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**Fear and Compliance: A Study of Antecedents, Mediators
and Benefits of Paternalistic Leadership in China**

Yuyan Zheng

Thesis Submitted to Durham University

For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Dec 2016

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis was composed by myself and that the work is my own.

Yuyan Zheng

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ABSTRACT

Paternalistic leadership has been suggested as one prevalent leadership style in China. However, empirical research is limited in investigating the predictive factors as well as its correlations with organisational outcome measures. Drawing upon a total sample of 850 leader-subordinate dyads from mainland China, this research attempts to depict a comprehensive picture of paternalistic leadership, by examining its antecedents, outcomes, mediators, and moderators. Included are three independent empirical studies. Study 1 investigates the antecedents of paternalistic leadership. By examining a cross-lagged model, it is found that followers' trust-in-supervisor can impact their ratings of leader paternalistic leadership across time, and such impact is further moderated by individual external locus of control by powerful others. In Study 2, by testing a three-way interaction model, it is found that authoritarian leadership has a positive impact on employees' culture-specific organisational citizenship behaviour; and benevolent leadership and employee resource dependence jointly play critical roles for authoritarian leadership in generating such positive impact. Finally, in Study 3, by investigating a moderated mediation model, authoritarian leadership has been found to negatively impact on followers' job performance via followers' fear of their supervisors. This mediation effect is also moderated by follower gender, which demonstrates that the mediation effect only takes place in female followers, but not in male followers. Theoretical and practical limitations and directions for follow-up research are discussed. Overall, the assessment of both antecedents and outcomes of paternalistic leadership in this thesis is essential for the emerging research on paternalistic leadership.

Keywords: paternalistic leadership, trust-in-supervisor, fear, resource dependence, job performance, organisational citizenship behaviour.

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Purpose of this Study

The study of leadership has attracted the attention of scholars across a wide range of fields, including: history, sociology, military studies, political science, business and education (Vroom & Jago, 2007). A great number of books and papers have been published on the topic of leadership over the past half century (Gregoire & Arendt, 2014; Yukl, 2012). In many of the studies conducted, the main focus has been to investigate behaviours and outcomes of leadership of organisations, groups and individuals (e.g., Bono & Judge, 2003; House, 1971; Yukl, 2002). In many organisations, leadership has gained a very high level of attention and interest and is regarded as an important function of management for the achievement of efficiency and organisational goals (Bass, 1985).

As the business world becomes increasingly globalised, the need to understand leadership in an international context becomes more urgent. Leadership is a social influence process which transcends national borders. Conceptions of leadership and styles and practices associated with it, have been found to vary widely across cultures (e.g., Barney & Zhang, 2009; Gonzalez & McMillian, 1961; Leung, 2012; Rousseau & Fried, 2001; Tsui, 2004). Defining effective leadership across various cultures has long been an important topic of discussion, making indigenous leadership research, which takes into consideration local historical, cultural, and societal elements, increasingly important and necessary (Gopinath, 1998; Kempster & Parry, 2011; Tsui, 2004, 2009).

Much of management knowledge today is the product of scholarly work by researchers in the United States and Western Europe and the major contributors to management

knowledge have been developed in the context of these cultures (Yukl, 2002). Management knowledge from other parts of the world, including South America, Africa, and Asia is still very limited (Tsui, 2004). As a result, there is much room for research in these contexts to provide a valuable contribution to global management knowledge. Given the impressive economic growth of nations like Malaysia, Vietnam, Thailand, India and the People's Republic of China, it is particularly important to conduct further leadership research in these countries (Ashkanasy, 2002).

China has become the world's second-largest economy and plays an increasingly influential role in the global economy (Barboza, 2010). In the last decade there has been an increase in the number of research articles published on leadership, management and political issues in China (Chen & Farh, 2010). The importance of this research is due to the unique characteristics of Chinese culture, which distinguishes Chinese management from Western management. For example, there are studies that invoke the traditional philosophical thoughts such as Confucianism and Daoism in exploring leadership behaviours in Chinese contexts (Fu, Tsui, Liu, & Li, 2010; Ma & Tsui, 2015). Despite these unique differences, many Chinese business leaders have adopted Western management practices (Ma & Tsui, 2015) and most academic studies of leadership in China have relied on Western leadership theories (e.g., Fu et al., 2010; Hui, Law, & Chen, 1999; Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005; Zhang, Chen, & Ang, 2014). As Dorfman (1996, p. 285) suggested, "there is nothing inherently wrong with testing the applicability of a particular theory developed in the West to other geographic regions or cultures. However, simple replications limit the kind of conclusions that can be inferred." While studies from China contribute to the literature by providing evidence for the generalisability of Western-developed theories and frameworks,

not surprisingly their indiscriminate use of Western leadership theories do not provide evidence and knowledge regarding the unique aspects of Chinese leadership phenomena (Zhang et al., 2014). Moreover, in terms of practices, many current researchers (e.g., Liu, 2006; Newell, 1999) have shown that the majority of Chinese business leaders face conflict and misunderstanding when transferring Western leadership philosophy into their current practice. Cultural, social, economic and political factors can all become issues for business leaders. Therefore, there has been growing attention from both theoretical and practical perspectives to adopting an inductive or indigenous approach to explore new leadership constructs and theories in the Chinese context (e.g., Farh & Cheng, 2000; Jia, You, & Du, 2012; Tsui, 2004; Zhang, Bai, Caza, & Wang, 2014).

Among Chinese indigenous leadership theories, paternalistic leadership is a flourishing area which has received a growing interest from organisational researchers over the past two decades (see for example Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013; Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh, & Cheng, 2014; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2006; Wu, Huang, Li, & Liu, 2012). Paternalistic leadership has been describes as an “*emerging and intriguing new area for leadership research*” (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, p. 566) and is the prevalent leadership style in Chinese business organisations. Paternalistic leadership involves behaviours that combine strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity couched in a 'personalistic' atmosphere (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Paternalistic leadership theory has now been integrated into mainstream leadership research (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008) and has gained a great deal of attention from not only Chinese scholars, but also from scholars all over the world (e.g., Aycan, 2006; Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010).

Paternalism as a management concept dates back to early works of Max Weber (1968), who described paternalism as one of the most elementary types of traditional domination, which relies on followers' personal loyalty and unquestioning obedience according to the leader's virtuous status. In Western contexts, paternalistic leadership is viewed negatively and is regarded as a comparatively obsolete leadership style under pure authoritarianism. For example, Northouse (1997, p. 39) regard paternalistic leadership as "benevolent dictatorship" (p. 39). Moreover, Colella, Garcia, Reidel, and Triana (2005) frame paternalism as a possible form of workplace discrimination.

However, conceptions of paternalism in non-Western societies differ from Weber's purely authoritarian view. Paternalism in non-Western countries such as China, India, Turkey and Japan has long been regarded as an effective leadership approach in providing appropriate support, protection and care for followers (Aycan et al., 2000; Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang, & Farh, 2004; Martínez, 2003; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Redding, 1990). For example, Uhl-Bien, Tierney, Graen, and Wakabayashi (1990) observe that paternalism is an effective strategy which is central to the management systems employed in many Japanese companies. Moreover, Ansari, Ahmad, and Aafaqi (2004) found that paternalistic leadership is positively related to subordinate task performance in a Malaysian sample.

Specifically, paternalistic leadership studies have been widely conducted in the Chinese context (e.g., Chen & Farh, 2010; Chen et al., 2014; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Wu et al., 2012). Farh and Cheng (2000) have identified three components of paternalistic leadership; namely authoritarian, benevolent, and moral leadership. The combination of three types of leadership provides unique characteristics of paternalistic leaders in China. *Authoritarian* leadership refers to leadership behaviours that exert absolute authority and control over

followers and demand unquestioning obedience. *Benevolent* leadership refers to leadership behaviours that demonstrate individualised consideration for followers' personal or familial well-being beyond work relations. *Moral* leadership refers to leadership behaviours that demonstrate superior personal virtues, self-discipline, and unselfishness (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Studies in Chinese contexts have mainly been based on this three-dimension model and have supported the validity of paternalistic leadership, especially in predicting employee work attitudes and performance (Cheng et al., 2004; Cheng, Huang, & Chou, 2002; Farh et al., 2006; Wu, Hsu, & Cheng, 2002).

1.2 Calls for Future Research Addressed in this Project

Paternalistic leadership is a flourishing research area with considerable research gaps. This section therefore systematically clarifies the major research calls which will be addressed, in order to offer a clear picture of the contributions of this thesis. Theoretical and methodological contributions are summarised separately.

First, this thesis lies in the fact that the three empirical chapters (from chapter 4 to chapter 6) integrates relevant insights of separate strands of literature into an overarching theoretical framework of paternalistic leadership (see Figure 1.1). This thesis seeks to contribute to knowledge about paternalistic leadership by investigating its antecedents, consequences, mediators and moderators. In so doing, this work provides a comprehensive understanding of paternalistic leadership by testing hypotheses with multi-waved survey data. Moreover, this thesis also contributes to the follower-centric approach, by investigating follower reactions to leadership from their individual differences (Chapter 4), cultural values (Chapter 5), and their gender-stereotypical values and identities (Chapter 6).

Second, research has examined outcomes of paternalistic leadership, but there is a strongly called need to focus attention on the antecedents of paternalistic leadership, which has been limited to date (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). One goal of this thesis (Study 1) is to address this limitation by testing follower trust-in-supervisor as a causal mechanism predicting paternalistic leadership ratings.

Third, the most puzzling issue in paternalistic leadership research is that despite a destructive effect on employees' well-being, leader authoritarianism remains a salient leadership style that has been largely tolerated by employees and organisations (Aycan et al., 2000; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh et al., 2006; Martinez, 2005). Although Farh and Cheng (2000) theorised that authoritarian leadership may reinforce employees' compliance with performance standards, they did not specify what types of performance and behaviours are more likely to be shaped by authoritarian leadership. In response to this call, Study 2 firstly proposes that authoritarian leadership serves an effective deterrence function in promoting behaviours complying with Chinese behavioural norms, and secondly examines the conditions under which authoritarian leadership tends to have a positive impact on subordinates. Relating to this point, Study 3 suggests that authoritarian leadership leads to a decreased level in job performance through followers' feeling of fear. In this sense, Study 2 and Study 3 integrate both positive and negative aspects of authoritarian leadership. As authoritarian leadership has been found detrimental to work performance, Study 2 and Study 3 advance the literature by illustrating that authoritarian leadership can be viewed as both negative and positive, depending on what kind follower behaviours (e.g., job performance or cultural-endorsed compliance) are considered as its outcome.

Fourth, recent research has shown great interest in exploring the psychological mechanisms underlying the relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee performance, yet the mediating mechanisms have not rendered conclusive results. Especially for authoritarian leadership, researchers have failed to find the psychological mechanisms to explain the detrimental effect of leader authoritarianism and job performance (Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2012). As authoritarian leadership has been demonstrated to induce fear in subordinates (Farh & Cheng, 2000), Study 3 therefore proposes fear as a mediator of the link between authoritarian leadership and employee job performance.

Fifth, paternalistic leadership can be traced back to the Confucian ideology suggesting that men occupy most leadership roles, which leads to a male-dominated image of paternalistic leaders. Recent research has started to look at role of leader gender in followers' interpretation of and responses to paternalist leadership behaviours (Wang et al., 2013). For example, Wang et al. (2013) have found that the positive effects of benevolence on subordinate performance were stronger for male leaders, and the negative effects of authoritarianism were stronger for female leaders. Literature has recently called for further research to not only consider leaders' gender, but also investigate the role of followers' gender in relative preferences of supervision style (Ojode, Walumbwa, & Kuchinke, 1999; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). Study 3 studies authoritarian leadership effectiveness on job performance by including the moderating role of follower's gender. It mainly argues that males and females are socialised with different preferences of supervision style, which further impacts their response to leader authoritarianism and therefore their work performance.

Finally, in terms of methodological issues, the majority of research identifying the links between paternalistic leadership and employee work attitudes and behaviours either relied on self-reported performance measures which introduces the concerns of same-source biases, or cross-sectional data which introduces the concerns of testing causality (Chen et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2003). This thesis attempts to firstly minimise the common method variance by using multi-sourced data sample with supervisor ratings of subordinate performance and OCB as the dependent variables, and secondly allows for the inference of causality by using multi-sourced data.

1.3 The Scope of this Research

This study adopts Farh and Cheng's (2000) model of paternalistic leadership and draws upon attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973), information processing theory (Lord, 1985), affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), social role theory (Eagly, 1987), social deterrence theory (Lawler, 1986) and resource-dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). The aim of this dissertation is to develop and test an integrated model of paternalistic leadership and to research previously untested antecedent factors, outcomes, and moderators and mediators of direct relationships to attain a more comprehensive insight into paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes.

The three studies in this research project are: *firstly*, the exploration of trust-in-supervisor as an antecedent for paternalistic leadership; *secondly*, to examine the moderating role of resource dependence to explain a positive deterrence effect of authoritarian leadership on

enforcing employee to perform culturally endorsed OCB; and *thirdly* the examination of the mediating role of fear between authoritarian leadership¹ and work outcomes.

In this thesis a positivist paradigm is adopted and a quantitative survey is conducted, prefaced on the assumption that researchers can make objective scientific determinations about organisations and individuals through statistical analysis (Hatch & Cunliffe, 2006). Data was collected through the use of paper surveys distributed to employees and supervisors in four state-owned power stations in China. The research design included collection of data at two time points with a time lag of three weeks, multi-sourced matching of employee responses, aggregation at a team level and matching to supervisor responses. Analyses were conducted using both SPSS (including PROCESS²) and *Mplus* - depending on which was more appropriate.

1.3.1 Study 1: Follower Trust to Paternalistic Leadership: a Cross-Lagged Analysis with the Moderating Role of Followers' External Locus of Control by Powerful Others

To date the primary focus of paternalistic leadership research has been on leadership outcomes with a lack of concern regarding antecedent factors of this leadership behaviour. In order to depict a more “complete” picture of paternalistic leadership, researchers have called for studies to examine the antecedents of paternalistic leadership (Chen & Farh, 2010; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Moreover, so far a large number of studies on antecedents of leadership have mainly adopted a leader-centred perspective which exclusively focuses on the impact of leaders, such as leaders' personality and attitudes (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; House & Howell, 1992). Given that leadership styles are subjectively rated

¹ Authoritarian leadership is arguably the most puzzling of the three paternalistic leadership dimensions. (This is discussed in more depth in Section 2.3.4).

² Hayes (2013).

by subordinates, and benefiting from advances in social cognitive theories, researchers have argued the interpretation of leadership is indicated by the cognitive schema of followers, not necessarily the actual behavioural pattern of leaders (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984; Weiss & Adler, 1984). Building on information processing theory and attribution theory, study 1 takes a follower perspective to argue that trust-in-supervisor is a potential affective-driven element attributed to follower perceptions of paternalistic leadership.

An additional factor within attribution theory is the notion that people have innate biases in the way they process information and explain outcomes (Russell, 1991). The influence of followers' implicit leadership theories on their subsequent judgements such as leadership ratings, is supported by empirical findings which indicate leadership ratings are impacted by whether that leadership is stereotypically viewed or not (Fiske & Taylor, 2013). In other words, leader behaviours being liked and accepted, may reflect a positive bias and motivate followers to affectively attribute their positive affection (i.e., trust) to leaders. Specifically, this study tests whether an individual's external locus of control by powerful others (Levenson, 1974; Rotter, 1966), referred to as an individual expectation about the abilities of powerful figures in controlling his/her life, impacts the process of followers' affective reaction to rate leader paternalism. It is suggested that once a paternalistic leader is categorised as an ideal leader by employees, who are psychologically dependent on authority figures, the leadership ratings will be inflated. In summary, this study argues that subordinates' trust-in-supervisor explains a significant amount of variability in subordinates' perceptions of paternalistic leadership, and the attributional process involved is influenced by individual's locus of control.

1.3.2 Study 2: The Deterrence Function of Authoritarian Leadership in Promoting OCBs: the Roles of Leader's Benevolence and Employee Resource Dependence.

A key challenge in the extant literature is that among the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership, only leader benevolence and morality have been found to positively predict employee outcomes, while authoritarian leadership has been found to impair employees work attitudes and performance (e.g., Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng, Shieh, & Chou, 2002; Wu et al., 2012). As such, scholars have argued for the need for further research to explore the effects of authoritarianism, and how it exerts influence on employee work behaviour. In response to this research gap, Study 2 and Study 3 focus on the most puzzling dimension of paternalistic leadership that of authoritarian leadership.

As mentioned above, the validity of paternalistic leadership in predicting employee work outcomes has been previously demonstrated. However, this line of research is still marked by some limitations. The majority of prior research on paternalistic leadership outcomes has focused on employee attitudes (Chen et al., 2014). For example, paternalistic leadership has been found to be significantly related to compliance, gratitude, commitment and satisfaction with leader (see for example Cheng et al., 2004; Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Farh et al., 2006). Additionally, the few studies that have examined the relationship between paternalistic leadership and work performance, such as in-role and extra-role performance, have been cross-sectional in nature. Study 2 answers this research gap by investigating the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employees' OCBs with a multi-waved design.

Moreover, Farh and Cheng (2000) indicated that there is incomplete information on the impacts of paternalistic leadership behaviours on followers' performance. Among the three

components of paternalistic leadership, authoritarian leadership is the only component which has been found to have a negative impact on subordinates' attitudinal and behavioural performances, such as loyalty to and trust in the leader (Cheng et al., 2002) and organisational commitment (Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2004). It is puzzling that despite a destructive effect on employees' well-being, leader authoritarianism remains a prevalent and salient leadership style, which has been largely tolerated by employees and organisations, given its detrimental effect on work performance. This third study focuses on exploring the relationship between authoritarian leadership and OCBs.

The primary purpose of this study is two-fold: to identify the specific instrumental functions of authoritarianism for managers; and to examine the conditions under which employees tend to tolerate such leadership behaviour. This study draws upon social deterrence theory (Lawler, 1986; Morgan, 1983) and resource-dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), and argues that firstly, authoritarian leadership serves a critical deterrence function which results in followers engaging in culturally desirable behaviours (OCB-emic); and that secondly, leaders' benevolence and employees' resource dependence on the leader form salient boundary conditions for the culturally beneficial effects of authoritarian leadership.

1.3.3 Study 3: Authoritarian Leadership Effectiveness and Follower Gender: a Moderated-Mediation Model of Fear

As discussed above, past studies have consistently found negative effects of authoritarian leadership on subordinates' outcomes. A challenge in the authoritarian leadership literature is to explore the psychological mechanisms underlying the destructive effect of authoritarian leadership on employee work behaviours. There is a need to investigate alternative mediators for authoritarian leadership which influence work-related outcomes.

By applying affective event theory, this chapter explores the role of the follower's negative emotions as a psychological mechanism for the impact of leader authoritarianism on performance. In this second study follower fear of the leader is investigated as a mediator of the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee job performance.

A further consideration is that recent literature about authoritarian leadership has strongly called for research on gender difference (Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin, & Cheng, 2013). For example, a recent study carried out by Wang et al. (2013) explored the role of the leader's gender in authoritarian leadership effectiveness and found authoritarian leadership to be a male-stereotyped leadership style that is less likely to be accepted by followers of female leaders. In addition, as most existing literature studying gender difference focuses on the effect of the leader's gender, fewer studies have explored the follower's gender which may also impact leadership effectiveness (Avolio, Mhatre, Norman, & Lester, 2009; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). To address these research gaps, this study applies social role theory (Eagly, 1987), and contends that the negative relationship of leader authoritarianism on subordinate's fear is only significant in female followers, and furthermore that the mediation effect of fear is also only found in females. In Study 3 a moderated-mediation model is developed and tested for follower's gender as a moderator of the mediation effect of fear.

1.4 Contributions of this Research

Although there is a wide range of literature about leadership in the Western context, there is still a lack of in-depth research and analysis based on Chinese business. Accordingly, this research attempts to thoroughly review the literature of both Western and Chinese leadership theories, and develop models to determine the relationships between leader's

paternalistic leadership and employee work attitudes and behaviours. Altogether, this thesis contributes to the extant literature in several ways.

The first contribution of this work lies in the fact that each of the three empirical chapters (Chapters 4, 5 and 6) integrates relevant insights of separate and relatively independent strands of literature into an overarching theoretical framework on paternalistic leadership. Bringing together different perspectives on the determinants and consequences, including mediators and moderators of paternalistic leadership, this research provides a comprehensive understanding of this leadership behaviour. To minimise the degree of repetition, the following part here provides only a general discussion of contributions made by each empirical chapter:

The primary goal of study 1 (Chapter 4) is to identify trust-in-supervisor as an antecedent of paternalistic leadership. First, by responding to the research calls made by Chen and Farh (2010) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) for research investigating antecedents of paternalistic leadership, to the author's knowledge this chapter is the first to the antecedents of paternalistic leadership by using a cross-lagged model with multi-sourced data. In addition, by testing followers' perceptions of their trust-in-supervisor, this chapter responds to the research calls to investigate follower-centric leadership approaches (Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010; Pastor, Mayo, & Shamir, 2007). Second, in response to the research call for testing the followers' individual differences that may impact on followers' ratings of leader behaviours (Hansbrough, Lord, & Schyns, 2015), this study tests the role of follower's external locus of control in moderating the causal relationship between trust-in-supervisor and paternalistic leadership. It allows us to gain a deeper understanding

of what kind of subordinates tend to shape their perceptions of the paternalistic leader based on the variability in their affective feelings towards the leader.

Study 2 (Chapter 5) explores the deterrence effect of authoritarian leadership to enforce subordinates to perform better culturally endorsed behaviours. This study is the first study to investigate a positive social function of authoritarian leadership. It answers the research calls from Cheng et al. (2004) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) to explore the “totality” of authoritarian leadership. This study argues that, at least in the Chinese context, leader authoritarianism is effective in deterring employee to commit cultural specific OCB. In addition, recent research called for studies to go beyond investigating the effects of the single paternalistic leadership component, and to examine how authoritarian and benevolent leaderships jointly affect employees (Chan et al., 2013; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). This study adds to this line of literature by examining the joint role of leader authoritarian and leader benevolence affecting employee’s OCBs. Third, it also answers the call from Chen et al. (2014) to examine potential moderator of the effect of authoritarian leadership on subordinates. By including the moderator of resource dependence, this chapter advances our understanding about the conditions under which authoritarianism can be beneficial to employee performance. In sum, this chapter helps answer the question why and when employees tend to tolerate leader authoritarianism.

Study 3 (Chapter 6) explores the relationship between authoritarian leadership and subordinate job performance. First, despite existing studies on the linkage between paternalistic leadership and follower attitudes and performances, studies have not yet explored the key underlying mechanisms on how paternalistic leadership influences follower performance (Wu et al., 2012). In response to this research call, this chapter

examines a possible mediator for authoritarian leadership's influence on employee job performance. By considering the mediating role of fear, it addresses the question of why authoritarian leadership tends to have negative effects on employee job performance. Moreover, this chapter further extends the literature by involving the moderating role of follower's gender in the mediation model. Past literature suggested that authoritarian leadership which is stereotypically viewed as a male domain, will emerge a bias against female leaders as they can be seen as a poor fit for such positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Wang et al., 2013). This study enriches this line of research by taking a followers' perspective, and arguing that authoritarian leadership is not only biased by the leader gender, but also biased by the follower gender. Specifically, this study argues that authoritarian leadership as a male-stereotyped leadership style, is less appreciated by female followers. It further helps us to understand how female and male followers differ in their emotional reactions to leader authoritarianism. In total, this chapter strives to indicate why and when authoritarian leadership tends to be detrimental.

Overall, this thesis with three empirical studies takes an in-depth approach to examine an integrative theoretical framework, allowing for the development of rich and testable hypotheses formulated in the three studies, which sheds new light on the paternalistic leadership literature. Each of the three empirical chapters integrates relevant insights of relatively independent strands of literature into an overarching theoretical framework on paternalistic leadership, which depicts a comprehensive picture of paternalistic leadership by testing its antecedents, mediators, moderators and outcomes. Moreover, this thesis systematically reviews the existing paternalistic leadership literature till now and addresses significant research calls from previous scholars. By doing this, this thesis is able to merge

previous studies with the present thesis, which addresses the weakness in the literature and provides promising areas for future research. Finally, these hypotheses are empirically tested by a large sample size data with multi-wave, multisource data, which shows the hypothesised relationships indeed exist and the findings are convincing. All in all, the theory, propositions and insights that emerge from this research are rich and comprehensive. A detailed discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of is provided in the Discussion part.

1.5 The Design and Outline of this Thesis

In this chapter, Chapter 1, the importance of the topics studied, the purpose of the study, and the contributions are discussed. Chapter 2 first introduces a general definition of leadership and discusses and reviews the main approaches to leadership research. It then discusses Chinese culture and paternalistic leadership. A discussion and general review of the main theories applied in this thesis is conducted: attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973), information processing theory (Lord, 1985) and affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), social role theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), social deterrence theory (Lawler, 1986) and resource-dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978). A greater depth of explanation and consideration of theory relating to the hypotheses generated and presented for testing in each of the three studies is provided in subsequent chapters (Chapters 4, 5 and 6).

Chapter 3 describes the methodology adopted for the research and introduces the research paradigm used in this thesis. A brief description of sample characteristics, translation and data collection procedures common to the three studies is provided. Please see a detailed

discussion of the sample characteristics, measures and statistic methods used in each study in its corresponding method part.

From Chapter 4 (Study 1) to Chapter 6 (Study 3), the three empirical studies are presented in order. Each chapter consists of (1) an introduction, (2) a theoretical section, (3) a description of the research methodology used: these empirical chapters refer back to Chapter 3 for the overall methodology (data collection procedures), and then describe the variables and statistical methods used specifically in each study, (4) the presentation of the research findings, and (5) a discussion and review of the research results, contributions, limitations and future research directions.

Finally, Chapter 7 provides an overall summary of the findings and conclusions. The main contributions of this thesis are discussed and ideas for future research are suggested. A discussion of theoretical and practical implications is also provided.

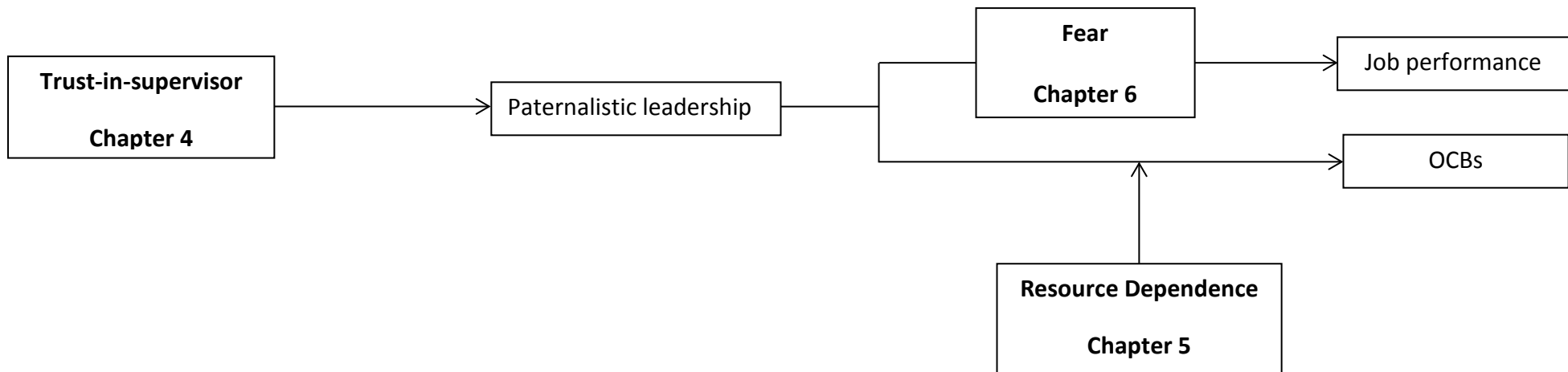


Figure 1.1 Overall Model of the Three Empirical Studies in this Thesis

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

It is widely acknowledged that there was an evolution of leadership theory and research in the late-20th century (Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Cogliser, 2010). Before this period, most studies in the leadership field primarily focused on individual leaders in large private-sector organisations in the United States. However, as management practices were threatened by a growing economy and international competition, the ways of leading organisations were becoming much more complex. With the arrival of the “new leadership school” (Hunt, 1999), the field began to focus not only on person-specific characteristics of the leader, but also on followers, work settings/context and cultures, including a wide range of public, private and non-profit organisations. Therefore, the leadership field today is depicted in dyadic, shared, relational, strategic, and complex social dynamic models (Avolio, Hannah, Reichard, Chan, & Walumbwa, 2009; Avolio, 2007; Yukl, 2002).

The following section briefly captures the progression of leadership theories and concepts and describes them within the boundaries of this study. Only key theories and concepts most relevant to this project are then further discussed in detail. Then this chapter focuses on leadership research in the Chinese context and reviews the paternalistic leadership literature. Finally, this chapter describes the theoretical framework which will be applied for the research hypotheses in later empirical chapters.

2.1 A Brief Review of Leadership Theory and Research

There are a number of reviews of leadership in the literature (e.g., Day, 2001; Dinh et al., 2014; Gardner et al., 2010). In particular, a very recent review carried out by Lord, Day, Zaccaro, Avolio, and Eagly (in press) investigated an extensive volume of published leadership research over the past 100 years and summarised three main waves of conceptual and methodological contributions of leadership research: the first wave of early trait paradigm and leadership behavioural approach, the second wave of extensions of behavioural approach, and the third wave of an expanding focus for leadership theories. Here, this section summaries a number of reviews existing in the literature, and describes the progression of leadership theories and concepts based on the three waves mentioned above.

2.1.1 Early Trait Theories and Behavioural Theories

Trait Theories. The trait approach or the Great Man approach (Borgatta, Bales, & Couch, 1954) dominated the initial decades of scientific leadership research until the late 1940s and early 1950s. This approach believed that people are born to be leaders, and predicts that only “great” people who possess these traits will later emerge as leaders.

Studies in this area emphasised attributes of leaders such as personality, motives, values and skills as predictive of leadership effectiveness (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004). Research on trait began with Galton (1896), who defined extraordinary intelligence as a key leader attribute which is inherited rather than developed. Later Terman (1904) conducted the first empirical study of leadership by examining the individual qualities such as verbal fluency, intelligence, low

emotionality, goodness and liveliness that differentiated leaders from non-leaders in schoolchildren.

There are also a number of meta-analyses that investigate the relationship between individual differences such as demographics (e.g., gender, age, education), task competence (e.g., intelligence, conscientiousness) and interpersonal attributes (e.g., emotional intelligence, communication skills), and leadership effectiveness (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Eagly et al., 1995; Judge et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2004). For example, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and Van Engen (2003) conducted meta-analytic estimates for gender and leadership effectiveness. They found that though males and females exhibit some differences in leadership style, both genders show equal effectiveness, which raises concerns over testing gender as a valid predictor of leadership effectiveness. In addition, Judge et al. (2002) reviewed the relationship between the Big Five Personality traits and leadership. They reported that leadership was positively predicted by individual conscientiousness, openness, and extraversion, and negatively predicted by neuroticism.

The trait approach dominated leadership research during the first half of the 20th century. However, on the basis of reviews by Stogdill (1948) and Mann (1959), which expressed scepticism regarding the trait theory of leadership, many researchers discarded trait approaches due to their inability to explain leader effectiveness and the failure to account for situational variance in leadership behaviour (Jenkins, 1947; Murphy, 1941; Stogdill, 1948). Recent reviews have also suggested that there has been a continuing decline over the past decade in the proportion of articles focusing on trait theory (Gardner et al., 2010; Lowe & Gardner, 2001).

Behavioural Theories. Critiques of the leader trait paradigm promoted scholars to look beyond leader traits and move forwards to the behavioural perspective, which is a research area still remaining extensively active today. Subsequent meta-analytic evidence suggests that leader behaviours are predictors of leadership effectiveness (e.g., Judge et al., 2004; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004).

The behaviour perspective evaluates what successful leaders did and identifies broad patterns that indicate different leadership styles. One consistent theme in this field is that leadership behaviours can fit into two categories: task-oriented behaviours and relational-oriented behaviours. These two categories were first introduced by researchers at Ohio State University (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957) and University of Michigan (Kahn & Katz, 1952; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950; Likert, 1961, 1967).

Specifically, task-oriented behaviours refer to how leaders initiate performance standards, and use these standards and contingent rewards to shape follower commitment, motivation and behaviour. Relationship-oriented behaviours refer to leaders showing concern and respect for group members and treating all group members as equals (Bass, 1990). Yukl (2002) later added a third category in addition to task and relationship behaviours, namely change-oriented behaviours, which includes actions such as developing and communicating a vision for change and encouraging innovative thoughts and risk taking.

2.1.2 Extension of Behavioural Theories

Contingency Theories of Leadership. One of the main critiques of behavioural theories is the fundamental inadequacy in showing that leader's behaviour affects performance outcomes

(Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 2002). To address this limitation, leadership research further establishes contingency models (Fiedler, 1964) which incorporated situational factors to explain the variability of leader behaviour effectiveness. This line of research mainly argues that there is no ultimate leadership style and investigates situational moderators such as individual differences of leaders and subordinates, leader-member relations, leader position power and organisational context (Fiedler, 1964) between leader behaviours and followers' outcomes. However, it is worth noting that, though a few meta-analyses supported the validity of Fiedler's results (Strube & Garcia, 1981) and contingent models have been modified over the years, empirical support for existing contingency approaches is weak (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Graeff, 1997; Vroom & Jago, 2007).

A prominent topic in the contingency perspective is that of "Coach-Like Leadership", which was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) and refined by Hambleton, Blanchard, and Hersey (1977) and Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1979). Their work essentially emphasised the need for the leader to change and adapt to the situation they were faced with according to the maturity of the people and details of the task. The theory outlined four types of leaders: telling, selling, participating and delegating, each one matching with the maturity (readiness) level of the employees. They argued that for staff that performed basic and repetitive tasks, the leader should apply a *Telling* approach. For staff who are motivated but not experienced enough, the leader is recommended to use a *Selling* approach. A participating approach would be most effective for staff with sufficient skills but low levels of motivation. For competent staff, the leader achieves the most optimal results by using a *Delegating* approach. Although it has been widely used in commercial

management training, Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) model has received little empirical support (House & Aditya, 1997).

Alternatively, another well-known contingency approach is the path-goal theory developed by Evans (1970) and later modified by House (1971). The main proposition of path-goal theory is that leaders need to be aware of necessary steps to simplify and clarify goals and methods, and increase satisfaction through extrinsic rewards, which in turn helps followers to be more able to accomplish their tasks and appreciate the value of their contribution in the organisation (House, 1971). House (1996) further revisited the theory and linked the key arguments to the rapidly growing stream of theory on what he calls "value-based leadership" (i.e., transformational or charismatic leadership). House proposed an interaction between contingent reward and aspects of value-based leadership in predicting follower outcomes; in other words, the effectiveness of value-based leaderships should be stronger for low contingent reward than for high contingent reward. A recent meta-analysis by Judge and Piccolo (2004) generally supported this argument.

Another promising development in the contingency approach is the so called 'substitutes for leadership model' (Kerr & Jermier, 1978), which also adds to the contingency theories by examining the conditions under which types of leader behaviours are likely to be effective. According to this model, there are a number of situational variables such as subordinate training or ability that can either strengthen or neutralise the effects of leaders' behaviours, and thus diminish leaders' influence on subordinates' attitudes and performance (Howell, Dorfman, & Kerr, 1986; Kerr & Jermier, 1978). For example, factors like followers' core self-evaluations (Nübold, Muck, & Maier, 2013), human resource management (Kalshoven &

Boon, 2015) and relational job design (Grant, 2012) have been found to compensate for the absence of leadership behaviours.

Social-cognitive Theories. Early theories mentioned above reflect broad trends in leaders' traits and behaviours and contextual influence within the leadership field. To this extent, leadership was regarded as a term that conceptualised objective differences in leaders. However, in the 1970s and 1980s, benefiting from developments in social science theory, our understanding of leadership processes shifts from a behavioural to a cognitive, information processing perspective (Lord, Gatti, & Chui, 2016). This perspective views leadership in process terms, not only considering the behaviour of leaders but also examining the way followers think and process information. This approach includes implicit leadership theories (Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Lord, 1985), generated from general information processing theory, which provides a theoretical basis for studies of this approach (e.g., Eden & Leviatan, 1975; Phillips & Lord, 1981; Rush, Thomas, & Lord, 1977). This line of research points towards the importance of perceptual aspects in leadership effectiveness, or in other words, the significance of the mental models individuals hold of an effective leader (Lord & Maher, 1991).

One important development in this research is that researchers started to investigate the limitations of questionnaire-based measures of leader behaviours. Previous research assumed that retrospective ratings were accurate. However, the ratings reflect not only leader behaviours, but also cognitive schema of perceivers (i.e., followers). Followers may integrate their ratings of leadership with others aspects such as perceptual salience, affective states, national culture and group performance (Hansbrough et al., 2015). For example, Ensari and Murphy (2003) have found that an emphasis on dispositional rather

than situational attributions in a rater's culture significantly affects descriptions of leadership behaviour. Agle, Nagarajan, Sonnenfeld, and Srinivasan (2006) have found top-management team ratings of their CEO's charisma were significantly correlated with both objective (e.g., sale growth) and subjective perceptions of past performance. However, it is worth noting that in their study, ratings of charismatic leadership were not related to future organisational performance. Nevertheless, studies which emphasise the follower perspective add significantly to our understanding of formation of leadership and reconsideration of leadership ratings.

Implicit leadership theories were later extended to leadership categorisation theories (Lord et al., 1984) and implicit followership theories (Sy, 2010). Leader categorisation theories provide the conceptual explanation of the effects of implicit leadership theories on leadership ratings. A leader categorisation/prototype is an abstraction of typical features of ideal leaders. Categorisation theories suggest that followers may automatically categorise leaders in terms of their implicit theories and use the knowledge underlying these categories to generate behavioural ratings (Lord et al., 1984). The key idea was that categorical structures such as prototypes provide the heuristic basis for the encoding and retrieval of likely behaviours. Leadership perceptions therefore reflect a match between a pre-existing prototype in memory and the leader's actual behaviour, and ratings reflect how items fit to the prototype of the leader. Later research further suggests the prototypes are processed as patterns rather than as traits or behaviours (Foti & Hauenstein, 2007), and these patterns are dynamic and context sensitive, reflecting both factors of leaders (e.g., race, gender) and followers (e.g., emotions) (Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001).

More recently, a relatively new field has emerged, that of implicit followership theories (Sy, 2010). Building on the insights from implicit leadership research, implicit followership theories refer to individuals' personal assumptions about the traits and behaviours that characterise followers. Here, prototypes are defined as individual abstract composites of the most representative follower or the most commonly shared attributes of an ideal follower. This proposition reflects that as individuals may endorse certain prototypes over time, leaders tend to have a stable management style that is a reflection of their assumptions about their categorisation of followers. For example, researchers have found that initial positive implicit followership theories held by leaders accounts for their transformational behaviours (Goodwin, Wofford, & Boyd, 2000; Johnson, Sy, & Kedharnath, 2012). However, the number of studies examining implicit followership theories in organisational settings is relatively small, and needs further research to be more integrative on the congruence between both of the leaders' and followers' implicit theories (Sy, 2010).

