



**T.C.  
YEDİTEPE UNIVERSITY  
GRADUATE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP  
LEADER – MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) AND JOB STRESS**

**An exploratory research on workers  
from private and public sectors in Turkey**

**Eray KAYGISIZEL**

**Submitted to the Graduate Institute of Social Sciences  
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Master Program in Business Administration**

**February, 2015**

**ISTANBUL**



**T.C.  
YEDİTEPE UNIVERSITY  
GRADUATE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP  
LEADER – MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) AND JOB STRESS**

**An exploratory research on workers  
from private and public sectors in Turkey**

**Eray KAYGISIZEL**

**Advisor**

**Assist. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Begüm ÖTKEN**

**Submitted to the Graduate Institute of Social Sciences  
In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Master Program in Business Administration**

**February, 2015**

**ISTANBUL**


T.C.  
YEDİTEPE UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

..The Relationship Between Paternalistic Leadership,  
Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and Job Stress.....

by

.....Eray Kaygıncı.....

Approved by:

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Begim Ökten   
(Supervisor)

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Özlem Kundakçı 

.....Yrd. Doç. Dr. Gijem Galenak



Date of Approval by the Administrative Council of the Institute 26/02/2015

## **ABSTRACT**

As its goal, this research intends to examine the impact of Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent, Moral and Authoritarian Leadership styles) on Leader Member Exchange. This is conducted in accordance with four dimensions of LMX – namely, Affect, Loyalty, Contribution and Professional Respect, employed by members of both in- and out-groups in assessment LMX relationship quality with their manager or supervisor. The study also investigates the impact of Paternalistic Leadership on Job Stress using key Role Stressors - Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload. A final objective of this research is to investigate how Leader Member Exchange may specifically impact Job Stress (role stressors).

155 workers (blue and white collar) participated to the study from a public institution and a family owned company. Data were collected by a questionnaire that was composed of Paternalistic Leadership (PL), Leader Member Exchange (LMX) and Job Stress (JS) scales including 55 questions. Results of data analysis show that there is a positive and significant relationship between two dimensions of paternalistic leadership (Benevolent and Moral Leadership) and Leader Member Exchange, and there is a negative and significant relationship between Authoritarian Leadership and Leader Member Exchange. Furthermore, there is a negative and significant relationship between two dimensions of paternalistic leadership (Benevolent and Moral Leadership) and job stress of workers. In contrast, there is a positive and significant relationship between authoritarian leadership and role conflict factor of job stress. Also, there is a negative and significant relationship between leader member exchange and job stress. At the same time in these organizations, benevolent and moral dimensions of paternalistic leadership and high quality leader member exchanges make a positive contribution and authoritarian aspect of paternalistic leadership and job stress make a negative contribution to work conditions. Concerning the difference between demographic factors in terms of BL, AL, LMX and RA only significant difference was found between men and women. Moreover it was found that, there is a significant difference between gender of supervisor in terms of AL and LMX. However, there is no significant difference between the other demographic factors with regard to all variables.

Keywords: Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange, Job Stress

## ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, paternalistik liderliğin, çalışanların yöneticileri ile kurdukları ilişkilere ve bu ilişkilerin kalitesine göre iki ayrı grup şeklinde sınıflandırılması temeline dayanan lider üye etkileşimi üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektir. Buna ek olarak, bu çalışma sayesinde paternalistik liderliğin iş stresi üzerindeki etkileri araştırılmıştır. Ayrıca bu çalışmanın bir diğer amacı, lider üye etkileşiminin özellikle iş stresini nasıl etkileyebileceğinin incelenmesidir.

