzerland	6.41	6.41	6.41	0.37	0.61	4.82	4.77	4.81	1.03	0.76	2.05	1.86	2.00	0.68	0.78	1.63	1.67	1.64	0.36	0.66
Taiwan	6.21	6.20	6.21	0.43	0.65	5.64	5.51	5.60	1.06	0.71	2.42	2.56	2.46	0.92	0.82	1.59	1.72	1.63	0.58	0.73
Thailand	6.45	6.39	6.41	0.38	*0.58*	5.16	5.27	5.23	0.85	0.65	2.28	2.28	2.28	0.76	0.73	1.58	1.52	1.55	0.43	0.63
Turkey	6.56	6.51	6.55	0.39	*0.51*	4.56	4.33	4.51	1.15	0.69	2.03	1.91	2.00	0.65	0.73	1.74	1.73	1.74	0.40	0.70
UK	6.36	6.30	6.33	0.59	0.65	5.11	5.20	5.16	0.90	0.79	2.63	2.62	2.63	1.16	0.88	1.42	1.31	1.37	0.43	0.82
US	6.22	6.30	6.24	0.51	0.69	5.26	5.24	5.25	0.90	0.70	2.52	2.36	2.46	1.10	0.88	1.45	1.34	1.42	0.43	0.76
All countries	6.24	6.23	6.25	0.61	0.74	4.79	4.76	4.78	1.11	0.72	2.51	2.54	2.52	1.13	0.86	1.74	1.69	1.71	0.62	0.79

Table S4.1. HLM analyses: Maliciously intended SIE behavior, gender, and societal cultural values

Model S1.1

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	1.781	0.053	0.000	1.678	1.885
Gender	−0.055	0.014	0.000	−0.084	−0.027
Age	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.006
Education	−0.019	0.008	0.016	−0.035	−0.004
Position	−0.017	0.007	0.017	−0.031	−0.003
Company size	−0.050	0.009	0.000	−0.067	−0.032
Industry	0.030	0.015	0.045	0.001	0.060
Deviance (−2*log likelihood)	15375.662				

Model S1.2

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	1.781	0.053	0.000	1.678	1.885
Gender	−0.058	0.014	0.000	−0.086	−0.029
Age	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.006
Education	−0.020	0.008	0.015	−0.035	−0.004
Position	−0.017	0.007	0.016	−0.032	−0.003
Company size	−0.050	0.009	0.000	−0.067	−0.033
Industry	0.030	0.015	0.046	0.001	0.060
Society-level variable					
Achievement values	−0.188	0.211	0.373	−0.602	0.226

Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Achievement values	0.148	0.088	0.095	−0.025	0.321
Deviance (−2*log likelihood)	15372.824				
Deviance difference from Model 1.1 (Δdf = 2)	2.80 (p = 0.247)				

Model S1.3

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	1.780	0.052	0.000	1.678	1.883
Gender	−0.055	0.014	0.000	−0.083	−0.027
Age	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.006
Education	−0.020	0.008	0.013	−0.036	−0.004
Position	−0.017	0.007	0.017	−0.031	−0.003
Company size	−0.050	0.009	0.000	−0.067	−0.033
Industry	0.031	0.015	0.042	0.001	0.061
Society-level variable					
Power values	0.215	0.102	0.035	0.015	0.416
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Power values	−0.035	0.043	0.417	−0.120	0.050
Deviance (−2*log likelihood)	15371.142				
Deviance difference from Model 1 (Δdf = 2)	4.48 (p = 0.107)				

Model S1.4

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	1.787	0.053	0.000	1.683	1.891
Gender	−0.045	0.015	0.002	−0.074	−0.016
Age	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.006
Education	−0.020	0.008	0.014	−0.036	−0.004
Position	−0.018	0.007	0.011	−0.033	−0.004
Company size	−0.050	0.009	0.000	−0.067	−0.032

Industry	0.031	0.015	0.043	0.001	0.061
Society-level variable					
Other-oriented values	−0.114	0.117	0.330	−0.343	0.115
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Other-oriented values	0.157	0.047	0.001	0.065	0.250
Deviance (−2*log likelihood)	15363.072				
Deviance difference from Model 1.1 (Δdf = 2)	12.55 (p = 0.002)				

Model S1.5

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	1.779	0.053	0.000	1.675	1.883
Gender	−0.056	0.015	0.000	−0.084	−0.027
Age	0.004	0.001	0.000	0.003	0.006
Education	−0.020	0.008	0.016	−0.035	−0.004
Position	−0.017	0.007	0.016	−0.032	−0.003
Company size	−0.050	0.009	0.000	−0.067	−0.032
Industry	0.030	0.015	0.046	0.001	0.060
Society-level variable					
Innovation values	0.077	0.153	0.614	−0.223	0.378
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Innovation values	0.006	0.061	0.922	−0.114	0.126
Deviance (−2*log likelihood)	15375.144				
Deviance difference from Model 1.1 (Δdf = 2)	0.48 (p = 0.787)				

Exact *p* values, standard errors, and confidence intervals (*N* = 9,058). CI = confidence interval.