In summary, the second wave of leader research mainly looks beyond previous theories in two different ways: firstly, investigating other contingency factors that could contribute to or neutralise leadership effectiveness. Also, the lack of consistent empirical support for contingency theories raises interest in a more integrative focus that considers leadership as a function of both the leader and the followers and takes into account the complexity of context. Secondly, the social cognitive approach brings in consideration of raters' psychological processes, which provides us a better understanding of leadership processes from both methodological and substantive aspects.

2.1.3 Emerging Focuses of Leadership Theories

Leadership research was threatened in its early stages by seemingly inconsistent results and marginal advances in theory (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013). There has been a continuing decline in the research on traditional theories of leadership over the past 20 years (Gardner et al., 2010). Instead, research interests in these theories has been redirected into several new approaches to not only find consistent trends and estimate effects which could be generalised across studies, but also take the context in which leadership is exercised into consideration. The following section lists several emerging directions for leadership research from the past 20 years; some of them will be applied and discussed in later chapters as main theoretical frameworks for research models.

Neo-charismatic Approaches. Neo-charismatic theory emerged historically from charismatic leadership theory, and comprises transformational leadership and charismatic leadership. The first models of charismatic leadership styles appeared in the late-1970s (see Conger 1999, for a history). These two leadership styles are by far the most researched leadership paradigms within contemporary leadership investigations (Gardner et al., 2010). According to a recent review of the articles concerning leadership over the past 15 years, a staggering 22.7% of leadership research addressed charismatic/transformational leadership (Anderson & Sun, 2015). The early charismatic leadership theory established by Max Weber (1947) asserted that the charismatic leader did not possess leader authority through any traditional or formal channels, but rather was granted the power through followers' perceptions that this leader is endowed with exceptional qualities. Unlike the early leadership theories, which emphasized rational processes, theories of transformational and charismatic leadership focus on the importance of symbolic leader behaviours in making events

meaningful for followers. Transformational and charismatic leadership theories aim to help us understand how certain leaders foster performance beyond expected standards by developing an emotional attachment from followers (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013).

Many meta-analyses have been conducted to determine in a more fine-grained manner the impact of transformational and charismatic leadership on outcomes (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000; Wang, Oh, Courtright, & Colbert, 2011), its antecedents, notably personality (Bono & Judge, 2004), mediating mechanisms by which leadership have an impact on followers (Naidoo & Lord, 2008) and so on. Yet, while neo-charismatic leadership remains the dominant construct investigated by leadership scholars, the relative share of leadership publications devoted to neo-charismatic leadership has declined due to an explosion of more recent new theories of leadership styles, which will be described later in this section.

Leader-Member Exchange Theory. Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory is the most researched of the relationship-based approaches to leadership (e.g., Gerstner & Day, 1997; Rockstuhl, Dulebohn, Ang, & Shore, 2012). Whereas other contemporary leadership theories such as the neo-charismatic approaches mentioned above focus on the effects of leader behaviours, leader-member exchange (LMX) emphasises the dyadic relationship between the leader and the follower within leadership processes. LMX theory was originally generated from the vertical dyad linkage (VDL) approach (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975) during the 1970. VDL argues that the degree of latitude a supervisor granted to a member to negotiate his/her role is predictive of subsequent behaviours on the part of both supervisor and subordinate (Dansereau et al., 1975). This research developed into studies of role-making (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995) which acted as a determinant of leader-member exchange. Though rooted in role theory (Graen, 1976),

later LMX research has relied heavily on social exchange theory (e.g., Kamdar & Van Dyne, 2007; Liao, Liu, & Loi, 2010; Wayne & Green, 1993). Low LMX relationships, characterized by economic exchange, are based on formal agreement and balanced reciprocation of tangible assets. While high LMX, characterized by social exchange, engenders feelings of mutual obligation and reciprocity.

There are a considerable number of meta-analyses of LMX theory using wide sample selection, generally examining its antecedents and consequences (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Henderson, Liden, Glibkowski, & Chaudhry, 2009; Martin, Guillaume, Thomas, Lee, & Epitropaki, 2015). Early meta-analyses supported a positive relationship between LMX and performance (Gerstner & Day, 1997), citizenship behaviour (Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007), and attitudes such as job satisfaction, affective and normative commitment, and turnover intentions (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012). Dulebohn et al. (2012) also provided support for various antecedents of LMX including transformational leadership and trust in the leader. The review of LMX and culture carried out Rockstuhl et al. (2012) suggested that LMX has a stronger effect on outcomes in individualistic (e.g., Western) contexts than in collectivistic (e.g., Asian) contexts.

A broader aspect of LMX has moved beyond “in-groups” and “out-groups” to focus more on effective leadership processes through the development of LMX over time (i.e., leadership making) (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991; Liden, Wayne, & Stilwell, 1993). Several studies have found that the LMX developmental process begins during initial leader-member interactions and becomes established within a few weeks, and therefore suggests that early relationship stages are a critical period that determine leadership quality (Dansereau et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Liden et al., 1993). One recent study by Nahrgang, Morgeson,

and Ilies (2009) further demonstrated that individual personalities tend to be important at the initial stages of exchange, but behavioural factors, such as performance, soon have a greater influence.

Over the past century, LMX has been among the most heavily researched areas in the leadership field. However, there are still two main concerns: the first is inconsistencies in construct measuring. Subsequent meta-analyses also investigated the validity of the LMX construct and measurement (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim, Castro, & Cogliser, 1999). There are different LMX measures in the literature; two noteworthy measurements are the unidimensional 7-item scale (LMX-7) (Graen & Schiemann, 1978) and the multidimensional scale (LMX-MDM) (Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Liden & Maslyn, 1998). As both of them are established as the standards for assessing the LMX construct, concerns have been raised about the measurement of inconsistencies. Secondly, there are concerns about whether LMX has been studied at the dyadic level of analysis (Schriesheim et al., 1999). With the development of multilevel analysis, scholars have recently shown great interest in the “multilevel nature” of LMX, from both team-level exchange (Farmer, Van Dyne, & Kamdar, 2015) and the changes in LMX relationships over time (Johnson, 2010).

Identity-based Leadership Theories. In recent years, there has been growing research focusing on identity based perspectives (Ashforth, Rogers, & Corley, 2011; Dinh et al., 2014). Early identity research emphasises the effects of self-schemas in particular domains on distinguishing qualities of one person from another (i.e., “I am tall”). More recent research focuses on the dynamic aspects of the self (Lord, Gatti, & Chui., 2016; Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012), which stems from Brewer and Gardner (1996)’s three identity levels model (individual, relational, and collective). The three levels of identity are expected to be

activated by leaders and influence a variety of employees' outcomes (Lord & Brown, 2003; Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993; Van Knippenberg, Van Knippenberg, De Cremer, & Hogg, 2005; Van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003).

Although the topic of identity in and of organisations remains very popular in academia and practice, there are sometimes confusing studies on self-concept and self-identity (Lord et al., 2016). Although some scholars describe identity very similarly to self-concept (Oyserman, Elmore, & Smith, 2012), it is argued that it is necessary to distinguish them in terms of their definitions. Self-concept refers to the broad amalgam of knowledge, experience, self-views, and possible selves that individuals see as self-relevant or self-descriptive (Lord et al., 1999). A person's overall self is typically represented as a set of categories such as self as manager, self as employee, and self as a husband (Stets & Burke, 2003). The accessibility of self-concepts can vary depending on the situation, and the self-concept that is activated at any one moment is called the working self-concept (Markus & Wurf, 1987). Though the working self-concept provides the basis for conscious self-evaluation on site, self-concept has effects that are automatic and unconscious.

On the other hand, self-identity reflects a self-construal that is created on-the-spot as one consciously thinks of the self (Lord et al., 2016). Identity here is interpreted as a cognitive function which is adjusted by self-concepts through top-down feedback. That is, compared to self-concepts, which exist for central aspects of the self and are active in many circumstances, self-identities represent a consciously-created process which is more grounded in social and situational context. Thus, a sufficiently activated self-concept which becomes conscious can foster the contextually integrated identity. In other words, identities are interpreted, contextualised and transformed self-concepts.

One emerging research interest is to study the interactive elements (e.g., social and task context, current goals and social stereotypes) in creating contextually tuned identities (Dinh et al., 2014). When social context (e.g., leaders) sufficiently activates a self-concept to create a contextual self-identity, a number of emotional, cognitive and behavioural process will be initiated (Baumeister & Vohs, 2003; Lord, Diefendorff, Schmidt, & Hall, 2010). The key argument relating to the contextual constraints is that self-identity can be represented by self-concepts which are initiated at different levels of inclusiveness. At the individual level of self-concept, emphasising the differentiation of the self from all others, personal identities such as the distinctiveness of individuals' traits and abilities may be involved. At the relational level of self-concept, which specifies one's dyadic connection to significant others, interpersonal relationships such as ones' LMX may be involved. At the collective level of self-concept, which reflects assimilation to others or significant social groups, collective identity of "merging" of self to a particular group may be involved.

These distinct three-levels of identity create a level-specific meaning and basis for followers' social motivation (e.g., self-interest, colleagues' benefits or collective welfare), which help to understand leadership processes and effectiveness. For example, recent research has shown that transformational and charismatic leaders motivate followers' collective identity, which further encourages followers to achieve group and organisational goals (Kark, Shamir, & Chen, 2003; Shamir, Goldberg-Weill, Breinin, Zakay, & Popper, 2000; Shamir, Zakay, Breinin, & Popper, 1998). Hoffman, Bynum, Piccolo, and Sutton (2011) also found that transformational leadership improves work group effectiveness through a group level of follower perceptions of person-organisation value fit, a similar concept to organisational identity. Johnson (2010) found that relational identity with the leader moderates the

relation between LMX and followers' task performance and OCBs. Another notable study by Kark et al. (2003) also suggested that transformational leaders have an impact on followers' attitudes and behaviours through a dual process of influencing follower social identification with the unit and follower personal identification with the leader. Similarly, Zhu, He, Treviño, Chao, and Wang (2015) also found that ethical leadership is positively related to follower voice behaviours and job performance through dual social identification mechanisms of relational identification with the leader and organisational identification. It is suggested that future research may benefit from examining and comparing different identification process between leadership and employee outcomes. Another promising area for future research is the investigation of between-level dynamics and the interacting levels of self-identities (Ashforth, Harrison, & Corley, 2008; Ashforth et al., 2011).

Leadership Training and Development. In the past two decades, meta-analyses in the leadership field have identified leadership training and development as an opportunity for future research (Dinh et al., 2014; Gardner et al., 2010; House & Aditya, 1997). Unlike traditional trait theories which suggest that leaders are born by nature, the leadership training and development approach suggests that leadership is a source of competitive advantage that can be invested in and developed. It aims to explore the collective capacity of organisational members to engage effectively in leadership roles and processes (Day, 2001; McCauley, Drath, Palus, O'Connor, & Baker, 2006).

There have been several meta-analyses related to this topic (e.g., Burke & Day, 1986; Dragoni, Tesluk, Russell, & Oh, 2009). The first meta-analysis conducted by Burke and Day (1986) reviewed 70 published and unpublished studies spanning over 30 years and found that the primary purpose of most leadership development interventions was to improve

individual managerial skills and job performance. In order to study the effectiveness of leadership training, another meta-analysis review of both qualitative and quantitative research about leadership intervention by Reichard and Avolio (2005) reported that even when the leadership training interventions are short in duration, they had a positive impact on work outcomes (e.g., individual and group performance).

Recent studies continue to explore the complexities of leadership development (Day, 2001). For example, DeRue, Nahrgang, Hollenbeck, and Workman (2012) addressed the question of why individuals who have experienced the same development process will have different training outcomes. They suggested that leadership training programs have a more positive effect on people who are conscientious, open to experience, emotionally stable and who have had a rich prior developmental experience. Dinh and Lord (2012) investigated the interaction between traits and experience. They applied both dispositional and process perspectives, and argued for the development of a theoretical foundation of techniques to develop leaders who can operate effectively within dynamic work settings. Considering emergent research such as these, leadership training and development is an intriguing area for future studies (e.g., Day, 2001).

2.2 From General to Indigenous: Leadership Research Considering Cultural Contexts

In the previous section, this chapter generally reviewed the development of leadership theories and approaches in the mainstream literature. However, most of the leadership theories during the past century were developed in individualistic cultures such as the United States and Western Europe (Yukl, 2002). Due to globalisation, the phenomenon of culture, and the location or context in which research into leadership is articulated and enacted, has emerged as a contentious issue in contemporary leadership studies (Sveiby,

2011). Regarding this issue, there are three main approaches to culture and context used by leadership scholars: universal, the cross-cultural and indigenous research.

The universal approach argues that there are such global brands as McDonalds and Disneyland which are universally enjoyed around the world, suggesting that cultures may be converging and consolidating, creating cultural and human universality (Brown, 1991; Deguchi, 2014). However, empirical research only found partial evidence for simple leadership universality (Dorfman et al., 1997; Silverthorne, 2001). For example, Dorfman et al. (1997) found leader supportiveness, contingent reward, and charismatic leadership were consistently endorsed in Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, and the United States. However, contingent punishment had positive effects in the United States but undesirable effects in the other countries. During the past two decades, there has been a decline in the volume of research focused on identifying simple universal leadership theories (Dickson, Den Hartog, & Mitchelson, 2003).

The significance that national culture plays in determining leader behaviour and employee perceptions within organisations has been increasingly acknowledged (Adler, 1997; Hofstede, 1980). Cross-cultural leadership theorists and researchers (e.g., Hofstede & Bond, 1988; House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004; Walumbwa, Lawler, & Avolio, 2007) emphasise the impacts of cultural differences on leadership processes. The most influential work on culture by Hofstede (1980), whose seminal book of *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values*, presented five dimensions that distinguish one national culture from the other, namely power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity and future orientation (see Hofstede, 1980, 2001, for detail) . He argued that cultural differences, which are

encountered as differences in people's shared values, can further explain the consistently different characteristics of organisational behaviours or patterns. Following this, a number of later studies examined cultural context between leadership styles and employees' work outcomes (e.g., Jung & Avolio, 1999; Walumbwa et al., 2007).

Another notable example of cross-cultural leadership research done by House et al. (2004) offers the strongest body of findings to date: The GLOBE Study of 62 societies. The overall purpose of the GLOBE project was to determine how people from different cultures view leadership. This project involves over 180 researchers from around the world studying the interacting effects of leadership, societal culture, and organisational culture. These studies have provided a very large number of findings on culture and leadership. Data have been collected from over 60 countries, using surveys, unobtrusive measures, interviews, media analysis, and archival data. For example, House and his colleagues developed their own classification of cultural dimensions of uncertainty avoidance, power distance, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future, performance and humane orientations. They also studied and developed regional cultural clusters of Anglo, Confucian Asia, Eastern Europe, Germanic Europe, Latin America, Latin Europe, Middle East, Nordic Europe, Southern Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

Although research interest in studying cross-cultural leadership has increased rapidly (Dickson et al., 2003; Dorfman, 1996; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008), it is argued that the main criticism of the extant literature is that the conceptualisation of different cultures based on broad dimensions makes leadership scholars quick to declare any cross-cultural difference to be "cultural". This wide latitude is especially evident when researchers focus on the comparison of Western and Eastern societies that do not have on-going within-society

ethnic or tribal strife. Hofstede has long argued that culture is often inappropriately applied in research settings with little consideration of theoretical justification and an inability to generalise specific cultural dimensions for all issues or situations. In this sense, conceptual terminology, relative to different ideational systems, is the primary challenge of cross-cultural comparisons (Child, 2009). These potential gaps within cross-cultural studies call for future research to go beyond the traditional contextualisation in cross-cultural perspectives, and to explain leadership processes from a more indigenous perspective.

The indigenous leadership approach argues that leadership is essentially a cultural activity infused with indigenous values, beliefs, language, artefacts and rituals. Such an approach primarily examines the impact of local contextual factors, including historical, societal, and cultural, on leadership outcomes in a particular region or country (Tsui, 2004). The concepts and constructions of indigenous leadership are represented by local realities of the immediate societies in which people live and experience life on a daily basis (Schwandt, 2008). Researchers who take this approach are required to speak a local language and understand the local culture in order to interpret leadership phenomenon in a unique social context.

Finally, in contrast to cross-culture research which includes situational variables or examines the effect of culture or cultural dimensions as moderating variables when conducting research involving different contexts, indigenous scholars use local leadership models and measurements which have been developed in certain contexts. In this sense, by using local concepts, indigenous research has the advantages to interpret “local leadership phenomena” which are unique to a certain cultural context and may not be explained by most of the extant leadership theories developed by US scholars (Leung, 2012).

To this extent, scholars strongly call for indigenous leadership research to explain unique leadership phenomena in specific contexts outside the West (Cao & Li, 2010; Zhang et al., 2012). Of the indigenous leadership theories, paternalistic leadership originating from traditional Chinese culture is a good example. Scholars of Chinese paternalism have persistently and systematically conceived of and theorised paternalistic leadership on the basis of Chinese traditional philosophies and Chinese organisational contexts. This research line contributes to world-wide management research by adding Eastern cultures and leadership practices to the Western dominated leadership research. The next section describes the cultural values in which paternalistic leadership is rooted, and then moves into a review of paternalistic leadership literature and traces its empirical development in Section 2.3.

2.2.1 The Cultural Roots of Chinese Leadership

Over the last half century, China has risen from being an under-developed country to the world's second largest economy (Barboza, 2010). With its 5000 years unbroken history, China is deeply rooted in rich and unique cultural roots. Ma and Tsui (2015) summarised the three major traditional Chinese philosophical schools as Confucianism, Legalism and Daoism. This following sub-section further explores the two main philosophical schools of Confucianism and Legalism in which paternalistic leadership is grounded.

Confucianism. Famous for enriching traditional Chinese values, Confucianism has substantially affected Chinese history, politics, society, and culture for over 2500 years. Although some of the forces of modernisation undermine traditional Chinese values to some degree (Tu, 1998), Confucianism is believed to be the backbone of Chinese philosophy and it plays a pivotal role in guiding Chinese thinking and behaviour (Zhang, Cone, Everett, &

Elkin, 2011). Confucianism is widely agreed to be the cultural and moral symbol of China and to be guidance of Chinese leaders from ancient to modern times (Cao, 2007; Vilkinas, Shen, & Cartan, 2009).

The core concepts of Confucius' leadership thoughts are ceremony or ritual (*li*), benevolence (*ren*), and trustworthiness (*xin*). Ritual is regarded as a collection of social orders and rules that act as unwritten law of Chinese society. It works like a habit to influence human behaviour, establishing an ideal image of society with people in relationships and orders, and providing guidelines on social behaviour which should be followed by a person to build such a society (Li, 2007). The fundamental principle of Confucian ritual is existence of the five cardinal relationships: the benevolent ruler with the loyal minister, the kind father with the filial son, the righteous husband with the submissive wife, the gentle elder brother with the obedient younger brother, and the kind elder with the deferent junior. In Chinese history, these principles of ritual formed the core discipline of traditional culture and the rules and regulations of society.

In fact, emphasising the importance of ritual is emphasising that hierarchy is the fundamental enabler for any political system to centralise power. A bureaucratic system with power difference is an outcome of the ritual which is the basis of a feudal society throughout the history, and which still has a significant influence on the modern Chinese political system as well as on leaders' behaviour (Cao, 2007). For example, a leader should be respected and trusted, and all members of the system should respect the different levels and follow the arrangement of each hierarchy within the system.

Benevolence offered a foundation for human action, namely one's sense of personal significance and concern for others. Confucius believed that leaders should coach followers

who are relatively weaker than others, which gives the relationship between leaders and followers the view of “respectfully harmonised”. That is the key meaning of “benevolence”. It is worth mentioning that the idea of benevolence is enacted in a situation with a large power difference between superiors and inferiors. In other words, the leader constantly reminds subordinates who is really in charge by his/her benevolent behaviours, which is different from the idea of equal treatment and equivalent rights in Western contexts (Cheng et al., 2004).

Virtue, as the pursuit of harmony, can be considered “as a foundation for all of ethics” (Van Norden, 2003, p. 105). Confucius also highlighted the importance of moral thought and its implications for leadership actions (Zhang et al., 2011). Confucianism proposed that virtuous leaders behave according to justice and rituals and do not desire to satisfy their own interests. In order to achieve ideal leadership results, the leader should also select followers who have appropriate capabilities with high moral values to compose a team to form an overall moral system (Guan, 2011). In addition, Chinese people consider harmony as a primary concern in ethics in interpersonal relationships, in contrast with Western ethics where it has been suggested that individuals make ethical judgements more independently (Tan & Snell, 2002). In other words, compared to leading by example to set up an integrity paradigm in Western contexts (Parry & Proctor-Thomson, 2002), morality in Confucian ethics places emphasis on unselfish behaviour due to valuing relations among and between people and events (Ames & Rosemont, 1998), including not abusing power for one’s own good and not taking personal revenge in the name of others’/public interest (Cheng et al., 2004).

It is also worth mentioning that the three core beliefs above exist within, reinforce, and complete each other to form a holistic concept of Confucianism. While the pursuit of power is an end in itself, ritual is advanced by benevolence and ethics to provide ethical foundations for instrumental practices. For example, a leader in Confucian terms should first be a “superior man”, who must have such characteristics as benevolence, duty, observance of rites, wisdom, courage and reliability (Lau, 1992), and then can be expected to lead with effectiveness with his/her power (Lin, 2008). This dynamic concept of Confucianism (Fang, 2012) is the theoretical foundation of the paternalistic leadership model, which will be further explained in the following section together with a Legalist perspective.

Legalism. Legalism was created later than Confucianism, but once Legalism was instated as the central governing idea of the Qin Dynasty (221 to 206 BC), it changed the course of the history of the Chinese legal system and had a great impact on Chinese society, in politics, business and social domains (Qian, 1979; Sun, 1983; Wei, 1972, 2000). The importance of governing by law has become a fundamental basis for the Chinese political system, and “rule by the law” is still regarded as the basic political principle of the Chinese government.

Legalism assumes that people are guided by self-interest and all people have selfish desires and agendas. Therefore, it is concerned with leaders establishing and implementing detailed policies and systems, and the exercise and preservation of power (Ma & Tsui, 2015). Specifically, Legalists believed that a ruler was one who held an absolutely senior position with exclusive power and authority, whereas his followers held junior positions and were considered as inferiors (Hue, 2007). In order to maintain the hierarchical position, the ruler must ensure he/she is in control of inferiors through demanding law and legitimacy. Therefore, the primary goal of legalism is to justify blind obedience, the use of harsh

punishments as a tool of social control, and the subordination of inferiors. The ruler needed to manipulate the followers' behaviour and their impression of his/her leadership (Bell, 2010). Reward and punishment accordingly are effective methods to support the authority of the law and the legal system. Once the law has been established, leaders should take regular modifications in order to keep the authority of law reliable.

Indeed, throughout Chinese imperial history, Confucianism was combined with Legalism. Specifically, many ancient Chinese rulers officially adopted Confucianism as the general doctrine in order to keep people submissive to governmental power, but in reality, the rulers used Legalism to rule the country, to implement policies and rules, and to hold their power. As a result, when ordinary people widely accepted Confucianism, leaders actually enforced rules and regulations from a Legalism perspective (Ma & Tsui, 2015), which has been described as "Confucian on the outside, but Legalist within" by Hucker (1959).

Confucianism and Legalism act as two main philosophical schools for paternalistic leadership, which encompasses the three elements of authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership (Cheng et al., 2004). Similar to Confucian and Legalist ideas, on one hand a paternalistic leader shows his/her authority by giving directives that his/her followers have to follow. On the other hand, the leader should also be a "superior man" who is benevolent and dutiful to followers and exercises leadership by serving as a model to his/her followers. The view of Confucian culture mentioned above makes the three seemingly opposite and paradoxical components coexist, interact and form paternalistic leadership as whole (Wu et al., 2012). A recent study by Chan et al. (2013) described this duality by using the concept of "Janus-faced" leadership, which provides the theoretical

foundation of the holistic and dialectical nature of paternalistic leadership. This idea will be further explained and applied in Study 2 (Chapter 5).

2.3 Paternalistic Leadership Research in the Chinese Context and across Cultures

The last section provided a detailed explanation of the Chinese cultural roots of paternalistic leadership. This following section first traces the early development of paternalistic leadership research in China, and then reviews the empirical studies in paternalistic leadership literature both in China and across cultures.

2.3.1 Early Development of Paternalistic Leadership in China

Early Studies

Silin (1976) was the first to investigate a paternalistic leadership style in Chinese business by conducting a large number of observations and interviews in a large private enterprise in Taiwan. He identified the essential characteristics of paternalistic leadership, including moral leadership, didactic leadership, centralised authority, maintaining social distance from subordinates, keeping intentions ill-defined and implementing control practices. Based on Silin's work, Redding (1990) conducted in-depth interviews with 72 managers and identified a distinct term of economic culture called Chinese capitalism, in which paternalism is a key element. He also identified an additional benevolent component to Silin's work, which was described as "fatherly concern or considerateness for subordinates". Following the works mentioned above, Westwood (1997) proposed a model of paternalistic leadership for Chinese business. His model has nine specific stylistic elements: 1) didactic leadership; 2) non-specific intentions; 3) reputation building; 4) protection of dominance; 5) political manipulation; 6) patronage and nepotism; 7) conflict diffusion; 8) aloofness and social

distance; and 9) dialogue ideal. He also noted that paternalistic leadership is made manifest in a general structural context characterised by centralisation, low formalisation and non-complexity, and in a general relational context characterised by harmony building, relationship maintenance, moral leadership and personalism. Later, Cheng (1995, 1995) proposed a paternalistic leadership model with two broad categories of behaviour: *li-wei* (inspire awe and fear) and *shi-en* (grant favours). *Li-wei* refers to leader behaviours which stress a leader's personal authority and dominance over subordinates, including controlling, underestimating subordinate ability, building a lofty image for the leader, and instructing subordinates in a didactic style. *Shi-en* refers to leader behaviours that demonstrate personal favours and generosity.

Three Dimensional Model of Paternalistic Leadership.

Farh and Cheng (2000), based on the previous research by Silin, Redding, Westwood and Cheng, established a three-dimensional model of paternalistic leadership. They suggested that paternalistic leadership in Chinese business organisations may be broken down into three distinct elements: authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership. Each of their components of paternalistic leadership behaviours are described below.

Authoritarian leadership, which is similar to Cheng's concept of *li-wei*, refers to leader behaviours that assert absolute authority and control over subordinates and demand unquestionable obedience from subordinates. In contrast with the power that comes with leader positions in Western cultures, the power of authoritarian leadership reflects cultural characteristics such as paternalistic control and submission to authority that are typical of Chinese society (Westwood, 1997).

Benevolent leadership, which is similar to Cheng's *shi-en*, refers to leader behaviours that demonstrate individualised, holistic concerns for subordinates' personal or family well-being. Beyond work relations, a benevolent leader even expresses concern about a follower's personal life, and takes good care of their family members. Followers will feel deeply grateful and obliged to reciprocate such treatment when the situation allows (Tsui & Farh, 1997). Benevolent leadership behaviours include devoting energy to take care of followers, showing concern for followers' comfort, and encouraging followers when they encounter arduous problems.

Moral leadership refers to leader behaviours that demonstrate superior personal virtues and qualities that provide legitimacy as well as inspire identification and respect for the leader from subordinates. A moral leader treats people according to their virtues and does not envy others' abilities and virtues. Such a leader does not use authority to seek special privileges, does not take advantage of followers for personal gain, and does not use personal relationships or improper practices to obtain illicit advantages. Followers are likely to respect and identify with leaders who show high morality and integrity, and they may try to imitate those qualities (Yang, 1957).

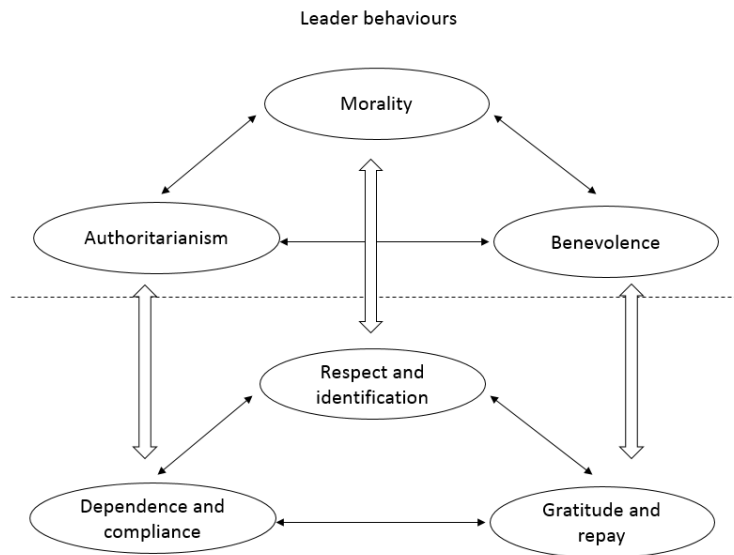


Figure 2.1 Paternalistic Leadership and Subordinate Responses

(Adapted from Farh & Cheng, 2000)

According to Farh and Cheng (2000), each leadership dimension is further proposed to be matched with distinct corresponding subordinates' responses (Figure 2.1). Under authoritarian leadership, the corresponding subordinate responses include compliance, obedience, respect, and fear in responding to the leader's requests. Under benevolent leadership, the corresponding subordinate responses are gratitude and willingness to reciprocate or pay back. Moral leadership is expected to increase subordinate's respect and identification with the leader, and encourage imitation from the subordinates. This three-dimensional model provides fertile ground for subsequent research of paternalistic leadership.

In terms of relating the three dimensions to employee behaviours, though Farh & Cheng's (2000) model theorises that authoritarian leadership can force follower to follow performance criteria through triggering fear in followers (Farh & Cheng, 2000), this relationship has not been empirically tested (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012).

Chapter 6 attempts to address this gap by test the mediating effect of fear between authoritarian leadership and job performance. Benevolent and moral leadership have been found to be positively related to a number of followers' work attitudes such as trust-in-supervisor (Chen et al., 2014), organisation-based self-esteem (Chan et al., 2013), and subsequent employee behaviours including creativity, job performance and OCB. (Chan & Mak, 2012; Chen et al., 2014; Gu, Tanf, & Jiang., 2015).

2.3.2 Empirical findings on paternalistic leadership

There are two key reviews in the literature: one is carried out by Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) for paternalistic leadership research worldwide; another is carried out by Farh, Liang, Chou, and Cheng (2008) for paternalistic leadership research in the Chinese context. Based on these two works, the following section reviews the existing empirical literature of paternalistic leadership by adding recent empirical research.

2.3.3 Antecedents of Paternalistic Leadership

The vast majority of research on paternalistic leadership focuses on the outcomes. However, the investigation of the antecedents of paternalistic leadership is very limited (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Martínez (2003) conducted field interviews with managers in Mexico and argued that variables such as employees' respect for social hierarchy, family-like organisational climates, frequent interactions with decision makers, high value for personal relationships, and limited employee decision making, serve as antecedent variables for paternalistic leadership. Ansari et al. (2004) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) suggested that paternalistic leadership behaviours is accepted only to those who have high-quality leader-member exchange (LMX) relationships with leaders. However, these studies are either qualitative or cross-sectional. Even now, there are still very few valid empirical studies

that look at the causal mechanisms of paternalistic leadership, which limits our understanding of paternalistic leadership as a “completed” picture with considerations of both its dynamics and its consequences. Therefore, future research with multi-wave design has been strongly called for to explore dynamics of paternalistic leadership (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In response to this research call, Study 1 examines the role of trust-in-supervisor as one antecedent of paternalistic leadership in a cross-lagged model by using a multi-wave sample.

2.3.4 Paternalistic Leadership Effectiveness on Work Attitudes and Performance

Research on outcomes of paternalistic leadership has so far been exclusively conducted in field settings. A number of studies have examined the effects of paternalistic leadership on the subordinates’ work attitudes and behaviours. For example, an early study by Uhl-Bien et al. (1990) found that, in Japan, paternalistic leadership fostered trust among workers and managers, affective/economic motivation, cooperation throughout the organisation, group harmony, and lifetime employee commitment. Later research also suggested paternalistic leadership was positively associated with employees’ obligation (Aycan et al., 2000), job satisfaction (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006) and organisational commitment (Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2007), and negatively related to turnover intentions (Kim, 1994).

Specifically, paternalistic leadership has been widely researched in the Chinese business context based on Farh and Cheng (2000)’s three-dimensional model (Figure 2.1). For authoritarian leadership, the original model theorises that it would generate employee compliance with performance standards. Specifically, they proposed that authoritarian leadership would reinforce employee to conduct high levels of job performance through fear and punishment.

empirical research has failed to find a positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and job performance (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2002). Instead, authoritarian leadership has been found to generate negative emotions such as fear and anger (Wu et al., 2002). Moreover, authoritarian leadership has been found to be negatively related to subordinate outcomes such as commitment to the team, satisfaction with the leader, intention to stay (Cheng et al., 2002), voice (Chan, 2014), loyalty to and trust in the supervisor (Cheng et al., 2002), job performance and OCB (Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2002).

In contrast, benevolent and moral leadership have both been found to be positively related to work attitudes and performance, including loyalty to and trust in the leader, commitment to the organisation/team, job performance, and OCB (Chen et al., 2014; Cheng, Chou, Huang, Farh, & Peng, 2003; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh et al., 2006).

In terms of the inconsistency of the three dimensional model due to the “negativity” of authoritarianism, two main promising areas of research are proposed here. First, many researchers have called for future research to study the potential beneficial outcomes of authoritarian leadership (Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Wu et al., 2012). Though researchers continually find the detrimental effects of authoritarianism on work attitudes and outcomes, one promising argument to address the “negativity” of authoritarian leadership is to go beyond investigating the direct effect of the three paternalistic leadership components to examine how they jointly affect employees (Chan et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2006; Niu, Wang, & Cheng, 2009). This promising perspective provides a new insight into the “coexistence” of the components rather than only testing the effects of a single dimension, better capturing the “father” figure presumed to have

both absolute authority and genuine intentions. In this sense, the negative effects of authoritarianism may be compensated or even reversed by taking consideration of leader benevolence or morality. This perspective will be further illustrated and examined in Study 2.

The second is to understand why authoritarian leadership is found to be so over-whelmingly negative. To the author's knowledge, only one study by Farh et al. (2006) found that fear of the leader mediated the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee compliant attitude. They suggested that fear seems to be a direct psychological response to authoritarianism, which may lead to other sequent responses. However, later empirical research did not find potential psychological mechanisms that mediate the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee outcomes. This gap will be further explained and addressed in Study 3.

2.3.5 Boundary Conditions of Paternalistic Leadership

As the Farh and Cheng (2000) three-dimensional model of paternalistic leadership is embedded in a set of cultural/organisational factors, several studies have examined the boundary conditions of the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership. There are two main situational factors that have been most studied as moderators in paternalistic leadership research: subordinate traditionality and subordinate resource dependence.

Subordinate traditionality refers to the extent to which individuals are willing to respect hierarchical role relationships prescribed by Confucian social ethics (Yang, Yu, & Yeh, 1989). Paternalistic leadership theory predicts that people with stronger traditionalist values who identify with traditional Chinese cultural values (especially submission to authority) are

more likely to respond positively to paternalism than those with weaker traditionalist values. Cheng et al. (2004) found paternalistic leadership had no effects on psychological responses of identification, compliance, and gratitude on subordinates with low traditionality, but had positive effects on those with high traditionality. Farh et al. (2006) also suggested authoritarian leadership was not significantly related to job satisfaction for those with high traditionality, but was negatively related to job satisfaction for those with low traditionality. However, nowadays, absolute obedience to authority tends to be no longer “taken for granted”, especially for younger generations which are modernised and well-educated (Chen & Farh, 2010). More recent empirical research has indicated the inconsistency of the effect of traditionality on employee work attitudes and behaviours (Chen & Farh, 2010). As a result, though the empirical research demonstrates the moderating effect of traditionality, the findings were not entirely consistent across studies and the influence of traditionality on Chinese people is diminishing over time.

The other situational factor in paternalistic leadership research is subordinate resource dependence, which refers to the degree of managers’ dominance over subordinates’ resources in the workplace. Subordinate resource dependence on the leader has been demonstrated as a salient characteristic factor of paternalism in Chinese businesses (e.g., Cheng, 1995; Cheng & Jen, 2005; Redding, 1990).

Paternalistic leadership literature often utilises resource dependence theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978) as a boundary condition of leader effectiveness. It is expected that subordinates are less likely to respond to paternalistic leadership when they are resource-independent than when they are resource-dependent. Farh et al. (2006) found that when subordinates have a higher level of resource dependence on the leader, leader

authoritarianism has a stronger effect on subordinate fear, and leader benevolence has a stronger effect of subordinate's identification, compliance and organisational commitment. Cheng and Jen (2005) also suggested that authoritarian leadership was negatively related to loyalty to the supervisor, OCB and job performance at lower levels of resource dependence, whereas the relationships were non-significant for those with high levels of subordinate dependence. The moderating role of resource dependence in strengthening authoritarian leadership's positive impact on employee culturally desirable behaviours will be further illustrated in Study 3.

Recent literature further looks at a wider range of potential boundary conditions for paternalistic leadership. For example, Saher, Naz, Tasleem, Naz, and Kausar (2013) tested the moderating effect of trust in leader between paternalistic leadership and ethical climate. They found when employees have higher levels of trust, they are more likely to accept paternalistic leaders' creation of ethical perspectives and procedures within the organisation. Chan (2014) found the positive relationship between moral leadership and employee voice was stronger when employees received higher levels of information sharing. Wang and Cheng (2010) also found high levels of creative role identity and autonomy strengthened the positive relationship between benevolent leadership and employee creativity.

It is argued that there are two main gaps in the empirical research in terms of investigating the potential moderators of paternalistic leadership effectiveness. First, similar to the gap of the inconsistency of authoritarian leadership mentioned above, limited studies have successfully identified potential moderators for authoritarian leadership, which makes its already inconsistent effects even more difficult to explain. Scholars, therefore, have called

for more systematic investigations on how situational factors may amplify or neutralise the effects of authoritarian leadership on subordinate outcomes (Chen & Farh, 2010; Chan et al., 2013).

Second, though not addressed further in this thesis, it is worth mentioning that another promising consideration is the comparison of the effects of different moderators. For example, Wang and Cheng (2010) found the moderating effect of job autonomy is stronger than individual creative role identity on the relationship between benevolent leadership and employee creativity. A relevant study by Farh, Hackett, and Liang (2007) found the moderating effect of power distance is stronger and more consistent than individual traditionalism on the relationship between perceived organisational support and work outcomes. These studies indicate that contextual factors (e.g., power distance, job autonomy) in an organisation can have a larger impact on employees than individual differences (e.g., traditionalism, creative role identity). Wang and Cheng (2010) suggested that this may imply that individual differences tend to have little effect in situations where context primarily guides behaviour (Gatewood & Hubert, 2001), and as such contextual factors are a more dominant construct in organisational research. However, this line of research comparing the moderating effects of individual versus contextual factors needs further investigation.

2.3.6 Cultural Generalisability of Paternalistic Leadership

Typically, theoretical models developed in a U.S based context are examined for their generalisability to other cultural contexts (Pearce, 2003). Paternalistic leadership has received increasing research evidence from collectivistic contexts such as Latin America, the Middle East, and Pacific Asia regarding its effectiveness (see reviews by Aycan et al.

(2000) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2008)). However, relatively few comparison studies have identified the generalisability of paternalistic leadership effectiveness in a Western context. Therefore, cross-cultural investigations of paternalistic leadership model have been strongly called by scholars (e.g., Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Although this thesis will not empirically examine the cross-cultural generalisability of paternalistic leadership in depth, it is still worthwhile to review the literature from a cross-cultural perspective, providing a more comprehensive picture of paternalistic leadership. The following section is illustrated from two perspectives: 1) comparing paternalistic leadership with other U.S based leadership models; 2) reviewing studies examining the generalisability of paternalistic leadership in Western contexts.