Bu araştırmaya, mavi ve beyaz yakalı çalışanlar olmak üzere toplam 155 kişi katılmıştır. Araştırma verileri, anket formu yöntemiyle toplanmıştır. Çalışmanın anket formu, paternalistik liderlik, lider üye etkileşimi ve iş stresi ölçeklerinden ve toplamda 55 sorudan meydana gelmiştir. Bu veriler, biri kamu kuruluşu ve diğeri de bir aile şirketi olan iki farklı organizasyondan elde edilmiştir. Veri analizleri sonucunda, paternalistik liderliğin iki alt boyutu olan yardımsever ve ahlaki liderlik ile lider üye etkileşimi arasında olumlu ve anlamlı bir ilişki saptanmıştır. Otoriter liderlik ve lider üye etkileşimi arasındaki ilişki ise olumsuz ve anlamlıdır. Üstelik, yardımsever ve ahlaki liderlik boyutları ile çalışanların iş stresleri arasında olumsuz ve anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Bunun yanında, otoriter liderlik ile iş stresinin rol çatışması faktörü arasındaki ilişki olumlu ve anlamlıdır. Ayrıca, lider üye etkileşimi ile iş stresi arasındaki ilişkinin olumsuz ve anlamlı olduğu gözlenmiştir. Bu organizasyonlarda, paternalistik liderliğin yardımsever ve ahlaki liderlik boyutları ile kaliteli lider üye etkileşimlerinin çalışma koşullarına olumlu yönde katkı sağlayabileceği, paternalistik liderliğin otoriter liderlik boyutunun ve iş stresinin olumsuz etkiler yaratabileceği düşünülmektedir.

Yardımsever liderlik, otoriter liderlik, lider üye etkileşimi ve rol belirsizliği değişkenleri ele alındığında, demografik boyutlar arasındaki tek anlamlı farklılık cinsiyet faktöründe saptanmıştır. Bunun yanında, otoriter liderlik ve lider üye etkileşimi değişkenleri, yönetici cinsiyeti faktörü bakımından, anlamlı farklılık sonuçları sergilemiştir. Fakat, diğer demografik faktörlerin, değişkenlerle anlamlı farklılık gösterdiği bulgusuna rastlanmamıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Paternalistik Liderlik, Lider Üye Etkileşimi, İş Stresi

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First of all, I would like to thank my thesis supervisor, Assist. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Begüm ÖTKEN. Her guidance and support were important resources for my motivation. Her kindness, and valuable comments made this period a precious experience for me.

I wish to thank my lecturer from MBA program, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Murat ÇİNKO. I took lessons from him about research methodology and data analysis two years ago. He and his colleagues wrote a book associated with SPSS applications. The name of this magic book is “Data Analysis with SPSS in Social Sciences”. Moreover, he recommended this book to me, when I shared with him my idea of writing a thesis. Through this book and lessons about this issue, I completed all quantitative data analysis related to my thesis correctly and effectively.

Furthermore, it would not be possible to finish this thesis without the precious help of my close friend, Umut ÇETİNKAYA. Therefore, my special thanks go to him, who helped me in gathering valuable data. Also I would like to thank Mehmet Emin KALELİ, for his support to this study.

I would also like to thank my father, Ergün KAYGISIZEL; my mother, Leyla KAYGISIZEL and my brother, Alper KAYGISIZEL; for their unconditional love, help and support through all the stages of my life.

Finally, I would like to emphasize my greatest appreciation to my love, Elif Özlem ÖZ. Starting from our first meeting, she always supported me. She trusted me and inspired me in my hard days.

