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Exploring the Moderating Effect of Culture on Association between Self-Orientated Moral Intensity and the Choice of Upward Influence Strategies: A Contrast of Asian MBAs from the Tourism Industry

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Abstract

This article aims to investigate the cross-cultural differences of moral intensity and upward influence strategies by comparing 344 usable responses of tourism MBA students from India, Korea, and Taiwan. The MANOVA results demonstrate the existence of significant differences on some dimensions of self-oriented moral intensity and the choice of upward influence strategies across the three groups. Specifically, Korean informants are more likely to apply various influence strategies and reveal moral intensity than the MBA students from the other two countries. We also utilized canonical correlation analysis to examine the effect of cultural background on the relationship between the dimensions of moral intensity and the choice of upward influence strategies. The results indicated that the sets of moral intensity measures and upward influence strategy measures are correlated in Indian and Taiwanese groups. However, this relationship was not supported by the data collected from Korean participants. This study has confirmed the moderating effect of cultural background on this relationship, but more research for further exploration is required in the future.

*Keywords***:** MBA; Moral intensity; Self-Orientation; Tourism industry; Upward influence strategies

1. Introduction

Upward influence refers to an agent's influential behaviors that are directed toward individuals at higher levels in the organizational hierarchy (Wayne et al., 1997). Previous research on upward influence has focused on developing taxonomies and their instrument for measures (Kipnis et al., 1980; Schriesheim & Hinkin, 1990), identifying the antecedents of specific influence tactics such as goals for exercising influence (Kipnis et al., 1980) or the agent's level within an organization (Rao et al., 1995), and assessing their direct or indirect effects on the consequences (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988; Rao et al., 1995; Wayne et al., 1997). A well-developed and integrated constructs as predictors to explain the choice of upward influence strategies have rarely been adopted. These unknown have stimulated interest in the present research

On the other hand, Jones (1991) defined moral intensity as the characteristics of the moral issue itself, or the extent of issue-related moral imperative in a situation. He argued that moral intensity has an impact on every step of the ethical decision-making process, and this relationship has been discussed in the empirical research (Weber, 1996; Marshall and Dewe, 1997; Singer and Singer, 1997; Davis et al., 1998; Carlson et al., 2002). Interestingly, there have been considerable studies which focused ethicality of consequences so far. The scenarios and measures applied showed the respondents a strong and consistent core of consequences, namely, ethicality. These findings are not likely to explain the impact of moral intensity on other actual behaviors without clear ethical implications in daily life(Singer et al., 1998). As noted before, one of the factors that would affect a source's use of influence strategies was its social desirability (Frazier and Summers, 1984; Venkatesh et al., 1995). Some other related concepts like norm and role were found to be important antecedents to a manager's moral judgment-making or ethical behavior (Weber, 1990; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2001). That is, the process of choosing a specific upward influence strategy could be considered for a specified ethical decision-making. It is convincing to speculate the connection between dimensions of moral intensity and the selection of upward influence strategies.

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Additionally, culture is a fundamental determinant of ethical decision-making (Lu et al., 1999; Kreitner and Kinicki, 2001). The current study examines not only the difference on the dimensions of moral intensity and the selection of upward influence strategy across some Asian cultures but also the moderating effect of culture on the relationship between moral intensity components and the use of upward influence strategies.

2. Development of Framework

2.1 Moral Intensity in the Ethical Decision-Making

Existing literature to date suggests that moral intensity, which has been considered as an important determinant in the ethical decision-making process, is defined in six components (Jones, 1991; Frey, 2000): (1) magnitude of consequences: The seriousness of potential consequences; (2) social consensus: The degree to which other people are perceived to agree that an action is ethically questionable; (3) probability of effect: The likelihood or probability of a decision actually resulting in the negative outcome; (4) temporal immediacy: The period of time between the decision and the effect; (5) proximity: The physical, psychological, or social distance between the decision maker and the people who are likely to be affected by the decision; and (6) concentration of effect: The number of affected people for an effect of constant size. Our literature review identified some limitations that have not yet received due attention in previous studies dealing with ethical decision-making. First of all, these dimensions were usually applied in empirical designs to examine their relations with direct and indirect consequences. However, considerable research has been focused on the internal consistency of moral intensity components (Marshall and Dewe, 1997; Singer and Singer, 1997), or the equivalence of their impacts on various consequences (Singer, 1996; Singer and Singer, 1997; Singer et al., 1998; Carlson et al., 2002).

With the exceptions of few studies, such as that of Dukerich et al. (2000), most of the ethical decision-making models dominated by moral intensity restricted their mediating or terminal variables within unobservable constructs, like ethicality (Singer, 1996; Singer and Singer, 1997; Singer et al., 1998; Carlson et al., 2002), recognition of moral issue (Carlson et al., 2002) or perceived ethical problem, and behavioral intensions (Singhapakdi et al., 1999) toward described moral issues. Since the studies dedicated to explore the connection of moral intensity with certain managerial behaviors in life are limited, the interpersonal mechanisms underlying a socially constructed reality deserve more consideration (Singer and Singer, 1997).