Table S4.2. HLM analyses: Organizational beneficial SIE behavior, gender, and societal cultural values

Model S2.1

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	6.167	0.056	0.000	6.056	6.277
Gender	0.009	0.014	0.508	-0.018	0.037
Age	0.002	0.001	0.026	0.000	0.003
Education	-0.015	0.008	0.054	-0.031	0.000
Position	0.026	0.007	0.000	0.012	0.040
Company size	0.012	0.008	0.161	-0.005	0.029
Industry	-0.027	0.015	0.067	-0.056	0.002

Model S2.2

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	6.165	0.056	0.000	6.056	6.274
Gender	0.009	0.014	0.542	−0.019	0.036
Age	0.002	0.001	0.026	0.000	0.003
Education	−0.015	0.008	0.052	−0.031	0.000
Position	0.026	0.007	0.000	0.012	0.039
Company size	0.012	0.008	0.152	−0.004	0.029
Industry	−0.027	0.015	0.064	−0.056	0.002
Society-level variable					
Achievement values	0.331	0.203	0.103	−0.067	0.730
Cross-level moderator					

Gender*Achievement values	0.020	0.086	0.818	−0.148	0.188

Model S2.3

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	6.169	0.055	0.000	6.061	6.277
Gender	0.009	0.014	0.528	−0.019	0.036
Age	0.002	0.001	0.035	0.000	0.003
Education	−0.015	0.008	0.063	−0.030	0.001
Position	0.026	0.007	0.000	0.012	0.040
Company size	0.012	0.008	0.144	−0.004	0.029
Industry	−0.028	0.015	0.060	−0.057	0.001
Society-level variable					
Power values	−0.309	0.099	0.002	−0.503	−0.115
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Power values	0.061	0.042	0.150	−0.022	0.143

Model S2.4

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	6.174	0.057	0.000	6.063	6.285
Gender	0.006	0.014	0.689	−0.022	0.034
Age	0.002	0.001	0.028	0.000	0.003
Education	−0.015	0.008	0.055	−0.030	0.000
Position	0.026	0.007	0.000	0.012	0.040
Company size	0.012	0.008	0.173	−0.005	0.028

Industry	−0.027	0.015	0.066	−0.056	0.002
Society-level variable					
Other-oriented values	0.129	0.116	0.265	−0.098	0.357
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Other-oriented values	−0.057	0.046	0.215	−0.146	0.033

Model S2.5

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	6.167	0.057	0.000	6.056	6.277
Gender	0.007	0.014	0.596	−0.020	0.035
Age	0.002	0.001	0.025	0.000	0.003
Education	−0.015	0.008	0.053	−0.031	0.000
Position	0.026	0.007	0.000	0.012	0.040
Company size	0.012	0.008	0.163	−0.005	0.028
Industry	−0.027	0.015	0.064	−0.056	0.002
Society-level variable					
Innovation values	−0.018	0.153	0.907	−0.318	0.282
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Innovation values	0.048	0.060	0.426	−0.069	0.164

Exact *p* values, standard errors, and confidence intervals (*N* = 9,058). CI = confidence interval.

Table S4.3. HLM analyses: Image SIE behavior, gender, and societal cultural values

Model S3.1

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	5.102	0.105	0.000	4.897	5.307
Gender	−0.049	0.025	0.051	−0.098	0.000
Age	−0.017	0.001	0.000	−0.019	−0.014
Education	0.047	0.014	0.001	0.019	0.074
Position	0.026	0.013	0.036	0.002	0.051
Company size	0.055	0.015	0.000	0.025	0.084
Industry	−0.015	0.026	0.577	−0.066	0.037

Model S3.2

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	5.100	0.103	0.000	4.898	5.302
Gender	−0.044	0.025	0.082	−0.093	0.005
Age	−0.017	0.001	0.000	−0.019	−0.014
Education	0.047	0.014	0.001	0.020	0.075
Position	0.026	0.013	0.035	0.002	0.051
Company size	0.055	0.015	0.000	0.025	0.084
Industry	−0.014	0.026	0.598	−0.066	0.038
Society-level variable					
Achievement values	−0.262	0.402	0.515	−1.049	0.526

Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Achievement values	−0.285	0.153	0.063	−0.585	0.016

Model S3.3

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	5.106	0.104	0.000	4.901	5.311
Gender	−0.049	0.025	0.052	−0.097	0.000
Age	−0.017	0.001	0.000	−0.019	−0.014
Education	0.047	0.014	0.001	0.019	0.074
Position	0.025	0.013	0.045	0.001	0.050
Company size	0.055	0.015	0.000	0.026	0.085
Industry	−0.015	0.026	0.581	−0.066	0.037
Society-level variable					
Power values	−0.272	0.207	0.188	−0.677	0.133
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Power values	0.135	0.075	0.073	−0.013	0.282

Model S3.4

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	5.104	0.105	0.000	4.898	5.311
Gender	−0.056	0.026	0.027	−0.106	−0.006
Age	−0.017	0.001	0.000	−0.019	−0.014
Education	0.047	0.014	0.001	0.019	0.075

Position	0.027	0.013	0.031	0.002	0.052
Company size	0.055	0.015	0.000	0.025	0.084
Industry	−0.015	0.026	0.571	−0.067	0.037
Society-level variable					
Other-oriented values	0.056	0.229	0.806	−0.392	0.505
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Other-oriented values	−0.116	0.082	0.157	−0.276	0.045

Model S3.5

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	5.114	0.103	0.000	4.912	5.317
Gender	−0.46	0.025	0.071	−0.095	0.004
Age	−0.016	0.001	0.000	−0.019	−0.014
Education	0.047	0.014	0.001	0.020	0.075
Position	0.026	0.013	0.036	0.002	0.051
Company size	0.055	0.015	0.000	0.025	0.084
Industry	−0.014	0.026	0.599	−0.066	0.038
Society-level variable					
Innovation values	−0.371	0.291	0.201	−0.941	0.198
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Innovation values	−0.086	0.107	0.422	−0.294	0.123

Exact *p* values, standard errors, and confidence intervals (*N* = 9,058). CI = confidence interval.

Table S4.4. HLM analyses: Self-serving SIE behavior, gender, and societal cultural values

Model S4.1

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	2.299	0.108	0.000	2.087	2.512
Gender	0.040	0.026	0.116	−0.010	0.091
Age	0.004	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.006
Education	−0.006	0.014	0.701	−0.034	0.023
Position	−0.014	0.013	0.274	−0.039	0.011
Company size	0.036	0.016	0.020	0.006	0.067
Industry	0.029	0.027	0.294	−0.025	0.082

Model S4.2

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	2.304	0.107	0.000	2.095	2.514
Gender	0.039	0.026	0.127	−0.011	0.090
Age	0.004	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.006
Education	−0.006	0.014	0.703	−0.034	0.023
Position	−0.014	0.013	0.279	−0.039	0.011
Company size	0.036	0.016	0.022	0.005	0.066
Industry	0.029	0.027	0.288	−0.024	0.082
Society-level variable					
Achievement values	−0.860	0.421	0.041	−1.686	−0.035
Cross-level moderator					

Gender*Achievement values	0.108	0.158	0.492	−0.201	0.418

Model S4.3

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	2.291	0.107	0.000	2.081	2.501
Gender	0.041	0.026	0.115	−0.010	0.091
Age	0.004	0.001	0.004	0.001	0.006
Education	−0.006	0.014	0.683	−0.034	0.022
Position	−0.013	0.013	0.330	−0.038	0.013
Company size	0.035	0.016	0.027	0.004	0.065
Industry	0.029	0.027	0.291	−0.025	0.082
Society-level variable					
Power values	0.648	0.211	0.002	0.235	1.061
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Power values	−0.244	0.077	0.002	−0.395	−0.092

Model S4.4

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	2.282	0.109	0.000	2.067	2.496
Gender	0.048	0.026	0.065	−0.003	1.000
Age	0.004	0.001	0.005	0.001	0.006
Education	−0.006	0.014	0.693	−0.034	0.023
Position	−0.015	0.013	0.254	−0.040	0.011
Company size	0.037	0.016	0.018	0.006	0.068

Industry	0.029	0.027	0.290	−0.025	0.082
Society-level variable					
Other-oriented values	−0.321	0.240	0.180	−0.791	0.148
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Other-oriented values	0.130	0.084	0.122	−0.035	0.295