Years of emic research have revealed a consistent pattern in paternalistic leadership that is different from that practiced in the West. According to Chen et al. (2014), paternalistic leadership shares conceptual elements with other leadership theories such as transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and ethical leadership (Brown, Treviño, & Harrison, 2005), but is theoretically and empirically distinct.

For example, transformational leaders intellectually challenge their followers to seek new ways of doing their work, empower them to go beyond their self-interests, communicate a vision, and appeal to them at an emotional level, often through the expression of positive emotions such as optimism and enthusiasm (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1994). In contrast, given its Confucian-oriented values, paternalistic leadership does not involve the concepts of delegation and empowerment. Followers led by paternalistic leaders are expected to depend on the leaders' authority and to follow the leader's decisions without questioning. Another critical distinction between paternalistic and transformational leadership is the

extent to which leaders are concerned about the personal welfare of their followers. Transformational leaders provide individualised care, but this is primarily limited to work issues. In Western-oriented cultures, followers would perceive their leaders' involvement in their personal lives as a violation of privacy; family issues are often clearly distinguished from work (Chua, Ingram, & Morris, 2008). Paternalistic leaders, however, provide individualised care both in their followers' work and personal lives. They act like parents and ensure that the whole person is being attended to. Empirically, Cheng et al. (2004) found that paternalistic leadership has significant predicting power on subordinate responses of compliance with, gratitude and repayment to, and identification with the leader after controlling the effects of transformational leadership.

Ethical leadership refers to leadership behaviours that demonstrate appropriate conduct through personal actions and interpersonal relationships, and the promotion of such conduct to followers through two-way communication, reinforcement, and decision-making (Brown et al., 2005). To some extent, ethical leadership is similar to the moral dimension in Farh and Cheng (2000)'s model as they both suggest that effective leaders set high moral standards and exhibit personal integrity. Ethical leaders act as role models for followers to emulate so that they ultimately engage in ethical decision-making and prosocial behaviours (Brown et al., 2005). This social learning process is not emphasised in paternalistic leadership theory. Paternalistic leadership is also distinct from ethical leadership in its one-way communication style between the leader and the followers, where followers are expected to listen and obey, as opposed to the two-way communication put forward by ethical leaders.

Before this thesis summarises the cross-cultural research of paternalistic leadership, it is necessary to mention the potential issue that a worldwide accepted measure of paternalistic leadership has not yet emerged, which has led to disparity among authors from different nations as well as conflicting and uninterpretable findings (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Paternalism has different connotations and meanings in different contexts. For example, paternalistic figures are perceived as pure authoritarian and manipulate in Western contexts. In China, paternalistic figures are perceived to be authoritarian, benevolent and moral. In other Eastern cultures (e.g., Turkey and India), they are perceived to be caring and considerate. Despite this, they all cited “paternalism” or paternalistic leadership as their construct of interest. Therefore, there are several existing scales in the literature (Aycan et al., 2000; Cheng et al., 2004; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006), however the information regarding their psychometric properties is very limited.

In terms of cross-cultural generalisability, the trait model applied in this thesis was specifically developed for use in China, which has been dominantly applied in Chinese contexts and only has recently received applicability across East Asian contexts (Japan and South Korea) where share Confucian cultural roots with China (Cheng et al., 2014). In other words, the indigenous scale of paternalistic leadership in China has not yet to be tested or validated in the Western business context. Therefore, it is flawed to review the cross-cultural generalisability of paternalistic leadership purely on its “name”, but better to focus on the constructs carrying different meanings in different cultural contexts.

The empirical works on paternalism examining its cross-cultural generalisability in Western contexts used a scale of benevolent paternalism that was established by Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) based on the item pool developed by Aycan (2006). Aycan and her

colleagues (2000) conducted a 10-country comparison examining the effects of four sociocultural dimensions (one of which was paternalism) on work outcomes. Interestingly, in this study American employees reported higher paternalistic values compared with employees from Canada, Germany, and Israel. Likewise, Pellegrini et al. (2006, 2010) also found paternalistic leadership positively related to employees' organisational commitment and LMX in the North American context, which suggests paternalistic leadership may generalise across cultures.

In conclusion, although some of the literature has examined the cross-cultural generalisability of paternalistic leadership, as suggested above, the main critique arises from the inadequate measurement quality among authors. Most of the studies which successfully identified the cross-cultural effectiveness of paternalism have used the scales from Aycan (2006) or Pellegrini and Scandura (2006). On the other hand, the three-dimensional measurement from Cheng et al. (2004) has not yet received any cross-cultural generalisability in Western contexts, and as such is arguably an area for future research¹.

2.4 Theoretical Frameworks Applied in this Thesis

In this next section, the author will briefly introduce the main theoretical frameworks applied in this thesis. In order to reduce repetition, these theoretical frameworks will then be further demonstrated in detail in the corresponding chapters. The frameworks are discussed in order as follows: informational process theory and attribution theory are applied in Study 1; social deterrence theory and resource dependence theory are applied in Study 2; affective event theory and social role theory are applied in Study 3;

¹Although the cross-cultural generalisability is not addressed in this thesis, the researcher hopes to examine this in future work. The issue of cross-cultural generalisability of paternalistic leadership will be examined, possibly in the context of policing in the UK, where a command and control leadership style may be prevalent.

2.4.1 Information Processing Theory (Study 1)

Information processing theory mainly argues that people's minds can be described as an information processing system, and human behaviour is a consequence of such processing (Bourne, Dominowski, Loftus, & Healy, 1979). The utility of information processing theory in the leadership field has been recognised for quite a long time (see a recent review by Dinh, Lord, and Hoffman (2014)). It provides a detailed theory explaining leadership perceptions based on social cognitive principles, and views leadership as an outcome of the social-cognitive processes people use to label others.

Research suggests that leadership perceptions are based on both the categorisation of leaders' characteristics into relevant stereotypes (recognition-based processing), in other words implicit leadership theories (Lord et al., 1984; Lord, Foti, & Phillips, 1982), and outcomes of leadership events (inference-based processing) (Calder, 1977; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987). Implicit leadership theories suggest that people have leadership prototypes that contain attributes and behaviours believed to be typical of leaders (Lord et al., 1984). The perceiver cognitively makes attributions about the leaders, which in turn determine whether a leader will be perceived as credible. Inference-based processing suggests that followers make attributions for leaders' characteristics based on the outcomes of salient events (Lord, 1985; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987; Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Phillips & Lord, 1981; Rush, Phillips, & Lord, 1981). Here, the author kindly refers the reader back to section 2.1.2 to see a detailed review of social cognitive theories.

2.4.2 Attribution Theory (Study 1)

Related to information processing theory, attribution theory is an important part of process that employees use to understand the importance of leadership perceptions (McElroy &

Hunger, 1988; Phillips & Lord, 1981). The main distinction between these theories is that information processing theory focuses on how people automatically interpret leaders' behaviours through their implicit leadership theories, while attribution theory is more generally associated with a broader context that integrates followers' individual differences, affective states, task outcomes, salient organisational values (Bono, Hooper, & Yoon, 2012; Hansbrough et al., 2015; Hunter, Bedell-Avers, & Mumford, 2007).

Attribution theory describes the process by which individuals explain the causes of behaviours and events (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973; Weiner, 1986). The research began with Fritz Heider in the early 20th century, and later advanced by number psychologists, but the most notable contributors were Kelley (1972) and Weiner (1985). The basic assumption of attribution theory suggests that people's sense making as a systematic and dynamic process that is enacted over time and includes behaviours of both leaders and followers (Weick, 1995). It extends the sense making focus from leader categorization to a broader context. For example, one interesting intent of attribution theory focuses on follower individual characteristics and suggests that a follower have an innate desire to understand the causes of important outcomes in their lives (Heider, 1958). Such innate desire reflects the fundamental attribution error (Ross, 1977), which therefore influences their expectancies, emotions, and behavioural responses to leader behaviours (Martinko, Harvey, & Douglas, 2007). Another notable research line suggests that affective states of followers are important determinants of leadership perceptions. For example, followers' arousal directly influences ratings of charisma (Bono & Ilies, 2006), and liking of leaders is both an important determinant of transformational leadership ratings (Brown & Keeping, 2005) and is an early predictor of LMX relationships (Liden et al., 1993). In conclusion, taking together

information processing theory with attribution theory, it is suggested that implicit leadership theories, and other attributional aspects of perceivers such as their individual characteristics and affection reactions, significantly affect followers' leadership perceptions.

Study 1 applies attribution theory, and suggests: 1) the affection of followers' trust-in-supervisor plays a critical role in determining their ratings of leader behaviours; 2) subordinates' external locus of control by powerful others, refers to individual dependence on powerful people, further moderates followers' attributional process from trust to perceived leadership behaviours.

2.4.3 Social Deterrence Theory (Study 2)

According to Lawler (1986) and Morgan (1983), the concept of deterrence refers to the use of threats by one party to convince another party to refrain from initiating some course of action. Based on the rational choice view of human behaviour, the theory predicts that illicit behaviour can be controlled by the threat of sanctions that are certain, severe, and swift. Research on deterrence has mainly been conducted in criminal and military contexts (Delpech, 2012; Nagin & Pepper, 2012). For example, after World War II, early scholars such as Bernard Brodie, Arnold Wolfers, and Jacob Viner applied deterrence theory to consider the implications of nuclear weapons. Deterrence theory also allowed policymakers to organise strategic language and jargon, such as the terms of massive retaliation, invulnerability, assured destruction, counterforce, and so on (Jervis, 1979; Kaplan, 1958).

Management research mainly employs deterrence theory in the area of industrial discipline (Edwards & Whitston, 1993; Rollinson, Handley, Hook, & Foot, 1997). It is suggested that leaders can motivate compliance via the threat of application of punishment and sanctions

(Messick & Kramer, 2004). In this sense, an employee must weigh the potential gain of engaging in deviant behaviours like sabotage or theft against the potential loss of their interests if such behaviours were caught by leaders. Clearly, the deterrence effect is a necessary element of leadership because groups and organisations cannot function if people do not limit their behaviour in accordance with rules. However, limited research has attempted to develop a model of leadership behaviour based on deterrence theory (Tepper et al., 2009).

The deterrence model is applied in this thesis to argue for authoritarian leadership effectiveness. Study 3 argues that authoritarian leaders use deterrence power to clarify their leader role as being paramount and legitimate, and express the role expectation of their followers as being superseded and compliant. In this sense, as Chinese followers are socialized to respect the vertical hierarchy and have a dependent mind-set (Redding, 1990), authoritarian leaders get followers to understand their prescribed roles and respect leader authority through deterrence power and threaten employees with potential punishment for their disobedience.

2.4.4 Resource Dependence Theory (Study 2)

Starting with the publication of Pfeffer and Salancik (1978)'s *The External Control of Organizations: A Resource Dependence Perspective*, resource dependence theory (RDT) has become one of the most influential theories in organisational and strategic management (Hillman, Withers, & Collins, 2009; Pfeffer & Salancik, 2003). A central theme of RDT is the importance of social power construct, which refers to the control over vital resources to create the feelings of dependence from counterparts (Davis & Cobb, 2010; Ulrich & Barney, 1984).

Resource dependence theory has been widely applied in a macro level to explain how organizations reduce environmental interdependence and uncertainty (Hillman, Withers, & Collins, 2009). In a micro level, resource dependence theory has been utilized to explain the interaction between leader and subordinates (Cheng, 1995; Cheng & Jen, 2005). When a leader has the power to allocate resources (material resources, information, training opportunities, social support and so on) as part of his/her position for a subordinate, or when a subordinate has to depend on the resources that are provided by the leader to achieve a task, the leader has the power to influence this subordinate's behaviour. In other words, there is a positive relationship between the degree of dependence and the degree of influence: the higher the degree of dependence, the stronger the influence of the leader on the subordinate. For studies that investigated the situational models of leadership, subordinate resource dependence mostly has been found to have a positive moderating effect on leadership effectiveness (de Vries, Roe, & Taillieu, 1998, 2002; Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001). Study 3 argues that resource dependence is a key boundary condition of authoritarian leadership in motivating employees' cultural specific behaviours. It is suggested that authoritarian leaders may serve an instrumental function to deter employees from deviating from cultural norms, especially for employees who depend on the leader for resources.

2.4.5 Affective Event Theory (Study 3)

Affective event theory focuses on the structure, causes and consequences of affective experience at work (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). It attempts to describe how emotionally laden events at work elicit emotions, and how those emotions influence work attitudes and behaviour. Its main contribution is to investigate affective or emotional states as a central

factor in explaining the links between work environment and work attitudes and behaviours.

According to affective event theory, work environment in general and work events in particular lead to particular emotions (e.g. anger, fear, joy, sadness), and subsequently lead to various coping appraisal processes, emotional reactions, and coping responses and behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). It mainly suggests that characteristics of the work environment predispose the occurrence of certain work events, which lead to specific emotions that may have an immediate influence on work actions and may influence work attitudes and cognitive-driven behaviours over time (Dasborough, 2006; Judge, Scott, & Ilies, 2006; Zhao, Wayne, Glibkowski, & Bravo, 2007). Research further argues that negative emotions, such as fear or anxiety, have disproportionately stronger effects on unfavourable outcomes of affective experiences than positive emotions on positive outcomes (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Taylor, 1991). This is because the impact of negative mood extends beyond the boundaries of harmful events and can lead to a long-lasting psychologically weakened state which is largely detrimental to work outcomes (Schwarz, 1990).

Leadership in the workplace is seen as a critical component of the organisational environment, and has been regarded as an affective event experienced by employees, producing constant positive and negative emotions that can potentially influence their feelings, attitudes and behaviours (Dasborough, 2006; Gaddis, Connelly, & Mumford, 2004). There is a growing body of literature on leadership and emotions studying of the impacts of leader behaviours on subordinates' emotions and therefore work outcomes (see a review by Gooty, Connelly, Griffith, & Gupta, 2010). For example, McColl-Kennedy and Anderson

(2002) found that the link between transformational leadership and employee performance is fully mediated by the emotions of optimism and frustration experienced by employees. Madjar, Oldham, and Pratt (2002) examined the relationship between leader support and follower creativity. They found that leader support positively related to follower positive mood, which in turn facilitated follower creativity.

Study 3 applies affective event theory and suggests that leader authoritarianism, involving absolute controlling behaviours and punishment, can be regarded as a negative event in the workplace, which triggers the negative emotion of fear and further undermines followers' performance level.

2.4.6 Social Role Theory (Study 3)

Gender has been a long-standing topic within leadership theory and research since the 1990s. It has been brought into the leadership field by scholars conducting comparative research between men and women in terms of their leadership qualities, behaviours, and styles, with the primary goal of demonstrating differences between, and possible superiority of, one gender over the other (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Rosener, 1990). This topic has developed based on Eagly (1987)'s social role theory, which emphasises the numerous ways in which the social behaviours that differ between sexes are embedded in gender roles as well as in many other roles pertaining to work and family life. It mainly argues that people's gender role expectations are socially modelled, learned, and reinforced through social learning and societal power relations (House, 1981). Through this process, people internalise defined roles and tend to see the world and behave in ways that conform to the social expectation associated with these roles (Kidder & Parks, 2001; Maccoby, 1990).

Relevant studies of social roles and genders in leadership mainly address the following topics: a) the emergence of female and male leaders from initially leaderless groups; b) the leadership styles of males and females; c) gender bias in the evaluation of leaders, and d) the effectiveness of male and female leaders (Lord et al., in press). For example, the best known is Schein (1973)'s *think manager-think male*. Eagly and Karau (1991) found that men emerged as leaders more often than women. Later research started to look at the different leading styles and effectiveness of male and female leaders. For example, an influential meta-analysis by Eagly et al. (1995) identified the relationship between gender and leadership style. They concluded that women were more effective than men in leader roles that were defined in less masculine terms, which were more nurturing, helpful, and people-oriented (also called "communal" leadership). On the other hand, men were more effective in roles defined in more masculine terms, with a willingness to take risks and be task-oriented (also called "agentic" leadership). Eagly and Karau (2002) further addressed the question of whether female leaders are disadvantaged by biased evaluation. Their meta-analysis found that women are devalued compared to experimentally equated men, especially when evaluated by male followers and when enacting culturally masculine leadership styles.

A relatively neglected issue in the literature is the effect of employees' gender on supervision preferences (Stoker, Van der Velde, & Lammers, 2012; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). Social role theory provides guidance concerning which leader behaviours are likely to be effective and acceptable between males and females (Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). This can be explained by the similarity attraction effect (Byrne, 1971) suggesting that people like others who are similar to themselves. According to this view, females tend to have a

stronger preference for “communal” leadership styles, while males tend to appreciate “agentic” leadership styles. As such, it is important to investigate the effects of leadership from a follower perspective and ask subordinates about their leaders’ influences on their attitudes and behaviours. Following this line of research, Study 3 investigates the role of followers’ gender and argues that authoritarian leadership as a masculine leadership style is less appreciated by female followers, resulting in a higher level of negative emotions (i.e., fear) and decreasing performance level.

In summary, looking at the origins of leadership, the review of the development of general leadership theories, the definitions of paternalistic leadership behaviours, the underpinning theoretical explanations of paternalistic leadership effects and the existence of methodological flaws in the literature, provides a strong basis for the development of theoretical models in the three empirical studies. Following the discussion of the methodology used, in the later three chapters of the thesis, these theories and models will be explored further.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY OVERVIEW

Topics covered in this chapter are arranged in two parts: the first introduces different methodological approaches, discusses the approach applied in this thesis and highlights the strategy for data collection. The second part, from 3.2 onwards, provides a brief discussion of the data collection procedures and ethical issues.

3.1 Research Paradigm

Over the past two decades, much discussion of research methods in social science has focused on the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods. Concern has arisen about the use of different research methods without sufficient knowledge of the rigor necessary to ethically utilise them (Maggs-Rapport, 2001). Scholars have suggested that if researchers want to examine the issues raised by approaches such as qualitative or quantitative methods, it is important to start by examining the wider “dominant paradigm”. Such examination requires researchers to consider the approaches within an ongoing context in which researchers have pre-existing commitments to certain systems of beliefs and practices (e.g., Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Morgan, 2007). A research paradigm is defined as set of rules, beliefs, values and techniques accepted by science that provide different conceptualisations of the world (Kuhn, 1970). The best known system for comparing different research paradigms in social science, developed by Guba and Lincoln (1988), is through the concepts of philosophy of knowledge: ontology, epistemology, and methodology (e.g., Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Morgan, 2007).

3.1.1 Associated Philosophies

Ontology is concerned with the nature and relations of being (what is the form and nature of reality and what can be known about it). It refers to the primary principles that individuals hold about the nature of an issue (Hanson, Creswell, Clark, Petska, & Creswell, 2005). Ontology relates to the questions of whether social phenomena can and should be considered objective entities that have a reality external to social actors, or whether they can and should be considered as social constructions built up from the perceptions and actions of social actors (Bryman, 2001). Highlighting the answers to these questions will frame the way that a researcher thinks, and therefore how they study the world (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007).

Epistemology (what is the nature of the relationship between the knower and what can be known) deals with the nature of human understanding. This approach builds on the insight that research inherently involves epistemological issues about the nature of knowledge and knowing. It investigates the criteria by which scholars determine what does/does not constitute warranted or valid knowledge (Gill & Johnson, 2010). The answer to this question is constrained by the answer to the ontological question. For example, if an “objective” reality is assumed, the knower must be detached and independent from the reality in order to discover “what is the reality”.

Methodology (how can the inquirer go about finding out whatever they believe can be known) refers to the technique used by the researcher to investigate reality. It is a creative approach to understanding, using whatever methods are appropriate to particular questions and matters. Once again, shifts in the views of ontology and epistemology lead to important distinctions in methodology. Different methodologies combined with broader views of

ontology and epistemology will be illustrated in the next section. All in all, the basic logic of a research paradigm is that ontology concentrates on the nature of reality and influences the epistemology through questions about the possibility of “truth” in the form of “objective knowledge” about reality; epistemological assumptions about the nature of knowledge limit the range of methodological perspectives, which should be fitted with corresponding methods (quantitative or qualitative) (Morgan, 2007). These three questions will form the main foci around which the two paradigms in the following section will be discussed.

3.1.2 Positivism versus Interpretivism

Table 3.1 Basic Beliefs of Research Paradigms

Research Paradigms	Positivism	Interpretivism
Ontology	Realism – “real” reality but	Relativism – local and
Epistemology	Dualist / objectivist	Transactional/subjectivist;
Methodology	Experimental/manipulative;	Hermeneutical/dialectical

Adapted from Guba and Lincoln (1994)

In social science, there are two main methodological paradigms: positivism versus interpretivism (Briggs, Morrison, & Coleman, 2012; Bruyn, 1966; Giddens, 1984; Johnson & Clark, 2006). The key differences between positivism and interpretivism can be considered through ontological, epistemological and methodological concerns (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Table 3.1 summaries these relationships.

Moreover, researchers apply their methodological paradigm to further connect issues in research design. The basic assumptions and practical conduct of these two paradigms are summarised in Table 3.2. For example, pure positivism accepts only the scientific method, which is based on using pure quantitative data to verify the hypotheses (Patton, 1990). Pure

interpretivism on the other hand, only accepts qualitative data which generates words of participants' reconstructed experiences of past events and the researchers' subsequent interpretations of participants' experiences (Lincoln, 2009). A detailed discussion of how the two different paradigms relate to the overall research perspective will be presented below.

Table 3.2 Perspective Differences of Positivism and Interpretivism

	Positivism	Interpretivism
The observer	Independent	Part of what is being observed
Human interests	Irrelevant	Main drivers of science
Research process	Hypotheses and deductions	Rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Must be operationalised so that they can be measured	Incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of 'whole' situations
Generalisation	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling	Large numbers, selected randomly	Limited cases, chosen for specific reasons

Adapted from Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, and Jackson (2012)

Positivism

Positivism holds the perspective that the social world exists externally (Creswell & Clark, 2007). In its perspective, the social world can reside outside an individual and is capable of being generalised from. Positivists try to build knowledge of a reality that exists beyond the human mind. They believe that human experience of the world reflects an objective, independent reality and that this reality provides the foundation for human knowledge (e.g., Weber, 2004). Therefore, the aim of this approach is to discover universal features of humankind, society and history. Positivists argue that both social and natural sciences share a similar epistemological form, which indicates that a study of society or human behaviour could be conducted by similar methods as those used in the natural sciences in terms of precise theoretical models and hypotheses (Johnson & Clark, 2006; Manning Fiegen, 2010).

From the positivistic perspective, knowledge is generated through observation and is regarded as objective and measurable (Bryman, 2001). Positivism believes that only those phenomena which are observable, in other words which are amenable to the senses, can validly be warranted as knowledge. As such, the objective methods and procedures in natural science are prescribed by positivism due to the belief that, when studying a research question, valid knowledge can only be accumulated from observable facts rather than from feelings or experiences (Freshwater, 2007). The positivistic paradigm suggests identifying a research question through an objective view that relationships between variables can be studied based on theoretical assumptions (Creswell, 2009). This has led to the application of positivistic research tactics in social science to large-scale surveys or laboratory experiments, where the data are carefully monitored and results are repeatable. In other words, researchers mainly collect facts, study the relationship between these facts and use scientific techniques to produce quantifiable and generalisable conclusions (Johnson & Clark, 2006).

Interpretivism

A key aspect of interpretivism is that the world is socially constructed, with it being neither objective nor exterior (Molina-Azorin, 2010). Essentially, interpretivists argue that using a positivist approach is inadequate outside the physical and natural sciences. In social science, they disagree with the positivists on their method of collecting adequate facts to draw generalised conclusions, as the natural and cultural sciences are essentially different. Their emphasis is on the world as lived by a person, not the world or reality as something separate from the person (Valle, King, & Halling, 1989). They advocate that research focused

on people, interactions, behaviours, and backgrounds using non-positivist research methods yields better results.

Interpretivists recognise that knowledge is socially self-constructed by individuals, which reflects their particular goals, culture, experience and history. Interpretivists try to make sense of the world, recognising that people's sense-making activities occur within the framework of their life-worlds and the particular goals they have (Easterby-Smith et al., 2012). An interpretivist approach applies different methods of data collection from positivism, including interviews, focus groups and case studies. In this sense, linking human behaviours with society, interpretivists seek to understand and explain the reasons behind people's different experiences and perspectives (Leonard & McAdam, 2001).

The positivistic research paradigm will be applied as the main paradigm in this thesis. This is because interpretivism studies are utilised in a preliminary capacity at early enquiry stage of one concept, supporting in a secondary role as item development. However, the three-dimension model of paternalistic leadership has been well validated and tested in the literature. More quantitative studies in line with positivistic tradition are needed to generalise conclusions and compare findings with other studies in order to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the concept of paternalistic leadership.

As such, more general theoretical connections and influences from the literature will be developed into a more specific view and truth of the research questions, and hypotheses will be evaluated until rejection or confirmation through the research process.

3.2 Data Collection and Procedures

3.2.1 Quantitative Method with Survey Data

A quantitative method with a positivistic paradigm is adopted in this research. Quantitative methods have been viewed as the mainstream investigational approach for over 100 years. It is deductive in its approach through the formulation of hypotheses produced from falsifiable theories. As such, quantitative methods are appropriate when researchers intend to investigate the relationship between study variables, quantified for applying statistical analyses, in order to generalise the findings to a wider population (Chen, 2011). It not only enables comparison with previous research but also enables replication and extension in future research initiatives (Hubbard & Ryan, 2000).

Quantitative research methodologies include experimental, quasi-experimental, and non-experimental designs. This study used a multi-sourced, quantitative, non-experimental, survey-based design that utilised multiple linear regression to test for relationships between variables. It is a method used to gather data from respondents, thought to be representative of some population, which uses an instrument composed of closed structure or open-ended items or questions (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999). It is a relatively efficient and highly feasible way of collecting information from a large number of respondents and affords faster returns (Gaddis, 1998); it is therefore considered as the dominant form of research design in many social science studies (Trochim & Donnelly, 2001). Compared with other research designs such as interviews and experiments, survey research can be applied to study a wide geographic region and involve a broader sample.

The primary method of empirical testing selected for this study was the field survey. A field survey involves the collection of data by survey at a point in time, in order to collect data around two or more variables which are examined to identify patterns of association (Collis et al., 2003). Surveys are one of the most popular methods of data collection due to the simplicity of their application. It allows for a large amount of data to be gathered, and hypotheses to be tested, in a relatively short space of time. It is widely used across diverse fields of empirical research, including organisational behaviour and social psychology.

3.2.2 Overview of Data Collection Procedures

Previous studies suggest that an ideal leadership research design would include an appropriate number of groups for data testing and allow for collecting data from multiple sources (Lin & Peng, 2010). Research also suggests that it is vital to select multi-wave methods that are appropriate for testing leadership models (Rogosa, 1995; Yukl, 2002), which decreases the threat of common method variance. These principles are guidelines for this research. The sample for this study consisted of 1000 subordinates in 91 teams in 3 power stations from a state-owned energy company in Zhejiang province, Mainland China. The main responsibility of this energy company is to ensure the electricity supply to the local areas. Two separate sets of questionnaires were used in the study: one for subordinates and another for their immediate supervisors. To ensure the procedure was objective, divorced from predilections and biases, the sample involved in this study was from different work units, age groups, genders, and lengths of tenure an employee worked for the company. The demographic information collected included work location, tenure, gender, age, education level, marital status, shift and resident status.

The data for the present study was collected in two waves. A detailed breakdown of the distribution and responses to each survey group is provided in Table 3.3. Participation in this study was voluntary. The author explained the purposes and procedures for implementing the survey, such as confidentiality procedures, informed consent, ethical protection, and required level of involvement, directly to the personnel department in each power station. The surveys were collected by two research assistants from the personnel department in each power station. Each assistant was asked to distribute approximately 20 packages of surveys in the company. Questionnaires were administered at two different times to the groups of subordinates (production workers and administrative staff), followed by a separate survey to their immediate supervisors. Specifically, supervisors and subordinates played different roles in the survey: two separate sets of questionnaires were administered in two different times: at Time 1, subordinates reported their supervisors' paternalistic leadership style (i.e., authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership), and their trust-in-supervisor, resource dependence, and external locus of control by powerful others. Three weeks later¹, the subordinates reported the same measures of paternalistic leadership and their trust-in-supervisor and a new measure of their fear of the supervisor. Subordinates' performance and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) were rated by their immediate supervisors in the team level for each subordinate at Time 2.

¹ The three-week time lag is primarily for minimising method bias. It is also for practical convenience for our data collection that has been discussed and agreed by the HR manager in the power stations. Moreover, some recent studies investigating the relationships between leadership and employee OCBs also applied time-lags from 2-4 weeks in order to decrease common-method variance (e.g., Little, Gooty, & Williams, 2016; Xu, Loi, & Lam, 2015; Zhu, He, Treviño, Chao, & Wang, 2015), which also supports the rationality of our three-week time-lag.

Table 3.3 Sample Size and Response

	Team	Sent-out	Returned-subordinates	Returned-supervisors
Time 1				
Power station 1	37	350	278	-
Power station 2	40	450	348	-
Power station 3	14	200	157	-
Total	91	1000	783 (78.3%)	-
Time 2				
Power station 1	37	278	236	258
Power station 2	40	348	288	320
Power station 3	14	157	131	148
Total (matched)	91	783	655 (83.6%)	726 (92.7%)

Note. Chapter 4 uses data from Power station 1; Chapter 5 uses data from Power station 2; Chapter 6 uses data from three power stations. Please refers to section 3.3 for more detailed explanation of how data is used in this thesis.

In order to match subordinates' responses with their immediate supervisors' evaluations, each participant was also asked to provide his/her full name voluntarily. Participants were assured that their names would only be used for matching and would not be reported. To ensure confidentiality, at both Time 1 and Time 2, respondents were asked to seal the completed questionnaires into provided envelopes and return the sealed envelopes to a central location. Each questionnaire had a cover letter explaining the purposes and voluntary nature of this study. Please see a detailed discussion of sample characteristics and measures used in each study in its corresponding method section.

3.2.1 Translation and Back Translation

All the questions used in this study were written in Chinese. Scales of authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, moral leadership, fear, resource dependence, and OCB are originally in Chinese, and therefore there is no need to translate them. On the other hand, scales of trust-in-supervisor and job performance are originally in English, which need to be translated into Chinese. To assure equivalence of the measures in the Chinese and English versions, the procedures recommended by Brislin (1970) for survey translation

across different languages were applied. Questionnaire items of trust, external locus of control by powerful others and job performance, originally in English, were translated into Chinese by a bilingual speaker of Mandarin and English. The items were translated back to English by another bilingual speaker of Mandarin and English to ensure that both versions of items were comparable and equivalent (Brislin, 1970).

3.3 Overview of Data Used in This Thesis

This project consists of three empirical chapters. The author genuinely separates the whole data-set (655) for each study.

For Chapter 4 (Study 1), data from power station 1 with a total sample of 236 dyadic pairs was used. For Chapter 5 (Study 2), data from power station 2 with a total sample of 288 dyadic pairs was applied for analyses. For Chapter 6 (Study 3), which theorises follower gender as a moderator of the relationship between authoritarian leadership and follower fear, the sample from power station 3 which was originally collected to test the hypothesised model in this chapter, the sample size of power station 3, was relatively small (N=131 dyadic pairs) with an insufficient number of female followers ($N_{\text{female}}=34$). Therefore, in order to increase the statistical power to do parametric tests, the author has decided to include the data from all three power stations (N=655) with a total number of female followers of 153, which provides sufficient statistical power to test the hypothesised model. Please see detailed descriptions of the sample and measures used in each study in the corresponding methodology parts.

3.4 Ethical Issues

This section covers the steps taken to ensure that this study met ethical requirements and standards of conduct in research. Any research involving human participants is bound to be faced with ethical concerns and researchers need to exhibit acceptable ethical behaviours (Bera, 2011). To this extent, prior to conducting research with organisations, ethical approval was first sought and granted by the Durham University and the targeted organisations. Durham University requires each doctoral student to have an approved ethical application and ethical research training before data collection. Another important aspect of the ethical approval process was for the author to guarantee confidentiality and strict data protection practice in accordance with the ethical guidelines required for research conducted in the UK.

Access to the sample was negotiated with the human resource department of the targeted company. The organisations' involvement in the project was scheduled from November 2012 to January 2013 for two waves of data collection. Each power station appointed two research assistants responsible for providing the author with necessary support to collect data.

Ethical procedures for conducting research without causing harm to participants in any way were strictly followed. The author maintained the stance of respecting the rights of all participants involved in the surveys. Participants were not influenced, coerced, or forced to respond to the research study's survey at any time and they could stop the survey at any point simply by stopping the survey. Participants received no penalty for choosing not to complete the survey. The survey remained available for participants to complete at their convenience. At the end of the survey period, the data was entered into a SPSS file by the

author herself. Also, due regard was taken to protect the data stored in a pass-locked computer accessible only by the author.

The author provided paper-and-pencil survey with a cover letter regarding the aim and process of the survey. All survey participants had a good understanding and full knowledge of the purposes of this research as part of the author's PhD project. No harm was intended or caused to any participant and all collected information was necessary for the accuracy and validity of this research. The author did not profit from the research, nor was there any potential for bias on the part of the author in the administration of the survey instrument.

In summary, this chapter described the methods used in this study and discussed the research design, samples, data collection procedures, instrumentation, statistical methods and ethical issues. Relevant data analysis and results will be described in the each of the following empirical chapters.

CHAPTER 4 (STUDY 1) FROM TRUST TO PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP: A CROSS-LAGGED MODEL WITH THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWERS' EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL

4.1 Introduction

Leadership research in non-Western cultures has received considerable attention in recent years (Aycan, 2006; Aycan et al., 2000; Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2014). Paternalistic leadership, which combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity couched in a 'personalistic' context, is considered to be one of the most prevalent leadership styles existing in non-Western societies and has received growing research attention (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Past studies have focused on paternalistic leadership influencing employee outcomes such as job attitudes and behaviours (Cheng et al., 2004; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh et al., 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). In other words, like leadership in general, the existing paternalistic leadership research focuses more on consequences of leadership rather than its antecedents (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Research on the antecedents of paternalistic leadership is important, but still very limited in the literature. The primary goal of this study is to identify the causal mechanism of paternalistic leadership in order to enhance our limited understanding of the antecedents of leader behaviours (Bommer, Rubin, & Baldwin, 2004).

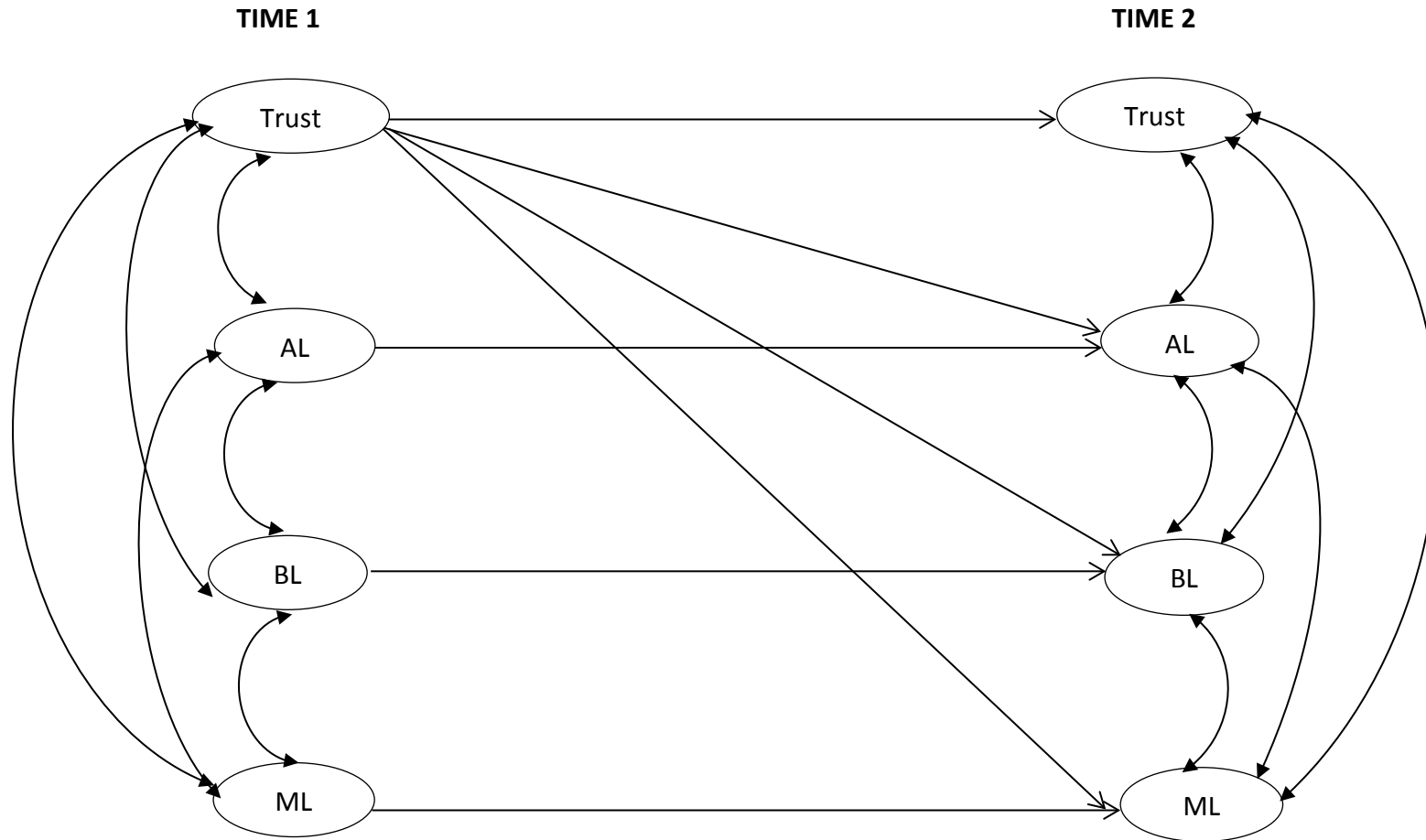
The research on antecedents of leadership almost exclusively takes a leader-centred view and includes variables that focus on leader characteristics, such as leader personality and attitudes to the followers and so forth (e.g., Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1988; House &

Howell, 1992). One consideration in the literature is that although leadership styles are subjectively rated by subordinates, there appears to be little research studying how subordinates' psychological processes influence their perceptions of the leader (Gooty et al., 2010; Naidoo & Lord, 2008; Pastor et al., 2007; Stam, Lord, Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2014). Take paternalistic leadership for example - its rating by followers can be influenced by the actual leader's paternalistic behaviours, but it also can be affected by how subordinates interpret leader paternalism. In order to revisit the theoretical assumptions of the follower perceptions of paternalistic leadership, this chapter applies attribution theory (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Lord & Maher, 1990; Martinko et al., 2007) and suggests that the trust-in-supervisor plays a significant role in affecting subordinates' ratings of paternalistic leadership.