2.2 Upward Influence Strategies and Its Ethical Implications

The means by which power is applied to achieve influence has been termed “influence strategy” (Shamdasani et al., 2001). In detail, they are referred to the content and the structure of communications utilized by a source in his/her influence attempts with targets (Frazier and Summers, 1984). The direction of influence strategies has been considered in related research to explain the variation in the use of alternative strategies, surely included in the upward influence cases (Kipnis et al., 1980; Sillars, 1980; Kipnis et al., 1984; Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Yukl and Tracey, 1992). However, previous discussions about influencing superiors are confusing, especially for the effectiveness of upward influence strategy (Kipnis et al., 1984).

Some researchers have suggested that the process of forming political tactics is supposed to be built on the ethical decision criteria of utilitarianism, rights, and justice (Cavanagh et al., 1981). After this model has been considered, subordinates can determine whether or not an upward influence attempt meets the rules or principles that define right and wrong conduct (Davis and Frederick, 1984) thus ethically acceptable. Based on this deliberation, this study proposes that upward influence behavior could be determined by ethical antecedents.

2.3 The Role of Culture in the Ethical Decision-Making

Ethical decision-making tends to vary according to individual demographics such as nationality or culture (Jones, 1991; Lu et al., 1999), because individuals with different cultural backgrounds tend to possess different ethical standards (Lu et al., 1999). It directly affects how an individual perceives ethical problems, alternatives, and consequences (Hunt and Vitell, 1986; Lu et al., 1999), and thus has been considered as a fundamental determinant in the whole process.

One of the limitations from relevant studies is that most of them examined differences in ethical beliefs and conduct across cultures without placing ethical decision-making in its proper context (Lu et al., 1999). Another concern that was found in most research on interpersonal influence is the failure to examine the influencing processes of managers in an intercultural context (Kipnis et al., 1980; Yukl and Falbe, 1990; Yukl and Tracey, 1992). Results obtained from this approach may lead to designing ineffective international management programs (Lu et al., 1999).

In brief, from the preceding discussion, given the importance of the finding that moral intensity is related to ethical decision-making and that the exercise of upward influence strategies is often regulated by ethical factors, a critical inquiry arises if and how moral intensity dimensions and upwardly influential behavior are connected.

2.4 Framework for Speculated Relations

The linkages connecting various stages in the process of ethical decision-making had not been fully confirmed by past results. For example, Singhapakdi et al. (1999) found that the part of effect of the perceived moral inten-

sity on behavioral intensions was direct, and part was mediated by its effect on perceptions of the ethical problem. These unclear findings, together with the exploratory purpose of this study, suggested that the focus of the current study is supposed to be on the association between inputs and outputs in the whole process to build preliminary connections.

In addition, it has been found that the willingness of individuals to participate in unethical behavior usually depends upon which stakeholder group is affected (Nyaw and Ng, 1994; Lu et al., 1999). For this issue, Carlson et al. (2002) proposed self-, other-, and organization-oriented scenarios to measure components of moral intensity and to consider the effect of varying orientations. Their results confirm that the impact of moral intensity appears to be decreased as the situation becomes less personal. Based on this consideration, the overall association between measures of self-oriented moral intensity and an individual's choice of upward influence strategies is more predictable.

As shown in Fig. 1 and discussed above, the measures of moral intensity dimensions may be more likely to explain an individual's behavior. Culture or nationality is considered in this framework so that we may analyze its impacts on inputs and outputs, moderating its effect on the input-output linkage as well. Therefore, this framework presents and tests the following hypotheses:

H1: Dimensions of self-oriented moral intensity differ across Indian, Korean, and Taiwanese MBA students.

H2: Upward influence strategies applied differ across Indian, Korean, and Taiwanese MBA students.

H3: Relationships between dimensions of self-oriented moral intensity and upward influence strategies differ across Indian, Korean, and Taiwanese MBA students.

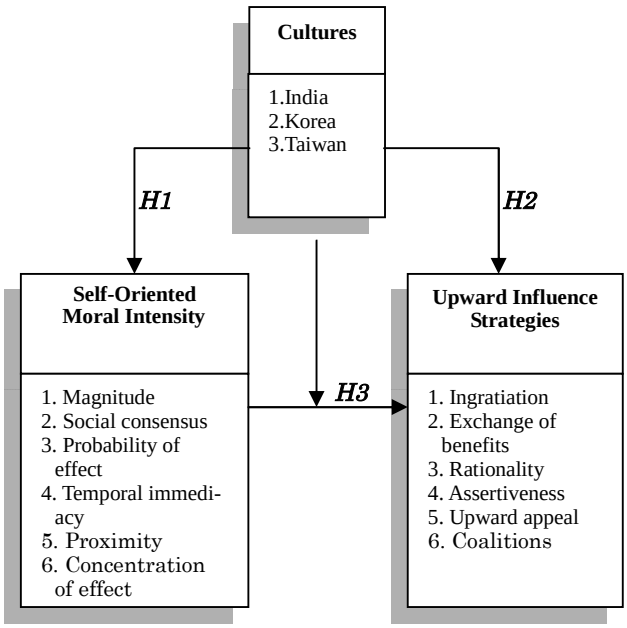

Figure 1. Hypothesized Association among Cultures, Self-Oriented Moral Intensity, and Upward Influence Strategies

3. Methodology

3.1 Informants and Procedures

MBA students working in tourism-related industries from universities in India, Korea, and Taiwan were surveyed. This selection avoided the criticism for the biased use of full-time students as subjects and problems for the generalizability of findings (Singer et al., 1998; Carlson et al., 2002). Informants were asked to select a superior with whom they have been interacting frequently for at least 6 months and to answer the questions. The sample was allocated evenly to relevant departments or graduate schools (tourism, restaurant, leisure, hotel, and hospitality management) of universities at the cities of New Delhi, Ahmedabad, Seoul, Taichung, and Taipei to ensure that these MBA students are involved in intended backgrounds while interacting with their superiors. The participation was voluntary, and that confidentiality of responses was guaranteed.