Model S4.5

				95% CI	
	Coef.	*SE*	*p*	Lower	Upper
Individual-level variables					
Intercept	2.299	0.109	0.000	2.086	2.513
Gender	0.044	0.026	0.090	−0.007	0.095
Age	0.004	0.001	0.006	0.001	0.006
Education	−0.006	0.014	0.702	−0.034	0.023
Position	−0.014	0.013	0.268	−0.040	0.011
Company size	0.036	0.016	0.020	0.006	0.067
Industry	0.029	0.027	0.284	−0.024	0.082
Society-level variable					
Innovation values	0.043	0.316	0.892	−0.576	0.662
Cross-level moderator					
Gender*Innovation values	−0.101	0.110	0.359	−0.316	0.114

Exact *p* values, standard errors, and confidence intervals (*N* = 9,058). CI = confidence interval.

Appendix S1

The subordinate influence ethics (SIE) behaviors items and dimensions in questionnaire format

INSTRUCTIONS: We are interested in your views. There are no "correct" answers. Below is a list of 24 strategies that individuals might use to try to get ahead at work. After reading each strategy, please indicate how ethically acceptable you think your coworkers would consider each strategy as a means of influencing superiors.

In the space before each item, write the number (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8) that indicates how ethically acceptable you believe your coworkers would consider each strategy. Try to distinguish as much as possible between the items by using all the numbers, if possible. You will, of course, need to use numbers more than once.

Extremely Unacceptable		Somewhat Unacceptable		Somewhat Acceptable			Extremely Acceptable
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**

	As a strategy to get ahead at work, my coworkers would consider it ethically acceptable to:	*Dimension #*
1. _____	spread rumors about someone or something that stands in the way of their advancement.	3
2. _____	volunteer for undesirable tasks to make themselves appreciated by the superior.	2
3. _____	try to influence the boss to make a bad decision, if that decision would help them to get ahead.	3
4. _____	learn the likes and dislikes of important people in the organization in order to avoid offending these people.	2
5. _____	use their network of friends to discredit a person competing with them for a possible promotion.	3
6. _____	withhold information to make someone else look bad.	3
7. _____	identify and work for an influential superior who could help them get an advancement.	2
8. _____	attempt to act in a manner that they believe will result in others admiring them.	2
9. _____	take credit for a good job that was done by their subordinates.	3
10. _____	use their technical expertise to make the superior dependent upon them.	2
11. _____	demonstrate the ability to get the job done.	1
12. _____	threaten to give valuable company information to someone outside the organization if their demands are not met.	4
13. _____	help subordinates to develop their skills so that the subordinates, in turn, will be in a position to help them attain their objectives.	1
14. _____	offer sexual favors to a superior.	4
15. _____	blame another for their own mistakes.	3
16. _____	try to create a situation where a competitor for a promotion might be caught using illegal drugs or engaging in some other illegal activity.	4
17. _____	behave in a manner that is seen as appropriate in the company.	1
18. _____	try to develop contacts who might be able to provide detrimental information about one of their competitors for a promotion.	*
19. _____	ask to be given the responsibility for an important project.	1
20. _____	steal secret corporate documents and give them to another company in return for a better job at the other company.	4
21. _____	maintain good working relationships with other employees, even if they dislike these other	

	employees.	1
22. _____	seek to build a relationship with a senior person who could serve as a mentor.	*
23. _____	make anonymous, threatening phone calls to psychologically stress a competitor for a promotion.	4
24. _____	work overtime, if necessary, to get the job done.	1

* Filler item.

Dimensions: 1. Pro-organizational ethics behavior
2. Image-management ethics behavior
3. Self-serving ethics behavior
4. Maliciously intended ethics behavior

Source: Ralston and Pearson (2010)

Note: A subtle but important point is, based on classical projection theory (Sherwood, 1981) and the empirical tests by Fisher (1993), respondents tend to express their personal beliefs and evaluations, even though they were asked their opinions of others, when responding to socially sensitive questions. Therefore, the approach of using indirect questions, combined with assurances of anonymity, should have reduced the possibility of respondents "faking" desirable responses, as can occur when respondents are asked to report on activities in which they personally engage (Anastasi, 1982; Chung & Monroe, 2003), while at the same time ascertaining the respondent's personal beliefs.