In addition, this chapter further proposes that the relationship between followers' trust-in-supervisor and their ratings of leadership would be moderated by followers' individual differences. Researchers call for future studies to examine individual differences associated with bias or accuracy in personal perception that may impact on ratings of leader behaviour (Hansbrough et al., 2015). In other words, leadership ratings depend on how it is interpreted by followers with different characteristics. This chapter argues that the relationship between followers' trust-in-supervisor and their ratings of paternalistic leadership behaviour depends on individual external locus of control by powerful others, which refers to a follower's pre-existing belief about the causal attributions of powerful people's controllability of his/her life events (Levenson, 1974). Taken together, this paper proposes that followers' trust influences their interpretation of paternalistic leadership

behaviours, and such interpretation is moderated by the levels of individual feelings of uncontrollability of their lives.

This study makes several contributions to the literature. First, by responding to the call by Chen and Farh (2010) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) for research investigating antecedents of paternalistic leadership, this study is the first to explore an antecedent of subordinates' perceptions of leader paternalism by using a cross-lagged model with multi-wave data. By examining how followers' trust-in-supervisor influences their perceptions of leadership, this study also responds to the research call for a follower-centered approach in leadership research (Gooty et al., 2010; Pastor et al., 2007). Finally, in response to the research calls by Hansbrough et al. (2015) to test differences in followers' informational processing that influence leadership ratings, this chapter tests the moderator of individual external locus of control by powerful others on the causal relationship between trust-in-supervisor and paternalistic leadership, which allows us to gain a deeper understanding of when subordinates tend to shape their perceptions of paternalistic leaders based on their prior feelings of trust towards them.



Notes: AL = authoritarian leadership, BL = benevolent leadership, ML = moral leadership.

Figure 4.1 Hypothesised Cross-lagged Model.

4.2 Theoretical Frameworks and Hypotheses

4.2.1 Paternalistic Leadership

Paternalistic leadership, which refers to “a style that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence” (Farh & Cheng, 2000, p. 91), has three dimensions - authoritarianism, benevolence and morality. Authoritarianism refers to leadership behaviours that exert absolute power and control over subordinates and require absolute obedience from them. Benevolence refers to leadership behaviours which show an individualised and holistic concern for subordinates’ personal or familial interests beyond the work relationship. Morality refers to leadership behaviours that demonstrate superior personal virtues, self-discipline, and unselfishness.

One key challenge of paternalistic leadership literature is that most research has measured the leader’s paternalistic behaviours from subordinates (leadership questionnaires) and examined its behavioural outcomes, but ignored its emergent process concerning raters’ interpretation of that behaviour. In order to address the issue of the limited knowledge about antecedents of leader paternalism, the current study argues that followers’ trust-in-supervisor acts as an affective component which may alter followers’ perceptions of leaders’ paternalism. In the next section, this paper draws upon attribution theory to propose that followers’ trust-in-supervisor predicts their interpretation of the leader’s paternalistic behaviours.

4.2.2 Attribution and Trust-in-supervisor

Attribution theory is concerned with peoples’ causal explanations for their outcomes in their lives (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973; Weiner, 1986), and is a crucial determinant of people’s

perceptions and behaviours (e.g., Green & Mitchell, 1979; Martinko et al., 2007; Weiner, 1986). Using attribution theory as a conceptual foundation, Green and Mitchell (1979) described that the development of leader attribution was influenced by reward and punishment, closeness of supervision, and expectancies and aspirations for future performance, which predicts leader reactions to subordinate performance. Following Green and Mitchell's model, there are a large number of studies examining the factors that influence leader reactions towards subordinate performance (Green & Mitchell, 1979; Ilgen, Mitchell, & Fredrickson, 1981; Mitchell & Wood, 1980).

Although the above description implies that leaders' attribution processes operate in the workplace to make sense of followers' behaviours and respond accordingly, one criticism of this perspective is that leadership behaviours are reported by followers (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Howell & Shamir, 2005; Shamir, Pillai, Bligh, & Uhl-Bien, 2007). It is important to realise that when assessing leadership behaviours, followers integrate their perceptions of leadership with their own aspects such as implicit leadership theories, affective reactions, individual differences and cultural backgrounds (Hansbrough et al., 2015). Among these, one notable research line is to look at how followers' affective reactions influence their attribution of leader behaviours. For example, Romance of Leadership theory argues that followers' arousal has been found to increase their ratings of the leader's charisma (Meindl, 1995; Pastor et al., 2007). Prior research also shows that followers' initial liking of the leader is an important determinant of future leadership ratings (Brown & Keeping, 2005; Hunter et al., 2007; Liden et al., 1993). To this extent, drawing upon attribution research on the effects of followers' affection on over/underestimating their ratings of leadership behaviours, it is proposed that followers' trust-in-supervisor acts as an antecedent factor which may inflate

followers' ratings of positive leader behaviours and deflate followers' ratings of negative leadership.

Trust is defined as 'a psychological state comprising the intention to accept vulnerability based upon positive expectations of the intentions or behaviour of another' (Rousseau, Sitkin, Burt, & Camerer, 1998, p. 395). Trust-in-supervisor refers to employees' positive expectations of their supervisor's trustworthiness based on the leader's integrity, benevolence, and ability (Luo, 2005; Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Wong, Ngo, & Wong, 2002). The reason for the author to choose trust-in-supervisor is due to the relationalism value in China. While Western cultures tend to decouple social-emotional and instrumental affairs, relationalism in China suggests that the supervisor-subordinate relationship is not experienced in the context of equal treatment and equivalent rights. The supervisor-subordinate relationship in China is instead enacted in a situation with large differences in authority and power distance (Chen, Friedman, Yu, Fang, & Lu, 2009; Chua, Morris, & Ingram, 2009). As trust captures not only the reciprocal exchange between supervisor and subordinates but also the high level of followers' deference to authority (Miao, Newman, Schwarz, & Xu, 2013), it has always been a core component of supervisor-subordinate relationships in China (Chen et al., 2014).

The fundamental aspect of trust is the evaluation of the reliability of an individual based on early impressions (Johnson & Grayson, 2005; Jones & George, 1998). An early impression is an individual's development of a general concept of the target person as trustworthy or not by examining their feelings towards them. As this evaluation deepens, the trustor tends to selectively recall information that confirms their initial impressions rather than that which is justified by his/her available knowledge, exposing his/her vulnerability to the trustor (Sabel,

1993). In a leadership context, Wexley and Youtz (1985) suggested that subordinates rate their supervisors' behaviours more leniently when they have certain beliefs in them (e.g., the supervisor was trustworthy and altruistic). It is logical to infer that the affection-driven feature of trust provides a positive tone for followers to perceive leadership more positively than it actually is. Therefore, in this paper, it is suggested that a general trustworthy impression of a leader acts as a key influence on follower ratings of paternalistic leadership over time.

4.2.3 Trust-in-supervisor and Paternalistic Leadership

This paper suggests that trust-in-supervisor will decrease followers' ratings of authoritarian leadership. Authoritarian behaviours are defined as fear- and awe-inspiring (Cheng et al., 2004), which derives in part from the Confucian values that more junior people should obey the senior people's guidance and orders (Beamer, 1998, p. 54). An authoritarian leader, with characteristics of assertiveness, rigorousness and dominance, behaves in a commanding fashion and punishes subordinates who do not follow his or her instructions. When subordinates highly trust in an authoritarian leader, they tend to interpret the leader's behaviours through their feelings of trust towards them, and therefore view leader authoritarianism more positively. In other words, positive perceptions generated by high levels of trust may direct the attentions of subordinates to interpret the authoritarian behaviours as having good intentions and being less threatening. Therefore, high levels of trust trigger subordinates to construct positive attributions for leader authoritarianism in a "less authoritarian" way. In this sense, it is hypothesised that followers' trust reduces the ratings of leader authoritarianism. Therefore:

Hypothesis 4.1: Subordinate's trust-in-leader at Time 1 is negatively related to authoritarian leadership ratings at Time 2.

Subordinates' perceptions of leader benevolence and morality, referred to as *shi-en* (granting favours), and *shu-de* (setting examples), should be strengthened by their trust-in-supervisor. Specifically, benevolent leaders act like a kind father with long-term consideration, extending beyond job relationships to consider the subordinate's personal issues and even family issues (Cheng et al., 2004). This study suggests that high trust-in-supervisor connotes an emotional motive that makes employees cognitively "amplify" benevolent leader behaviours, and therefore motivates them to perceive the benevolent leader as more considerate. In a similar vein, moral leaders who serve as role models for employees demonstrate superior moral character and integrity in not acting selfishly. For employees who experience high trust-in-supervisor, the leader's morality fulfils their role expectations of leader trustworthiness and integrity, which in turn inflates subordinate evaluations attributed to moral leadership. In short, it is argued that a high level of trust-in-supervisor will likely motivate followers to rate leaders as more benevolent and moral. Therefore, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 4.2: Subordinate's trust-in-leader at Time 1 is positively related to benevolent leadership at Time 2.

Hypothesis 4.3: Subordinate's trust-in-leader at Time 1 is positively related to moral leadership at Time 2.

4.2.4 The Moderating Role of External Locus of Control in Followers' Affective Reaction

One potential difficulty with the prior arguments is that affective reactions in leadership ratings may not be triggered equally by everyone in an organisation. An additional issue is to understand what kind of followers tend to actively attribute affection to perceived leadership. One interesting topic of attribution theory is to consider that people have innate biases in the way they process information and explain outcomes (Jones & Nisbett, 1971). Observers' focus of attention would influence their causal attributions for an actor's behaviours. The actor-observer bias has received strong support in both psychological and organizational literatures (Epley, Savitsky, & Gilovich, 2002; Miyamoto & Kitayama, 2002; Pruitt & Insko, 1980; Van Boven, Kamada, & Gilovich, 1999).

As such, this chapter contends that as the attribution process is an internal self-driven process, the process of associating trust to leadership may be biased by followers' disposition of causality, in this chapter, represented as external locus of control. Locus of control can be characterised with internal and external focus (Rotter, 1966). Individuals with a high internal locus of control tend to see themselves as active agents and believe they are masters of their own fate. Individuals with a high external locus of control see themselves as passive agents and believe that the events in their lives are due to uncontrollable forces such as luck and chance. Levenson (1974) further refined Rotter's external locus of control dimension. She argued that it is critical to distinguish between external locus individuals who believe in luck from those who have a controlled by powerful others orientation. In the latter case, people believe the potential control of external cause exists and that the cause is uncontrollable by them but controllable by the authority.

Given the fact that paternalistic leaders are demonstrated as powerful figures in the organisational hierarchy in the Chinese context, followers' dependent mind-set on authority (e.g., paternalistic leaders) has been demonstrated as key contingency when study followers' response to paternalistic leadership (Chen & Farh, 2010; Farh et al., 2006). It is suggested that subordinates' expectations about the abilities and power of authority affects their perceptions of how much power is given to the leader, and further influences their perceptions and ratings of this leader's behaviours.

Individuals who feel highly controlled by powerful others tend to shape their perceptions or behaviours based on power differences between themselves and other people. In leadership, they tend to underestimate self-power and exaggerate the leader's ability and controllability in organisational events. Authoritarian leaders tends to trigger a formal and restricted leadership relationship based on large power differences between leader and follower (Chen et al., 2014; Chen et al., 2009). It is expected that followers with high an external locus of control by powerful others, who perceive their personal efforts to be ineffectual, are more likely to respect their authoritarian leader's ability, tend to tolerate the leader's work restrict methods, and therefore are more likely to attribute their positive feelings (e.g., trust) to leader authoritarianism. Related support for this proposition also comes from studies suggesting individuals who accept the power distance in an organisation, which is conceptually similar to a situation when subordinates have an high level of external locus of control by powerful others, are more tolerant of supervisory abusiveness and criticism (Leung, Su, & Morris, 2001; Lian, Ferris, & Brown, 2012).

Conversely, independent individuals with low levels external locus of control believe in their self-mastery over the situation, and tend to view authoritarian treatment as uncommon and

violating their self-value and self-worth. Hence, these subordinates are more likely to be dissatisfied and oppressed by authoritarian treatment. If an authoritarian relationship is unexpected and considered as controversial by less dependent oriented followers, high levels of trust are less likely to mitigate their evaluations of authoritarian treatments. As a result, this study suggests that followers with a low external locus of control by powerful others are less likely to attribute their positive feeling of trust to authoritarian leaders.

In contrast, this study suggests that leader benevolence and morality, which form close dyadic relationships based upon indebtedness and felt obligation, are more likely to be accepted by subordinates with low external locus of control by powerful others. These employees view leaders as approachable and therefore they tend to expect personalised relationships with the leader (Lian et al., 2012; Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000). Both benevolent leaders who care for followers' personal wellbeing, and moral leaders who exhibit highly respected integrity, provide the basis from which a positive personal bond may develop (Chen et al., 2014). Therefore, employees with a low external locus of control by powerful others tend to favourably attribute trust to benevolent and moral leaders, whose leadership behaviours are consistent with expectations of relations between leader and subordinates.

However, a mitigating effect of high control by powerful others would be expected when examining the relationship between trust-in-supervisor and benevolent and moral leadership ratings. As highly dependent employees conceptually accept and value their imposed work roles within a high power difference relationship with the leader, they prefer more formal and less personalised relationships (Schwartz, 1992). They are less likely to develop strong reciprocal relationships with benevolent and moral leaders and therefore react in a less constructive fashion, attributing their trust feelings directly back to their

leader's behaviours. To conclude, it is argued that employees with a low control by powerful others, who are more compatible with personal bonds with the leader, will respond more actively to attribute their positive trust feelings to benevolent and moral leaders than highly dependent employees.

Hypothesis 4.4: Follower external locus of control by powerful others moderates the relationship between trust and authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership, such that the relationships are stronger when follower external locus of control by powerful others is high for authoritarian leadership (H4a) but when follower external locus of control by powerful others is low for benevolent leadership (H4b) and moral leadership (H4c).

4.3 Method

4.3.1 Sample and Procedures

The data used in this study was collected from power station 1. Please see a detailed description of targeted power station and data collection procedure in Section 3.2.2. Surveys were initially distributed to 350 employees. 278 completed surveys were received in Time 1. Two weeks later, 236 completed surveys were returned to the author in Time 2, indicating a response rate of 67.4%. The number of completed supervisor survey was 258.

These 236 subordinates reported to 37 immediate supervisors. The number of subordinates in 'each team ranged from 5 to 20, and the average number of subordinates per supervisor was 6. The average age of the participants was 33.4 years old (SD = 8.53); 81.7% of the sample was female and 18.3% of them was male.

4.3.2 Measures

Validity and reliability of all variables in this study were also considered. Validity refers to the degree to which the study measurement actually measures the intended study concept (Orcher, 2005; Trochim, 2006). This study assessed content and construct validity in order to determine measurement validity. Firstly, content validity ensures the operationalisation against the relevant content domain for the measurement. Content validity focuses on the conceptual adequacy of the scale, which can be evaluated by reviewing academic theories and research findings relevant to the construct. As all the measures used in this study have been well-developed and tested in the literature by a number of previous researchers, the scales were proposed to have sufficient content validity. Second, construct validity determines the extent to which a measure operates within a set of theoretical constructs and their respective measures. It can be evaluated from different forms of factor analysis and correlation analysis. Before testing the hypotheses, each empirical chapter conducted confirmatory factor analysis and correlation analysis to evaluate the construct validity of the measurements used in each study.

Reliability was examined with estimates related to an instrument's consistency in results when administered to different sample populations or when different items in the same construct were being measured (Trochim, 2006). It is normally examined through measuring the levels of correlation between the scores of the items comprising the scale(s) of the instrument (Hair et al., 142 2003). Typically, Cronbach's alpha has been established as an important tool in testing scale reliability, and should be above the suggested value of 0.7 in order to determine minimally acceptable internal consistency (Nunnally, 1978; see Peterson, 1994 for a review of Cronbach's alpha), and levels closer to .80 have been recommended as

a more accurate reflection of reliability (Clark & Watson, 1995). All Cronbach's alphas in this study were above 0.7 (see Table 3.4 below for a summary), indicating acceptable levels of internal consistency of the variables (Hair et al., 2006).

The scales used to measure each variable in this research are reviewed below (see appendix for a copy of the questionnaires). All variables were measured using a seven point Likert – type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Authoritarian Leadership. Authoritarian leadership was measured using the nine-item scale from the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Cheng, Chou, and Farh (2000). Sample items are “my immediate supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely”, “my supervisor determined all decisions in the team whether they are important or not”, and “my supervisor always has the last say in the meeting”. This scale was rated by subordinates at both Time 1 and Time 2. The Cronbach's alpha values was .87 for Time 1 and .89 for Time 2.

Benevolent leadership. Benevolent leadership was measured using the eleven-item scale from the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Cheng et al. (2000). Sample items are “my supervisor is like a family member when he/she gets along with us”, “my supervisor devotes all his/her energy to taking care of me”, and “beyond work relations, my supervisor expresses concern about my daily life”. This scale was rated by subordinates at both Time 1 and Time 2. The Cronbach's alpha values was .96 for Time 1 and .95 for Time 2.

Moral Leadership. Moral leadership was measured using the six-item scale from the paternalistic leadership scale developed by Cheng et al. (2000). Sample items are “my supervisor doesn't take the credit for my achievements and contributions for

himself/herself”, “my supervisor does not take advantage of me for personal gain”, and “my supervisor does not use guanxi (personal relationships) or back-door practices to obtain illicit personal gains”. This scale was rated by subordinates at both Time 1 and Time 2. The Cronbach’s alpha values were .73 for Time 1 and .80 for Time 2.

Factor Analysis of Paternalistic Leadership

Before hypothesis testing, in order to examine the basic patterns of interrelationship, classification and description of data, a principal component exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation of each measurement was conducted. Whether any of the scale items were problematic, for example, due to low factor loading or cross loading, was also investigated.

A method to determine the appropriateness of factor analysis, recommended by Hair et al. (2006), is to examine the entire correlation matrix using Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity. A significant result above .05 shows sufficient correlations amongst variables to proceed. Further, Kaiser (1974) recommends using Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) to measure the sample adequacy. Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999) suggested that values of KMO greater than .5 are acceptable; values between .5 and .7 are mediocre, value between .7 and .8 are good, values between .8 and .9 are great and values above .9 are superb. Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity and KMO will be tested for each measurement used in this study. For paternalistic leadership scale in this study, the value for Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was found to be .90, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate.

For factor analysis, a number of rules of thumb are used to determine the dimensionality of a variable. They include a) the eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule, b) the scree plot, and c) the scree plot with parallel analysis. According to the eigenvalue-greater-than-one rule (Kaiser, 1960), the number of factors is equal to the number of eigenvalues greater than one. For paternalistic leadership at Time 11, as shown in Table 3.5 below, the factor analysis extracted three factors with eigenvalues larger than one (8.74, 5.11 and 1.96), explaining 60.94 % of variance. The scree plot is a plot of the eigenvalues against the number of factors, and one looks for an “elbow” signifying a sharp drop in variance accounted for by a given factor. A scree test was conducted and the plot is shown in Figure 4.2. The scree plot began to straighten out after the first three components, indicating that three factors should be retained.

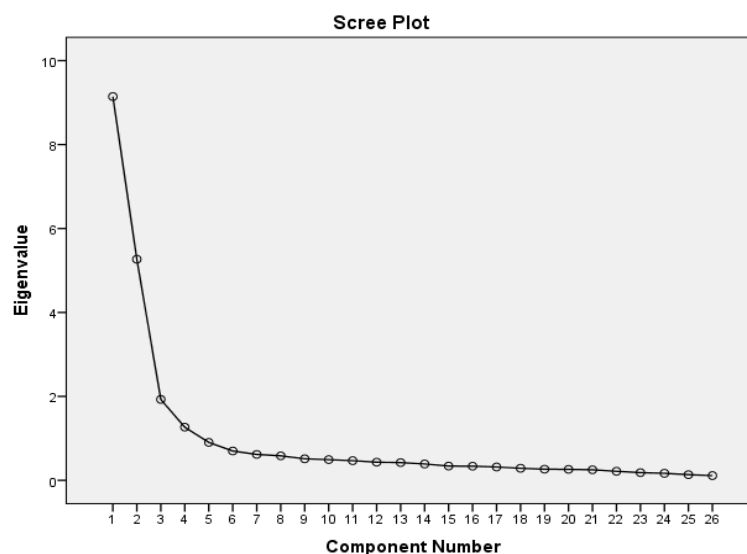


Figure 4.2 Scree Plot of Paternalistic Leadership

¹Paternalistic leadership was measured at both Time 1 and Time 2. However, as the factor structure of paternalistic leadership at Time 2 has been found similar to Time 1, the factor analysis is briefly reported in the footnote on the next page.

Factor loadings of $\pm.30$ to $\pm.40$ are considered as the minimum acceptable (Hair et al., 2006). Hair et al. (2006) stated that only factor loadings of .45 and above are significant for a sample size of 150 and above. In this sense, a limit of .45 for significant factor loadings is adopted in this study. Table 4.1 below shows the results of principal component analysis of the 26 items of paternalistic leadership. The benevolent leadership items were found to load well on the first factor, distinct from the items of moral leadership and authoritarian leadership, as do the authoritarian leadership items, which load well on the second factor.

As can be seen from Table 4.1 below, the moral leadership scale is problematic. Two of the moral leadership items were found to cross load on to factor 2, corresponding to authoritarian leadership, rather than correctly load on to factor 3, corresponding to moral leadership. From inspection of the items, it can be seen that it is the two reverse items that are problematic. Moreover, this problem of factor structure was confirmed for the Time 2 data as well. The two reverse items were again found to load on to the authoritarian leadership factor rather than the moral leadership factor with significant loadings of -.68 and -.73, respectively for moral leadership item 1 and 2¹.

¹An inspection of the factor loadings of paternalistic leadership scale using Time 2 data suggests that the three components with eigenvalues above one (8.98 for authoritarian leadership, 5.29 for benevolent leadership, and 2.17 for moral leadership) explained 63.26% of the total variance, which again provides support for a three-factor structure.

Table 4.1 Rotated Factor Matrix for Paternalistic Leadership (Time 1)

Scale item	Factor		
	1	2	3
Benevolent leadership 1	.81	-.14	-.12
Benevolent leadership 2	.80	-.10	-.12
Benevolent leadership 3	.79	-.10	-.22
Benevolent leadership 4	.90	-.05	-.12
Benevolent leadership 5	.87	-.12	-.14
Benevolent leadership 6	.84	-.01	-.19
Benevolent leadership 7	.77	.07	-.24
Benevolent leadership 8	.80	-.19	-.07
Benevolent leadership 9	.77	.08	-.30
Benevolent leadership 10	.83	-.16	-.01
Benevolent leadership 11	.77	.02	-.25
Moral leadership 1 (reversed)	.03	-.68	.13
Moral leadership 2 (reversed)	.02	-.73	.12
Moral leadership 3	.61	-.07	.45
Moral leadership 4	.45	-.11	.69
Moral leadership 5	.54	-.18	.67
Moral leadership 6	.50	-.12	.61
Authoritarian leadership 1	.21	.64	.22
Authoritarian leadership 2	.09	.73	.10
Authoritarian leadership 3	.20	.69	.05
Authoritarian leadership 4	.24	.65	.16
Authoritarian leadership 5	.10	.79	-.07
Authoritarian leadership 6	.31	.42	.19
Authoritarian leadership 7	-.01	.70	.04
Authoritarian leadership 8	.21	.62	.02
Authoritarian leadership 9	.07	.63	.03
Eigenvalue	8.74	5.11	1.96
% variance explained	33.60	19.66	7.68

*Note*1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

In order to further investigate the two problematic items, the factor structure of moral leadership was investigated separately. A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for moral leadership was conducted for the six item structure. Following the suggestions from Williams, Vandenberg, and Edwards (2009), the appropriateness of the model was evaluated using root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). This study followed the cut-off criteria for fit indexes suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999): for RMSEA, the lower limit is close to 0 while the upper limit should be less than .08 for a

well-designed model; for CFI/TLI, a cut-off criterion of above .95 have been usually recommended.; for SRMR, a cut off limit of below .08 is acceptable.

The model fit indices for the six-item structure of moral leadership were: $\chi^2 = 409.57$, $df = 9$; RMSEA = .40; CFI = .36; TLI = .07; SRMR = .25, which indicated a poor fit based on criteria listed above. In contrast, a four-item structure without the two reverse items, which were moral leadership item 1 and item 2, fitted the data well ($\chi^2 = 2.03$, $df = 2$; RMSEA = .01; CFI = 1.00; TLI = 1.00; SRMR = .01), which also yielded a better fit than the six-item structure with a significant χ^2 change ($\Delta\chi^2$ ($df = 1$) = 58.22, $p < .001$). Therefore, based on the results from both EFA and CFA analysis, the two reverse coded item are decided to be dropped for later analysis.

Using the four item moral leadership scale, the factor analysis for the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership was then tested. The revised paternalistic leadership scale containing 24 items with its factor loadings, eigenvalues, and variance statistics are presented in Table 4.2 below. The 24-item scale consisted explains 62.60 % of the variance. As can be seen in Table 4.2, all items loaded on their corresponding factor. The highest cross-loading indicated by moral leadership item 3 was below the significance level at .36, which therefore is not considered to be problematic¹.

¹In Time 2 data, after deleting the two reverse coded moral leadership items, an inspection of Time 2 factor loadings of paternalistic leadership also suggests that all items loaded on their corresponding factors, without any significant cross loadings.

Table 4.2 Rotated Factor Matrix for Revised Paternalistic Leadership (Time 1)

Scale item	Factor		
	1	2	3
Benevolent leadership 1	.81	-.01	.20
Benevolent leadership 2	.79	.03	.19
Benevolent leadership 3	.82	-.01	.13
Benevolent leadership 4	.87	.08	.23
Benevolent leadership 5	.86	.02	.20
Benevolent leadership 6	.85	.12	.13
Benevolent leadership 7	.78	.15	.07
Benevolent leadership 8	.78	-.05	.25
Benevolent leadership 9	.81	.13	.03
Benevolent leadership 10	.78	-.01	.32
Benevolent leadership 11	.80	.11	.06
Moral leadership 3	.36	.06	.65
Moral leadership 4	.15	.01	.83
Moral leadership 5	.26	-.03	.85
Moral leadership 6	.23	.02	.77
Authoritarian leadership 1	.04	.70	.16
Authoritarian leadership 2	-.04	.73	.02
Authoritarian leadership 3	.09	.73	.01
Authoritarian leadership 4	.09	.71	.12
Authoritarian leadership 5	.03	.76	-.14
Authoritarian leadership 6	.18	.53	.18
Authoritarian leadership 7	-.09	.71	-.10
Authoritarian leadership 8	.12	.67	-.03
Authoritarian leadership 9	-.01	.68	-.10
Eigenvalue	8.74	4.31	1.98
% variance explained	36.40	17.95	8.24

Note1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

Trust-in-Supervisor. Trust-in-supervisor was measured using a seven-item scale developed by Robinson and Rousseau (1994) to measure the extent to which subordinates trust their immediate supervisors. This scale was rated by subordinates at both Time 1 and Time 2. Sample items are “I am not sure I fully trust my supervisor (reverse code)”, “My supervisor is open and upfront with me”, and “I believe my supervisor has high integrity”. The Cronbach’s alphas of trust in supervisor at Time 1 and Time 2 were .79 and .82 respectively.

Factor Analysis of Trust-in-Supervisor

Trust-in-supervisor has been argued to be a unidimensional construct by Robinson and Rousseau (1994). To test the factor structure of trust in supervisor measure used in this study, the principal component factor analysis was conducted on the 7 items collected from Time 1. The value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was found to be .79, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate.



Figure 4.3 Scree plot of trust-in-supervisor

Factor analysis of trust in supervisor was presented by using Time 1 data. However, contrary to the unidimensionality suggested by Robinson and Rousseau (1994), two factors recorded Eigenvalues above one (3.54, 2.26), explaining 82.56 % of the variance. A scree plot (Figure 4.3) also shows a sharp drop after two components, indicating that two factors are suggested in the plot. The component matrix shown in Table 4.3 suggests that items 1-4 load on factor 1 while items 5-8 (reversed items) load on factor 2. The maximum cross-loading is .09 for item 2, which is not significant and therefore does not cause concerns of cross-loadings. Researchers have investigated the phenomenon that negatively

worded items have a tendency to load onto a different factor rather than contribute uniquely to the construct of interest both from an empirical (e.g., Cordery & Sevastos, 1993; Schmitt & Stults, 1985) and a theoretical perspective (Marsh, 1996). More importantly, there are no theoretical reasons in the literature to conclude that these three items should not be included in trust-in-supervisor construct. Therefore, this study keeps the seven item scale of trust-in-supervisor as a single construct¹.

Table 4.3 Rotated Factor Matrix for Trust-in-Supervisor (Time1)

Scale item	Factor	
	1	2
Trust 1	.94	.07
Trust 2	.94	.09
Trust 3	.93	.08
Trust 4	.86	.02
Trust 5 (reversed)	.03	.85
Trust 6 (reversed)	.07	.91
Trust 7 (reversed)	.08	.91
Eigenvalue	3.54	2.26
% variance explained	50.52	32.34

Note1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

External Locus of Control by Powerful Others. The level of an individual’s external locus of control by powerful others was measured using the 8-item external locus of control scale developed by Levenson (1974). This assesses the extent to which individuals believe that the events in their lives are controlled by powerful others.

Sample items of this scale are “I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people”, “Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those in positions of power”, and “My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others”. It was rated by subordinates at Time 1. The Cronbach’s alpha of this scale was .86.

¹Factor analysis of trust-in-supervisor by using Time 2 data indicates a similar factor structure to Time 1 data. Again, item 1-4 load on the first factor (eigenvalue=3.70), while item 5-7 (reversed) load on the second factor (eigenvalue=2.04). The highest cross-loading was demonstrated by item 3 of .14, which is not significant.

Factor Analysis of External Locus of Control by Powerful Others



Figure 4.4 Scree plot of external locus of control

The value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure was found to be .90, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. One factor recorded an Eigenvalue above one (5.00) and explained 62.51% of the variance. The scree plot shown in Figure 4.4 began to level out after the first factor, again indicating that only one factor should be retained. The component matrix (Table 4.4) below shows that eight items load significantly and positively together on a single factor, also demonstrating external locus of control by powerful others is a unidimensional construct.

Table 4.4 Component Matrix of External Locus of Control

Scale item	Factor 1
External locus of control 1	.84
External locus of control 2	.84
External locus of control 3	.87
External locus of control 4	.75
External locus of control 5	.85
External locus of control 6	.77
External locus of control 7	.53
External locus of control 8	.81
Eigenvalue	5.00
% variance explained	62.51

*Note*1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

4.3.3 Statistical Methods

In the three empirical chapters, before doing the analysis, demographic variables were coded, and scores were calculated for the main variables as the mean of the constituent items. This section briefly summarises the statistical methods used in this chapter.

This chapter mainly adopted structural equation modelling (SEM) for testing the proposed cross-lagged model by using Mplus 7.2. SEM has become one of the most popular statistical tools for testing the relationships proposed in a parsimonious model. SEM includes aspects of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and multiple regression and estimates a series of interrelated dependence relationships simultaneously. It therefore expands the explanatory ability and statistical efficiency of model testing with a single comprehensive method (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & William, 1998). In this sense, SEM approaches provide the researcher with the flexibility to a) model relationships among multiple predictors and criterion variables, b) construct unobservable latent variables, c) model errors in measurements for observed variables, and d) statistically test theoretical and measurement assumptions against empirical data (i.e., confirmatory analysis) (Chin, 1998). Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation has been the dominant estimation method in SEM, which has desirable

asymptotic, or large-sample, properties of being unbiased, consistent and efficient (Kmenta, 1971). In terms of the advantages mentioned above, it is decided to apply SEM to test the hypothesised cross-lagged model in this study.

Moreover, in order to reduce the number of parameters in the SEM modelling analysis and to keep a reasonable degree of freedom in the model, , items parcels were created in order to maintain an adequate sample-size-to-parameter ratio (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Russell, Kahn, Spoth, & Altmaier, 1998), rather than using individual items as manifest indicators of the latent constructs. Moreover, item parcels can also avoid a potential threat of non-normal distribution, which would otherwise violate the assumptions that normal theory maximum likelihood estimation techniques are based on (Bandalos, 2002). This problem of non-normality is very common in empirical research (Micceri, 1989; West, Finch, & Curran, 1995). This is because when facing non-normality, parameter estimates are unbiased, but values of the chi-square test statistic and other fit indexes are adversely affected, and standard errors become attenuated. The distributions of item-parcel responses will more closely approximate a normal distribution than will the original distributions of individual item responses (Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004). In addition, item parcels are more reliable than individual items and have more definitive rotational results (Cattell & Burdsal Jr, 1975; Kishton & Widaman, 1994), increased reliability (Bandalos & Finney, 2001) and fewer parameters to be estimated (Hau & Marsh, 2004). Specifically, following Hall, Snell, and Foust (1999)'s recommendation, this chapter combined items that share a secondary factor into the same parcel. For example, for authoritarian leadership scale, by using an EFA, the author forced the nine items into three factors. Items with higher loadings on the same factor were combined into the same parcel.

Finally, the respondents were nested within groups (working under the same supervisor within a team). It raised the concern about the possibility for data homogeneity due to team membership. Therefore, this chapter used team as a cluster variable and applied complex modelling in SEM¹ to control for the errors of sampling. However, it is worth noting that as the main interest of this chapter to investigate the individual level effects, the current analyses with a sample size of 236 have enough statistical power.

4.4 Results

4.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips (1991) suggest that classical statistical methods (e.g., EFA) provide limited information as to measurement and method error and examine only primitive aspects of construct validity. To further test the construct validity of scales in a measurement model, confirmatory factor analysis has been recently confirmed as a powerful method, which provides an indication of overall fit and precise criteria for assessing convergent and discriminant validity of measurements in a hypothesised model (Rahim & Magner, 1995). Therefore, in the current study, though all the measures used in this study yield good Cronbach's alphas and factor structures, before testing the hypothesised SEM model, an assessment of discriminant validity of the study variables was conducted via a series of CFAs to examine the construct distinctiveness of the nine variables used in the current study.

First, before evaluating the hypothesised measurement model, the dimensionalities of paternalistic leadership by using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were tested. Following the suggestions from Williams, Vandenberg, and Edwards (2009), the appropriateness of the

¹ Mplus code was written as: TYPE = COMPLEX.

model was evaluated using root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR). This study followed the cut-off criteria for fit indexes suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999): for RMSEA, the lower limit is close to 0 while the upper limit should be less than .08 for a well-designed model; for CFI/TLI, a cut-off criterion of above .95 have been usually recommended.; for SRMR, a cut off limit of below .08 is acceptable.

The results in Time 1 confirmed that paternalistic leadership consisted of three dimensions: authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership ($\chi^2 = 43.20$, $df = 17$; Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] = .07; Comparative Fit Index [CFI] = .98; Tucker Lewis Index [TLI] = .97; Standardized Root Mean Square Residual [SRMR] = .04). These results suggest that the hypothesised three-factor model of paternalistic leadership yielded a better fit than the single-factor model ($\chi^2 = 451.10$, $df = 20$; RMSEA = .28; CFI = .66; TLI = .52; SRMR = .17) for a significant change in chi-square: $\Delta\chi^2 (df = 1) = 135.97$, $p < .001$. Consistent with Time 1, Time 2 data also provided support for a three-factor model of paternalistic leadership ($\chi^2 = 37.44$, $df = 17$; RMSEA = .08; CFI = .98; TLI = .97; SRMR = .04), which again yielded a better fit than the single-factor model ($\chi^2 = 352.94$, $df = 20$; RMSEA = .27; CFI = .71; TLI = .59; SRMR = .16), for a significant improvement in chi-square: $\Delta\chi^2 (df = 1) = 105.17$, $p < .001$. Therefore, the three-factor solution for paternalistic leadership scale was confirmed.

Second, the degree to which the hypothesised nine-factor model fits the observed covariance structure of the sample was evaluated. As shown in Table 4.5 below, the hypothesised nine-factor model fit the data reasonably well: $\chi^2 = 550.25$, $df = 239$; RMSEA = .07; CFI = .92; TLI = .89; SRMR = .06). Following De Cuyper, Mäkikangas, Kinnunen, Mauno,

and Witte (2012)'s recommendations to allow corresponding measurement errors were allowed to covary across time in cross-lagged modelling, the fit significantly improved when the eleven corresponding measurement errors were allowed to covary in this study: three authoritarian leadership parcels, three benevolent leadership parcels, two moral leadership parcels and three trust parcels ($\chi^2 = 422.57$, $df = 233$; RMSEA = .05; CFI = .95; TLI = .93; SRMR = .06; $\Delta\chi^2/df = 21.28$, $p < .01$).

Table 4.5 Comparison of Alternative Models

Models	χ^2	df	$\Delta\chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Hypothesised model	422.57	223	-	.05	.95	.93	.06
Model A	1241.63	259	22.75**	.12	.74	.70	.14
Model B	2344.02	268	42.70**	.17	.44	.37	.18
Model C	3026.83	269	56.61**	.19	.26	.17	.18

Notes:

Model A: a five-factor model combines three paternalistic leadership components at Time 1 as one factor; three paternalistic leadership components at Time 2 as one factor.

Model B: a two-factor model in which all parcels were set to load on one factor at each time point.

Model C: a one-factor model in which all parcels were loaded on one factor.

The hypothesised nine-factor model was then compared with three alternative models: firstly, a five-factor model combining the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership into one factor at each time point (Model A); secondly, a two-factor model in which all parcels were set to load on one factor at each time point (Model B). . Thirdly, a single factor model in which all parcels were loaded on one factor (Model C). The results show that the hypothesised model fits the data significantly better than both alternative models ($\Delta\chi^2/df = 22.75$, $p < .01$; $\Delta\chi^2/df = 42.70$, $p < .01$; and $\Delta\chi^2/df = 56.61$, $p < .01$, respectively), supporting the construct distinctiveness of the measured variables. Moreover, inspection of factor loadings and covariance showed that all parcel loadings were significant.

4.4.2 Preliminary Analysis

Table 4.6 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the observed variables in this study. In line with prior findings (Chen et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012), authoritarian leadership was not related to trust at Time 2 ($r = -.09, p > .05$), benevolent leadership, moral leadership at Time 1 was significantly related to trust at Time 2 ($r = .23, p < .01$; $r = .43, p < .01$, respectively). Trust at Time 1 was significantly related to authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, moral leadership at Time 2 ($r = -.26, p < .01$; $r = .24, p < .01$; $r = .38, p < .01$, respectively).

Table 4.6 Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations among the Variables

Variables	Means	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 Trust - Time 1	5.19	.94								
2 AL - Time 1	4.08	1.12	-.27**							
3 BL - Time 1	5.38	1.07	.39**	.13*						
4 ML - Time 1	5.63	.98	.63**	-.26**	.40**					
5 External locus of control - Time 1	3.80	1.24	-.31**	.32**	-.12	-.28**				
6 Trust - Time 2	5.22	.89	.47**	-.09	.23**	.43**	-.15*			
7 AL - Time 2	3.86	1.07	-.26**	.44**	-.08	-.24**	.25**	-.43**		
8 BL - Time2	5.32	1.01	.24**	.03**	.49**	.22**	.01	.42**	-.11	
9 ML - Time2	5.59	.98	.38**	-.07**	.27**	.41**	-.12	.65**	-.31**	.57**

Note: N = 236; AL = authoritarian leadership, BL = benevolent leadership, ML = moral leadership.

* $p < .05$.