The characteristics of the sample are summarized in Table 1. Around 33 percent of the respondents are Indians, 30 percent are Koreans, and 37 percent are Taiwanese. Most of these MBA students (51.3 percent) hold mid-low managerial position in the organization, are 25-34 years old (43.3 percent), and males (66.3 percent) working in sales and marketing departments (28.8 percent). Over 50 percent of them had worked for more than 6 years. With regard to the organizational profile, 40.7 percent of respondents were in the companies which are substantially small and 61.3 percent of them had a code of ethics available.

3.2 Instruments

As suggested by prior studies, the moral intensity was operationalized in this present study by means of a scenario. The scenario utilized was developed by Carlson et al. (2002) because its description focused on the personal perspectives of the informant, and it was developed based on the actual situation so that it would have sufficient face validity. The authors combined the items of moral intensity scale proposed by Singhapakdi et al. (1996) and Carlson et al. (2002) to measure each of the moral intensity dimensions. Informants indicated their perceived moral intensity of the issue depicted in the scenario on a scale of each statement.

Schriesheim and Hinkin's (1990) subscales for measuring the influencing behaviors used by subordinates with their superior were introduced to assess the upward influence strategies. This instrument was based on the study of Kipnis et al. (1980) and was refined by deleting some items and adding others which are more valid and convincing. Subordinates were asked to report how frequently they used each of the tactics toward their immediate manager during the past six months on a scale.

Table 1. Characteristics of Respondents[1]

Variable and category	Percentage
Nationality	
India	33.1
Korea	29.7
Taiwan	37.2
Sex	
Male	66.3
Female	33.7
Age	
<25	22.4
25-34	43.3
35-44	26.5
45>	7.8
Working experience	
<1	6.4
1-5	41.8
6-10	22.7
11-15	13.6
16-20	9.1
21>	6.4
*Organizational level**	
Non-manager	19.4
Low manager	25.8
Mid-manager	25.5
Upper manager	10.9
Others	18.5
Working Department	
Accounting	5.4
Engineering	3.2
Food, Beverage Service, and Kitchen	8.9
Front Office	8.3
Housekeeping	1.6
Human Resources	4.2
Sales and Marketing	28.8
Teaching and Research	18.5
Others	21.1
Size of firm worked for	
<100	40.7
100-499	28.1
500-999	10.5
1000>	20.7
Availability of a code of ethics	
Yes	61.3
No	15.4
Don't know	22.3

1. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while calculating percentage. *: More than 100% due to rounding error.

4. Data Analysis and the Findings

4.1 Development and Validation of Measures

As we noted, items for measuring dimensions of moral intensity were combined with different measurements, whose dimensionality and the possibility of overlapped-items had not been well discussed. Thus, the authors utilized a factor analysis to reduce the items of moral intensity. The factor structure for the moral intensity items was examined with another sample (N=105) from the same population in Taiwan. The results of a principle component analysis to extract factors with Promax rotation indicated that four items from Carlson et al.'s (2002) measure loaded on the wrong factor or on more than one factor. We deleted these items and then reanalyzed the remaining 11 items by a principal component analysis with Promax rotation. The structure matrix did not show mixed loadings and all items loaded strongly on their intended factors.

The reduced set of 11 items were then submitted to a principal component analysis with the formal sample (N=344) collected from the three countries, setting the number of factors to six. The results indicated that the two items from the measurement of Singhapakdi et al., (1996) failed to load significantly on the theoretical dimensions. These two items were removed and then we submitted the remaining 9 items to the same process. The final results in Table 2 demonstrate that all the standardized factor loadings are positive and high (>.65) on the appropriate dimensions and the weak loadings on other factors are omitted, which indicates the convergence of the indicators to their responding underlying dimensions and their discrimination to unrelated dimensions.

Furthermore, the Cronbach's alphas of multiple-item scales are above the critical value of .60 (Hair et al., 1998), and all of the eigenvalues are accounted for 86.39 percent of the variance.

As we did in the process for the validation of moral intensity measures, the factor structure of upward influence strategy items from the pretest sample (N=105) in Taiwan was first examined by submitting the measure to principal component analysis with Promax rotation. The results did not explicate the necessity of deleting any of the 18 items. In a similar vein, the same validation procedure, which was conducted for moral intensity was also employed for upward influence strategy. The results did not explicate the necessity of deleting any of the 18 items. Then a second factor analysis with the formal sample (N=344) gathered from the three countries was performed on the same items to measure the six types of upward influence strategy. Results are shown in Table 3. All items of any scale loaded positively and strongly (>.65) on the intended dimension but low on other factors to demonstrate convergent validity and discriminant validity simultaneously (Venkatesh et al., 1995). Finally, the alpha coefficients of all multiple-item scales are higher than .60 to meet the requirements of reliability. All of the eigenvalues from six factors have explained 71.98 percent of the variance.