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Table 2.1</b> Organization of leadership theories	19
<b>Table 2.2</b> Outcome dimensions of Leader Member Exchange	38
<b>Table 4.1</b> Descriptive statistics of the sample	59
<b>Table 4.2</b> Results of the factor analysis of PL scale	60
<b>Table 4.3</b> Results of the factor analysis of LMX scale	61
<b>Table 4.4</b> Results of the factor analysis of Job Stress scale	62
<b>Table 4.5</b> Means, s. deviations, and reliability coefficients of scales and subscales	62
<b>Table 4.6</b> Inter correlation matrix of all variables (Pearson)	63
<b>Table 4.7</b> Multiple regression analysis with PL and LMX	64
<b>Table 4.8</b> Simple regression analysis with PL and LMX	65
<b>Table 4.9</b> Multiple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.1 (RA)	65
<b>Table 4.10</b> Multiple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.2 (RC)	66
<b>Table 4.11</b> Simple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.1 (RA)	66
<b>Table 4.12</b> Simple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.2 (RC)	67
<b>Table 4.13</b> Simple regression analysis with LMX, JS fac.1 (RA) and JS fac.2 (RC)	68
<b>Table 4.14</b> Independent T – Test results of participants’ gender (BL)	68
<b>Table 4.15</b> Independent T – Test results of participants’ gender (AL)	69
<b>Table 4.16</b> Independent T – Test results of participants’ gender (LMX)	69
<b>Table 4.17</b> Independent T – Test results of participants’ gender (RA)	69
<b>Table 4.18</b> Independent T – Test results of supervisors’ gender of participants (AL)	70
<b>Table 4.19</b> Independent T – Test results of supervisors’ gender of participants (LMX)	70

## **LIST OF FIGURES**

<b>Figure 2.1</b> Leadership and Management	17
<b>Figure 2.2</b> A schematic framework of factors associated with job stress and outcomes	44
<b>Figure 2.3</b> Conceptual model of the study	56

## **LIST OF MAJOR ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>PL</b>	–	Paternalistic Leadership
<b>BL</b>	–	Benevolent Leadership
<b>ML</b>	–	Moral Leadership
<b>AL</b>	–	Authoritarian Leadership
<b>LMX</b>	–	Leader Member Exchange
<b>JS</b>	–	Job Stress
<b>RA</b>	–	Role Ambiguity
<b>RC</b>	–	Role Conflict
<b>RO</b>	–	Role Overload

# TABLE OF CONTENT

<b>ABSTRACT</b>	<b>III</b>
<b>ÖZET</b>	<b>IV</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b>	<b>V</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES</b>	<b>VI</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES</b>	<b>VII</b>
<b>LIST OF MAJOR ABBREVIATIONS</b>	<b>VIII</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENT</b>	<b>IX</b>
<b>1. INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>12</b>
1.1 Purpose of the study	14
1.2 Importance of the study	15
<b>2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND</b>	<b>16</b>
2.1 Definitions of leadership	16
2.1.1 The evolution of leadership theory	18
2.1.2 Contemporary leadership styles	20
2.1.2.1 Transactional leadership	20
2.1.2.2 Transformational leadership	21
2.2 Paternalistic leadership (PL)	23
2.2.1 Benevolent leadership	26
2.2.2 Moral leadership	26
2.2.3 Authoritarian leadership	27
2.2.4 Comparison of PL with transformational leadership theory	27
2.2.5 Research Studies on Paternalistic Leadership	28
2.3 Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	29
2.3.1 High or low quality LMX relationships	32
2.3.2 Outcomes of Leader Member Exchange	36

2.4	Job Stress (JS)	39
2.4.1	Factors of Job Stress	42
2.5	The effects of Paternalistic Leadership (PL) on LMX	45
2.5.1	The effects of Benevolent Leadership (BL) on LMX	46
2.5.2	The effects of Moral Leadership (ML) on LMX	47
2.5.3	The effects of Authoritarian Leadership (AL) on LMX	48
2.6	The effects of Paternalistic Leadership (PL) on Job Stress	50
2.6.1	The effects of Benevolent Leadership (BL) on Job Stress	50
2.6.2	The effects of Moral Leadership (ML) on Job Stress	51
2.6.3	The effects of Authoritarian Leadership (AL) on Job Stress	53
2.7	The effects of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) on Job Stress (JS)	54
2.8	Conceptual model	56
<b>3.</b>	<b>METHODOLOGY</b>	<b>57</b>
3.1	Research sample	57
3.2	Research design	57
3.3	Measurement instruments	58
3.3.1	Paternalistic Leadership (PL)	58
3.3.2	Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	58
3.3.3	Job Stress (JS)	58
<b>4.</b>	<b>RESEARCH FINDINGS</b>	<b>59</b>
4.1	Descriptive statistics	59
4.2	Factor and reliability analysis	60
4.3	Correlation analysis	62
4.4	Regression analysis	63
4.5	Independent T – Tests	68