** $p < .01$.

4.4.3 Model Consistency

In addition to confirming that the hypothesised measurement model is valid, it is also important to examine that the structure of the model remains invariant over time for cross-lagged modelling. To assess measurement consistency, stability models of the exact corresponding indicators were conducted to represent latent constructs in the multi-wave investigation (Chan & Tsay, 1998). Two nested models were compared: (a) a model that imposed no equality constraints between the two time points and (b) a restricted model that fixed the corresponding factor loadings of the same variables as equal (invariant) at the two time points. Scholars suggested that for testing loading invariance, the quality assumption is supported if the chi-square test produces a non-significant loss of fit for the constrained model as compared to the unconstrained model (see Feldt, Leskinen, Kinnunen, & Ruoppila, 2003; Tisak & Meredith, 1990).

The unconstrained model provided an acceptable model fit: $\chi^2 = 328.52$, $df = 170$; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .95; TLI = .93; SRMR = .06. Compared to the constrained model ($\chi^2 = 332.42$, $df = 177$; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .95; TLI = .94; SRMR = .06), the non-significant chi-square change ($\Delta\chi^2/df = .56$, $p > .05$) produced an acceptable loss in the constrained model. Moreover, other indices of RMSEA, CFI and SRMR stayed unchanged across the two models. These results support the assumption of invariance in the factor loadings over time.

4.4.4 Hypothesis Testing for Cross-lagged Effects

The cross-lagged effects were tested by cross-lagged SEM. To test the cross-lagged effect, this chapter followed the guidance from Gollob and Reichardt (1991) and Farrell (1994) and tested a series of alternative models.

Table 4.7 Nested Models Comparisons for the Cross-Lagged Model of Trust-in-supervisor to Leaderships

Tested Model	χ^2 (N=850)	df	$\Delta \chi^2/df$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Model 1	350.09	182	-	.06	.95	.93	.08
<i>Model 2</i>	<i>338.85</i>	<i>179</i>	<i>3.75*</i>	<i>.06</i>	<i>.95</i>	<i>.94</i>	<i>.06</i>
Model 3	348.92	179	.39	.06	.95	.93	.08
Model 4	338.02	176	2.01	.06	.95	.93	.06

Note:

Model 1: no cross-lagged paths.

Model 2: hypothesized paths.

Model 3: reverse cross-lagged paths.

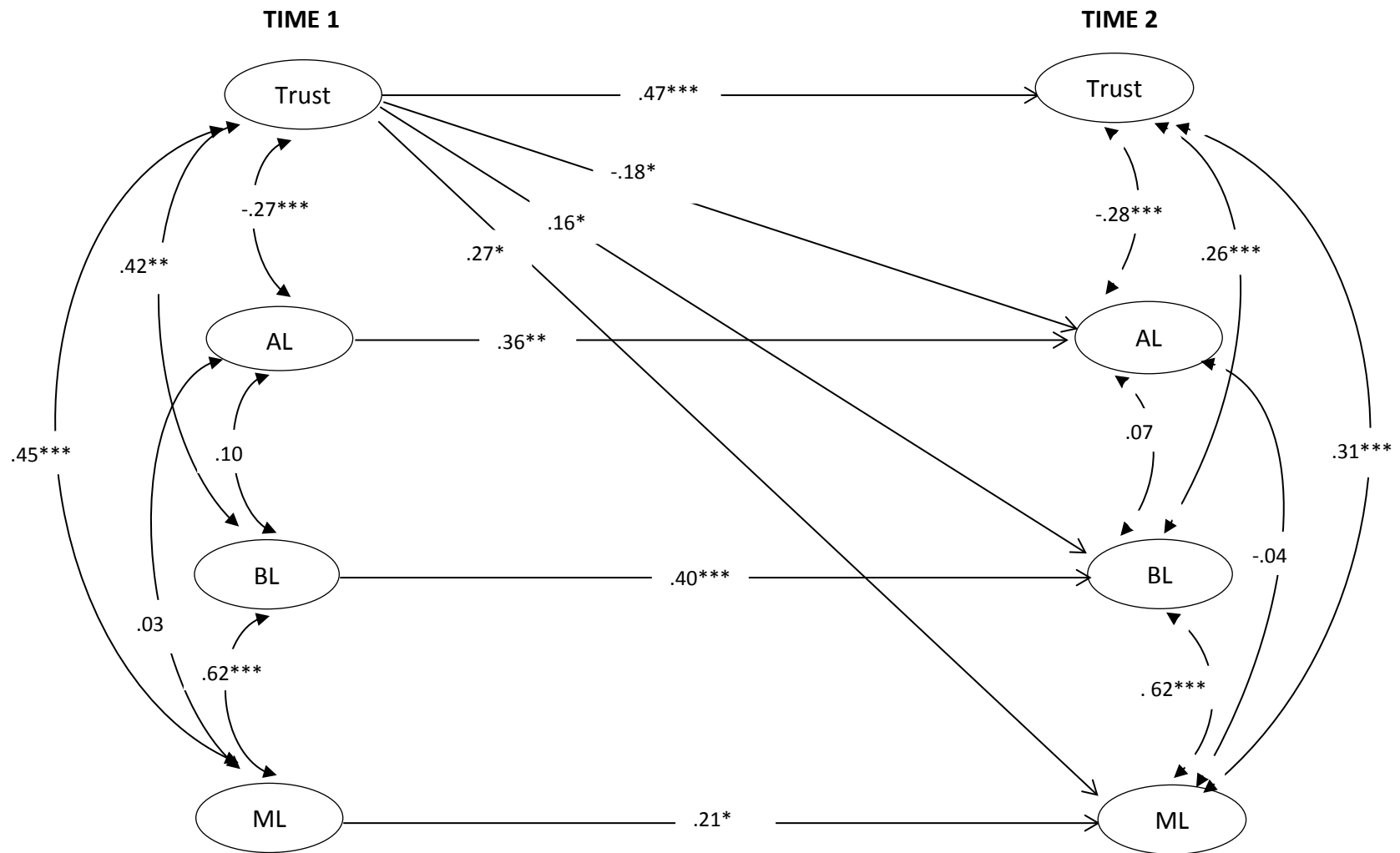
Model 4: full cross lagged model.

All alternative models are compared to the null model (model 1); Best-fitting model in italic.

As shown in Table 4.7, in the first step (Model 1) a null model that specified no relationships among variables was tested. In Model 2, the hypothesised cross-lagged effects were tested, which are from trust at Time 1 to the three leadership dimensions at Time 2, including synchronous correlations among same time and stability relationships. Next, the reversed hypothesised cross-lagged effects were tested, indicating the three dimensions at Time 1 predicting trust at Time 2, also including the synchronous correlations and stability relationships (Model 3). Model 4 tested a fully cross-lagged model assuming a full two-way relationship between all variables at Time 1 and Time 2, including all synchronous correlations. Next, the potential directions of relationships between leaderships and trust were tested. First, the chi-square difference between the hypothesised model (Model 2) and the full cross-lagged model (Model 4) was not significant ($\Delta\chi^2(1) = .28, p > .05$), indicating that leaderships at Time 1 did not predict trust at Time 2. Second, the fit of the null model (Model 1) was significantly worse than the hypothesised model (Model 2) ($\Delta\chi^2/df = 3.75, p < .05$). The hypothesised model (Model 2) also fitted the data better than the reversed model (Model 3) ($\Delta\chi^2 = 10.07, p < .001$). These results indicate that trust at Time 1 predicts leaderships at Time 2.

Table 4.3 suggests that Model 2 fits the data well: $\chi^2 = 338.85$, $df = 179$; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .95; TLI = .94; SRMR = .06. According to this model, trust at Time 1 related negatively to authoritarian leadership at Time 2 ($\beta = -.20$, $p < .001$), positively to benevolent leadership at Time 2 ($\beta = .11$, $p < .01$), and positively to moral leadership ($\beta = .20$, $p < .001$) (see Figure 4.5). This supports Hypotheses 4.1 - 4.3, respectively.

Figure 4.5 represents an inspection of the relationship estimates for Model 2, which shows significant cross-lagged paths from trust at Time 1 to authoritarian leadership at Time 2 for $\beta = -.20$, $p < .001$, to benevolent leadership at Time 2 for $\beta = .12$, $p < 0.01$, to moral leadership at Time 2 for $\beta = .22$, $p < 0.001$. Therefore, Hypothesis 4.1 - Hypothesis 4.3 are again supported.



Notes: AL = authoritarian leadership, BL = benevolent leadership, ML = moral leadership; only significant relationships are retained.

Figure 4.5 SEM Results for the Hypothesised Model.

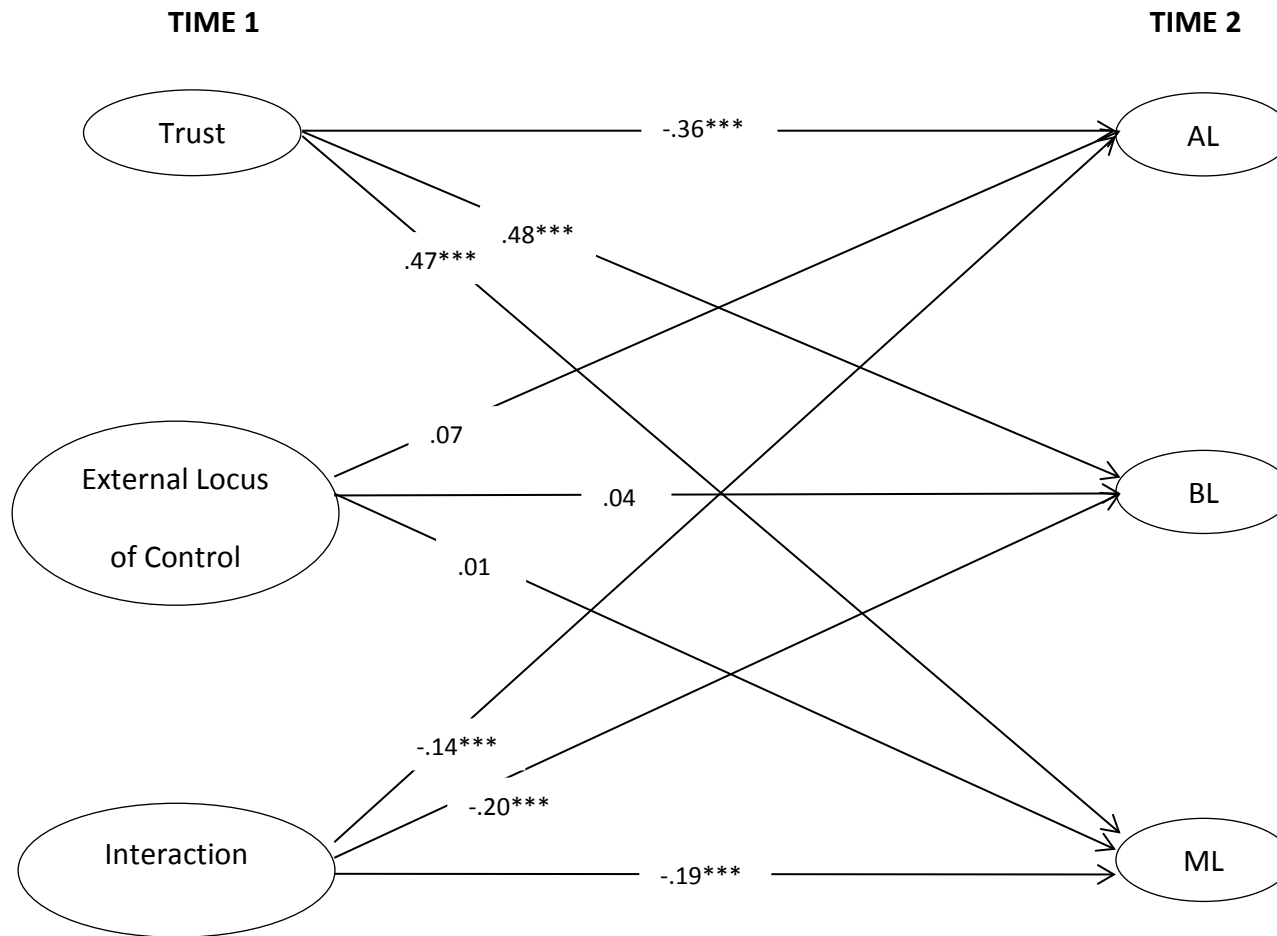
4.4.5 Hypothesis Testing for Moderating Effects

Results from the moderation tests are presented in Figure 4.6. Trust-in-supervisor, external locus of control by powerful others and interaction term were regressed on leadership at Time 2¹. As seen in Figure 4.6, the interaction term formed with the product of trust and external locus of control was a significant predictor of the three leadership components. Specifically, the interaction term predicted authoritarian leadership at Time 2 ($\beta = -.14, p < 0.05$), benevolent leadership at Time 2 ($\beta = -.20, p < 0.01$), and moral leadership at Time 2 ($\beta = -.19, p < 0.05$), providing full support for the hypothesised model.

Next, following the steps suggested by Aiken et al. (1991), interactions were plotted by using one standard deviation (SD) below the mean and one standard deviation (SD) above the mean on external locus of control, to represent low and high values of external locus of control, respectively. As shown in Figures 4.7-4.9, these findings were consistent with H4a, H4b and H4c. In addition, in order to confirm whether the interaction slopes were significantly different from zero, the simple slope analysis was also conducted. Simple slopes for moderated regression were also computed by following the principles suggested by (Aiken & West, 1991). A simple slope regression analysis was conducted one SD above/below the mean value by creating conditional values of the moderator, which refer to the specific high/low value of the moderator. As predicted, the results showed that the relationship between trust-in-supervisor at Time 1 and authoritarian leadership at Time 2 under low external locus of control was not significant (simple slope = $-.07, p > .05$), but was significant under high external locus of control (simple slope = $-.35, p < .01$). This result showed that consistent with Hypothesis 4a, only subordinates with high external locus of

¹ Due to the complexity of doing moderation by using latent construct in cross-lagged SEM and on the basis suggested by an anonymous professor, the author examined the moderation hypotheses by multiple regression with manifest variables.

control would attribute their trust-in-supervisor to the rating of authoritarian leadership. The relationship between trust-in-supervisor at Time 1 and benevolent leadership at Time 2 under low external locus of control was significant (simple slope = .45, $p < .01$), but was not significant under high external locus of control (simple slope = .17, $p > .05$). The relationship between trust-in-supervisor at Time 1 and moral leadership at Time 2, it was significant under low external locus of control (simple slope = .52 $p < .001$), but was less significant under high external locus of control (simple slope = .38, $p < .001$). Consistent with Hypothesis 4b and Hypothesis 4c, these results showed that subordinates with low external locus of control were more likely to attribute their trust to the ratings of benevolent and moral leadership. Therefore, H4a, H4b and H4c were supported.



Notes: AL = authoritarian leadership, BL = benevolent leadership, ML = moral leadership;

Figure 4.6 Path Model of Moderating Effect of External locus of control by Powerful Others.

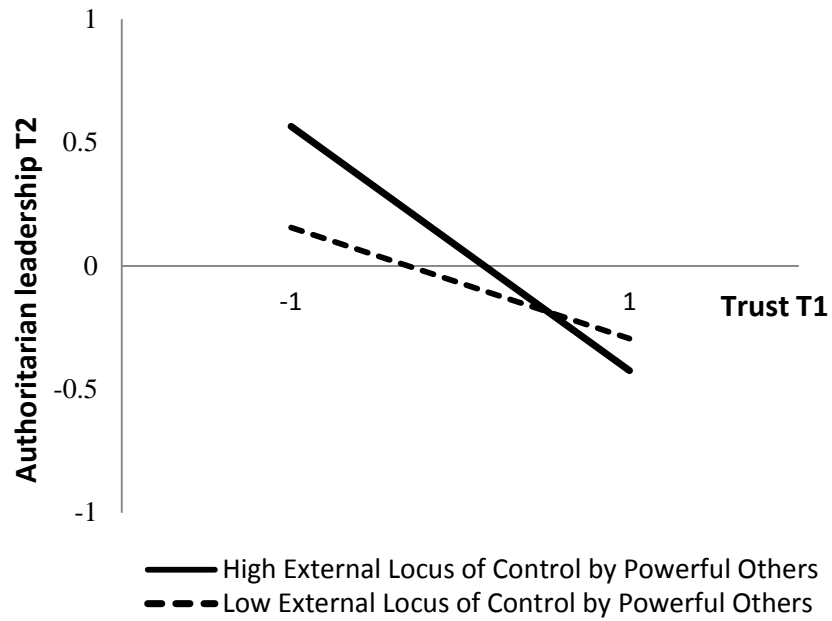


Figure 4.8 Interaction Plotting of Trust and External Locus of Control by Powerful Others on Authoritarian Leadership

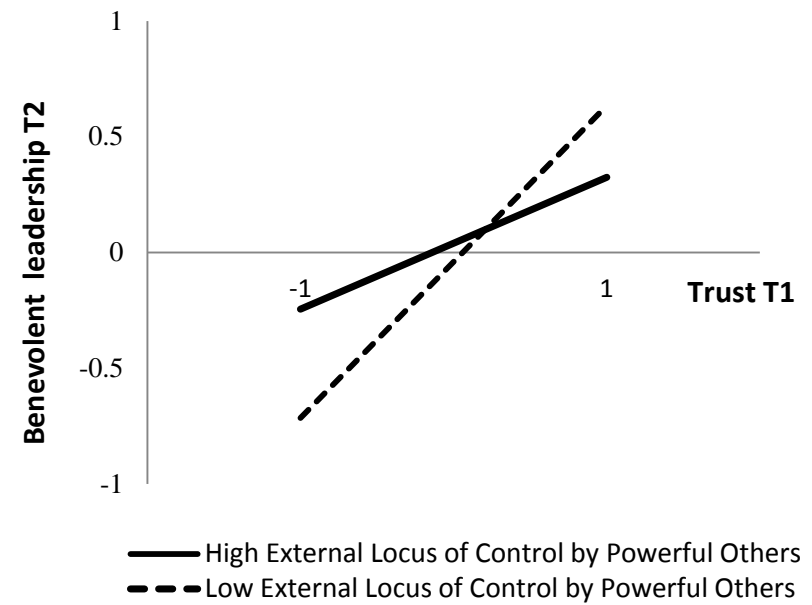


Figure 4.7 Interaction Plotting of Trust and External Locus of Control by Powerful Others on Benevolent Leadership

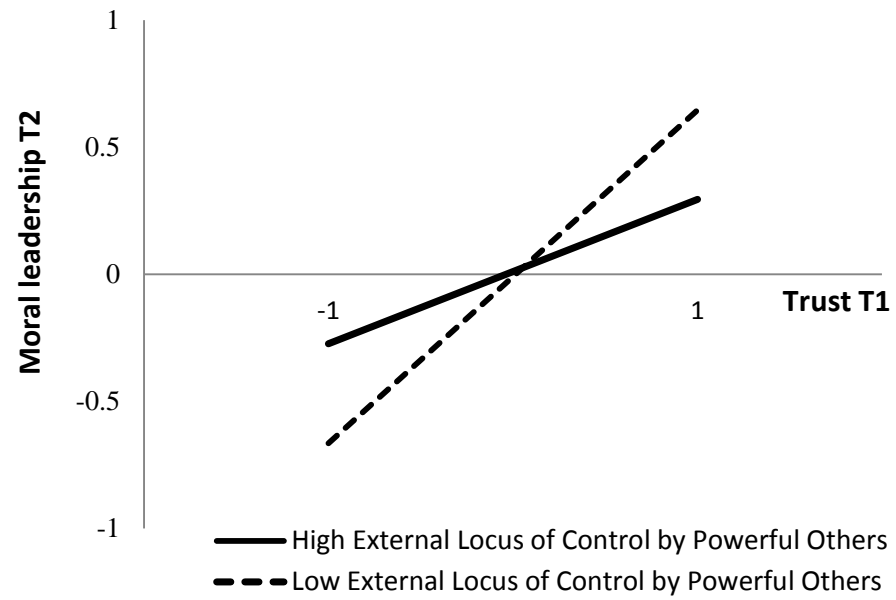


Figure 4.9 Interaction Plotting of Trust and External Locus of Control by Powerful Others on Moral Leadership

4.5 Discussion

The main goal of this study was to examine antecedents of paternalistic leadership. The results suggest that followers' trust-in-supervisor predicts their rating of paternalistic leadership over time. Specifically, trust reduces the level of subordinates' ratings of leader authoritarianism and increases the ratings of leader benevolence and morality. This paper also suggests that the relationship between trust-in-supervisor and authoritarian leadership is stronger for subordinates who have a high external locus of control by powerful others, whereas the relationships between trust and benevolent and moral leaderships are stronger for subordinates who have a low external locus of control by powerful others.

This study also explored issues that it was not originally designed to address. The results suggest that in the cross-lagged model, leaderships at Time 1 do not predict trust-in-supervisor at Time 2. This paper does not find what is largely supported in the literature, that leadership behaviours affect the trust of their followers (e.g., Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), which calls into concern the potential overlaps between measures of leadership behaviours and trust. This issue is addressed in more detail below.

4.5.1 Theoretical Implication

This study provides several important theoretical implications. First, this paper extends paternalistic leadership literature on the under-studied but highly important area of its antecedents. Prior literature on paternalistic leadership has long focused on investigating how paternalistic leaders drive subordinates work attitudes and behaviours, ignoring the process of how it can be generated or interpreted. Building on attribution theory, this study is the first to

investigate the antecedents of paternalistic leadership using a multi-wave sample, and suggests that a significant variation in perceptions of paternalistic leadership can be attributed to followers' trust. These findings contribute to the literature by providing an important lens for comprehending followers' reactions in the paternalistic leadership process.

After decades of systematic research from a leader-centered perspective, the psychology of followers has been underemphasised and needs further exploration (Oc & Bashshur, 2013; Uhl-Bien, Riggio, Lowe, & Carsten, 2014). The present study advances the follower-centered approach by examining the role of trust-in-supervisor in changing follower ratings of paternalistic leadership. It strengthens our knowledge of the role of followers' perceptions when they interpret leadership behaviours.

Interestingly, the results show that leader behaviours do not likely to build followers' trust when looking at the causality over time, which is not consistent with previous arguments that specific types of leadership can build trust in followers (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990; Zhu, Newman, Miao, & Hooke, 2013). There are three ways this result can be interpreted: measurement overlaps, general impression of the leaders, and Chinese culture. First, while theories about leadership and trust have developed independently, there are significant overlaps in the concerns of each (Brower, Schoorman, & Tan, 2000). As conceptualisation of leader behaviours is a perception held by the followers, it could be considered that rather than measuring a behavioural reality, studies purportedly measuring leader behaviour and its effects from followers' ratings could instead be seeing a "surrogate" for interpersonal affection (e.g., trust) to some extent. This argument is

also supported by the large correlations between leadership measures and trust, at both Time 1 and Time 2, respectively. Therefore, in this study, leadership as a “surrogate” measurement of trust has large cross-sectional correlations with followers’ trust, but no longitudinal predictability from leadership Time 1 to trust Time 2.

Alternatively, recent research on halo errors suggests that the actual relationships between entity characteristics reflect the biases which can be explained by a general impression model (Lance, LaPointe, & Stewart, 1994). Trustworthiness could be a general impression of the leader that impacts subordinate ratings (Carless, 1998). Given that trust-in-supervisor remains highly stable over time in the data ($\beta = .58, p < 0.001$), it can be interpreted that once the subordinates have formed a general evaluative impression of the leader (trustful or distrustful), they will use this impression to make later judgements regardless of variations in leaders’ behaviours (Srull & Wyer, 1989). Therefore, with the stable evaluative impression of leader trustworthiness, followers rate leaders as consistently authoritarian, benevolent or moral based as much as or more on followers’ general impression of the leader as on observations.

A final explanation regarding the insignificant role of paternalistic leadership in predicting trust may be related to Chinese culture. People from collective cultures such as China are more likely to perceive objects in relation to their contextual field, rather than primarily to the objects and their attributes themselves (Kühnen et al., 2001). As argued before, trust evaluation in China particularly captures the follower’s socio-emotional deference to the position of the leader (Miao et al., 2013). Evaluating leader trustworthiness in China is not simply driven by behavioural displays of leaders, but takes a more complexly instrumental view in valuing the

position power of the leader (Loi, Lam, & Chan, 2012; Luo & Chen, 1997). Since Chinese employees show strong vulnerability to position power (Hofstede & Bond, 1988), their trust-in-supervisor may remain intact even though they experience variance in leaders' actual behaviours.

This study additionally suggests that individuals differ in their reactive sensitivity to leaders' trustworthiness; this sensitivity is associated with followers' judgements of uncontrollability of their own lives and whether leaders are perceived as strong as to control their lives. This study advances our understanding of the nature of leadership attribution, and provides further evidence to suggest that leadership rating is a heuristic-based information process that depends on both affection and individual differences (Fiske & Taylor, 2013; Hansbrough et al., 2015; Human & Biesanz, 2011). Specifically, it is found that individuals who are externally controlled by powerful figures show greater reliance on prior trust for rating leader authoritarianism, while individuals who are less controlled by leaders instead show greater reliance on prior trust for rating leader benevolence and morality. It is important to note here that previous research has found authoritarian leadership triggers different psychological mechanisms from benevolent and moral leadership in influencing follower attitudes and behaviours (Chen et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012). For example, researchers have found benevolent and moral behaviours are positively linked to follower interpersonal justice (Wu et al., 2012) and trust-in-supervisor (Chen et al., 2014), while the relationships of authoritarian leadership is non-significant. The findings of the current study also suggest that the three dimensions of paternalistic also involve different psychological process in followers' attribution process, hopefully encourages future research to study the "inequality" between the three dimensions.

4.5.2 Practical Implications

The present study also has important practical implications. First of all, the results show the importance of trust influences on follower leadership perceptions. It is suggested that, besides establishing good leadership behaviours, leaders can significantly benefit from initially building a trustful impression which can affect future evaluations of the leader and hopefully further improve employee behaviours. Thus, a practical application would be management training programmes focusing on increasing interpersonal trust between the leader and followers. Furthermore, this study has demonstrated that attribution is different among followers. It is suggested managers should consider follower differences and be aware of the suitable leadership styles for various followers when displaying leadership behaviours (e.g., authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality). Leadership training programs should be accordingly designed.

4.6 Limitations and Directions for Chapter 5 and Chapter 6

Despite its intriguing findings, the present study has limitations to consider. Firstly, single-source data rated by followers were used in this study for measuring trust and perceived paternalistic leadership behaviours. Although it is the followers' perceptions across the time this study was interested in, this can still be considered as a limitation. Future studies should consider the supervisor perspective in order to gain a more complete view of the perceptual interplay between supervisor and subordinates. In order to address this call, the following two chapters include supervisor ratings of followers' performance to further test effects of paternalistic leadership.

Secondly, additional research is needed to gain a more comprehensive understanding of authoritarian leadership construct. The present study shows that while trust can be positively attributed to benevolent and moral leadership ratings, high levels of trust decrease authoritarian leadership ratings, which is consonant with previous studies that has also found the inconsistency of authoritarian leadership in paternalistic leadership scale (e.g., Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng, Shieh, & Chou, 2002; Wu et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2014). This finding may imply that Chinese employees maybe unique in their interpretation and response to this leadership behaviour, which has been called for future research by scholars (Chan et al., 2013; Chen et al., 20114). Accordingly, as the benevolent and moral leadership construct has been well investigated in the literature, the following two chapters will focus on authoritarian leadership construct.

**CHAPTER 5 (STUDY 2) THE DETERRENCE FUNCTION OF AUTHORITARIAN
LEADERSHIP IN PROMOTING OCBs: THE ROLE OF LEADER BENEVOLENCE
AND EMPLOYEES' RESOURCE DEPENDENCE**

5.1 Introduction

Authoritarian leadership is defined as leadership behaviour that “asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands unquestionable obedience” (Cheng et al., 2004, p. 81). Past studies have consistently found negative effects of authoritarian leadership on subordinates’ well-being and work behaviour, which suggests that the exercise of authoritarian leadership is unappreciated by followers (Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh & Cheng, 2000). It is puzzling that despite a destructive effect on employees’ well-being, leader authoritarianism remains a prevalent and salient leadership style, and has been largely tolerated by employees and organisations given its detrimental effect on work performance (Aycan et al., 2000; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh et al., 2006; Martinez, 2005). Therefore, the primary purpose of this study is two-fold: (1) to identify the specific instrumental functions of authoritarianism for managers; and (2) to examine the conditions under which employees tend to tolerate such leadership behaviour.

One assumption of the theoretical underpinnings of the authoritarian leadership construct is that it would induce employee compliance with supervisor orders and drive employee performance (Chen et al., 2014; Farh & Cheng, 2000). However, such an assumption has not received empirical support. Although Chan et al. (2013) found significant joint effects of authoritarian leadership and benevolent leadership on performance and organisational

citizenship behaviours (OCBs), their findings only showed a buffering or compensation effect of benevolence – a high level of leader benevolence helps employees view leader authoritarianism as less threatening, thus mitigating the negative effects of authoritarian leadership on performance and OCBs.

This chapter suggests that to more thoroughly understand the influence and social functions of authoritarian leadership behaviour, it is important to revisit the theoretical assumptions of authoritarian leadership effects, develop a more fine-grained prediction of the potentially beneficial effect of authoritarian leadership, and obtain empirical evidence of its instrumental functions. Therefore, this study draws from social deterrence theory (Lawler, 1986; Morgan, 1983) and resource-dependence theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1980) to propose that (1) authoritarian leadership serves a critical deterrence function in promoting culturally desirable behaviours; and (2) leader benevolence and employees' resource dependence on the leader form salient boundary conditions for the culturally beneficial effects of authoritarian leadership.

As found in previous studies, authoritarian leadership is unlikely to promote employee's work behaviour in general, but it is proposed it may serve as a deterrence force ensuring employees' compliance with culturally endorsed work behaviours. The author conducted this study in China where authoritarianism is prevalent, and China offers a suitable cultural context to test the potential deterrence function of authoritarian leadership.

This study examines the deterrence function of authoritarianism on two types of OCBs in China, which are categorised as emic and etic (Farh et al., 1997). OCB-emic, which includes interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources, are particularly attributed to

Chinese cultural roots of valuing social harmony and collective interests (Farh et al., 1997). Behaviours deviant from these cultural norms are likely to be sanctioned in China, while behaviours promoting these values will be seen as a form of OCB and will be rewarded. It is proposed that, given the cultural tradition of China, authoritarian leadership serves the function of deterring employees from violating interpersonal harmony and harming company interests, leading to increased OCB-emic. This study further proposes that such a deterrence effect would be the strongest when the authoritarianism of the leader is more intimidating (i.e. the leader exhibits low benevolence); and when subordinates have a high level of resource-dependence on the authoritarian leader, which refers to the degree to which employees feel dependent on the leader for essential work resources such as payment and promotion (Cheng & Jen, 2005; Farh et al., 2006), as shown in Figure 5.1. OCB-etic on the other hand, refers to culturally “neutral” OCBs that are universally endorsed, including behaviours such as altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, and identification with company. It is not expected that authoritarian leadership will influence employee OCB-etic, because authoritarian leadership with its intimidating nature stops short of truly motivating employees to dedicate maximum efforts and go the extra mile (Chen et al., 2014). Taken together, this study proposes that the deterrence effect of leader authoritarianism induces employee OCB-emic behaviour but undermines employees’ intrinsic motivation to perform OCB-etic.

This study makes three main contributions to the literature. First, as far as the author can see, it is the first known study to propose a positive deterrence effect of authoritarian leadership on employee work behaviours. Such deterrence effects advance our knowledge of why authoritarianism is still widely used by managers in certain cultural contexts. Second, this study

follow the calls by Chen et al. (2014) to examine under what circumstances authoritarianism may be beneficial and when it exerts an influence on employee performance. By including the moderator of resource dependence, it is argued that only when employees are dependent on the leader will authoritarian leadership have a positive impact on employee behaviour. Finally, this study answers the research calls from Cheng et al. (2004) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) to examine positive outcomes to tap the “totality” of authoritarian leadership. Although past research has interpreted authoritarian leadership in a negative way, recent research at a group level has found that authoritarian leadership does have positive effects on factors such as team or group performance (e.g., De Hoogh et al., 2015; Huang, Xu, Chiu, Lam, & Farh, 2015). The existence of the proposed positive effect in this thesis significantly advances knowledge of the social function of authoritarian leadership at an individual level and offers insight into a subordinate outcome that is positively affected by authoritarian leadership.

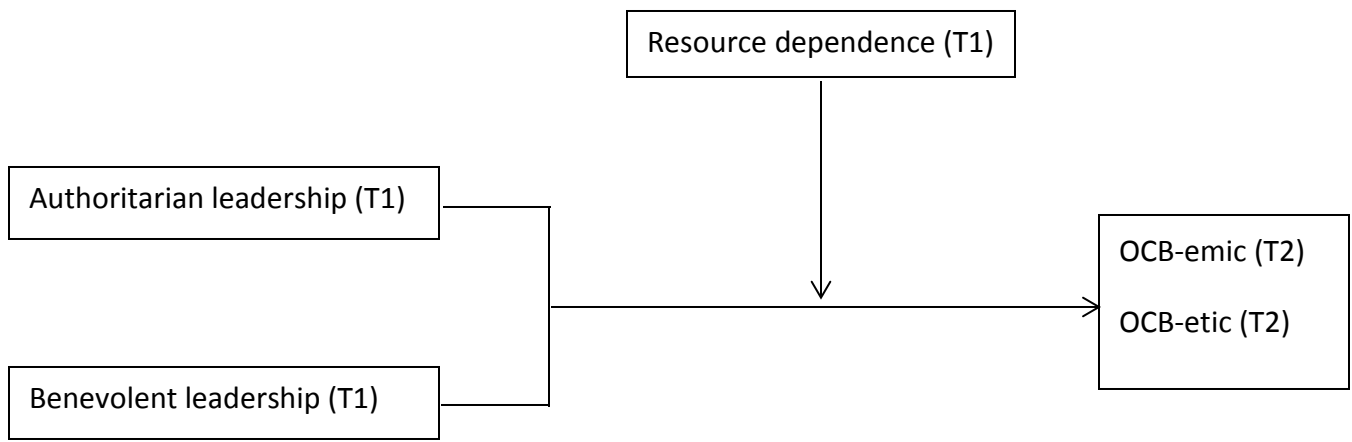


Figure 5.1 Conceptual Model.

T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2.

5.2 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

5.2.1 Authoritarian Leadership

Authoritarian leadership refers to a situation in which leaders assert their personal authority over subordinates and control subordinates behaviour, and employees accept the leader's legitimate power and provide unquestioning obedience (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Authoritarian leaders are likely to assert control by initiating structure, issuing rules, promising rewards for compliance, and punishing for disobedience (Aryee et al., 2007). It is a prevalent topic among social scientists for more than half a century. Western literature tends to view authoritarian leadership in a negative light as a violation of autonomy and privacy (Aycan, 2006). But research from China suggests that it reflects the indigenous characteristics of familism¹, paternalistic control, and submission to authority that are typical in Chinese culture (Westwood, 1997). In the Confucian value of hierarchy, 'higher ups govern, lower ranks obey' (Beamer, 1998, p.564). This suggests that positional power enables leader to impact employee work behaviour (Hwang, 2000, 2008). Therefore, the more authoritarian and demanding a leader acts, the more obedience and compliance employees may show (Chen et al., 2014). Thus, authoritarian leadership has been theorised to be effective in soliciting conformity and driving employee work performance (Farh et al., 2006).

One key challenges of authoritarian leadership research is that most studies have failed to find a positive correlation between authoritarian leadership and employee work attitudes and

¹ Familism refers to Chinese traditional family culture, which emphasises the father's authority over sons and considers the vertical bond between father and son as paramount and supersedes all other social relations, including the relationship between leaders, who take on the role of the father, and their subordinates, who take the role of the son. (Farh and Cheng, 2000).

performance (see for example, Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2002; Wu et al., 2012). For example, authoritarian leadership has been found to evoke negative emotions such as anger and agitation and suppress employee expression of these negative emotions (Wu et al., 2002). It has also been found to have a negative impact on team interaction, team members' satisfaction with team leaders, intention to stay, job performance (Cheng et al., 2002), employee loyalty to leaders, trust in leaders, and employee OCB (Cheng et al., 2002).

In order to address this issue, recent studies have gone beyond the direct effect of authoritarian leadership and investigated the joint effects of authoritarianism and benevolence (see for example, Aycan et al., 2000; Chan et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2004). This is because authoritarian leadership has long been theorised as one dimension of paternalistic leadership. Paternalistic leadership refers to a father-like leadership style, in which strong authority is combined with benevolent concerns and consideration for the employee (Westwood, 1992). Authoritarian leadership and benevolent leadership have been highlighted as the two dominant dimensions in paternalistic leadership research (Chan et al., 2013; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Leader authoritarianism is tightly coupled with leader benevolence and they can coexist, reinforce and jointly influence employee attitudes and performance.

In contrast to authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership has been consistently found to have positive effects on employee work attitudes and behaviours such as job performance and OCB (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2002). Several studies have found that the negative impact of authoritarian leadership can be compensated by high leader benevolence (Chan et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2006). For example, Farh et al. (2006) suggested that the negative impact of

authoritarian leadership on satisfaction with the leader was weaker when the leader exhibited a higher level of benevolence. Chan et al. (2013) found that leader benevolence buffers the negative impacts of leader authoritarianism on job performance and OCB. They argued that high levels of benevolence exhibited by an authoritarian leader can shape how subordinates interpret leader authoritarianism. Benevolent behaviours involving provision of kindness, care and protection direct subordinates' attention towards positive information and away from negative information about the leader. This leads subordinates to construct positive attributions of leader's behaviours (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Chan et al., 2013). In this sense, leader authoritarianism is more likely to be viewed less unfavourably, which in turn may make subordinates more tolerant of leaders' authoritarian behaviours and will act to influence them to maintain performance.

However, researchers so far have only found the compensating effect of leader benevolence on leader authoritarianism. Although benevolent leadership mitigates the negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employees' outcomes, a high level of benevolence cannot foster a positive effect of authoritarian leadership on work outcomes. To examine this gap, this study draws from deterrence theory to theorise the functional utility of authoritarian leadership in inducing certain normative behaviours and identify the boundary conditions of the functionality of authoritarian leadership.

5.2.2 The Deterrence Effect of Authoritarian leadership

Deterrence theory proposes that the fear of retaliation from one power actor can prevent another low power (or even equal) party from initiating or stopping some course of action

(Lawler, 1986; Morgan, 1983). The research on deterrence has mainly been conducted in criminal and military contexts (Delpech, 2012; Nagin & Pepper, 2012). The main area of management research that employs deterrence theory is the area of industrial discipline. Deterrence is the most commonly approach to managing discipline in the workplace, other main approaches being correctional, positive, and retribitional models of discipline (Edwards & Whitston, 1993; Robinson & Bennett, 1995). The main aim of the deterrence approach in discipline is for managers to highlight the adverse consequences of any future rule transgression. The central function of deterrence is to facilitate employee self-regulating behaviours, such as not stealing or taking unauthorised absence by posing the expectation of threat in response to those behaviours (Tyler & Huo, 2002). Having an effective deterrence strategy is also a necessary element of organisational leadership because leadership cannot function well if employees do not avoid behaviours that are detrimental to the organisation (Tyler, 2004). It is argued that authoritarian leadership has a deterrence effect on reinforcing employee self-regulating behaviour based on its disciplining nature.