A preliminary summary of the actual mean scores of selected items appear in Table 4. These results provide the rank order of moral intensity items as well as the rank order of preferred influence behavior. In all three countries, the dimensions of moral intensity and influence strategies with the highest mean scores and the lowest mean scores were virtually identical. Additionally, Korean respondents' mean scores from most of the items were high when compared to those for Indians and Taiwanese. For more con

Table 2. Final Dimensions and the Items of the Self-Orientation Moral Intensity[2]

Dimensions and the items	Cronbach'α	Factor loading	% of variance
Magnitude	N.A.		7.98
The overall harm (if any) occurred as a result of act would be very small (reverse-scored).		.99	
Social consensus	N.A.		6.42
Most people would agree that the act is wrong.		.94	
Probability of effect	.74		14.59
There is a strong likelihood that this act will cause harm.		.79	
This act has a strong likelihood of having a negative impact on the victim.		.87	
Temporal immediacy	N.A.		8.86
The act will not cause any harm in an immediate future (reverse-scored).		.93	
Proximity	.78		38.33
I feel for the victim in the situation.		.92	
I empathize with the victim in this situation.		.90	
Concentration of effect	.60		10.21
This act will cause little harm to all the victims (reverse-scored).		.88	
The act will harm very few people if any (reverse-scored).		.80	

2. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while conducting analysis. Format: five-point scale ranging from 1=*strongly disagree* to 5=*strongly agree*.

Table 3. Final Dimensions and the Items of Upward Influence Strategy[3]

Dimensions and the items	Cronbach's α	Factor loading	% of variance
Ingratiation	.69		4.55
1. Acted very humbly to him or her while making my request.		.76	
2. Made him or her feel good about me before making my request.		.80	
3. Acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what I wanted.		.76	
Exchange of benefits	.81		9.18
1. Reminded him or her of past favors that I did for him/her.		.83	
2. Offered and exchange (e.g., if you do this for me, I will do something for you).		.87	
3. Offered to make a personal sacrifice if he or she would do what I wanted (e.g., work late, work harder, do his/her share of the work, etc.).		.82	
Rationality	.81		10.33
1. Used logic to convince him or her.		.82	
2. Explained the reasons for my request.		.86	
3. Presented him or her with information in support of my point of view.		.83	
Assertiveness	.80		28.60
1. Had a showdown in which I confronted him or her face-to-face.		.80	
2. Express my anger verbally.		.85	
3. Used a forceful manner; I tried such things as demands, the setting of deadlines, and the expression of strong emotion.		.84	
Upward appeal	.75		5.73
1. Obtained the informal support of higher-ups.		.79	
2. Made a formal appeal to higher levels to back up my request.		.84	
3. Relied on the chain of command—on people higher up in the organization who have power over him or her.		.80	
Coalitions	.82		13.59
1. Obtained the support of co-workers to back up my request.		.89	
2. Obtained the support of my subordinates to back up my request.		.89	
3. Mobilized other people in the organization to help me in influencing him or her.		.78	

3. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while conducting analysis. Format: five-point scale ranging from 1=*never* to 5=*always*.

firmed findings with statistical support, the authors applied the following process to clarify the differences.

4.2 Effect of Cultural Background on the Dimensions of Self-Oriented Moral Intensity

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was run to determine the effect of an MBA student's nationality on the six dimensional measures of self-oriented moral intensity. Results in the upper Table 5 indicate that there are multivariate differences of moral intensity dimensions across the three groups (Wilks' lambda=.914; F=2.477; p<.01). This suggests that Indian, Korean, and Taiwanese MBA students are not all equal on these components.

Next, the authors performed a univariate F test to examine if group mean differences are statistically significant for each dimension considered alone. As shown in Table 5, culture had a significant effect on the probability of effect (F=7.006; p<.01), concentration of effect (F=7.241; p<.01), and temporal immediacy (F=2.465; p<.1). However, Indian, Korean, and Taiwanese MBA students did not differ on the mean scores of magnitude, social consensus, and proximity. These findings establish that the MBA students from vari ous countries equally identify with half of their moral in-

tensity dimensions, thus H_1 is partially supported. Furthermore, results of pairwise comparison (alpha=.05) indicated that Korean MBA students appeared to have stronger "probability of effect" (mean=3.683) and "concentration of effect" (mean=3.446) intensity in the self-orientation scenario than do their counterparts in Taiwan (3.425 for probability of effect and 3.196 for concentration of effect, respectively) and India (3.230 for probability of effect and 2.986 for concentration of effect, respectively).

Indian MBA students might score lowest on both of these dimensions across the three groups. That is, Korean MBA students are more likely to feel the impact of their personal unethical acts on others, and the possibility of the acts to cause harm than are Taiwanese and Indians MBA students. The Indian students appear to care little about the negative impact and its possibility of personal behaviors. Additionally, Korean MBA students are more likely to anticipate the immediate harm in the self-oriented issue (mean=3.030) than are their Taiwanese counterparts (mean=2.725).