<b>5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION</b>	<b>71</b>
5.1 Limitations of the study	78
5.2 Suggestions for future research	78
5.3 Managerial implications	79
<b>REFERENCES</b>	<b>81</b>
<b>APPENDIX</b>	<b>104</b>
The survey questionnaire	105

## INTRODUCTION

Identifying ways to enable organisations, institutions and individuals to exceed expectations is a necessity in highly competitive and volatile business environments. According to Burns (1978), Bass (1985) and Bass (1990) challenging business environments reinforce the importance of leadership as an essential aspect of managerial roles. Studies of organisational behaviour often focus on the significance of leadership. Bono and Judge (2003), House (1977), Howell and Avolio (1993) and Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) conducted research on leadership behaviour and its impact on organisational effectiveness at all levels.

A paternalistic style of leadership is identified as one of many different approaches and is increasingly becoming a research focus as a field of study. Nevertheless, research on the subject is characterised by divergent opinions and definitions of paternalistic leadership and its overall effectiveness. Farh and Cheng (2000:91) argue that irrespective of the multiple definitions of paternalistic leadership, it is typically defined as an approach characterised by strong discipline, authority and patriarchal compassion. Aycan (2006) notes the expectation for employees to demonstrate loyalty, respect and compliance to the paternal authority figure in return for care and protection.

Aycan et al. (2000) critiqued research on paternalistic management styles across 10 countries, finding that Eastern countries including Pakistan, China and Turkey, exhibited the highest rates of paternalistic leadership. Aycan (2006) argues that paternalistic dimensions are commonly found in cultures identified as collectivist, hierarchical and high power distant and through which paternalistic leadership is promoted as appropriate and acceptable. Erben and Guneser (2007) point out despite the prevalence of paternalistic leadership in Eastern countries, there remains a lack of research in the field.

Jha and Jha (2013) note recent changes brought about by increasing technocracy and competition within and between organisations impact not only working environment, but also organisational climate and employee psychological state, which made it necessary for academics to gain organisational insight into the significance of Leader Member Exchange.

Hoffmann, Morgeson, and Gerras (2003), Schriesheim, Castro and Cogliser (1999) and Sparrowe and Liden (1997) represent researchers investigating and initiating discussion around Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) define LMX theory as investigation into relationship quality between leaders or managers and those they lead or manage. Researchers in this area focus primarily on developing insight into the behaviour of subordinates who can be categorised in the leader-member relationship dyad as the in-group - defined as employees reporting higher quality aspects in terms of the LMX relationship - and the out-group – defined as employees reporting lower quality aspects of the LMX relationship. Sparrowe and Liden (1997) argue wide variation in the level of interaction quality and expectations between manager and employee, based on mutual understanding of subordinate involvement in either the in- or out-group. Levels of job stress may be influenced by the exchange relationship quality between a manager and subordinate.

The National Institute for Organisational Safety and Health (NIOSH, 1999, p.6) defines work stress as detrimental physical and emotional responses elicited by a mismatch between job requirements and employee capabilities, resources or needs. Cox et al. (2000) highlight increasing awareness of high stress levels amongst employees around the world. Hoel et al. (2002) argue pressure on employees increases with continued removal of geographical boundaries in a global market and accompanying increased organisational rivalry in the struggle for market share and survival. ILO Geneva (2002) states the majority of developed nations report high or extreme levels of job stress across almost one third of those in paid employment.

Clarke and Cooper (2004) highlight the recognition of potentially detrimental effects of high levels of workplace stress on employee health and welfare the World Health Organization (WHO) and the International Labour Organisation. Hobson, Kesic and Delunas (2001, p.47 cf. Karasek and Theorell (1990)) cite estimated figures of between \$200 – 300 billion as the cost of job-related stress and its consequences to employers, including increased absenteeism, decreased performance, productivity and quality, an increase in the number of workplace accidents and injuries, costs of healthcare and staff churn. Stress is identified as the second biggest job-related illness category in the United Kingdom and accounts for 40% of workplace absence due to illness. Europe has attempted to counter the issue by introducing a preventive job-related safety and health policy.