Moreover, this study contends that the positive deterrence function of authoritarian leadership is highly culturally-rooted and may induce behavioural compliance with certain culture-specific norms. Although Farh and Cheng (2000) theorised that authoritarian leadership may reinforce employees' compliance with performance standards, they did not specify what types of performance and behaviours are more likely to be shaped by authoritarian leadership. Notably, China's intellectual tradition and authoritarian practices throughout its history have emphasised the role of authoritarian control over its subject in ensuring compliance with a set of socially endorsed norms and Confucian values, including respect to authority, social harmony, and

betterment of the common good (Chan, 1963; Yang, 1995; 1988). Obeying authority is a critical value in Confucianism and is prevalent in Chinese societies as a legacy of Confucian values (Ma & Tsui, 2015; Redding, 1990). Traditionally, the primacy of harmony and righteousness over financial profit is illustrated in Confucian classics especially when profit making is for selfish purposes and not for the good of the community (Chan, 1963; Ornatowski, 1999). Therefore it is a more legitimate practice for leaders to use authoritarian power to enforce the compliance of social norms rather than squeezing productivity and profits from the labour of their subjects (Boisot & Child, 1996). In this sense, authoritarian leaders get followers to understand their prescribed roles and respect social norms largely through deterrence power that ensures compliance with these norms (Redding, 1990). Therefore, this study proposes that authoritarian leadership may serve a legitimate and effective deterrence function in ensuring and promoting behaviours complying with Chinese behavioural norms, such as indigenous OCBs in China.

Farh et al. (1997) developed a five-dimension OCB scale: altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, identification with company, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resources, and this scale can be further categorised as emic (Chinese specific) and etic (culturally “universal”) OCBs. OCB-emic includes two dimensions of maintaining interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources, while OCB-etic includes altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, and identification with the company.

However, emic dimensions appear not to fit the accepted conceptualisation of OCB. Organ (1988, p. 4) originally defined OCB as “individual behaviour that is discretionary..... and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of organisation”. Farh et al. (1997) asked

Chinese employees to provide examples that illustrated OCBs. A notable feature of the two dimensions - interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources was their “negative” nature. Farh et al. (1997, p. 430) argued that this is a common feature of the Chinese language that positive aspects are expressed as the negation of a negative. Thus, it is argued that employees engaging in OCB in Chinese society do not conduct certain behaviours. Not engaging in behaviours such as using company resources for personal business, taking credit, avoiding blame, or fighting fiercely for personal gain can be considered as engaging OCBs as originally conceptualized by Organ. The three core assumptions that have largely guided OCB research are maintained; namely that OCB derives from non-self-serving motives, which facilitate the effective functioning of the organisation and make it a more supportive organisation to work in (Bolino, Turnley, & Niehoff, 2004).

Further, recent OCB research has shown increasing attention to conceptualising different types of OCB (Marinova, Moon, & Van Dyne, 2010; Moon, Van Dyne, & Wrobel, 2005; Williamson, 1991). Marinova et al. (2010) have suggested that employee compliance with written and unwritten norms can be viewed as one type of citizenship behaviour, because it emphasises meeting the spirit of norms within cooperative systems and supports smooth operation within the organisation. The emergence of OCB-emic as a major form of complying behavioural norms in Chinese societies is a manifestation of such concern, which further supports the discretionary nature of OCB-emic.

Farh et al. (1997) argued that the presence of the OCB-emic represented as employees’ compliance with certain norms can be attributed to their cultural roots. First, harmony (*he*) is

the foundation of all schools of Chinese thought. It represents an ideal state Chinese pursue in daily life, maintains social harmony within the organisation, and has been largely prescribed as a key behaviour expected of employees (Farh et al., 1997; Hwang, 1987). Chen and Chung (1994) argued that the ultimate goal of Chinese communication is to pursue a conflict-free interpersonal relationship, and therefore Chinese may conceal their sentiments or keep silent in the process of interaction when it interrupts interpersonal harmony (Chen & Ma, 2002). As a result of such self-regulating behaviours, keeping a more supportive and harmonious relationship in social interactions is highly valued and rewarded in Chinese organisations.

Protecting collective interest is another historical feature of Chinese value, which emphasises the attainment of group interests and subordination of personal interests to ensure that group outcomes are attained (Earley, 1989; Oh, 1976; Shenkar & Ronen, 1987; Yum, 1988). The Communist revolution has further placed additional emphasis on advocating contribution to society and group welfare (Dun, 1978; Lai & Lam, 1986). Therefore, the desire to inhibit behaviours of pursuing individual interests which may harm the group interest is highly valued in Chinese culture. Protecting company resources is a major manifestation of such concern. In conclusion, OCBs in the Chinese context extend beyond employees' altruistic behaviours that enhance internal efficiency of the organisations, and aim at ensuring harmonious relationships and safeguard collective interests. It is common in Chinese societies for anyone behaving in line with those cultural norms to be rewarded and those violating to take a much larger share of the blame (Farh et al., 1997).

As argued before, this study contends that authoritarian leadership can positively reinforce employees to commit to more OCB-emic behaviours. This study argues that threatening nature of authoritarian deterrence is only effective when a leader expresses high authoritarianism alongside low benevolence. When a leader expresses high benevolence, which involves caring for the subordinates' personal welfare and showing concern for their personal life, employees perceive their leader to be less threatening (Aycan, 2006; Chan et al., 2013). It may thus divert subordinates' attention away from the deterrence nature of authoritarian leaders. In this sense, subordinates are less likely to discipline themselves to commit more OCB-emic behaviours. On the other hand, if the authoritarian leader expresses low levels of benevolence, employees tend to interpret the situation more severely and experience their relationship with the leader as more strict. When authority is absolute with low benevolence, the subordinates tend to be completely obedient to the superior (Cheng & Jen, 2005). In this sense, authoritarian leaders can provoke deterrent power, which may in turn reinforce employees to actively self-withhold behaviours that are harmful to the interpersonal harmony and collective interests.

This study also contends that the deterrence function of authoritarian leadership becomes effective not only when the leader shows low levels of benevolence, but this positive function also depends on when employees can accept or tolerate such a leadership style. Drawing from resource dependence theory (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1980), this study argues that employees' resource dependence on the leader is an important condition that enhances employees' tolerance.

Resource dependence theory offers a unified theory to study power relations in organisational research. The emphasis on power serves as a hallmark of this theory, deriving from Emerson's (1962) power-exchange account: The power of A over B comes from A's control of resources that B values. In this account, B is dependent on A to the degree that A has power over B. Resource dependence has been utilised to explain the relationship between leaders and followers (Cheng & Jen, 2005; Farh et al., 2006). When the leader has the power to allocate important and valued resources (e.g., work resources, payment, training opportunities, promotion, information, etc.) for employees, or in other words the employees are dependent on the resources provided by the leader, the leader has the power to impact employee behaviour.

This study contends that the deterrence function of authoritarian leadership with low leader benevolence is further contingent upon employee resource dependence. Resource dependence is chosen as a boundary condition of the deterrence effect because subordinates responses to authoritarian leadership are presumed to be rooted in Chinese culture's emphasis on dependence and submission to authority (Chen & Farh, 2010). Strong resource dependence of subordinates is therefore a salient characteristic of authoritarianism in Chinese business, which has been studied as a contingency of authoritarian leadership in China (Farh et al., 2006; Redding, 1990). For example, Cheng and Jen (2005) found when employees have a higher level of dependence on their leaders for work resources and benefits, they respond more favourably to leader authoritarianism than those who have lower level of dependence. By contrast, when employees are not dependent on their leader for work resources, authoritarian leadership leads to worse work behaviours.

Aycan (2006) suggested that employees in absolute authoritarian relationships show compliance primarily because the leader has the power of fulfilling employees' needs as well as depriving them of critical resources. Following this logic, it is proposed that authoritarian leaders who exhibit low levels of benevolence may serve the instrumental function of deterring employees from deviating from OCB-emic, especially for employees who depend on the leader for resources. In contrast, when employees are highly independent and autonomous with their work resources, absolute authoritarianism with low benevolence are likely to be rejected by employees. Taken together, it is suggested that when leaders adopt authoritarian leadership with low levels of leader benevolence, the stronger the dependent relationship between the leader and employee is, the more likely the deterrence function is to succeed. Therefore the following hypothesis is proposed:

Hypothesis 5.1: Benevolent leadership and resource dependence jointly moderate the link between authoritarian leadership and Chinese OCB-emic, in that the positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and OCB-emic is the strongest when leader benevolence is low and employee resource dependence is high.

OCB-etic on the other hand, are universally defined as constructive employee behaviours which are not covered in formal duties, but promote the effective functioning of the organisation (Organ, 1988). As noted before, the deterrence effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB-emic is largely based on its cultural roots in the Chinese context. Therefore, it is expected such a deterrence effect should not be observed on other types of OCBs, such as OCB-etic. This is because the authoritarian behaviours based on control with hierarchical differences may be

effective at soliciting conformity, but stops at truly motivating subordinates to go the extra mile, and reduces followers' intrinsic motivation for dedicating maximum effort (Chen et al., 2014; Farh et al., 2006). Therefore, it is expected that authoritarian leadership will have a negative effect on OCB-etic.

As leader authoritarianism cannot truly motivate employees to commit OCB-etic, it is argued that high leader benevolence and high employee resource dependence can only play compensating or buffering roles in this context to neutralise the negative effect of authoritarianism on OCB-etic. A few studies have found that high leader benevolence compensates for the adverse effects of a high level of authoritarianism (Aycan, 2006; Chan et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2004; Farh et al., 2006). This is because if the leader shows more benevolent behaviours such as kindness, care and protection, subordinates interpret their leader's authoritarianism in more positive ways, and thus the leader is less likely to provoke the destructive psychological process which may in turn decrease OCB-etic. In contrast, if the leader shows low benevolence, authoritarian leadership will show a stronger negative relationship to subordinates' OCB-etic. Thus, consistent with the previous findings, it is argued that leader benevolence can temper the negative feelings and resistance towards leader authoritarianism on OCB-etic.

This study contends that resource dependence on the leader may also help to temper the negative effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB-etic. Cheng and Jen (2005) found that authoritarian leadership has a less negative impact on employee loyalty to their leader, OCB and job performance at higher levels of employee resource dependence. Highly dependent

employees working with an authoritarian leader will show greater tolerance of authoritarian behaviours as they don't have power to allocate their key resources (Cheng & Jen, 2005; Yang, 1995). Such dependent feelings may lead subordinates to show more respect for the legitimate power of the leader and thereby respond more favourably to their authoritarian leader (Farh et al., 2006). As a result, it is expected that resource dependence can positively attribute to leader authoritarianism, which in turn neutralises the negative effect of authoritarian leadership on subordinates' OCB-etic. By contrast, low level of resource dependence of subordinates makes them less reactive to the impact of authoritarian leadership. Thus, the following hypothesis is put forward:

Hypothesis 5.2: Benevolent leadership and dependence jointly moderate the relationship between authoritarian leadership and OCB-etic, in that the relationship between authoritarian leadership and OCB-etic will be stronger when both leader benevolence and resource dependence are low.

5.3 Method

5.3.1 Sample and Procedures

The data used in this study was collected from power station 3. Please see a full discussion of the targeted power station and data collection procedures in Section 3.2.2. Surveys were initially distributed to 450 employees. 348 completed surveys were received in Time 1. Three weeks later, 288 completed surveys were returned to the author in Time 2, indicating a response rate of 64.0%. The number of completed supervisor survey was 320.

These 288 subordinates reported to 39 immediate supervisors. The number of subordinates in every each team ranged from 5 to 30, and the average number of subordinates per supervisor was 8. In the subordinate sample, 78.7% of them were male and 21.3% were female. The average age of the subordinates was 40.1. 73.8% of the subordinate participants had received a college education, and 89.9 % of them had worked with the dyadic supervisor for more than three years. 73.1% of them were married, 25% were single, and 1.9% selected others (separated/divorced/widowed). 53.4% of them reported working without shift, and 46.6% of them reported working with shifts. For time 2, the number of subordinates surveys returned was 288, representing a response rate of 82.7%, and the number of supervisor rating surveys received was 320, indicating a response rate of 91.2%.

5.3.2 Measures

The scales used to measure each variable in this research are reviewed below (see appendix for a copy of the questionnaires). All variables were measured using a seven point Likert – type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Authoritarian Leadership and Benevolent Leadership. Authoritarian leadership and benevolent leadership were measured by the same scales as Chapter 4 (see Section 4.3.2). These two scales

were rated by subordinates at Time 1. The Cronbach's alpha values was .86¹ for authoritarian leadership and .96 for benevolent leadership².

Resource Dependence. Resource dependence was measured using a six-item scale developed by Farh et al. (2006). Subordinates were asked to rate the extent to which their direct supervisors determine their payment, promotion, work benefits, etc. Sample items are “my promotion largely depends on my supervisor”, “my pay increase is largely influenced by my supervisor”, and “the welfare I can get depends on my supervisor’s decisions. It was rated by subordinates at Time 1. The Cronbach’s alpha was .95.

Factor Analysis of Resource Dependence.

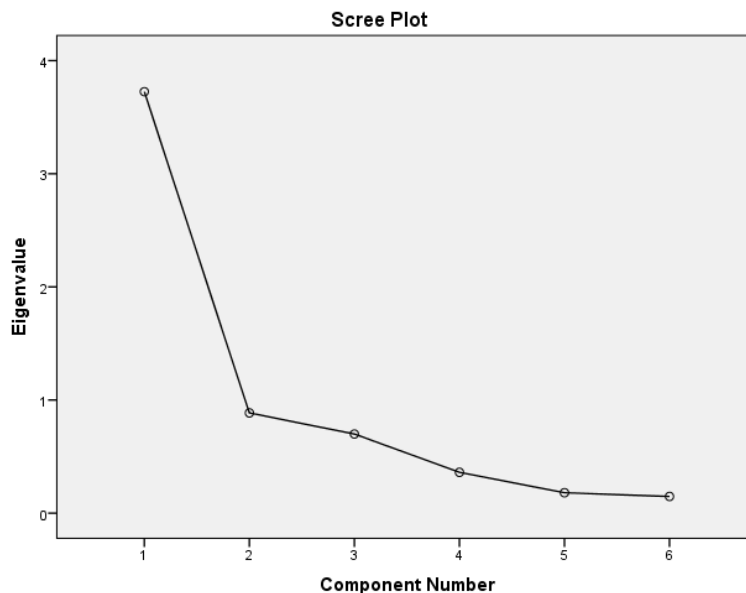


Figure 5.2 Scree Plot of Resource Dependence

¹ The factor structure of authoritarian leadership in this chapter indicates a similar factor structure to authoritarian leadership in Chapter 4 (please see a detailed discussion in Section 4.3.2). All 9 items load on the single factor (eigenvalue=5.06). No significant cross-loading was found.

² Again, the factor structure of benevolent leadership here indicates a similar factor structure to benevolent leadership in Chapter 4 (please see a detailed discussion in Section 4.3.2). All 11 items load on the single factor (eigenvalue=7.99). No significant cross-loading was found.

Table 5.1 shows the principal component analysis of resource dependence, revealing that the items are well loaded on a single factor. The value for Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure of sampling adequacy was found to be .82, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. Only one factor recorded an Eigenvalue above one (3.73) and explained 62.01% of the variance. The scree plot shown in Figure 5.2 began to level out after the first factor, again indicating that only one factor should be retained. Table 5.1 shows the component matrix of dependence, suggesting that all 6 items of dependency positively and significantly load on one single factor, indicating that resource dependence is a unidimensional construct.

Table 5.1 Component Matrix of Resource Dependence

Scale item	Factor 1
Dependence 1	.81
Dependence 2	.87
Dependence 3	.91
Dependence 4	.87
Dependence 5	.45
Dependency 6	.74
Eigenvalue	3.73
% variance explained	62.01

Note1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB). OCB was measured using the 15 indigenous Chinese items from Hui et al. (1999), amended from Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997)’s original scale, which was developed and validated in Taiwan. Hui et al. (1999) simplified the scale and deleted the items that were deemed inappropriate for employees in a factory setting in Mainland China. In their study, Hui et al. have tested the psychometric properties by conducting CFAs and

confirmed the five-factor structure of the revised scale. In this sense, there is no concern about the psychometric adequacy by using this revised scale in the current study.

The 15 items represent five dimensions of OCB: altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, identification with the company, interpersonal harmony, and protecting company resources. This measure can be further categorised into two main forms: OCB-emic and OCB-etic. OCB-emic contains two indigenous scales of interpersonal harmony (a sample item is “often speaks ill of the supervisor or colleagues behind their backs”), and protecting company resources (a sample item is “conducts personal business on working time [e.g., trading stocks, shopping, going to barber shops]”). These items are reverse-coded. OCB-etic contains three universal scales of altruism towards colleagues (a sample item is “willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems”), conscientiousness (a sample item was “takes one’s job seriously and rarely makes mistakes”), and identification with the company (a sample item is “eager to tell outsiders good news about the company and clarify their misunderstandings”). The Cronbach’s alphas were .97 for OCB-emic and .95 for OCB-etic, respectively.

Factor Analysis of OCB

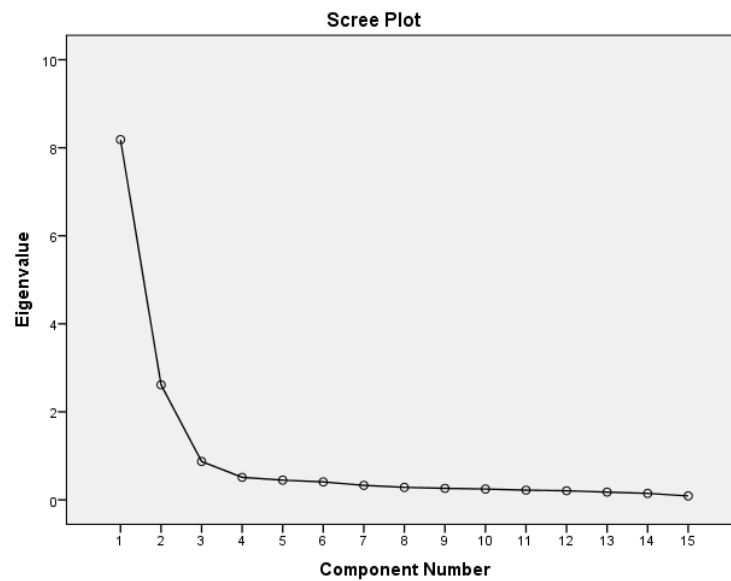


Figure 5.3 Scree Plot of OCB

The value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure was found to be .92, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. As shown in Table 5.2, the OCB-etic factor recorded an Eigenvalue above one (8.93) and explained 59.50% of the variance. The OCB-emic factor records an Eigenvalue above one (2.66) and explained additional 17.73% of data variance. No significant cross-loadings have been found. The scree plot shown in Figure 5.3 begins to level out after the second factor, again indicating that two factors should be retained.

Table 5.2 Rotated Factor Matrix for OCB

Scale item	<i>Factor</i>	
	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>
Altruism 1	.83	.28
Altruism 2	.84	.25
Altruism 3	.87	.25
Conscientiousness 1	.75	.14
Conscientiousness 2	.82	.31
Conscientiousness 3	.84	.30
Identification with company 1	.80	.21
Identification with company 2	.84	.20
Identification with company 3	.69	.19
Interpersonal harmony 1	.25	.89
Interpersonal harmony 2	.20	.92
Interpersonal harmony 3	.18	.92
Protecting company resources 1	.32	.87
Protecting company resources 2	.33	.85
Protecting company resources 3	.26	.88
Eigenvalues	8.93	2.66
% variance explained	59.50	17.73

Note1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

Moreover, the relatively high correlation ($r = .53$, $p < .01$) between OCB-emic and OCB-etic raise the concern in relation to discriminant validity. A first-order CFA with OCB-emic as one and OCB-etic as the other first-order factor was firstly conducted, and the model fit statistics were $\chi^2 = 399.53$, $df = 84$; RMSEA = .06; CFI = .98; TLI = .97; SRMR = .03. Then a second-order CFA in which the two latent variables of OCB-emic and OCB-etic were modelled to construct a one overarching factor was also conducted. The second-order model did not significantly improved in comparison with the hypothesised two-factor model of OCB ($\Delta\chi^2 = .00$, $p = n.s.$)”

Control variables. Past research suggests that demographic variables may influence employees’ work attitudes and behaviours (Van Knippenberg et al., 2005; Vandenberghe et al., 2007). This study controlled for employees gender (0 = male; 1 = female), age (in years), and tenure with supervisor (in years), because past research suggests that these factors influences deviant

behaviours (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Bauer & Green, 1996). Employee marital status (0 = single, 1 = married or living as married, and 2 = separated/divorced/widowed) was also controlled, because research suggested marital status influences employee work attitudes and reactions toward leadership behaviours (Stouten, van Dijke, Mayer, De Cremer, & Euwema, 2013; Tims, Bakker, & Xanthopoulou, 2011). Finally, working with or without shift (0 = working without shift, 1= working with shift) was controlled because research indicated that shift works impact employee wellbeing and work behaviours (Totterdell, Spelten, Smith, Barton, & Folkard, 1995). Please refers to Chapter 3 (Section 3.3.10) for a detailed discussion of these control variables.

5.3.3 Statistical Methods

This chapter mainly adopted linear mixed modelling (LMM) to investigate the proposed three-way interaction model. LMM is a statistical tool for testing models with continuous outcome variables in which the residuals may not be independent or have constant variances. Studies with LMM designs lead to data sets that include (1) clustered data, such as members in groups, and (2) longitudinal or repeated measures (West, Welch, & Galecki, 2014). LMM was used in this chapter because firstly, it provides a flexible statistical tools for analyses of clustered data sets. It allows researchers to take consideration of group-varying covariates as predictors of a continuous dependent variable. Specifically, simple linear regression models for continuous dependent variables assume that all observation in a data are intendent of each other. LMMs relax this assumption and allow for observations on then dependent variable to have several non-zero covariance as they come from some random factor, or more specifically the same unit of analysis (e.g., gender, team, company, country, and etc.). More importantly, LMM is able to perform certain types of analyses that the SEM approach cannot easily handle. For example, this

chapter needs to conduct a three way interaction analysis which cannot be easily specified by SEM. Finally, as missing data are common in longitudinal studies, mix-modelling is able to fully accommodate all of the data that are available, without dropping any of the data collected for any given subject (West et al., 2014).

In this study, because subordinates were nested within groups (under the same supervisor within a group), analyses of variance for the dependent variables were conducted, considering the possibility for data homogeneity under supervisor assessments. Intra-class correlation coefficients (ICC1) represent the amount of variance in any individual's response that can be explained by group membership. In this study, ICC1 for dependent variables, which are OCB-emic and OCB-etic, were calculated to determine whether there was a supervisor effect on the nested data (Bliese, 2000). The ICC1 for OCB-emic was .38, and for OCB-etic was .44. These ICC1 were comparatively high ($> .10$; Bliese, 2000), implying the possibility of a violation of the independent observation assumption. Linear mixed models in SPSS was conducted to decompose the total observed variance into individual-level and team-level residual variances (Janssen, Lam, & Huang, 2010). As the hypothesised model (Figure 6.1) only focused on individual level relationships, the possible supervisor effects were controlled in the multilevel analyses. Again, it is worth noting that as the hypothesised model mainly focus on examining the fixed effects and does not investigate any random effects from the group level, the following analyses have enough statistical power. The coefficients provided in Table 5.5 below are comparable to the unstandardized regression coefficients in ordinary regression analysis.

5.4 Results

5.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Before testing the hypotheses, a CFA was first conducted to examine the measurement model using Mplus 7.2. Given the relatively small sample size, items parcels were created on all variables in order to maintain an adequate sample-size-to-parameter ratio (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Russell et al., 1998), rather than using individual items as manifest indicators of the latent constructs. . Following Hall, Snell, and Foust (1999) recommendation and based on the EFA results, all items from one scale were forced from two to four factors, depending on the total number of items. Items with higher loadings on the same factor were combined into a parcel¹. The model fit indices shown in Table 5.3 find that the 5-factor model (authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, resource-dependence, OCB-emic and OCB-etic) fit the data well ($\chi^2 = 169.80$, $df = 55$; RMSEA = .07, CFI = .96, TLI = .94, SRMR = .06) and yielded a better fit than alternative models. In conclusion, this CFA analysis supported the adequacy of the measures for testing the hypotheses

¹ Please refer to a full justification of item parcelling in Section 4.3.3.

Table 5.3 Comparison of Alternative Models

Models	χ^2	<i>Df</i>	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Baseline model	169.80	55	.07	.96	.94	.06
Model A	528.77	59	.15	.84	.79	.09
Model B	614.22	59	.16	.81	.75	.14
Model C	1149.74	62	.23	.63	.53	.17
Model D	1507.79	64	.26	.50	.39	.18
Model E	2392.82	65	.32	.20	.04	.26

Note: Model A: four-factor model combines OCB-emic and OCB-etic; Model B: four-factor model combines authoritarian leadership and benevolent leadership; Model C: three-factor model combines authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and resource dependence. Model D: two-factor model combines authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and resource dependence as a factor; two OCB dimensions as a factor. Model E: one-factor model combines all variables.

5.4.2 Preliminary Analysis

Means, standard deviations, and the correlations among variables are shown in Table 5.4. Authoritarian leadership was positively related to benevolent leadership ($r = .13, p < .05$) and dependence ($r = .44, p < .005$), and benevolent leadership was not related to dependence ($r = .08, p > .05$). Authoritarian leadership was negatively related to OCB-emic ($r = -.16, p < .005$), but not related to OCB-etic ($r = -.06, p > .05$). Benevolent leadership is positively related to both OCB-emic ($r = .17, p < .005$) and OCB-etic ($r = .25, p < .005$).

5.4.3 Hypotheses Tests

Following the suggestions by Aiken et al. (1991), in order to facilitate interpretation and minimize problems of multi-collinearity independent and moderating variables were grand mean-centered before creating interaction terms.

Table 5.4 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliabilities among the Variables

Variables	Means	S.D	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Tenure	4.42	5.96									
2. Gender	0.27	.44	-.03								
3. Age	40.16	8.39	.23**	.11							
4. Marital	1.18	.45	-.17**	.01	-.42**						
5. Shift	2.71	1.49	-.06	-.09	.02	-.02					
6. Authoritarian leadership	3.97	1.17	.14*	-.09	.02	.06	-.14*	(.86)			
7. Benevolent leadership	5.19	1.19	-.01	.01	-.22**	.15**	-.23**	.13*	(.96)		
8. Resource dependence	3.49	1.21	-.04	-.05	-.07	.13*	-.13*	.44**	.08	(.87)	
9. OCB-emic	6.33	.93	-.06	.04	.05	.04	.11	-.16**	.17**	-.12*	(.97)
10. OCB-etic	5.89	.84	.05	.11	.09	-.01	-.11	-.06	.25**	.00	.53**

Note. N = 348

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Hypothesis 5.1 and 5.2 predict a three-way interactive effect of authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, and resource dependence on employee OCB-emic and OCB-etic, respectively. As shown in Table 5.5, the control variables were entered in Model 1. Then authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership, and resource dependence were regressed in Model 2. In Model 3, the two-way interactions were entered. None of the two-way interaction terms were significant. In Model 4, the three-way interactive term of authoritarianism, benevolence and resource dependence was entered. Model 4a suggested that the three-way term was negatively related to OCB-emic ($\beta = -.18, p < .01$). Model 4b also suggested that the interaction term was negatively related to OCB-etic ($\beta = -.09, p < .05$).

Following the methods described by Aiken et al.'s (1991, p. 12), the three-way interactive effects were plotted using procedure of ± 1 SD for the values of high resource dependence and low resource dependence (see Figure 5.4 and Figure 5.5). The simple slope analyses shows that for employees having high dependence on their leaders, leader authoritarianism was not significantly related to OCB-emic when leader benevolence is high ($\beta = -.06, p > .05$), but is positively related when benevolence is low ($\beta = .36, p < .05$). When employees have low dependence on the leader, authoritarian leadership is not related to OCB-emic when leader benevolence is high ($\beta = -.06, p > .05$), but is negatively related to OCB-emic when leader benevolence is low ($\beta = -.35, p < .05$). This supports the notion that authoritarian leaders with low levels of benevolence, can effectively suppress interpersonal deviance for highly dependent subordinates. Thus, Hypothesis 5.1 is supported.

For OCB-etic, under high levels of resource dependence, leader authoritarianism is found to not be related to OCB-etic under both high leader benevolence ($\beta = -.04, p > .05$) and low leader benevolence ($\beta = .06, p > .05$). For the low resource dependence condition, authoritarian leadership is not related to OCB-etic when leader benevolence is high ($\beta = -.13, p > .05$), but is found to be negatively related to OCB-etic when leader benevolence is low ($\beta = -.37, p < .05$). Consistent with Hypothesis 5.2, these results support the assumption that high levels of resource dependence compensated the negative effects of authoritarian leadership on OCBs. Thus, Hypothesis 5.2 is supported.

Table 5.5 Hierarchical Multilevel Analyses for Three-way Interactions of Resource Dependence

Variables	OCB-emic				OCB-etic			
	M1a	M2a	M3a	M4a	M1b	M2b	M3b	M4b
<i>Control variables</i>								
Tenure	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01	.01	.01	.01
Gender	-.01	-.02	-.01	-.02	.11	.10	.09	.08
Age	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.00	.01
Marital	.06	.06	.08	.12	.06	.05	.06	.09
Shift	.08	.09	.08	.09	-.02	-.01	-.01	.00
<i>Independent variables</i>								
AL		-.04	-.03	-.02		-.10	-.12*	-.11*
BL		.10	.10	.12*		.13*	.11*	.13*
Dependence		-.04	-.04	.00		.04	.01	.03
<i>Two-way interaction</i>								
AL x BL			-.03	-.03			.03	.03
AL x Dependence			.04	.18*			.06	.13*
BL x Dependence			-.06	.00			-.04	-.01
<i>Three-way interaction</i>								
AL x BL x Dependence				-.18**				-.09*
$\Delta\chi^2$	204.62**	5.1	1.38	10.41**	180.08**	10.24	2.77	3.9*
Pseudo ΔR^2	.04	.00	.00	.05	.06	.03	.01	.03

N = 348

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

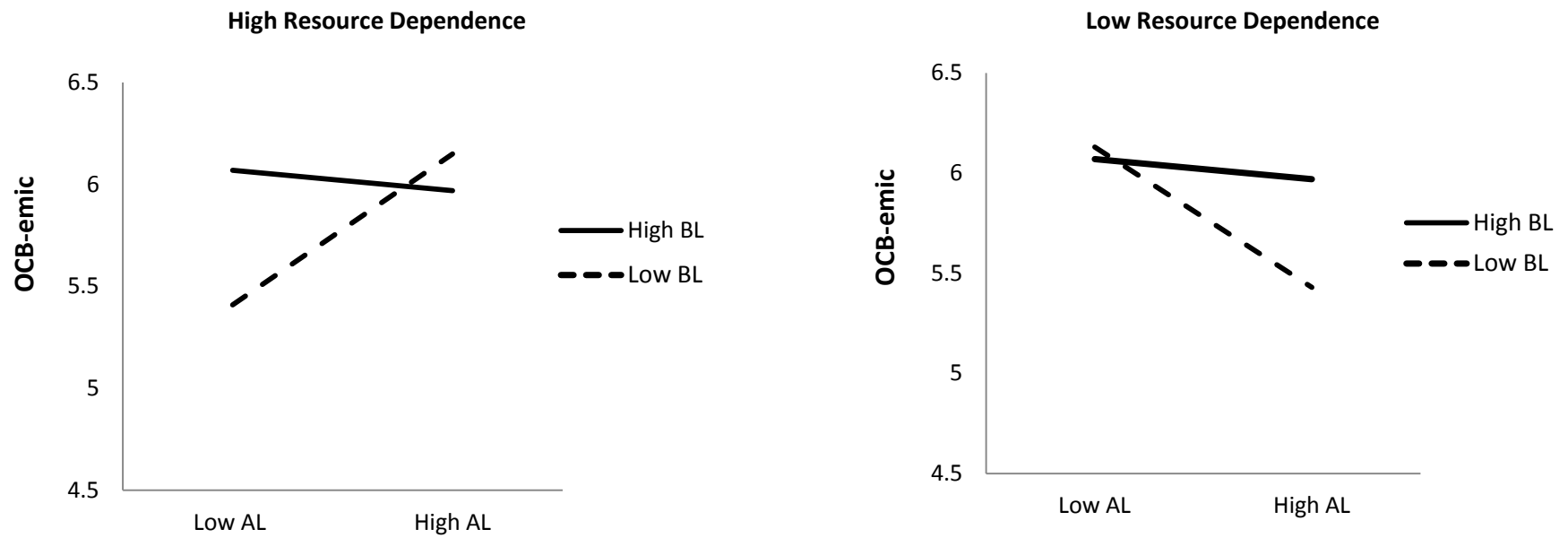


Figure 5.4 Interaction Effects of Authoritarian Leadership (AL), Benevolent Leadership (BL), and Resource Dependence on Emic Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB-emic¹)

¹ OCB-emic represents Chinese culturally endorsed behaviours of not engaging in harmful behaviours that disrupt interpersonal harmony and company resources.

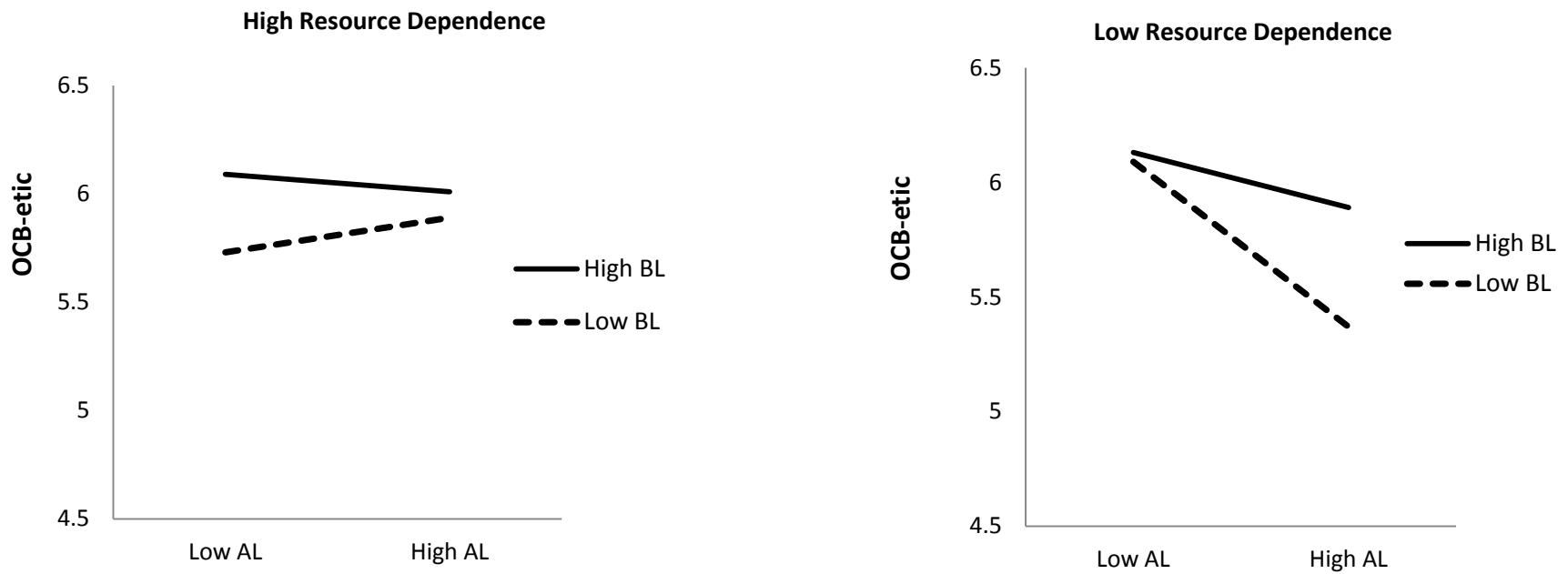


Figure 5.5 Interaction Effects of Authoritarian Leadership (AL), Benevolent Leadership (BL), and Resource Dependence on Etic Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB-etic¹)

¹ OCB-etic refers to culturally “neutral” behaviours including altruism towards colleagues, conscientiousness, and identification with company.

5.5 Discussion

Authoritarian leadership has received increasing research attention in past two decades. However, the empirical findings remain rather limited. Cheng et al. (2004) called for studies to further explore the positive outcomes of authoritarian leadership. Also, Chan et al. (2013) called for studies to test other moderators that could address the inconsistent findings in the authoritarian leadership literature. This study answers these research calls and helps to understand why authoritarian leadership has been widely adopted by managers in certain cultural contexts and how authoritarian leadership can affect employee OCB. It is found that authoritarian leadership has a positive deterrence effect on employee OCB-emic when a leader exhibits low benevolence and his/her employees are highly dependent on him/her. On the other hand, leader benevolence and employee dependence only play compensating roles on the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee OCB-etic.

5.5.1 Theoretical Implications

There are several theoretical implications of this study. First, this study is the first study known to the author to theorise and find a positive effect of authoritarian leadership on employee behaviour and an outcome for the organisation. This provides some explanation for the importance of authoritarian leadership in Chinese culture and helps to explain the prevalence of authoritarian leadership in China. It is demonstrated that as an indigenous leadership style in Chinese society, authoritarian leadership has the social function of shaping employees' culturally rooted normative behaviours. It advances our understanding of what kind of employee positive work-outcomes can be motivated by leader authoritarianism, and encourages future research on the salient role of OCB-emic for authoritarian leadership.

Second, the findings offer additional evidence for the joint effect of authoritarian and benevolent leadership on employees' work outcomes. Authoritarian and benevolent leaderships are theorised as two main components of paternalistic leadership. However, these two leadership behaviours have been found to play opposing roles in shaping employee work-outcomes (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006, 2008; Pellegrini et al., 2010; Soylu, 2011). Prior studies have attempted to understand the interplay between leader authoritarianism and benevolence by examining their interaction effects, and found that the negative impacts of authoritarian leadership on employee outcomes were weaker when leaders exhibited higher leader benevolence (Chan et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2006). This study adds to this line of literature by replicating the compensation effect of benevolent leadership using a time-lagged sample, and shows the compensating effect indeed exists. This research then provides further evidence for the importance of taking into consideration of the role of leader benevolence when investigating the influence of leader authoritarianism.

Third, this study contributes to the literature by showing why employees tend to tolerate authoritarian leadership. Consistent with the previous studies by Farh et al. (2006) and Cheng and Jen (2005), this study also shows that higher levels of OCB-etic as a response to authoritarian leadership is contingent on their perceptions of resource dependence. More importantly, it is found that high resource dependence is an important condition for a positive authoritarian deterrence effect on OCB-emic to take place. This study suggests that when employees are dependent on the leader for essential work resources, their OCB-emic behaviours tend to be increased by leader authoritarianism. This study thus encourages

continued research to explore more conditional variables for authoritarian leadership effectiveness.

Finally, it is worth noting that although a positive effect of authoritarian leadership has been found under certain conditions, authoritarian leadership has a negative main effect on OCB-etic. This suggests that although positive impact of authoritarianism based on deterrence power is useful for initiating employee compliance with social norms, it may damage employees' intrinsic motivation to conduct extra-mile behaviour. Future research should evaluate the relevance of both positive and negative outcomes in diverse contexts, which can help this line of research to draw a general model applicable to different management contexts involving both positive and negative interpretations of authoritarian leadership.