4.3 Effect of Cultural Background on the Choice of Upward Influence Strategies

A similar analysis was performed to explain the effect of cultural background on the choice of influence strategies. The measure of multivariate differences in influence strategy (see lower Table 5) indicates that the mean vectors of the three groups are not equal. Dimensions of influence strategy did vary across MBA students from different countries (Wilks' lambda=.610; F=14.976; p<.01), thus how cultural background affected the choice of individual influence tactic was supposed to be examined. Table 5 summarizes the results of a series of univariate F tests. As expected in H_2, cultural background had a significant effect on all tactics except ingratiation. These MBA students did not differ on the frequency of use of ingratiation as an upward influence strategy.

Table 4. Items Ranking of Self-Orientation Moral Intensity and Upward Influence Strategies Used in All Countries[4]

Items	India[5]			Korea			Taiwan		
	Ranking (across groups)	M	S.D.	Ranking (across groups)	M	S.D.	Ranking (across groups)	M	S.D.
Moral intensity									
1. The overall harm (if any) occurred as a result of act would be very small (reverse-scored)[6]	**4 (B)**	3.39	1.15	**6 (A)**	3.58	1.11	**7 (C)**	3.28	1.07
2. Most people would agree that the act is wrong.	**2 (B)**	3.53	1.21	**5 (A)**	3.62	1.00	**5 (C)**	3.37	1.03
3. There is a strong likelihood that this act will cause harm.	**5 (C)**	3.25	1.02	**6 (A)**	3.58	.91	**4 (B)**	3.39	.95
4. This act has a strong likelihood of having a negative impact on the victim.	**6 (C)**	3.23	1.14	**2 (A)**	3.78	.86	**3 (B)**	3.49	1.01
5. The act will not cause any harm in an immediate future (reverse-scored).	**9 (B)**	2.79	1.11	**9 (A)**	3.03	.98	**9 (C)**	2.71	1.08
6. I feel for the victim in the situation.	**3 (C)**	3.50	1.00	**4 (B)**	3.63	.84	**1 (A)**	3.69	.94
7. I empathize with the victim in this situation.	**1 (B)**	3.61	.99	**1 (A)**	3.82	.80	**2 (C)**	3.58	1.00
8. This act will cause little harm to all the victims (reverse-scored).	**7 (C)**	3.06	1.06	**3 (A)**	3.71	.86	**6 (B)**	3.34	1.00
9. The act will harm very few people if any (reverse-scored).	**8 (C)**	2.91	1.16	**8 (A)**	3.19	1.00	**8 (B)**	3.03	1.07
Influence strategies									
1. Acted very humbly to him or her while making my request.	**4 (B)**	3.66	1.17	**4 (A)**	3.67	.87	**2 (C)**	3.56	1.06
2. Made him or her feel good about me before making my request.	**6 (C)**	3.20	1.20	**6 (A)**	3.47	.83	**6 (B)**	3.21	1.28
3. Acted in a friendly manner prior to asking for what I wanted.	**5 (C)**	3.34	1.20	**5 (A)**	3.61	.75	**5 (B)**	3.41	1.19
4. Reminded him or her of past favors that I did for him/her.	**18 (B)**	1.90	1.10	**17 (A)**	2.70	.87	**18 (C)**	1.66	.80
5. Offered and exchange (e.g., if you do this for me, I will do something for you).	**17 (B)**	1.91	1.22	**18 (A)**	2.53	1.07	**17 (C)**	1.67	.85
6. Offered to make a personal sacrifice if he or she would do what I wanted (e.g., work late, work harder, do his/her share of the work, etc.).	**8 (B)**	2.57	1.28	**15 (A)**	2.75	1.08	**12 (C)**	2.18	1.15
7. Used logic to convince him or her.	**3 (A)**	4.04	.92	**3 (B)**	3.86	.76	**3 (C)**	3.56	1.08
8. Explained the reasons for my request.	**1 (A)**	4.11	1.03	**2 (B)**	3.98	.65	**1 (C)**	3.74	1.06
9. Presented him or her with information in support of my point of view.	**2 (B)**	4.05	1.04	**1 (A)**	4.07	.78	**4 (C)**	3.44	1.10
10. Had a showdown in which I confronted him or her face-to-face.	**12 (B)**	2.34	1.15	**10 (A)**	2.95	.87	**14 (C)**	1.97	.94
11. Express my anger verbally.	**16 (C)**	1.93	1.08	**7 (A)**	3.28	.85	**15 (B)**	1.95	.92
12. Used a forceful manner; I tried such things as demands, the setting of deadlines, and the expression of strong emotion.	**15 (B)**	2.05	1.11	**13 (A)**	2.80	.89	**16 (C)**	1.71	.82
13. Obtained the informal support of higher-ups.	**12 (C)**	2.34	1.11	**9 (A)**	3.01	.96	**10 (B)**	2.58	1.06
14. Made a formal appeal to higher levels to back up my request.	**10 (B)**	2.43	1.26	**14 (A)**	2.78	.84	**11 (C)**	2.34	1.06
15. Relied on the chain of command—on people higher up in the organization who have power over him or her.	**14 (B)**	2.33	1.23	**11(A)**	2.85	.90	**13 (C)**	2.09	1.11
16. Obtained the support of co-workers to back up my request.	**7 (C)**	2.82	1.21	**8 (A)**	3.17	.89	**7 (B)**	3.13	1.06
17. Obtained the support of my subordinates to back up my request.	**8 (C)**	2.57	1.30	**16 (B)**	2.74	.97	**8 (A)**	3.03	1.16
18. Mobilized other people in the organization to help me in influencing him or her.	**11 (C)**	2.39	1.32	**12 (A)**	2.82	1.00	**9 (B)**	2.73	1.28

4. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while conducting analysis.