The Federal Institute for Occupational Safety and Health recently published a report indicating expenditure on mental health services associated with workplace issues represents between three and four percent of gross national product (GNP) of the European Union (EU). Official figures are yet to be published for Turkey however, estimates could easily assume that across Turkey, employees face the same job-related stressors and similar negative outcomes to their EU counterparts.

The above examples provide strong support for arguments regarding the detrimental effects of poor employee health on the national economy. Nevertheless, work related stress still often appears forbidden, with those in managerial and non-managerial positions seemingly reluctant to admit to experiencing a loss of control over their jobs. The abovementioned variables (PL, LMX and JS) are summarised as integral aspects of management literature. Consequently, this study is based on the relationship between Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress.

## **1.1 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this research is to investigate and establish the existence of a relationship between three variables in workplace relationships, namely: Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress. The intention is to contribute to existing work. There is a current lack of research examining the impact of Paternalistic Leadership on Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress in Turkey. Furthermore, this research adds to the small, existing body of published work investigating the relationship between Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress. This study may subsequently address the gap in research in leadership through its analysis of the relationship between Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress.

As its goal, this research intends to examine the impact of Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent, Moral and Authoritarian Leadership styles) on Leader Member Exchange. This is conducted in accordance with four dimensions of LMX – namely, Affect, Loyalty, Contribution and Professional Respect, employed by members of both in- and out-groups in assessment LMX relationship quality with their manager or supervisor.

The study also investigates the impact of Paternalistic Leadership on Job Stress using key Role Stressors - Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload. A final objective of this research is to investigate how Leader Member Exchange may specifically impact Job Stress (role stressors).

## **1.2 Importance of the Study**

In addition to being important in terms of the body of published work on leadership, this research also examines variables that have been clearly associated with managerial role performance. As a style of leadership, paternalism is common throughout Turkey, however there remains a significant lack of published academic work on the subject. As one of the Eastern countries, Paternalistic Leadership is an important aspect of Turkish culture. As a result, this research highlights the significance of the notion of PL. In conducting the research, paternalistic leadership style(s) were identified as applied with the intention of managing Turkish employees more efficiently and effectively. Therefore, the notion of paternalistic leadership is a key subject in developing insight into the behavioural consequences of application as a management style in Turkish organisations.

With regards to notions of LMX and JS, this research may contribute to strategy development for guiding organisational management policy. Consequently, such strategies may facilitate higher quality LMX and reduce job stress levels in Turkish workplaces. The research may also contribute to development of new perspectives and insight into workplace relationship dynamics as data was gathered from across both the public and private sector in Turkey. Furthermore, it would be interesting to investigate different aspects of PL, LMX and JS further.

## CHAPTER 2

### THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

#### 2.1 Definitions of Leadership

Leadership attracted much interest for a long time – from the ancient Greek philosophers such as Socrates and Plato, to the multitude of modern day management and leadership gurus and evangelists. An argument was put forward centred on the notion of leadership as the answer to personal and organisational success at individual, sector, regional and national levels. Leadership is often discussed in organisational theory. Over time, the body of academic work discussing the concept of leadership has grown to include arguments from every angle and perspective across different generations. As a result, there are many definitions of leadership. According to Wu (2010) there is no single universal definition of leadership.

Northouse (2004) reviewed leadership theory and identified four common themes forming the basis of modern perceptions of the meaning of leadership: (1) leadership is a process; (2) influence is a common factor in leadership; (3) leadership exists in the context of a group; (4) the achievement of goals is a significant aspect of leadership. Northouse (2004) maintains leadership is a process exerting influence on a group by an individual with the intention of achieving a common goal. The author considers this a good definition of leadership, however it still places the individual at the centre of the concept. Yukl (2002) considers a collective approach following a critical literature review, noting the tendency of most definitions to reflect the assumption that leadership involves a process of social influence, in which a group or individual influences others, with the intention of creating a structural relationship governance framework for activities conducted by the group or organisation.