5.5.2 Managerial Implications

This study has practical implications for managers. First, the findings show that authoritarian leadership does have a positive effect on employee citizenship behaviours, at least in the Chinese context. Restraining one's self-interest oriented behaviours in order to preserve interpersonal harmony and collective interests is considered an important form of citizenship behaviour in the Chinese context. Managers showing absolute authoritarianism, that is high authoritarian leadership and low benevolent leadership, are more effective in re-enforcing such citizenship behaviours. Indeed, based on the observations in Chinese organisations, authoritarian leaders are especially likely to deter behaviours that violate social norms. The findings in this study thus suggest that employees under authoritarian leaders are more likely to discipline themselves for the sake of interpersonal harmony and collective interests.

However, as mentioned above, although authoritarian leaders can effectively prevent employees from violating social, this type of leadership behaviour is also likely to undermine employees' altruistic behaviours towards their co-workers and their organisations (OCB-etic). This suggests that managers should be cautious when using an authoritarian style to manage their employees as it seems to restrain behaviours that damage harmony and collective interests but does little to promote helping behaviours targeted towards co-workers and the organisation. The use of such a leadership style thus largely depends on what work behaviours managers seek to produce. For example, in some service companies aiming at achieving high productivity and employee helping behaviours, top management should emphasize leader benevolence and morality over authoritarian behaviours. Moreover, relating back to the findings in Chapter 4, followers' trust plays a particularly critical role in decreasing perceived leader authoritarianism and increasing perceived leader benevolent and morality. Combined, for service-oriented organizations with flat structures would benefit from training leaders to pay attention to establish trust in the relationship with each follower, which may profit organizations from potentially limiting the negative impacts of authoritarian behaviours.

Moreover, linking back to the plotting in Figure 5.5, under high resource dependence, the same positive situation triggered by high leader authoritarianism with low benevolence, can be also achieved by low authoritarian and high benevolence. The author therefore suggests that although it is interesting to find a positive deterrence function of authoritarian leadership, equally a strategy of high benevolence achieves the same effect as increasing authoritarian leadership and offsets any drop of in authoritarian. On the other hand, the author cannot rule out a more fruitful approach that organisations develop leaders to

display more benevolent and positive behaviours overall. The same practical limitation of authoritarian leadership has been also suggested by Chan et al. (2013) who find high authoritarian leadership remains massively negative even under high leader benevolence. However, as authoritarian leadership is a common leadership style in China, new leaders may mimic the authoritarian behaviours of their senior leaders. Under this circumstance, it is essential for leaders to understand both the positive and more importantly, the negative outcomes of this leadership style. Even where the practices of authoritarian leadership may be unavoidable, managers should provide more training courses for leaders, which reduce the emergence of such behaviours in new leaders.

Lastly, the findings clearly suggest that the positive effect of authoritarian leadership is more likely to be found to occur with employees who have a high level of resource dependence on their leaders. This suggests that in order to achieve the most from the deterrence effect of authoritarian leadership, managers should selectively use such a leadership approach with employees who are highly dependent on them.

5.6 Limitations and Directions for Chapter 6

There are two limitations of this study. First, it is argued that benevolence leadership and employee resource dependence jointly moderate the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee behavioural responses. The question arises, what is the psychological mechanism that drives this relationship. The explanatory mechanism for the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee performance has not yet been well explored (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). According to Cheng et al. (2004), authoritarian leadership behaviours can be thought of as *li-wei* (awe and fear inspiring). Therefore, it could be expected that when employees are dependent on the leader, the deterrence

strategy of authoritarian leadership generates high employee fear as a psychological mechanism, which further shapes their behavioural responses. In order to address this issue, the following Chapter 6 examines the mediator of follower fear as the psychological mechanism to investigate the effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance.

Moreover, this study investigates the moderating effect of benevolent leadership and resource dependence on authoritarian leadership effectiveness. Although leader's authoritarian power has been argued as largely coming from subordinate resource dependence in China (Hamilton, 1990; Pye, 1981), other potential moderators also need to be explored to explain how employees react to authoritarian leadership. For example, recent literature shows that authoritarian leadership is more consistent with male gender stereotyped characteristics that conduct agentic behaviours (e.g., task oriented and assertive) (Wang et al., 2013). It would be also interesting to explore follower gender as a potential moderator which may influence followers' acceptance and behavioural responses to such leadership. To address this call, Chapter 6 includes follower gender as a moderator to further investigate the question that for whom (male versus female) authoritarian leadership can be functional or detrimental.

In conclusion, authoritarian leadership has been studied for decades, and however the inconsistent findings in the literature indicate that this line of research needs to be further systematically built. This study has added new insights into the social function of authoritarian leadership on employee culturally specific OCB. This study also helps answer the question of why and when employees tend to tolerate leader authoritarianism; that is, it is found that when employees show higher level of resource dependence, authoritarian leadership with low benevolence is more likely to be accepted.

CHAPTER 6 (STUDY 3) AUTHORITARIAN LEADERSHIP AND FOLLOWER

GENDER: A MODERATED MEDIATION MODEL OF FEAR

6.1 Introduction

Authoritarianism refers to a leaders' behaviour of asserting strong authority and control over subordinates and demanding unquestioning obedience from subordinates (Farh & Cheng, 2000). It is a leadership style which is prevalent in many non-Western contexts, such as China, India, Turkey, Japan, and Mexico (Aycan et al., 2000; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Martínez, 2003; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). In particular, authoritarian leadership has been extensively studied and validated in a Chinese context (e.g., Cheng et al., 2004; Farh et al., 2006).

Past studies have consistently found negative effects of authoritarian leadership on subordinates' well-being and work behaviour, such as job performance, organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBs), and intention to stay (Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh & Cheng, 2000). A challenge in the literature is to explore the psychological mechanisms underlying the destructive effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance (Chen et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012). Therefore, there is a need to investigate alternative mediators for authoritarian leadership's impact on work-related outcomes.

Moreover, recent leadership studies have shifted the research attention from purely behavioural and cognitive processes to emotional aspects. Research into the impact of leadership on subordinates' emotions has long fascinated leadership scholars, but still needs further exploration (Connelly & Gooty, 2015; Dasborough, 2006; Menges, Kilduff, Kern, & Bruch, 2015). This study applies affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and

explores the role of the follower's negative emotion of fear as a plausible psychological mechanism for explaining the effects of leader authoritarianism on employee job performance. In other words, the arguments in this study seek to answer the question of why authoritarian leadership is negatively related to employee job performance.

In addition, gender role, which affects people's attribution and expectations of appropriate male and female behaviours, has been long studied in the leadership field (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001). Based on social role theory (Eagly & Kite, 1987), women are expected to be more communal, relationship-oriented and concerned, whereas men are expected to be more agentic, task-oriented and assertive (Fiske & Stevens, 1993). The agentic characteristics linked with men are consistent with traditional stereotypes of leaders (Schein, 1973). Therefore, there are inconsistent beliefs about the characteristics of leaders and women and consistent beliefs about the characteristics of leader and men. Much of the research has shown that female leaders are disadvantaged due to the mismatch between the agentic traits prescribed to prototypical leaders and the communal traits attributed to female leaders (Eagly & Karau, 1991, 2002; Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin, & Cheng, 2013). Past research has mainly focused on the impact of leaders' gender on follower outcomes (see for example, Eagly et al., 1995; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014). Scholars have identified the need for research to examine the impact of followers' gender on their attributions and reactions to leaders' behaviours (Avolio et al., 2009; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). To meet this call, the gender of the follower is studied in respect to the impact of authoritarian leadership on performance. Past research suggests that agentic and communal traits associated with followers' gender may influence their preferred supervisory styles and impact leadership outcomes (e.g., Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Lyness &

Thompson, 1997). This study applies social role theory (Eagly & Kite, 1987), and argues that the negative emotional reactions of authoritarian leadership on job performance via followers' fear differs between male and female followers.

In summary, this study mainly makes two contributions to the existing literature. First, it responds to the research call from Wu et al. (2012) to examine possible mediators for authoritarian leadership. Through the application of affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), this study considers follower's fear as a negative emotion generated by leader authoritarianism that diminishes job performance, and thus extends this line of research by answering why authoritarian leadership has a negative effect on employee job performance.

In addition to the above, a social role perspective (Eagly & Kite, 1987), is adopted to examine the impact of gender difference on employees' emotional reactions towards authoritarian leadership. By involving follower's gender as a moderator, this study helps us to understand how female and male followers differ in their emotional reactions to leader authoritarianism (see Figure 6.1). To the best of the authors knowledge, while leader gender has been considered as a moderator of the relationship between authoritarian leadership and task performance (Wang et al., 2013), follower gender has not been examined.

Moreover, this study argues that gender will affect the relationship between authoritarian leadership and emotional response and examine whether a moderated-mediation model exists for the relationship between authoritarian leadership, mediated by fear affecting job performance.

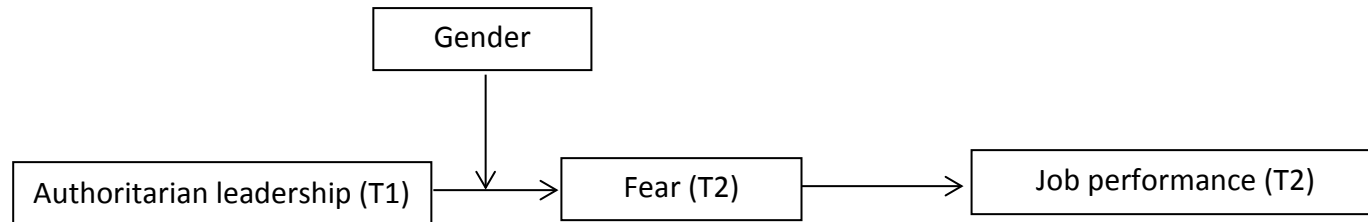


Figure 6.1 Conceptual Model.

T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2.

6.2 Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses

6.2.1 Authoritarian Leadership and Job Performance

Authoritarian leaders assume a father-like role and exercise control by initiating structure, issuing rules, promising rewards for compliance, and threatening punishment for disobedience in a didactic style (Aryee, Chen, Sun, & Debrah, 2007). Authoritarianism in China legitimates the superior's absolute power and authority over his/her inferiors, who are obligated to obey to his/her orders (Farh & Cheng, 2000). In this logic, authoritarian leadership focuses on hierarchical difference and triggers a formal and instrumental oriented exchange between leader and subordinates (Chen et al., 2014; Hwang, 1987). Therefore, authoritarian leadership has been argued to be effective at soliciting conformity in employee job performance for an instrumental exchange of pay and benefits (Chen et al., 2014; Farh et al., 2006).

Farh and Cheng (2000) theorised that authoritarian leadership is effective to enforce followers' compliance. The more position power and authority a leader has, the more compliance employees will show. Therefore, scholars suggested that authoritarian leadership can increase followers' compliance with performance criteria (Cheng et al., 2014; Wu et al., 2012). However, empirical studies have consistently failed to find a positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and job performance (Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh et al., 2006). It is suggested that follower compliance and in-role behaviour should be distinguished. Compliance occurs when a group of subordinates show conformity in their behaviours to avoid specific punishment from the leader, however in-role behaviour refers to prescribed role performance or required duty for exchange of

pay and rewards (Becker, Billings, et al., 1996). Authoritarian leaders who possess legitimate hierarchical power may be effective at soliciting conformity, but they may harm followers' motivation to dedicate efforts described in their job roles. In response, this thesis attempts to treat these two types of behaviours differently when examining the effect of authoritarian leadership. Last chapter (Chapter 5) suggests that within certain contexts, authoritarian leadership has an effective deterrent function through enforcing employee compliance with certain culturally-endorsed norms, as opposed to a negative impact through discouraging employees to perform to the standards required in their formal job duties in the current chapter.

6.2.2 The Mediating Role of Fear

Most leadership research has focused on rational and cognitive process, while the emotional process has only been raised in the 1980 (Yukl, 2002). Some early works have identified the emotional process of charismatic leadership (see George, 2000 for a review), the affect as one indicator of LMX relationships (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995), and the role of transformational leaders in igniting followers' aspiration (Bass, 1996). With a parallel research line of affect and emotions in organisational behaviours In the last two decades, studies of emotions in the leadership literature have received much attention (see Gooty et al., 2010 for a review).

Affective event theory is one of the key theories to examine employees' emotional reactions to leader behaviours (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). It argues that factors in organisational environments create affective events in positive or negative ways. These events result in employee emotional reactions which in turn determine employee behavioural outcomes in organisations (Kanner, Coyne, Schaefer, & Lazarus, 1981). Dasborough (2006) suggested

that the leader can be seen as a source of affective events experienced by employees, and as evoking follower emotions through providing feedback, allocating work resources, making requirements of followers and so on. It is suggested that authoritarian leadership can be seen as an affective event that produces negative emotions in followers.

Authoritarian behaviours are originally defined as fear- and awe-inspiring (Cheng et al., 2004). Since authoritarian leaders' implementation of their dominance occurs primarily via threats and punishments, prior research has found that fear is the main psychological reaction of subordinates induced by leader authoritarianism (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh et al., 2006). Accordingly, this study also proposes that authoritarian leadership is positively related to follower's fear. It is worth mentioning that as far as the author is aware, all of the studies mentioned above, which study the relationship between authoritarian leadership and followers' fear, apply cross-sectional data. Therefore, even though this study does not focus on causality as it does not use cross-lagged modelling, it applies multi-wave data that authoritarian leadership was rated at Time 1 and fear was rated at Time 2, which contributes to the literature by providing a logical causality order.

Hypothesis 6.1: Authoritarian leadership is negatively related to followers' fear of the supervisors.

Moreover, this study further proposes that subordinate's fear acts as a mediator of the negative relationship between leader authoritarianism and job performance. The affective event theory literature suggests that employees who experience certain constant emotional states, triggered by the leader, will be more likely to engage in particular types of behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Numerous studies have demonstrated a negative link between negative emotions and the quality of job performance (e.g., Judge, Erez, & Bono, 1998; Kahn

& Isen, 1993; Lee & Ashforth, 1996; Rafaeli & Sutton, 1989). Specifically, fear as a negative emotion has been argued to predispose individuals towards behavioural responses such as not upholding performance according to behavioural requirements (Frijda, Kuipers, & Ter Schure, 1989; Roseman, Wiest, & Swartz, 1994; Weiner, 1986). Farh et al. (2006) has found fear of the supervisor mediated the effect of authoritarian leadership on subordinate compliance. However, the mediating role of fear between authoritarian leadership and subordinate job performance has not been tested yet. Therefore, it is suggested in this study that as authoritarian leadership tends to make subordinates experience a high level of fear, such a negative emotion may undermine their motivation to perform better.

Hypothesis 6.2: Subordinate's fear of the leader mediates the relationship between leader authoritarianism and employee job performance.

6.2.3 The Moderating Role of Follower's Gender

This study suggests that authoritarian leadership is a male-stereotyped leadership style less appreciated by female followers. In addition to addressing the long-standing issues of how the genders make differences in leaders' effectiveness, with the increasing consideration of subordinate-centered approaches in leadership, recently researchers have started to investigate the role of followers' gender on their relative preferences of supervision style and consider what behaviours are likely to be effective and acceptable between male and female followers (e.g., Ojode et al., 1999; Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002). For example, women prefer superior interpersonal relationships with non-verbal communication, while men prefer relatively assertive and task-oriented interpersonal relationships (Eagly, Karau, Miner, & Johnson, 1994; Eagly & Steffen, 1984). In other words, genders differ in their idealised views of leader behaviours, in that females expressed greater preference for

communal leader behaviours and males expressed greater preference for agentic leader behaviours (Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002).

More specifically, past research shows males are more analytical and logical in their information processing while females are more socially sensitive, emotional and genuinely interested in other people (Eagly, 1987; Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968). One recent study argues that authoritarian leadership, characterized as task-oriented and dominant controlling behaviours, is a male-stereotyped leadership that exhibits agentic behaviours (Wang et al., 2013). To this extent, when an authoritarian leader acts dominantly, females are more sensitive to decoding the tense and rigorous behavioural cues from the authoritarian leader (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Kiecker, Palan, & Areni, 2000; Meyers-Levy & Sternthal, 1991). It is proposed that as females give primacy to interpreting the threatening information given by an authoritarian leader, they are more likely to experience a higher level of fear. In contrast, males are more likely to employ a schema-confirming strategy through selecting objectively confirming information cues to confirm their initial ideas, while largely ignoring disconfirming information (Chung & Monroe, 1998). Following this, it is argued that authoritarian leadership, which tends to be viewed as consisting of agentic leader behaviours, is contradictory to behavioural expectations of female followers.

The proposed gender effect can also be interpreted from a stereotype threat perspective. An individual's self-identity includes personal attributes (e.g., capability, competence) and social identities (e.g., gender, ethnicity) (Erez & Early, 1993). People strive to maintain positive social identities as members of social groups in the same as they want to maintain positive personal identities (Schmader, 2002). Therefore, in the workplace, negative stereotypes targeting a person's social identity which provides the framework for

interpreting behaviours in a given domain, can trigger disruptive attitudes and defensive actions (Aquino & Douglas, 2003; Davies, Spencer, & Steele, 2005). For example, women are vulnerable to stereotype threat when work in traditionally masculine domains (e.g., Aronson, Quinn, & Spencer, 1998; O'Brien & Crandall, 2003; Schmader & Johns, 2003). In this paper, it is suggested that authoritarian leaders may cause female followers' vulnerability to stereotype threat when the leaders engage in masculine-typed behaviours. In this situation, female followers are more likely to count fear-triggering information from leader authoritarianism and therefore view authoritarian behaviour as a more threatening.

This study further argues that as leader authoritarianism will generate a higher level of fear in female subordinates, it will lead to a greater decrease in performance in females. In contrast, for male subordinates, leader authoritarianism may be less likely to provoke a destructive psychological process that generates fear, which in turn reduces the likelihood of harming their motivation to achieve job performance. Taken together, it is proposed that subordinate's fear mediates authoritarian leadership and job performance, and that mediation effect from authoritarian leadership on subordinate job performance is larger in female than in male subordinates. Therefore:

Hypothesis 6.3: Follower gender moderates the strength of the mediation effect between authoritarian leadership and subordinate performance via fear, such that the mediated relationship is stronger for female followers than for male followers.

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Sample and Procedures

The data used in this study was collected from power station 1-3. Please see a full discussion of the targeted power station and data collection procedures in Section 3.2.2. Surveys were initially distributed to 1000 employees. 783 completed surveys were received in Time 1. Three weeks later, 655 completed surveys were returned to the author in Time 2, indicating a response rate of 65.5%. The number of completed supervisor survey was 726.

The average age of the participants was 37.10 years old (SD = 9.52); 76.6% of the sample was male and 23.4% of them was female. The average tenure with supervisor was 4.38 years. For supervisors, 92.1% of them was male and 7.9% of them was female. It is worth noting that while in the total sample (n = 655 matched dyadic pairs), the data collected was predominantly from male followers (n = 502), the number of female followers (n = 153) still provides enough statistical power to do moderation analysis based on follower gender difference.

6.3.2 Measures

The scales used to measure each variable in this research are reviewed below (see appendix for a copy of the questionnaires). All variables were measured using a seven point Likert – type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Authoritarian Leadership. Authoritarian leadership was measured by the same scale as Chapter 4 (see Section 4.3.2). It was rated by subordinates at Time 1. The Cronbach's alpha values was .88¹.

Fear. Fear was measured by a 4-item scale developed by Farh et al. (2006) to assess the level of fear or reluctance one subordinate had when staying or working with the supervisor. Sample items are “when I stay with my supervisor, I feel nervous”, “I try to keep distance with my supervisor”, and “I am always worried about my supervisor will scold me”. This scale was rated by subordinates at Time 2 in order to decrease the common-method variance. The Cronbach's alpha was .90.

Factor Analysis of Fear

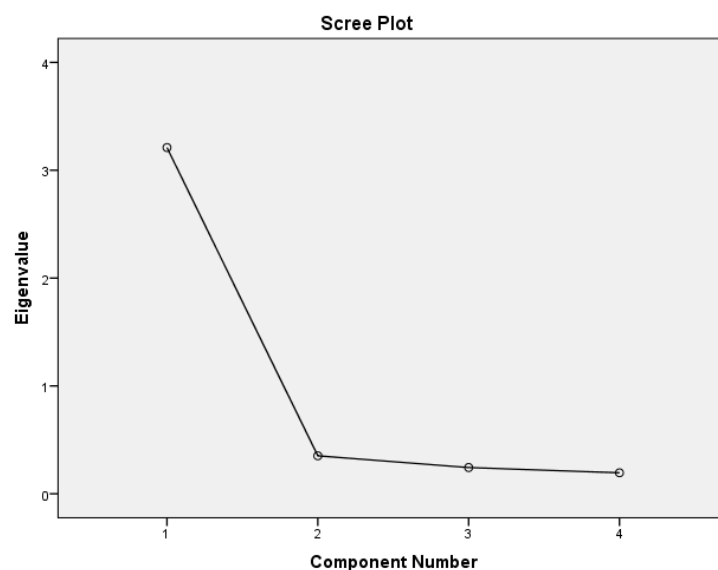


Figure 6.2 Scree Plot of Fear

¹ The factor structure of authoritarian leadership in this chapter indicates a similar factor structure to authoritarian leadership in Chapter 4 (please see a detailed discussion in Section 4.3.2). All 9 items load on the single factor (eigenvalue=4.63). No significant cross-loading was found.

The value for Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure was found to be .85, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. One factor recorded an Eigenvalue above one (3.28) and explained 82.07% of the variance. The scree plot (Figure 6.2) indicated that only one factor should be retained. The component matrix (Table 6.1) shows that four items of fear load significantly and positively together on a single factor, also demonstrating that fear is a unidimensional construct.

Table 6.1 Component Matrix of Fear

Scale item	<i>Factor</i> 1
Fear 1	.92
Fear 2	.91
Fear 3	.87
Fear 4	.92
Eigenvalue	3.28
% variance explained	82.07

Note1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

Job Performance. Job performance is a five-item scale developed by Williams and Anderson (1991). Sample items are “this subordinate adequately completes assigned duties”, “this subordinate fulfils responsibilities specified in job description”, and “this subordinate performs tasks that are expected of him/her”. Job performance was rated by supervisors at Time 2. The Cronbach’s alpha was .94.

Factor Analysis of Job Performance.

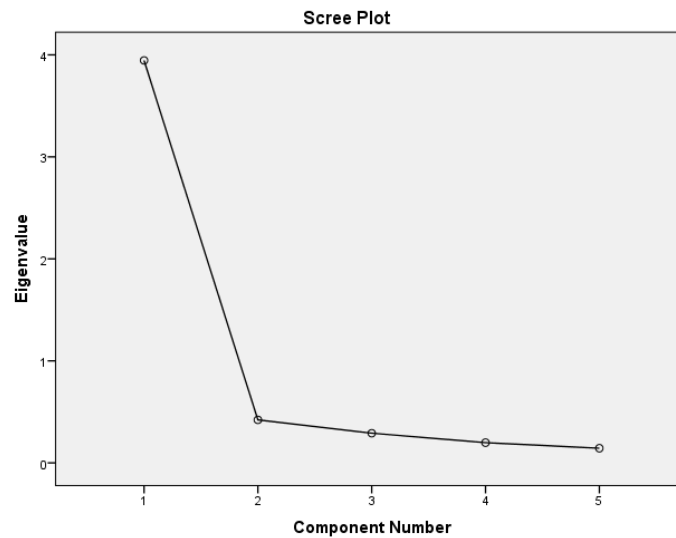


Figure 6.3 Scree Plot of Job Performance

The value for Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was found to be significant ($p < .001$) and the KMO measure was found to be .90, indicating that factor analysis is appropriate. One factor recorded an Eigenvalue above one (4.05) and explained 81.05% of the variance. The scree plot shown in Figure 6.3 began to level out after the first factor, indicating that only one factor should be retained. The component matrix (Table 6.2) showed that four items of job performance load significantly and positively together on a single factor, also demonstrating that in-role behaviour is a unidimensional construct.

Table 6.2 Component Matrix of Job Performance

Scale item	<i>Factor 1</i>
Job performance 1	.91
Job performance 2	.93
Job performance 3	.91
Job performance 4	.91
Job performance 5	.83
Eigenvalue	4.05
% variance explained	81.05

Note1. Numbers in boldface indicate significant factor loadings.

Control Variables. Because demographic variables may influence employees' job attitudes and performance (Van Der Vegt & Bunderson, 2005; Vandenberghe et al., 2007), subordinates' company (1= power station 1, 2 = power station 2, 3 = power station 3), team (1 = team 1 to 91 = team 91), age (in years) and tenure with supervisor (in years) were controlled. Supervisor's gender was also controlled as it has been found to influence followers' responses of authoritarian leadership behaviours (Wang et al., 2013).

6.3.3 Statistical Methods

Mediation Model. Mediation hypotheses are frequently tested in both basic and applied psychological research. There are many approaches to test the statistical significance of the indirect effect. Test of mediation is often guided by the four-step approach proposed by Baron and Kenny (1986). They argued that in order to establish that an independent variable X affects a distal dependent variable Y through a mediating variable M, as shown in the above Figure 3.9, four tests are recommended, to check whether (a) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (Path c), (b) variations in levels of the independent variable significantly account for variations in the presumed mediator (Path a), (c) variations in the mediator significantly account for variations in the dependent variable (Path b), and (d) when Paths a and b are controlled, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant, with the strongest demonstration of mediation occurring when Path c is zero.

However, methodologists have since identified several shortcomings in this multistep approach (e.g., MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002). For instance, the first step of Baron and Kenny (1986)'s approach suggests that the direct effect from the

independent variable X to the outcome Y must be significant. This logic is based on the assumption that an effect that does not exist cannot be mediated. However, this assumption is flawed. A small effect from X to Y may be the result of (a) transmission through multiple links in a causal chain, (b) the effects of competing causes, and (c) the effects of random factors (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Therefore, there is a growing consensus among quantitative methodologists (Cerin & MacKinnon, 2009; Hayes, 2009; MacKinnon, 2008; Rucker, Preacher, Tormala, & Petty, 2011; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zhao, Lynch, & Chen, 2010) that a total effect of X on Y does not need to be a prerequisite to searching for the evidence of indirect effects.

In addition, Preacher and Hayes (2004) also suggested two potential concerns with the Baron and Kenny's (1986) method for testing mediation. The first issue is an over-estimation of the significance level of a mediation effect. They argued that it is possible to observe a change from a significant effect from independent variable (IV) to dependent variable (DV) path to a non-significant one after the introduction of a mediator, despite only a minor change in absolute coefficient size, leading researchers to mistakenly conclude that a mediation effect exists in spite of no such real presence (Type I error). In addition, it is also possible to observe no significant decrease in statistical significance, despite a large change in the relationship between IV and DV yielded by a mediator, which leads to the conclusion of no mediation effect (Type II error). This is particularly a concern for large sample sizes.

In terms of these potential flaws of Baron and Kenny's multiple steps, it is recommended that mediation analyses should be based on formal significance tests of the indirect effects ab (product of a and b), rather than individual hypothesis tests of a and b (Hayes, 2013). For testing the indirect effects, one standard test is Sobel (1982)'s, which directly addresses the

mediation effect of ab (Preacher & Hayes, 2004). However, as noted before, the Sobel test is based on the argument that the indirect effect is normally distributed. This argument is weak because the distribution of the indirect effect is known to be non-normal, even when both a and b are normally distributed (Edwards & Lambert, 2007), which does not fully capitalise on the power afforded by the intervening variable.

By taking into account the non-normal shape of sampling distributions of indirect effects, there is a growing literature that now advocates the use of bootstrapping for assessing indirect effects (Bollen & Stine, 1990; MacKinnon, Lockwood, & Hoffman, 1998; Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Bootstrapping is one of several resampling strategies for estimation and hypothesis testing. In order to establish an indirect effect, the range between the lower and upper 95 per cent confidence intervals must not contain zero. If it does contain zero, it cannot be claimed that the difference between the total and the direct effect of the IV on the DV is different from zero, therefore no mediation is likely to occur (Preacher & Hayes, 2008). Unlike the normal theory approach, no assumption is made about the shape of the sampling distribution of ab . In bootstrapping, the sample is conceptualised as a pseudo-population that represents the broader population from which the sample was derived, and the sampling distribution of any statistic can be generated by calculating the statistic of interest in multiple resamples of the data set. Using bootstrapping, no assumptions about the shape of the sampling distribution of the statistic are necessary when conducting inferential tests, which better respect the potential irregularity of the sampling distribution of ab and yield more accurate inferences of the mediation effect.

This chapter applied a bootstrapping approach with SPSS PROCESS developed by Preacher and Hayes (2004) to examine the hypothesised moderated mediation model. PROCESS uses

a logistic regression-based path analytical framework to analyse statistical models involving mediation, moderation, and their combination. This software facilitates estimation of indirect effect, both with a normal theory approach (Sobel) and with bootstrapped confidence intervals. Researchers suggest that for mediation analysis, bootstrapping is better than Sobel’s test which is based on the argument that the indirect effect is normally distributed. Therefore, this paper applies PROCESS to generate bootstrapping significance levels, and to probe the significance of conditional indirect effects for the moderation.

6.4 RESULTS

6.4.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As demonstrated in the last section, all the measures used in this study yield good Cronbach’s alphas and factor structures. In order to further assess the discriminant validity of the scales used in the measurement model, a series of CFAs were examined before testing the hypotheses. Again, items parcels were created on all variables used in this study¹. Table 6.3 shows the distinctiveness of the three - factor model (authoritarian leadership, fear and job performance had a good fit with $\chi^2(24) = 54.02$, RMSEA = .04, CFI = .99, TLI = .99, SRMR = .03, and yielded a better fit than alternative models². These results exhibited clear evidence of the distinctiveness of the main variables in the study.

Table 6.3 Comparison of Alternative Models

Model	χ^2	df	$\Delta \chi^2(df=1)$	RMSEA	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Hypothesised model	54.02	24	-	.04	.99	.99	.03
Model A	792.45	26	369.22**	.19	.81	.74	.13
Model B	1108.64	26	527.31**	.23	.73	.63	.12

¹ Please refer to a full justification of item parcelling in Section 4.3.3.

² Please refer to Section 4.3.2 for a discussion of the cut-off criteria of RMSEA, CFI, TLI, and SRMR.

Model C	1847.29	27	597.76**	.29	.55	.39	.17
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Note. Model A: 2 - factor model combines authoritarian leadership and fear; Model B: 2 - factor model combines fear and job performance; Model C: 1 - factor model combines all variables.

N = 655; ** $p < 0.01$;

6.4.2 Preliminary Analysis

Table 6.4 presents the means, standard deviations, and correlations of the variables. An inspection of correlations reveals that authoritarian leadership was positively related to fear ($r = .16, p < .01$), and this positive relationship between authoritarian leadership and fear has also been found by in previous studies (see for example, Farh et al., 2006), which also provides support for Hypothesis 6.1. Fear was found to be negatively related to job performance ($r = -.21, p < .01$).

Table 6.4 Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations and Reliabilities among the Variables

Variables	Means	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Company	2.15	.73								
2. Team	40.62	26.56	.90**							
3. Gender	.23	.42	-.06	.01						
4. Age	37.10	9.52	-.18**	-.13**	.16**					
5. Supervisor gender	.08	.27	.05	.08	.11*	-.05				
6. Tenure with supervisor	4.38	5.23	.11**	.13**	.04	.32**	-.01			
7. Authoritarian leadership	3.99	1.11	.06	.10**	-.04	.05	.01	.13**		
8. Fear	3.18	1.28	-.08*	-.11**	.00	-.03	.13*	.03	.16**	
9. Job performance	6.16	.66	.05	.06	.05	.06	-.02	.08*	-.03	-.21**

Note. $N = 655$;

Gender was coded as 0=male, 1=female;

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

6.4.3 Hypotheses Tests

The mediation test is reported in Table 6.5. First, authoritarian leadership is positively related to fear of the leader ($\beta = .19$, with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CIs) not containing zero [.07, .32]) Therefore, Hypothesis 6.1 was supported. Bootstrap results indicated a significant total effect of authoritarian leadership on job performance ($\beta = -.08$, with bootstrapped 95% confidence intervals (CIs) not containing zero [-.14, -.01]). The direct effect was not significant ($\beta = -.05$, with a CI containing zero [-.12, .01]). Finally, the exclusion of zero value in the indirect effect t ($\beta = -.03$, with CIs not containing zero [-.05, -.01]) supports for full mediation model via fear. Therefore, Hypothesis 5.2 were supported.

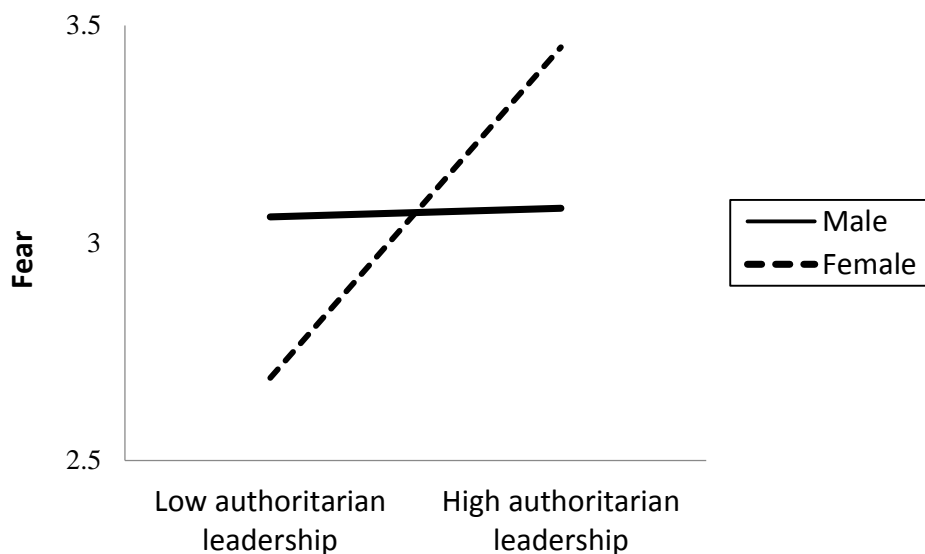


Figure 6.4 The Interactive Effects of Authoritarian Leadership and Follower Gender on Fear.

The proposed conditional indirect effect of gender is presented in Table 6.6. First, the results suggests that the interactive effects of authoritarian leadership and subordinate gender on fear are significant ($\beta = .36$, $p < .05$). The interactive effect is plotted in Figure 6.4. Moderation results showed that authoritarian leadership was not significantly related to

fear (effect size: $\beta = .01$, $p > .05$) for male subordinates, but was negatively related to fear (effect size: $\beta = .38$, $p < .001$) for female subordinates. These results suggest that authoritarian leadership behaviours only generate fear in female followers but not in male followers.

Finally, the conditional indirect effect of gender moderating authoritarian leadership on subordinate's in-role behaviour through fear was examined. As shown in Table 6.6, bootstrap CIs of index excluding zero [-.14, -.01] provides support for the overall moderated mediation model. In addition, the results indicated that for males, the indirect effect was not significant (effect size = .00; bootstrapped 95 percent CIs = [-.03, .03]). For females, the indirect effect was negative and significant (effect size = -.06; bootstrapped 95 percent CIs = [-.12, -.02]). Therefore, Hypothesis 5.4 is supported.

Table 6.5 PROCESS Results of Total, Direct and Indirect Effects from Authoritarian Leadership to Job Performance via Fear

Paths	β	SE	t	p	CI	
					LL	UL
Authoritarian leadership to fear	.19	.06	3.10	< .01	.07	.31
Fear to job performance	-.11	.03	-3.87	< .001	-.17	-.06
Total effect						
Authoritarian leadership on job performance	-.08	.04	-2.24	< .05	-.15	-.01
Direct effect						
Authoritarian leadership on job performance	-.05	.03	-1.62	> .05	-.12	.01
Bootstrap results for indirect effect (via fear)						
	β		<i>Boot SE</i>		CI	
					LL	UL
Authoritarian leadership on job performance via fear	-.03		.02		-.06	-.01

Note. $n = 419$. Bootstrap sample size = 5000. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit 95% CI; UL = upper limit 95% CI.

Table 6.6 PROCESS Results of Conditional Indirect Effects of Gender

Fear						
Moderation effect of gender	β	<i>SE</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	CI	
					LL	UL
Authoritarian leadership	.10	.07	1.50	> .05	-.03	.23
Gender	-.01	.16	.04	> .05	-3.11	.30
<i>Interaction term</i>						
Authoritarian leadership x Gender	.36	.15	2.49	< .05	.08	.65
Job performance						
Conditional indirect effect of gender	β			<i>Boot SE</i>	CI	
					LL	UL
Male	.00			.01	-.03	.03
Female	-.06			.03	-.12	-.02
Index of moderated mediation			<i>Index</i>	<i>Boot SE</i>	CI	
					LL	UL
Fear			-.06	.03	-.14	-.01

Note. $n = 655$. Bootstrap sample size = 5000. CI = confidence interval; LL = lower limit 95% CI; UL = upper limit 95% CI.

6.5 Discussion

The main objective of this study is to understand why and for whom authoritarian leadership would have a negative impact. Applying affective event theory, this study found the mediation effect of fear on authoritarian leadership to job performance was significant. This study further used social role theory and found firstly, authoritarian leadership only generates fear in female followers but not in male followers; secondly, the mediation effect via fear only takes place in female but not in male followers.

6.5.1 Theoretical Implications

This research makes three theoretical contributions. Firstly, Wu et al. (2012) called for research to explore the psychological mechanisms through which authoritarianism affects employee work outcomes. The present study follows this call and explores the psychological mechanism of fear to explain how leader authoritarianism negatively affects subordinate job performance. Building on affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), this study suggests that authoritarian leadership is an affective event that triggers the employee emotion of fear which further influences employee job performance (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In doing so, this study enriches the existing empirical base of authoritarian leadership by offering follower's fear as a powerful mechanism to explain the effects of leader authoritarianism. It further emphasises the important role of emotion in the leadership process, which responds to the research call by Dasborough (2006) for studies using affective event perspectives to learn about the emotional processes that exist in the workplace.

Secondly, while gender of the leader has received considerable attention, a careful examination of the role of follower gender in the leadership process still needs more research. This study applies social role theory (Eagly, 1987) and provides an advanced understanding of the authoritarian leadership and follower's gender – an element that has not yet been much explored. Based on the argument that authoritarian leadership only generates fear in female followers but not in male followers, this study enriches this line of research by suggesting that authoritarian leadership, as a male-stereotyped leadership, can also be seen as a less preferred leadership style for female followers. Therefore, this study hopefully encourages future research on the salient role of both leader and follower gender for authoritarian leadership.

Moreover, as previous research consistently argued the detrimental effects of authoritarian leadership on employee work attitudes and outcomes (e.g., Cheng et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2002), it is suggested that such detrimental effects are different between male and female followers. The results suggested that the negative mediation effect of fear is large in females but is non-significant in males. This research thus provides further evidence on the different gender effects of authoritarian leadership effectiveness and also encourages future research to investigate gender effects of other employee work outcomes for authoritarian leadership.

6.5.2 Practical Implication

The present study also has several practical implications. First, the findings in this study underscore the potential utility for managers to recognise that employees of different genders will react differently to authoritarian leadership. Female employees are less likely to accept leaders' authoritarian behaviours. Therefore, it is important that each leader

considers employee gender, and therefore preferred leadership styles, in their choice of supervisory behaviour. Moreover, although the results show non-significant results for authoritarian leadership in males, authoritarian leadership still remains largely negative for females. Thus, managers should provide training programs for supervisors, with the aim to reduce their authoritarian leadership behaviours, make them care about employee emotional information and feelings and promote personal understanding and growth. Also, our results show that negative attitudes and decreased performance of female followers may be generated by females acting in respond to a stereotype threat. If that is the case, organisations can motivate positive attitudes and behaviours by reinforcing more suitable forms of leader behaviours for females and encourage dignified and respectful leader-member relationships.