5. M: Mean, S.D.: Standard deviation.

6 Means of reverse-scored items are adjusted due to easy contrast.

Table 5. Comparison of Dimensions of Self-Orientation Moral Intensity and Upward Influence Strategies by Nationality of Tourism MBA Students[7]

	Wilks' lambda	India[8] M	India S.D.	Korea M	Korea S.D	Taiwan M	Taiwan S.D	*F* statistic	Difference (α=.05)
Moral intensity	.914***								
Magnitude		3.43	1.15	3.58	1.11	3.31	1.07	1.702	N.A.
Social consensus		3.51	1.21	3.61	1.00	3.39	1.03	1.151	N.A.
Probability of effect		3.23	.90	3.68	.80	3.43	.91	7.006***	Korea>Taiwan, India
Temporal immediacy		2.78	1.11	3.03	.98	2.73	1.08	2.465*	Korea>Taiwan
Proximity		3.58	.86	3.74	.76	3.64	.91	0.963	N.A.
Concentration of effect		2.99	.86	3.45	.79	3.20	.93	7.241***	Korea>Taiwan, India
Influence strategies	.610***								
Ingratiation		3.40	.78	3.58	.70	3.42	1.02	1.453	N.A.
Exchange of benefits		2.13	1.04	2.61	.86	1.84	.75	20.358***	Korea>India>Taiwan
Rationality		4.05	.74	3.98	.62	3.57	.99	12.045***	India, Korea>Taiwan
Assertiveness		2.11	.85	3.01	.69	1.88	.79	61.486***	Korea>India>Taiwan
Upward appeal		2.36	.89	2.86	.71	2.33	.96	12.070***	Korea>India, Taiwan
Coalitions		2.59	1.06	2.89	.80	2.99	1.03	5.117***	Taiwan, Korea>India

7. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while conducting analysis.

8. M: Mean, S.D.: Standard deviation.*. p<.1, ** p<.05, *** p<.01.

Results of the first univariate F test demonstrate that cultural background had a significant effect on the exchange of benefits (F=20.358; p<.01). Pairwise comparison (alpha=.05) showed that Korean students were more likely to exercise exchange of benefits when attempting to influence their superior (mean=2.612) than were Indian students (mean=2.134). This approach includes offering an exchange of favors, reminding their superior of past favors they did for him/her or personal sacrifice in the future if their superior do what they wanted, while Taiwanese students seem to be the last ones to choose this tactic (mean=1.842).

The choice of rationality was also found to be explained by cultural background (F=12.045; p<.01). Pairwise comparison revealed that Indian and Korean informants scored averagely higher on rationality (4.054 for the Indian sample and 3.983 for the Korean sample, respectively) than did their Taiwanese counterparts (mean=3.569). They tend to apply rationality significantly to influence their superior by using logic, explaining the reasons, and presenting their superior with information, while Taiwanese MBA students are not that reasonable when trying to influence their superior.

The effect of cultural background on assertiveness was not only significant (F=61.486; p<.01), but also clearly distinguishable across the three groups. The results of pairwise comparison showed that Korean MBA students had higher frequency to use assertiveness as an upward influence tactic (mean=3.014) than did their counterparts from India (mean=2.107) and Taiwan (mean=1.878). The latter are much less likely to influence their superior by using a forceful manner, expressing anger verbally, or having a face-to-face showdown.

Our analysis also determined that cultural background had a significant effect on an MBA student's use of upward appeal (F=12.070; p<.01). Pairwise comparison showed that Korean informants scored higher on this strategy (mean=2.859) than did their counterparts from India (mean=2.360) and Taiwan (mean=1.842). In other words, Korean MBA students are more likely to change their superior's opinions or behaviors by relying on the chain of command, making a formal appeal to, or obtaining an informal support of higher-levels.

As we can see in Table 5, the mean scores of the use of coalitions are significantly different across the three groups (F=5.117; p<.01). Based on pairwise comparison, influence could be the only tactic that Taiwanese MBA students scored highest averagely (mean=2.986) across cultural backgrounds. Statistically, Indian respondents tend to rely less on the support from colleagues, subordinates or other members in the organization to influence their superior (mean=2.586).

4.4 Moderating Effect of Cultural Background on the Relationship between Moral Intensity Components and the Choice of Upward Influence Strategies

We are primarily interested in the overall relationship or the association within a set of variables, thus canonical correlation analysis was used to test the significance of the relationship between the criterion sets of variables (i.e., factors of the moral intensity) and the predictor set of variables (i.e., factors of the influence strategy). The correlation matrix in Table 6 demonstrates a starting point for the canonical analysis: (1) Social consensus of moral intensity appears to negatively correlate with the choice of coalitions (r=-.093; p<.1); (2) the higher the temporal immediacy MBA students perceived in the moral issue, the higher the use of assertiveness (r=.133; p<.05), and the lower the use of rationality (r=-.193; p<.01). Based on a *priori* speculation, the observed relationships appear reasonable although their correlation coefficients might not be high enough.