A brief definition of leadership acknowledges its complex character and ability to impact many significant organisational, social and personal processes. Leadership is not rooted in a coercive process, but rather a process of influence, through which individuals are personally motivated to work towards achievement of common group goals.

Recently it has become popular to differentiate management from leadership. This distinction is often oriented towards a central notion of change. John Kotter (1990) illustrates this well in his work (see Figure 2.1). Kotter (1990) and his contemporaries promoted a paradigm shift from typical ‘management’ processes based on rigid bureaucracy, to the notion of ‘leadership’ reflected in dynamic and strategic processes. Nevertheless, Kotter (1990) concedes that both management and leadership are essential to operating an effective organisation.

	<b>Leadership functions</b>	<b>Management functions</b>
<b>Creating an agenda</b>	<i>Establishing direction:</i> Vision of the future, develop strategies for change to achieve goals	<i>Plans and budgets:</i> Decide action plans and timetables, allocate resources
<b>Developing people</b>	<i>Aligning people:</i> Communicate vision and strategy, influence creation of teams which accept validity of goals	<i>Organizing and staffing:</i> Decide structure and allocate staff, develop policies, procedures and monitoring
<b>Execution</b>	<i>Motivating and inspiring:</i> Energize people to overcome obstacles, satisfy human needs	<i>Controlling, problem solving:</i> Monitor results against plan and take corrective action
<b>Outcomes</b>	Produces positive and sometimes dramatic change	Produces order, consistency and predictability

**Figure 2.1** Leadership and Management

Source: Buchanan and Huczynski (2004, p. 718 - based on Kotter, 1990)

The notion of leadership is differentiated from the notion of management on a basis different to that of popular belief. There is no mystery or magic in leadership. It has no association with individual charisma, nor is it associated with any other individual personality traits.

Leadership is neither a replacement for the concept of management nor a more superior notion – rather, leadership and management are simultaneously distinct and complementary. Kotter (1990, p.103) argues leadership and management are both essential to organisational success in commercial environments with increasingly rapid business cycles, competition and complexity.

### **2.1.1 The Evolution of Leadership Theory**

The quality of an organisation's leaders plays a significant role in organisational success or failure. In modern times, three dimensions are identified as comprising leadership theory - Trait Theories, Behaviour Theories, and Contingency Theories. According to Robbins (1996) each trait represents a different premise and developed on the basis of comparative differences in leadership strategies. Under Trait Theory, successful leaders are characterised by possession of particular traits that distinguish them from others and which are defined by research. Stogdill (1974) carried out 124 experimental studies highlighting leadership from 1904 – 1948. Results identified the successful leadership characteristics as, being responsible, fulfilling the purpose, energy, pursuing targets, taking risks, confidence, creativity and influential towards others. According to Dubrin (1998), successful leaders are identified by possession of characteristics including a self-perspective, self-analysis, confidence, reliability, tolerance, humour and enthusiasm.

Behavioural theories focus on actual behaviour rather than individual personality traits. The key research focus is the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational efficiency. Lewin (1953) argued for separation of leadership structure across three dimensions - autocracy, democracy and non-intervention. Leadership behaviour was the split across another two dimensions by Ohio State University to include caring and rule setting. Caring incorporates respect, trust and understanding emanating from leaders to group members. Establishment and rule setting outlines standards for work, leaders and group members.

According to Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) the fundamental premise is the notion of enduring leadership, meaning leadership transferral from leaders to group members. McMurry (1960) argued for leadership based on compassionate autocracy where leaders held sufficient authority to allocate tasks to team members while simultaneously considering employee emotions, attitude, behaviours and welfare.