6.6 Limitations and Future Directions

As the limitation of this chapter will not be further addressed in this thesis, it will be discussed in the final chapter (Section 7.2).

CHAPTER 7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this thesis is to gain a better understanding of paternalistic leadership in the Chinese context. It is set out to investigate firstly, a potential antecedent of paternalistic leadership (Chapter 4); secondly, the positive functionality of authoritarian leadership on employee culturally desirable behaviours (Chapter 5); and thirdly, the negative impact of authoritarian leadership on employee job performance (Chapter 6). In the following section, the main contributions of the three individual empirical studies will be summarised separately, and then the overall contribution of this thesis as a whole will be demonstrated. Finally, some limitations and potential future directions will be suggested.

Study 1: From Trust to Paternalistic Leadership: a Cross-lagged Analysis with the Moderating Role of Followers' External Locus of Control by Powerful Others

Study 1 is based on insights developed in the field of attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973) and information processing theory (Lord, 1985), and investigates the antecedents of paternalistic leadership. From these two theories, two facts have been developed in this study: 1) trust-in-supervisor significantly affects followers' ratings of paternalistic leadership behaviour; 2) individual external locus of control by powerful others moderates the relationship between trust-in-supervisor and perceived paternalistic leadership. Overall, this study provides a comprehensive understanding of the factors causing a follower to change his/her ratings of leader paternalism.

This study extends existing paternalistic leadership research, which has largely focused on examining its impacts of followers' attitudes and behaviours (e.g., Chan, 2014; Cheng et al., 2002; Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh et al., 2006), by examining the process of how it can be

interpreted by followers. Based on an attribution perspective, to author's knowledge this study is the first to investigate the antecedents of paternalistic leadership by cross-lagged modelling.

Moreover, by investigating the impact of followers' affective reactions on leadership ratings, this study also contributes to the follower-centered leadership perspective, which has received little attention in leadership research (see for example, Carsten, Uhl-Bien, West, Patera, & McGregor, 2010; Uhl-Bien et al., 2014). Such an approach views leadership as a social construction, and leader emergence as generated in the cognitive and attributional processes of followers (Meindl et al., 1985). To the best of the author's knowledge, the present study is the first to extend this concept to understand the effect of followers' affection on paternalistic leadership ratings. Building on attribution theory (Kelley, 1973), this study suggests that a significant proportion of variability in followers' ratings of paternalistic leadership is accounted for by their evaluation of their trust-in-supervisor.

Finally, researchers have argued that followers' characteristics are powerful determinants that impact leadership perceptions (Avolio et al., 2009; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Howell & Shamir, 2005). This study also contributes to the emerging research line on individual differences in affective reactions to leadership by testing whether the relationship between trust and paternalistic leadership is moderated by followers' external locus of control by powerful others. It is suggested that when followers have high levels of external locus of control by powerful others, they are more likely to accept leader power and tend to attribute their positive affections to ratings of leader authoritarianism. When followers have low levels of external locus of control by powerful others, they are more likely to attribute their positive affections to ratings of leader benevolence and morality. This study therefore

underscores the importance of investigating individual differences underlying the attribution process of leadership, and hopefully encourages further depiction of other moderators between trust and paternalistic leadership ratings.

Study 2: The Deterrence Function of Authoritarian Leadership and Employee Organisational Citizenship Behaviours: the Roles of Leader's Benevolence and Employee Resource Dependence

From Chapter 5, this thesis moves from the whole concept of paternalistic leadership to a more focused perspective. Specifically, rather than investigating all three dimensions of paternalistic leadership, Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 focus on the most puzzling dimension of paternalistic leadership - authoritarian leadership, which receives the most inconsistent empirical research results in the extant literature. Chapter 5 mainly investigates the potential beneficial function of authoritarian leadership on culturally-endorsed employee behaviours. Chapter 6 further investigates the psychological mechanism through which authoritarian leadership has a negative impact on employee job performance.

Chapter 5 focuses on OCBs as an outcome of authoritarian leadership. This chapter firstly identifies the positive function of authoritarianism on employee culturally endorsed OCB (OCB-emic), and secondly examines under what conditions employees tolerate such leadership behaviour and perform higher levels of OCB-emic. This chapter proposes a three-way interaction between authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and resource dependence on OCB-emic and universal OCBs (OCB-etic). It finds that benevolent leadership and employee resource dependence jointly play critical roles in generating a positive effect of authoritarian leadership on employees' culture-specific OCBs (OCB-emic). It also finds benevolent leadership and resource dependence only play buffering roles on

the negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and employees' universal OCBs (OCB-etic).

These results are important for at least three reasons. First, as far as the author is aware, this study is the first to theorise and find a positive impact of authoritarian leadership, and it therefore clarifies the unique nature and function of authoritarian leadership in the Chinese context. It also addresses the inconsistent findings in the literature on the impact of authoritarian leadership on followers, by considering the culturally endorsed OCB as an important outcome. In doing so, it further sheds light on the salient role of OCB-emic for future research on leader authoritarianism.

Second, the findings provide additional evidence of the interaction term of authoritarian and benevolent leadership on employees' behaviours (Aycan, 2006; Chan et al., 2013). Prior studies have attempted to understand the interplay between leader authoritarianism and benevolence by examining their interaction effects, and found that the negative impacts of authoritarian leadership on employee outcomes were weaker when leaders exhibited higher leader benevolence (Chan et al., 2013; Farh et al., 2006). This study also adds to this line of research by replicating the compensation role of benevolent leadership in mitigating the negative effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB-etic.

Third, this chapter further considers the important conditions under which authoritarian leadership acts as a deterrence function. It is suggested that the positive deterrence effect can only take place under high resource dependence. Such insights provide a more detailed view on the contingencies on the effectiveness of leader authoritarianism. These findings also suggest that further research needs to explore other potential moderators to address the inconsistent findings in the literature.

Study 3: Gender and Authoritarian Leadership Effectiveness: a Moderated Mediation Model of Fear.

Parallel to Chapter 5, Chapter 6 investigate job performance as an outcome of authoritarian leadership. It firstly responding to the research call from Wu et al. (2012) to explore the psychological mechanisms of leader authoritarianism on employee outcomes, this study applies affective event theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) and suggests that authoritarian leadership negatively influences subordinate job performance because this leadership style generates the negative emotion of fear in subordinates. In doing so, this chapter further develops our understanding of the mechanisms through which authoritarian leadership affects employee performance. It also adds evidence to emotional leadership research by examining the important role of followers' emotions and their emotional response to the leader in the workplace.

Second, building on social role theory (Eagly, 1987), this study additionally finds that the indirect negative affect of authoritarian leadership on job performance through fear, is significant in female followers and non-significant in male followers. This research thus provides further evidence on the follower gender effects of authoritarian leadership outcomes by suggesting that authoritarian leadership has been argued as a male-stereotyped leadership (Wang et al., 2013), it is more likely to be tolerated by male followers while having larger detrimental effects in female followers. It therefore encourages future research to investigate gender effects of other follower work outcomes for authoritarian leadership.

7.1 Overall Discussion of this Thesis

7.1.1 Theoretical Implication

Besides the individual contributions made by each of the empirical studies, overall, this thesis also makes several theoretical contributions to the paternalistic leadership literature as well as to the organisational behaviour literature.

First of all, one contribution of this research lies in the fact that it depicts an integrative picture of paternalistic leadership, including investigation of its antecedents, mediators, moderators and outcomes. This thesis expands the paternalist leadership literature through integrating the existing literature with a number of relevant theories, and therefore builds an overarching theoretical framework on paternalistic leadership.

Second, so far, paternalistic leadership studies mainly adopt a leader-centric perspective (Chan et al., 2013). This thesis with the three empirical studies contributes to the follower-centric research. In this thesis, building on attribution theory and affective-event theory, a follower-centric perspective is adopted to understand that followers' reactions towards leader behaviours not only involve their information-processing theories (Study 1) but also their emotions (Study 3). In addition, these reactions are moderated by a group of follower-related factors, including their individual characteristics (external locus of control: Study 1), their values and identities (gender: Study 3). Finally, follower interpretations and reactions to leadership are embedded in societal cultures (Study 2). Therefore, this thesis offers a follower-centric approach and suggests that follower self-evaluation plays an important role in explaining the impact of leadership on work attitudes and performance.

Third, another significant implication of this thesis is that it provides a thorough cultural perspective to explain the concept of paternalistic leadership in the Chinese context. For example, Chapter 4 argues that the antecedent role of trust-in-supervisor of paternalistic leadership, not only demonstrates the followers' affective reactions to leadership ratings, but also captures the follower's strong socio-emotional deference to the leader's position power in the Chinese context (see detailed discussion in Section 4.5.1). Chapter 5 also explains the deterrence function of authoritarian leadership from a Confucian perspective. It argues that the positive function of authoritarian leadership on subordinate OCB-emic behaviours is in line with Confucian norms of respecting social harmony and collective interests. Therefore, this thesis emphasises the important role of the Chinese culture in the concept of paternalistic leadership, helps to explain the prevalence of usage of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organisations, and encourages future studies on explaining the salient role of Chinese culture for paternalistic leadership research.

Relating to the second point, this thesis also contributes to the indigenous leadership approach, for which there have been strong calls for future research (Ma & Tsui, 2015; Zhang et al., 2012). As discussed in Section 2.2, scholars from non-Western nations have primarily used leadership models that are developed and validated in the West as the basis for their research, which limits the capacity to predict and interpret leadership practices in non-American contexts, as they ignore the impacts from local contextual factors, such as historical, societal, and cultural factors (Zhang et al., 2014). In order to address this need, this thesis conducts the current research on paternalistic leadership in China, applies the three-dimensional framework developed in the Chinese context, and uses local participants and local language. This study therefore helps us to better interpret and understand

paternalistic leadership phenomena in China, a nation with very different material, ideational, and institutional contexts from the Western countries.

Further, this thesis also makes significant contributions to the authoritarian leadership literature, especially in the last two empirical chapters. This thesis not only studies behavioural consequences of authoritarian leadership, but also explores the psychological mechanism and the moderators to explain the impacts of authoritarian leadership on subordinates. Specifically, by investigating the moderating role of resource dependence, Chapter 5 explains why and when employees tend to tolerate leader authoritarianism and perform positively. Also, by investigating the mediating role of fear and moderating role of follower gender, Chapter 6 explains why and for whom authoritarian leadership tends to undermine job performance. Also, Although scholars have strongly called for authoritarian leadership studies due to inconsistent findings in the current literature, empirical research is still very limited (Chan et al., 2013; De Hoogh, Greer, & Den Hartog, 2015). This thesis therefore underscores the importance of authoritarian leadership in Chinese organisations and hopefully encourages future research to examine other potential psychological mechanisms, moderators and consequences of authoritarian leadership.

A final strength of this thesis is its multi-wave and multisource data sample. Most studies that identified the links between paternalistic leadership and employee performance either relied on self-reported performance which introduces concerns regarding same-source biases, and cross-sectional design which introduces concerns of causality. Although this methodological issue has been more considered by scholars in the past year or two (e.g., Zhang, Huai, & Xie, 2015), it is imperative to diminish common-method variance and provide more confident empirical evidence to the existing literature. Accordingly, this thesis applies

a large sample size with multi-wave, multisource data, which shows the findings are convincing.

7.1.2 Management Implications

This thesis also has overall implications for Chinese managers and supervisors who are involved with paternalistic leadership behaviours. First, the findings in Chapter 4 constitute important implications for the attribution and informational-processing approaches in the organisational leadership field. Managers could benefit from building trustful and confident images from initial development stages of dyadic relationships with followers, as such a positive impression will motivate followers to more positively interpret their future leadership behaviours and be faithful in their good intentions. Moreover, leaders can also benefit from learning what traits compose their subordinates' implicit leadership categories and make an effort to behave in congruence with the prototypes when feasible. In this sense, a practical implication would be leadership training programs focusing on increasing managers' knowledge about followers' characteristics, and learning to match the implicit leadership profile shared by their followers to a good extent. Such matched training processes may be effective in facilitating the cooperation and mutual understanding between leaders and followers.

Second, the literature shows that the three paternalistic leadership dimensions are not created equal, with authoritarian leadership having a negative impact on employees while benevolent and moral leadership have a positive impact. Although Chapter 5 finds authoritarian leadership has a positive function in enforcing employee culturally desirable behaviours under low leader benevolence and high resource dependence, authoritarianism in this particular sample has negative impacts on employee universally defined OCB and job

performance (in Chapter 6). Combined, the results indicate to HR practitioners that a leader who exhibits a high level of authoritarianism is destructive to subordinates' psychological states, for instance by generating followers' fear, and to intrinsic work behaviours such as job performance and OCB-etic. In contrast, although not tested in this thesis, the literature has long suggested that leader benevolence and morality are positively related to employee attitudes and performance. Accordingly, in order to enhance followers' intrinsic motivation, Chinese leaders should emphasise benevolence and morality over authoritarian leadership.

On the other hand, this thesis suggests that under certain situations (i.e., high resource dependence), authoritarian leadership can enforce employees to comply with certain cultural norms. A recent study by Huang, Xu, Chiu, Lam, and Farh (2015) also suggested that in harsh economic environments, authoritarian leaders outperform transformational leaders in driving firm performance in terms of revenue growth. However, it is suggested that managers should consider what work behaviours they seek to produce in current situations and be cautious when using authoritarian leadership.

Further, this study provides insights for paternalistic managers to develop their own effective combinations of different leadership styles (high authoritarianism with low benevolence under severe situations; high benevolent and morality to encourage followers' motivation). Training and development programs should be developed to help managers to critically evaluate situations and therefore to learn to apply specific leadership strategies to cope with current situations.

7.2 Limitations and Future Directions

This thesis has several limitations. The first limitation is interpreted in light of methodological issues. Although the thesis results are based on a multi-wave and dyadic data source, the process of data collection was extremely time consuming. The three-week time lag was agreed with HR managers from the target organisations primarily based on practical convenience. Mitchell and James (2001) suggested a large portion of current management research that empirically tested causal relationships lacks appropriate justification of timing of the variables, such as how long after X occurs does Y occur. Moreover, as argued by Gollob and Reichardt (1987), models that fit multi-wave data often fail to take account of time lags properly as they ignore the effects a variable can have on itself. Accordingly, researchers should design the multi-wave study replicated across (a) different time lags, (b) different group of subjects, and (c) different operationalisations of same construct. For example, in Chapter 4 of this thesis, which investigates causal relationships between trust and paternalistic leadership, there is a concern over the lack of appropriate justification for the time-lag. As the completion of trust exchange can take place over time (McEvily, Perrone, & Zaheer, 2003; Ouchi, 1992), a three-week time lag with only two waves of data collection may be insufficient to fully capture the process of trust-leadership development. Although the ideal time lag in leadership studies is always ambitious and difficult to realise, more advanced research with multiple data collection waves and longer time lags are worthwhile. Also, in Chapter 6, the subordinates used in this study were nested within teams (under the same supervisor), gives to the concern about the possibility of data dependence of the dependent variable (i.e. job performance), which were rated by the same supervisors within teams. The intra class correlation (ICC1), which

estimates interrater reliability (or the amount of variance in individual level responses that can be explained by group level properties), was therefore calculated for job performance. The ICC (1) for job performance of .51 was obtained, which is comparatively high ($> .10$; Bliese, 2000) and therefore suggests that there may be supervisor effects in the nested data. However, this chapter applied SPSS PROCESS as the analytical tool, which does not provide multilevel modelling. Therefore, although this study has added team as a control variable, it is suggested the main limitation of this study lies in the fact that the analysis does not allow for considering the group level effects.

The second limitation lies in the fact that the three empirical studies are rather separate, this thesis does not test an integrative model across three studies. In Chapter 4, followers' perception is found to influence their leadership perceptions. However, although Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 include behavioural outcomes in the models, these two chapters treat paternalistic leadership as an independent variable. Whether follower positive perceptions of leaders can increase performance through their interpretations of leadership remains unknown. Future research may benefit from including behavioural outcomes when examining followers' attributional processes towards leaders. Moreover, when studying followers' attributions, future research should examine the interplay between leaders and followers. For example, it would be interesting to involve leader's felt trust at the group level as a moderator, which may strengthen the relationship between followers' trust and their leadership ratings.

Third, the research findings of this thesis have limited generalisability. Since the sample employed and most of the measures used were strictly Chinese, similar to any study conducted in a single nation, there is a concern that the results obtained in this study may

not generalise to a different cultural context. For example, the theoretical model in Chapter 5, which demonstrates a positive deterrence function of leader authoritarianism, is primarily theorised under Chinese Confucian values, leading to concerns about cross-cultural generalisability. Specifically, given that Chinese culture is characterised by high power distance and collectivism (Hofstede, 2001), it is possible that Chinese employees are more likely to tolerate authoritarian leadership from their leaders than employees in other cultures. However, it is worth noting that recent research in Western context has also found that when authoritarian leadership has positive influence on group cooperation and performance (De Hoogh et al., 2015; Halevy, Chou, Galinsky, & Murnighan, 2012). Therefore, we suggest that the deterrence function of authoritarian leadership may not be unique in Eastern contexts, which hopefully encourages future research to replicate the current findings by using cross-cultural sample. Moreover, this thesis focuses on employees working in low-skilled production jobs in state-owned power stations in China located rural regions. The respondents' characteristics could raise concerns about the extent to which the results would generalise to other working groups, even within China. Future research would benefit from replicating the present investigation in different cultural contexts and different types of organisation.

Next, as suggested before, authoritarian leadership has been found to be detrimental to employee attitudes and behaviours, which is inconsistent with the other two dimensions of paternalistic leadership. Researchers suggest an alternative method which is to use the scales separately and provide results of the different effects of the three dimensions individually (e.g., Chen et al., 2014; Cheng et al., 2002). Although recent research goes beyond the single effect of leader authoritarianism and investigates the joint effect between

authoritarian leadership and benevolent leadership, authoritarian leadership has still been found to be massively negative even under high benevolent leadership (Chan et al., 2013). In this thesis, even though a positive function of authoritarian leadership is demonstrated in Chapter 5, this finding implies that authoritarianism could be functional only when leader benevolence is low, which is contradictory with the original idea of leader paternalism - high in authoritarian and benevolence. This point warrants further discussion. Chen and Farh (2010) have suggested that the dimension of authoritarian leadership in paternalistic leadership needs to be reconstructed as authoritative leadership. Authoritative leadership is defined as leader behaviours that rely primarily on legitimate authority and professional expertise to influence subordinates (Aycan, 2006). A typical paternalistic leader not only possesses strong legitimate authority, but also possesses strong expertise and business acumen (Redding, 1990; Silin, 1976), and therefore leadership demonstrating authority does not necessarily conflict with benevolent and moral leadership behaviour. However, the current authoritarian leadership measurement is lacking in its description of leader expertise. Moreover, in Chinese culture, the term used to describe the dominant aspect of leader authority and power is a neutral concept more in line with authoritative leadership without the negative behaviours associated with authoritarian leadership (e.g., punishment and scolding). As such, it is suggested that authoritarian leadership, which implies oppression, exploitation, and severe punishment of subordinates, may be a leadership style distinct from paternalistic leadership, which therefore needs a separate line of theorisation and empirical tests from paternalistic leadership. All in all, the author firstly agrees with Chen and Farh (2010)'s call for future research on paternalistic leadership to re-construe authoritarian leadership as authoritative leadership, which can achieve a positive alignment and coherence among the three dimensions. Secondly, it is believed that to gain a deeper

understanding of the concept of authoritarian leadership, future research should explore it as a separate line of theories and models, which could link back to extensive research conducted within Western nations beginning in the 1940's (Weber, 1947).

In addition, though not addressed in the present study, it is worth mentioning that prior empirical research on paternalistic leadership following Farh and Cheng (2000)'s triad model has focused on the dyadic level between leaders and their followers. However, the earlier ideographical research by Silin (1976) and Redding (1990) typically focused on paternalistic management styles of CEOs and on their influence on the entire organisation. For example, a recent study has demonstrated that authoritarian leadership is positively related to organisational revenue growth in harsh economic environments (Huang et al., 2015). Furthermore, groups within organisations may develop a paternalistic group climate fostered by their leaders to motivate group members to work like family members with each other. Therefore, paternalistic leadership may be proposed to exist at three hierarchical levels, and multi-level influence flows from the firm-level toward the group-level and towards the individual-level. Specifically, paternalistic leadership manifests itself in a general management style which enhances organisational revenue and performance, and shapes group climate and group performance. At the individual-level, paternalistic leadership behaviours affect follower psychological responses and behavioural outcomes. Therefore, it is suggested that multi-level analysis is one of the alternatives for integrating these disconnected subject matters in paternalistic leadership literature and empirical research, to gain a more comprehensive understanding of the concept.

Next, this thesis investigated influential factors such as followers' external locus of control by powerful others, which moderates followers' attribution of paternalistic leadership, and

gender and resource dependence, which moderate the impacts of paternalistic leadership on employees. However, it is plausible that other potential moderators also influence the outcomes of paternalistic leadership and the impact of its antecedents, such as culture, follower attributes, and the nature and complexity of the situation. For example, the attributional process on paternalistic leadership could be influenced by individual factors such as attribution styles (Martinko et al., 2007) and need for leadership (De Vries et al., 2002). The effects of paternalistic leadership on employees may be influenced by cultural factors such as power distance (Hofstede & Bond, 1988), along with other factors such as task complexity (Wood, 1986). In addition, Chapter 6 argues males and females have distinguished reactions towards authoritarian leadership as males have agentic values and females have communal values. However, according to gender schema theory (Bem, 1981), different from biological-defined sex, gender is a cognitive structure which is highly selective and enables the individual to impose incoming information stimuli. In this sense, gender does not simply reflect sex which is supposed to stand on each dimension or attribute – males are to be agentic and females are to be communal. Future research should measure agentic and communal values of individuals rather drawing on the simple assumption that sex-typed individuals have distinguished values of either agentic or communal.

Finally, besides moderators, testing potential mediating mechanisms is also important to explain the process of paternalistic leadership. For example, as Chapter 5 suggests resource dependence and leader benevolence jointly moderate the relationship between authoritarian leadership and employee OCBs, it would also be interesting to further investigate the potential psychological mechanisms that drive such relationships. Scales that capture mediating mechanisms of self-worth related constructs such as self-efficacy

(Bandura, 1997; Maddux) and core self-evaluation (Grant & Wrzesniewski, 2010; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001) may explain the detrimental effect of authoritarian leadership on OCB-etic. Scales reflecting instrumental exchange, such as instrumental commitment (Chan, Snape, & Redman, 2011) and role-based loyalty (Jiang & Cheng, 2008), would be interesting to test to understand how absolute authoritarian leadership can trigger subordinate compliant behaviours.

7.3 Conclusion

This study aims to draw an integrated picture of paternalistic leadership concerning its antecedents, outcomes, moderators and mediators. This study has three sub-research projects: Chapter 4 demonstrates that follower's trust impacts their perspectives on leaders' behaviours; Chapter 5 argues that authoritarian leadership has a deterrence effect on employees' culturally specific OCB when they depend on leaders for key resources; Chapter 6 suggests that authoritarian leadership predicts employees' work performance through fear, and that such mediation process only takes place in female followers. This study was conducted in China through a multi-wave, quantitative survey design that utilised CFA, SEM, bootstrapping, and mixed-modelling to test the hypothesised models. The survey was conducted by paper-and-pencil method, and involved 850 data clustered in 121 supervisory teams from four power stations.

In conclusion, this study addressed paternalistic leadership behaviours by extending leadership theory, providing practical insights and guiding for future research. The set of limitations and future research directions proposed above in Section 7.2 have the potential to encourage better understanding of the concept and process of paternalistic leadership. All in all, research in paternalistic leadership is still in its infancy and needs much more

future research; hopefully this piece of work can encourage and provide guidance for subsequent researchers to do more systematic investigation.

CHAPTER 8 REFERENCE

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APPENDIX I Measurements

A hard copy of the questionnaire, which was conducted on-site, was provided to individual surveyed. Respondents were assured of confidentiality. Each of the scales used is presented below in order that they were included in the paper survey. The employees were asked to complete the following questions relating to their current supervisor. The supervisors were asked to complete questions assessing each follower's performance. The responses were made on a 1 to 7 Likert – type scale. Responses were made against the following indicators: 1 – Strongly disagree, 2 – Disagree, 3 – Disagree somewhat, 4 – Not sure, 5 – Agree somewhat, 6 – Agree, 7 – Strongly agree. Reverse items are indicated by [R]. Please see Section 3.2.1 for a detailed description of data collection process.

1. Paternalistic Leadership – 26 items (Cheng et al., 2004)

Paternalistic leadership was measured at both Time 1 and Time 2, rated by subordinates. The subordinates were asked to respond to each of the statements shown below, which describes the leadership style of their immediate supervisors.

Authoritarianism

1. My supervisor asks me to obey his/her instructions completely.
2. My supervisor determines all decisions in the organization whether they are important or not.
3. My supervisor always has the last say in the meeting.
4. My supervisor always behaves in a commanding fashion in front of employees.
5. I feel pressured when working with him/her.
6. My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates.
7. My supervisor scolds us when we can't accomplish our tasks.
8. My supervisor emphasizes that our group must have the best performance of all the units in the organization.
9. We have to follow his/her rules to get things done. If not, he/she punishes us severely.

Benevolence

1. My supervisor is like a family member when he/she gets along with us.
2. My supervisor devotes all his/her energy to taking care of me.
3. Beyond work relations, my supervisor expresses concern about my daily life.
4. My supervisor ordinarily shows a kind concern for my comfort.
5. My supervisor will help me when I'm in an emergency.
6. My supervisor takes very thoughtful care of subordinates who have spent a long time with him/her.
7. My supervisor meets my needs according to my personal requests.
8. My supervisor encourages me when I encounter arduous problems.
9. My supervisor takes good care of my family members as well.
10. My supervisor tries to understand what the cause is when I don't perform well.
11. My supervisor handles what is difficult to do or manage in everyday life for me.

Morality

1. My supervisor avenges a personal wrong in the name of public interest when he/she is offended. (R)
 2. My supervisor uses his/her authority to seek special privileges for himself/herself. (R)
 3. My supervisor employs people according to their virtues and does not envy others' abilities and virtues.
 4. My supervisor doesn't take the credit for my achievements and contributions for himself/herself.
 5. My supervisor does not take advantage of me for personal gain.
 6. My supervisor does not use guanxi (personal relationships) or back-door practices to obtain illicit personal gains.
-

2. Trust-in-supervisor – 7 items (Robinson and Rousseau, 1994)

Trust-in-supervisor was measured both at Time 1 and Time 2, rated by **subordinates**. The subordinates were asked to respond to each of the statements shown below.

1. I am not sure I fully trust my supervisor (R)
 2. My supervisor is open and upfront with me
 3. I believe my supervisor has high integrity
 4. In general, I believe my supervisor's motives and intentions are good
 5. I can expect my supervisor to treat me in a consistent and predictable fashion
 6. I don't think my supervisor treats me fairly (R)
 7. My supervisor is not always honest and truthful (R)
-

3. Fear – 4 items (Farh et al., 2006)

Fear was measured at Time 2, rated by **subordinates**. The subordinates were asked to respond to each of the statements shown below.

1. When I stay with my supervisor, I feel nervous
 2. I try to keep distance with my supervisor
 3. I am always worried about my supervisor will scold me
 4. I am scared of my supervisor
-

4. Resource dependence – 6 items (Farh et al., 2006)

Resource dependence was measured at Time 1, rated by **subordinates**. The subordinates were asked to respond to each of the statements shown below.

1. My promotion largely depends on my supervisor
 2. My pay increase is largely influenced by my supervisor
 3. The welfare I can get depends on my supervisor's decisions
 4. Whether I can get the necessary working resource depends on my supervisor's decisions
 5. My work is distributed by my supervisor
 6. I need my supervisor's supports to finish my work
-

5. External Locus of Control by Powerful Others – 8 items (Levenson, 1974)

External locus of control by powerful others was measured at Time 1, rated by **subordinates**. The subordinates were asked to respond to each of the statements shown below.

-
1. I feel like what happens in my life is mostly determined by powerful people
 2. Although I might have good ability, I will not be given leadership responsibility without appealing to those positions of power
 3. My life is chiefly controlled by powerful others.
 4. People like myself have very little chance of protecting our personal interests when they conflict with those of strong pressure groups.
 5. Getting what I want requires pleasing those people above me.
 6. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends.
 7. Whether or not I get into a car accident depends mostly on the other driver.
 8. In order to have my plans work, I make sure that they fit in with the desires of people who have power over me.
-

6. Job Performance – 5 items (Williams & Anderson, 1991)

Job performance was measured at Time 2, rated by **supervisors**. Supervisors were asked to assess each subordinate's job performance by responding to each of the statement shown below.

This employee...

1. Adequately completes assigned duties
 2. Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description
 3. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her
 4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job
 5. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation
-

7. Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) – 15 items (Hui et al., 1999)

OCB was measured at Time 2, rated by **supervisors**. Supervisors were asked to assess each subordinate's OCB by responding to each of the statement shown below.

This employee...

1. Willing to assist new colleagues in adjusting to the work environment
2. Willing to help colleagues solve work-related problems
3. Willing to cover work assignments for colleagues when needed
4. Takes one's job seriously and rarely makes mistakes
5. Complies with company rules and procedures even when nobody is watching and no evidence can be traced
6. Does not mind taking on new or challenging assignments
7. Eager to tell outsiders good news about the company and clarify their misunderstandings

8. Makes constructive suggestions that can improve the operation of the company

Continued.....

9. Actively attends company meetings

10. Often speaks ill of the supervisor or colleagues behind their backs

11. Uses illicit tactics to seek personal influence and gain with harmful effect on interpersonal harmony in the company

12. Takes credit, avoids blame, and fights fiercely for personal gain

13. Conducts personal business on working time (e.g., trading stocks, shopping, going to barber shops).

14. Uses company resources to do personal business (e.g., company phones, copy machines, computers, and cars).

15. Views sick leave as a benefit and makes excuses for taking sick leave

Note: OCB-etic contains item1-item9; OCB-emic contains item10-item15.

APPENDIX II Translation of Cover Letter

Dear Madam/Sir:

I am a PhD student in Durham Business School. Thank you for participating in this research and taking time to complete this questionnaire.

The aim of this research is to gain knowledge in leadership and employee attitudes and behaviours, which will be of interest both in organisational practice and academy. Questionnaires will be distributed in 3 power stations under Zhejiang Energy Group.

When completing the questionnaires, there are no right or wrong answers – your opinions are most important. Please voluntarily provide your name in order for the researcher to match the information in this survey with a second survey that we will ask you to complete in early 2014. Your answers will be kept strictly **confidential**. Once you have completed the questionnaire, please seal it in the envelope enclosed and return it to the research assistants. All questionnaires are only used for research use, and no one within power stations will see them. Therefore, please answer the questions as honestly as possible.

Yours sincerely,

Yuyan ZHNEG

Durham University

Contact: 0571-88836807

Email: yuyan.zheng@durham.ac.uk



领导学调查问卷

尊敬的先生、女士：

您好！我是英国杜伦大学商学院领导学方向的博士生。首先非常感谢您参与这次问卷调查。

近年来对于华人企业领导学的研究得到了研究者的广泛关注。本篇问卷着重调查领导行为与员工绩效之间的关系。

本次课题的数据来源于浙江省能源集团下属发电厂。在答题过程中，请您仔细阅读每项描述，如实填写您的个人信息，如姓名、工龄、年龄等。并根据您的真实情况和想法进行选择，请尽量不要漏答或误答。

本次调查是实名制填写，请在问卷第一页填好您的部门，工作组与姓名。由于我们将于一个月后再收集一次问卷，姓名等个人信息仅用于确定两次问卷调查对象是否一致、是否为同一人所填写。所以请放心填写姓名。此外，所有问卷仅供研究者进行数据分析，不会转交。所有个人信息将被保密，在完成数据分析后会按照英国信息保护法对问卷进行销毁。所以请放心如实回答每个问题。

谢谢合作！

联系人：郑羽燕

电话：057188836807

邮箱：yuyan.zheng@durham.ac.uk

部门:

班级/工作组 (限生产部门):

您的姓名:

答题须知: 请您圈选每句话后面的数字, 以表达您的意见。我们先给您做一个提示, 提示您如何回答调查问卷, 例如: 您认为“同意”, 就圈选“6”。本问卷共 3 张, 请您按要求回答所有问题。

非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	意见 中立	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

下面, 请您正式回答调查问卷:

1. 以下 3 个问题是针对您的工作任期, 请在横线出填上相应数字

1). 您从_____年_____月开始在此单位工作 (例: 2000 年 1 月)

2). 您从_____年_____月开始在此部门工作

※ 3). 仅限在生产部门员工: 您从_____年_____月开始现在的班级/小组工作

2. 以下问题是关于您的直接领导, 即是您日常相处的直接上级。在此次问卷调查中, 为了统一调查对象, 如果您在行政部门工作, 您的组长被指定为您的部门主任; 如果您在生产部门工作 (有分班分组的情况), 您的组长被指定为您的值长。在回答问题时, 请以您的直接组长作为对象进行评价。

1). 您从_____年_____月开始与现在的部门主任/组长一起工作

2). 用以下句子描述您的组长的领导方式, 您是否同意?

1=非常不同意 至 7=非常同意 (Paternalistic Leadership- 26 items)	非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	意见 中立	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
我的组长与我们相处在一起时像一家人一样	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长尽心尽力照顾我	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长关怀我私人的生活与起居	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长平常对我嘘寒问暖	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我有急难时, 我的组长会及时伸出援手	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
对相处较久的组员, 我的组长会作无微不至的照顾	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长会根据我个人的需要, 来满足我的要求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
当我碰到难题时, 我的组长会即时给我鼓励	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长对我的照顾会扩大到我的家人	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
当我工作表现不佳时, 我的组长会了解真正的原因所在	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长会帮我解决生活上的难题	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
得罪我的组长时, 他/她会公报私仇	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长会利用职位搞特权	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长任人唯贤, 不嫉才妒贤	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长不会把我或别人的成果与功劳据为己有	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长不会占我小便宜	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长不会因个人的利益去拉关系, 走后门	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长要求我完全服从他/她的领导	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
本小组大小事情都由我的组长自己独立决定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

接上页.....	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	意见中立	有些同意	同意	非常同意
开会时，都照我的组长的意思作最后决定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
在我们面前，我的组长表现出威严的样子	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
和我的组长一起工作时，他/她带给我很大的压力	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长采用严格的管理方法	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
当任务无法达成时，我的组长会斥责我们	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长强调我们的表现一定要超过其他小组	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长遵照原则办事，触犯时，我们会受到严厉的处罚	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. 对以下有关您对您的组长的看法，您是否同意？

1=非常不同意 至 7=非常同意 (<i>Trust-in-supervisor-7 items</i>)	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	意见中立	有些同意	同意	非常同意
我的组长对我开明且坦率	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我相信我的组长很正直	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我相信我组长的动机和出发点是好的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我想我的组长会待我始终如一，且可预见	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我并非完全信任我的组长	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我并不认为我的组长公平待我	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的组长并非总是诚实可信	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. 对以下有关您与您的组长相处情况的看法，您是否同意？

1=非常不同意 至 7=非常同意	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	意见中立	有些同意	同意	非常同意
跟我的组长在一起时，我感到紧张 (<i>Fear-4 items</i>)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我努力与我的组长保持距离	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我总是担心组长批评我工作表现不佳	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我害怕我的组长	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的升迁很大程度上取决于我的组长 (<i>Resource dependence-6 items</i>)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我每年工资能涨多少受到我的组长决定的很大影响	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我必须依靠我的组长的支持来获得更多福利	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我必须依靠组长来获取必需的工作资源（基金、设备等）	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的工作内容是我的组长分配的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我必须依靠我的组长的帮助来完成工作	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. 对于以下的看法，您是否同意？

1=非常不同意 至 7=非常同意 (<i>External locus of control by powerful others-8 items</i>)	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	意见中立	有些同意	同意	非常同意
我感到我生活中所发生的事是由有势力的人掌握的	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
尽管我能力不错，但如果我不拉拢那些身居高位的人就不可能被委以重任	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
我的生活多为那些有势力的人控制	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

接上页.....	非常不同意	不同意	有些不同意	意见中立	有些同意	同意	非常同意
当同那些有权势的团体发生冲突时，像我这样的人很少能有机会保护自己的利益	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
要想得到想要的东西，我需要讨好比我有权势的人	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
如果重要人物不喜欢我，那我很可能交不上太多朋友	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
人开车是否会出车祸，主要取决于其它驾驶者而不是自己	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
为了实行我的计划，我要确认这些计划符合那些权势比我大的人的喜好	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11. 以下问题是您的个人信息。请仔细阅读每一题，按照实际情况选择或填空 (Control Variables)。

1. 您的性别：男 / 女	2. 您的出生年份是：19 <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/> 年
3. 您的最高学历是： a. 小学及以下 b. 初中/职校/技校 c. 高中/职高/中专 d. 大专/高职 e. 本科 f. 硕士、博士及以上	
4. 您的婚姻状况： a. 已婚 b. 未婚 c. 其它(分居/离婚/丧偶)	
5. 您的工作合同是： a. 临时工/非合同工/非正式工 b. 五年或以下合同工 c. 五年以上合同工/长期制 d. 其它(请说明：_____)	
6. 您的工作需要倒班吗？ a. 不需要。八小时工作制。 b. 需要。五班三倒 c. 需要。四班两倒。	
7. 您的户口状况： a. 本地户口 b. 本地暂时户口 c. 户口在外地，有本地暂住证	

您的意见与建议：

(完)

非常感谢您的参与! 😊

APPENDIX III Supervisor Questionnaire (In Chinese)

部门:

工作组:

组长姓名:

答题须知: 请您圈选每句话后面的数字,以表达您的意见。我们先给您做一个提示,提示您如何回答调查问卷,例如:您认为“同意”,就圈选“6”。

非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	意见 中立	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

此外:请在下方表格填上**员工姓名**,再进行对该员工的评价。

1. 该员工的名字是:

2. 用以下句子描述您领导的小组的整体工作表现,您是否同意?

员工姓名:	非常 不同意	不同意	有些 不同意	意见 中立	有些 同意	同意	非常 同意
该员工能够履行他的工作职责 (Job performance-5 items)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工能够承担他/她工作范围内应该承担的责任	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工能够完成被期望完成的任务	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工达到工作的正式绩效要求	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工积极参与对他/她的绩效测评有影响的活动	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工主动帮助新进员工适应工作环境 (OCB-15 items)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工乐意协助员工解决工作上的困难	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工主动分担或帮助其他员工的工作	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工工作认真,并且很少出差错	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
即使无人注意或无据可查时,该员工亦随时遵守公司规定	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工从不挑选工作,尽可能接受新的或困难的任务	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工主动对外介绍或宣传公司优点,或澄清他人对公司的误解	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工主动提出建设性的改善方案,供公司参考	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工以积极的态度参与公司相关会议	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工经常在背后批评领导或谈论同事之隐私	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工在公司内争权夺利,勾心斗角,破坏组织和谐	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工斤斤计较,争功诿过,不惜抗争以获得个人利益	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工利用上班时间处理私人事务,如买股票,跑银行,逛街,购物,上美容院.....等	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工利用公司资源处理私人事务,如:私自利用公电话,复印机,计算机,公务车.....等	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
该员工经常借口请假,视为福利	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

非常感谢您的参与! ☺