Table 6. Correlation Matrix of Dimensions [9]

	I	EB	R	A	UA	C	M	SC	PE	TI	P
EB[10]	.28***										
R	.26***	.06									
A	.08	.46***	.17***								
UA	.21***	.54***	.11**	.51***							
C	.25***	.31***	.20***	.18***	.47***						
M	.03	-.06	-.07	.01	.01	-.05					
SC	.05	-.03	.08	-.08	.05	-.09*	.25***				
PE	-.06	-.07	-.01	.09	.06	.01	.35***	.49***			
TI	-.02	-.04	-.19***	.13**	.06	-.09	.23***	.20***	.41***		
P	.04	-.03	.04	-.02	.03	.09	.23***	.28***	.45***	.16***	
CE	.03	-.01	-.08	.08	.00	.01	.33***	.23***	.39***	.35***	.21***

9. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while conducting analysis.

10. The dimensions are indicated as follows: I= Ingratiation, EB= Exchange of benefits, R= Rationality, A= Assertiveness, UA= Upward appeal, C= Coalitions, M= Magnitude, SC= Social consensus, PE= Probability of effect, TI= Temporal immediacy, P= Proximity, and CE= Concentration of effect. *. $p<.1$, ** $p<.05$, *** $p<.01$

Results of the first canonical functions derived from Indian, Taiwanese, and from the overall sample are summarized in Table 7. Wilks' lambdas of all these canonical functions are significant at the .01 probability level (.551 for the Indian sample, .470 for the Taiwanese sample, and .777 for the overall sample, respectively). The only exception was the lambda of the Korean first canonical function, which is .590 with p value >.1, although the canonical correlation is .454.

Results of the first function derived from the overall sample indicated that the canonical correlation of .363 between the criterion set and the predictor set was considered to meet the minimal level of .3 (Hair et al., 1998). This value is higher than the correlation coefficients for the original variables taken in pairs, and implied that there exists a possible positive correlation between the dimensions of moral intensity and the choice of influence strategies. Moreover, redundancy indexes of both criterion variate (1.594 percent) and predictor variate (2.023 percent) are high enough, which indicated that sufficient variation in one variate can be accounted for the other variate. Additionally, this study used the canonical loadings to examine the association among dependent and independent variables since the canonical correlation was significant. In the current study, only variables with a canonical loading greater than ±.40 were considered more important for the examination of the association (Hair et al., 1998). These values reflect the relationship between a linear combination of temporal immediacy (factor loading=.468) and social consensus (factor loading=-.451) of moral intensity, and a linear combination of assertiveness (factor loading=.586) and rationality (factor loading=-.556). Overall, these values are consistent with the results summarized in Table 6, yet they provided clearer indexes to judge the overall relationship between the two sets of variables.

The moderating effect of nationality or culture on the intensity-strategy relationship was examined by the results of separate canonical analysis. For the first pair derived from Indian MBA students, the canonical correlation is .551 to meet the required level of "particular importance" (Hair et al., 1998) and redundancy indexes of both variates are high enough (4.807% for the criterion variate and 5.106% for the predictor variate) to demonstrate their cross-accountability for each other's variation. Structure loadings showed that the higher social consensus of perceived moral intensity of Indian MBA students (factor loading=.868) was related to lower use of assertiveness (factor loading=-.664) and higher use of rationality (factor loading=.649). In contrast, the first canonical pair derived from Taiwanese group demonstrated a more comprehensive structure. This function correlated .555, which is the highest value obtained across the groups. Redundancies of 6.094% and 4.675% for independent variate and dependent variate, respectively, are considered sufficient. The structure of factor loadings indicated that the higher ratings of temporal immediacy (factor loading=.816) and social consensus of Taiwanese MBA students (factor loading=.450) were related to lower use of rationality (factor loading=-.712) and lower use of coalitions (factor loading=-.439).

Based on the above differences across the groups and the overall sample, we might have the reason to conclude that the moderating effect of cultural background on the relationship between the dimensions of moral intensity and the use of upward influence strategies was existent. For Taiwanese and Indian MBA students, their use of upward influence strategies was explained more by their moral in

.**Table 7 .** Analysis of the 1st Canonical Functions for Self-Orientation Moral Intensity and Upward Influence Strategies[11]

	India[12] C.L. (S.C.)	Taiwan C.L.(S.C.)	Total C.L.(S.C.)
Predictor variables			
Magnitude	-.260 (-.431)	-.141 (-.429)	.146 (.058)
Social consensus	.868 (.920)	.450 (.395)	-.451 (-.776)
Probability of effect	.322 (.033)	.376 (.015)	.305 (.457)
Temporal immediacy	-.189 (-.177)	.816 (.839)	.468 (.614)
Proximity	.268 (.168)	-.277 (-.287)	-.114 (-.240)
Concentration of effect	.000 (-.004)	.285 (-.031)	.353 (.155)
Shared variance (%)	17.20	19.81	15.39
Redundancy (%)	5.11	6.09	2.02
Criterion variables			
Ingratiation	-.029 (.008)	-.095 (.364)	-.259 (-.045)
Exchange of benefits	-.180 (.338)	.142 (.034)	-.065 (-.370)
Rationality	.649 (.737)	-.712	-.556
Assertiveness	-.664 (-.809)	(-.801)	(-.711)
Upward appeal	-.138 (.176)	.359 (.527)	.586 (.993)
Coalitions	-.239 (-.293)	.233 (.193)	.058 (-.279)
		-.439 (-.514)	.013 (.219)
Shared variance (%)	16.20	15.19	12.13
Redundancy (%)	4.81	4.68	1.59
Eigenvalue	.422	.444	.151
Wilks' lambda	.551***	.470***	.777***
Canonical correlation	.545	.555	.363