Appendix S2

Measurement invariance and control variables

Measurement Invariance

We estimated successive models' measurement invariance using multigroup confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). We followed the cutoff criteria for large-scale (over 10-cultures) international comparisons to determine successive model fit: root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA) = 0.10, change in comparative fit index (ΔCFI) = 0.02, and ΔRMSEA = 0.03 from configural to metric invariance model, and both ΔCFI and ΔRMSEA $\leq$ 0.01 from metric to scalar invariance model (see Rutkowski & Svetina, 2014). All SIE behavior measures achieved configural invariance, with no constraints and with items exhibiting the same configuration of loadings, in each of the 40 societies: pro-organizational [n = 9058, $x^2_{(320)}$ = 835.310, CFI = 0.940, RMSEA = 0.085]; image-management [n = 9058, $x^2_{(160)}$ = 410.740, CFI = 0.972, RMSEA = 0.083]; self-serving [n = 9058, $x^2_{(200)}$ = 625.373, CFI = 0.976, RMSEA = 0.097]; maliciously intended [n = 9058, $x^2_{(160)}$ = 507.205, CFI = 0.973, RMSEA = 0.098]. The metric invariance models, with factor loadings constrained, were significantly different from configural models for all four measures because the CFI between models dropped more than the cutoff value of 0.02. We then proceeded to explore partial metric invariance models for all four measures. After setting free the parameters of SIE Behaviors Item 8 for 13 societies[3], the resulting partial invariance model for the image-management subscale was not significantly different (ΔCFI = −0.020, ΔRMSEA = +0.003; n = 9058, $x^2_{(303)}$ = 738.771, CFI = 0.952, RMSEA = 0.080). Similarly, after setting free the parameters of SIE Behaviors Item 9 for 4 societies[4], we obtained a significantly indifferent partial metric model for self-serving behavior (ΔCFI = −0.019, ΔRMSEA = −0.003; n = 9058, $x^2_{(391)}$ = 1277.104, CFI = 0.957, RMSEA = 0.100). For maliciously

[3] SIE Behaviors Item 8 was set free for Brazil, Bulgaria, China, Costa Rica, France, Hong Kong, Hungary, Lebanon, Netherlands, Mexico, New Zealand, Taiwan, and U.K.

[4] SIE Behaviors Item 9 was set free for Bulgaria, Finland, France and Russia.

intended behavior, after setting free the parameters of SIE Behaviors Items 16, 20, and 23 for four, six and five societies[5], respectively, we obtained a significantly indifferent partial metric model (ΔCFI = −0.020, ΔRMSEA = −0.005; n = 9058, $x^2_{(301)}$ = 898.490, CFI = 0.953, RMSEA = 0.094) for maliciously intended behavior. The 40-society data on pro-organizational SIE behaviors did not converge, which suggested an absence of equal item loadings and hence an absence of partial metric invariance. We executed the scalar invariance (equivalence of item loadings and intercepts) procedure with the image-management SIE behaviors, but the data did not fit into a model. The scalar invariance models for self-serving SIE behaviors (ΔCFI = −0.174, ΔRMSEA = −0.077; n = 9058, $x^2_{(629)}$ = 5072.120, CFI = 0.783, RMSEA = 0.177) and maliciously intended SIE behaviors (ΔCFI = −0.176, ΔRMSEA = −0.065; n = 9058, $x^2_{(496)}$ = 3338.136, CFI = 0.777, RMSEA = 0.159) were significantly different from their partial metric model, respectively.

Rationale for selecting control variables

Here is the rationale for choosing education, age, company size, and industry as covariates in the theoretical models. Individuals' preferences for gender-role norms may vary by education and by age. Formal education level enables autonomous decision-making and was found to be inversely related to agreement with traditional values. Similarly, intergenerational differences were found in endorsement of traditional values, where the younger participants reported less agreement with traditional values (Inglehart & Baker, 2000). From an ethical perspective, ethical attitudes and behaviors may also be influenced by other personal and work-related factors (see Collins, 2000). In particular, age and education levels have been identified as being related to ethical attitudes (e.g., Pan & Sparks, 2012), and individuals working in larger organizations have stronger ethical predispositions (e.g., Schminke, 2001). Females are overrepresented in the service sector, whereas males are overrepresented in the manufacturing sector (van der Lippe & van Dijk, 2002); and Weber and Wasieleski (2001) found that managers in the service sector had higher levels of moral reasoning than managers

[5] SIE Behaviors Item 16 was set free for Russia, Canada, Turkey and Malaysia; Item 20 was set free for Australia, Canada, Costa Rica, India, Israel and Netherlands; Item 23 was set free for Colombia, France, Netherlands, New Zealand, and Pakistan.

in the manufacturing sector.