11. N=344; Missing observations are omitted while conducting analysis. Results based on the Korean sample are not demonstrated due to their $p>.1$ in overall test.

12. S.C.: Standardized coefficients; C.L.: Canonical loadings. *. $p<.1$, ** $p<.05$, *** $p<.01$.

tensity based on self-behavior than was their Korean counterparts'. However, the results of Fisher's Z transformations showed no statistically significant difference on canonical correlation between the Indian sample and the Taiwanese sample (Z=-.075; $p>.1$). This would suggest that the moderating effect speculated in H_3 was partially supported by our findings

5. Interpretation and Conclusions

Our findings support the assertion that characteristics of moral issues could determine consequences beyond simple mental operations, such as upward influence behaviors. More specifically, canonical correlation analysis utilized in the current study produces a preliminary match between dimensions of bilateral sets. One point should be noted is that the classification of factors as a criterion or a predictor is of little importance for the estimation of the canonical function, because the main purpose of this instrument is to maximize the correlation between variates instead of placing particular emphasis on either variate (Hair et al., 1998). In general, results suggested that differences in culture did change the dimensions of perceived moral intensity. Korean MBA students appear to be very sensitive while perceiving half of the characteristics from self-oriented moral issues.

The results in the current study also lend empirical support to theories of cultural differences in communication styles. The sub-sample collected from Korea revealed an overall trend that they are more apt to take alternative tactic to influence their superior in the office than are their counterparts from other two countries. In contrast, for Taiwanese MBA students, changing their superiors' opinions and behaviors has not been an important activity.

In addition, the effect of culture was examined to determine its role in the linkage connecting moral intensity and the application of upward influence tactics. Most of the variance in upward influence behaviors was explained by the moral intensity of Indian and Taiwanese cultures than that of Korean culture. Therefore, the findings are consistent with the underlying assumption of many ethical decision-making theories which has suggested that ethical beliefs and behaviors could be affected by cultural background (Lu et al., 1999). Based on the forgoing discussion, findings of the current study are important for both research and practice. These findings may help explain the overall process and provide a basis for developing more complete hypotheses in the future, thus strengthening the infrastructure of the framework. In addition, implications regarding this relationship would benefit practitioners in their attempt to predict or improve the subordinates' utilization of influence strategies within the organization.

6. Limitations and Future Studies Directions

Some ideas for future study are suggested by the limitations of the current research. First, previous research on moral intensity failed to consider the effect of varying orientations. Ethical decision-making tends to vary according to the nature of the moral issue involved. Some empirical findings were not consistent across different scenarios (Singhapakdi et al., 1999; Carlson et al., 2002). It would be rewarding to include all orientations of scenario to measure the characteristics of moral issues in our model and contrast empirically their impact on the match between moral intensity components and upward influence behaviors.

The second limitation concerns the use of retrospective, lateral, and self-reported data. It is widely recognized that research using self-report measures with a single reporter could represent one-sided views, thus account for some of the differences between the reports on influence behaviors of source and target. Relevant research suggested that descriptions of a source's influence attempt by targets may be insensitive to subtle forms of

influence that are successful only if the target is not aware of what they are being used (Yukl and Tracey, 1992). Incorporating opinions of the source in the future could provide an unbiased report of actual behavior and dynamics, thus identifying the inconsistencies between a source's intentions and the target's perceptions (Spector, 1987; Venkatesh et al., 1995; Rao & Hashimoto, 1996; Farrell and Schroder, 1999). Indeed, there have been more variables to consider in our future framework, such as demographic factors (e.g., sex, religiosity, education, experience, and salary), personal moral philosophy (e.g., relativism and idealism), and organizational factors (e.g., corporate ethical values and group characteristics). Moreover, previous speculations and results of recent empirical research have recognized some antecedents of the use of influence strategies, like dependence and goals to influence others, which are appropriate to be included as moderators (Su, 2003; 2005; Su and Cho, 2006). Therefore, future research is needed to further explore the way in which these factors influence an individual's interpersonal decision (Lu et al., 1999; Singhapakdi et al., 1999).

Finally, this study just utilized nationality as a proxy for culture. This approach makes our findings provide no overall framework for explaining which dimensions of culture lead to differences in the relation (Lu et al., 1999). Additional research based on cultural components is needed to expand the present model to generalize our results to other cultures. Furthermore, most cross-cultural research contrasts influence behavior occurring within different cultures (Rao and Hashimoto, 1996). It would be rewarding to identify differences in components of moral intensity and the use of upward influence strategies between natives and expatriates, and how this factor moderates the connection linking moral intensity and upward influence strategies.

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