Likert (1967) used theory of management systems to divide leadership into four categories defined as (a) exploitative authoritative, (b) benevolent authoritative, (c) consultative democratic and (d) participative democratic. Blake and Mouton (1964) relied on research by Ohio State University to create managerial grid theory to explain manager leadership styles.

**Table 2.1** Organisation of Leadership Theories

<b>Research Theories</b>	<b>Description</b>	<b>Scholar</b>
<b>Trait Theories (1940-1950)</b>	It emphasizes that the successful leader must have certain personal traits that are differentiated from others, and these traits can be described by research.	1. Stogdill (1948/1974) 2. Mann (1959) 3. Lord, Devader & Alliger (1986) 4. Kirpatrick & Locke (1991) 5. Dubrin (1998)
<b>Behavior Theories (1950-1960)</b>	Assumption that leaders can be developed and emphasizes that research should start from the behavior that is shown from the leader and the relationship between the leadership and organization.	1. Lewin, White & Lippit (1953) 2. McMurry (1960) 3. Tannenbaum & Schmidt (1958) 4. Blake & Mouton (1964) Managerial-grid Theory 5. Likert(1967)
<b>Contingency Theories (1970-)</b>	The process of leadership is influenced by many different situations. An effective leadership would consider the situation and change the leadership when necessary.	1. Fielder (1974) Contingency Theory 2. House & Mitchell (1974) Path-goal Theory 3. Hersey & Blamchard (1988) Situational Theory

Source: Wu (2010, p. 20)

Under contingency theories, leadership is destined to change due to interaction with different people, situations and issues. Contingency is perceived as the moderating variable between leadership behaviour and organisational efficiency. It suggests leaders need to apply different managerial styles to achieve organisational aims. House and Mitchell (1974) used a combination of Ohio State University investigations and motivation theory to develop path goal theory, the cornerstones of which are: (a) motivation of work, (b) satisfaction of work, and (c) acceptance or rejection of a manager's leadership style.

## **2.1.2 Contemporary Leadership Styles**

Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) claim the prevalent concepts in new theories of leadership in Western society focus on notions of transactional and transformational leadership. Both theories dominate in research on leadership.

### **2.1.2.1 Transactional Leadership**

Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transactional leadership in terms of political leadership. Transactional leadership involves the exchange of favours between managers for group members.

According to Burns (1978, p.4) transactional leadership exists when individuals take the initiative in exchanges with one or more individuals and the interaction is approached as the carrying out of a type of exchange transaction. Bass (1985, p.27) argues those adopting a transactional leadership style emphasize marginal improvement and maintenance of performance quantity and quality, the best method for substituting purposes, the best approach to reducing resistance to certain behaviours and the best way to execute decisions. Bass (1985) states in exchange employees receive recognition and reward from managers and can avoid disciplinary action in exchange for labour.

Transactional leadership is often perceived as a form of control tactic and implemented in a manner designed to correct employee performance or remove problems. The exchange of a reward for compliance is the essence of transactional leadership. Podsakoff, Todor and Skov (1982) maintain rewards and possible recognition from group leaders forms the basis for success or failure of tasks assigned to employees.

Bass and Avolio (1994) argue transactional leadership is based on a process of exchange between leaders and subordinates, where leaders clarify situations and determine essential aspects and rewards involved should all requirements be met. Bass and Avolio (1994) identify three classifications of transactional leadership as contingent reward, active management by exception and passive management by exception.

Leaders employ contingent rewards by implying a transactional exchange with subordinates. This leadership approach incorporates explanations of expectations and clarification of standards for fulfilling requirements. Bass and Avolio (1994) note contingent reward involves provision of rewards to subordinates upon satisfactory completion of tasks assigned.

Bass and Avolio (1994) define management by exception as the extent to which a leader implements corrective action during interactions with subordinates. Active monitoring of subordinate behaviour to highlight errors, followed by implementation of corrective measures is defined as active management by exception.

Bass and Avolio (1994) define passive management by exception as avoidance of or lack of leadership. Leaders who wait passively for errors to occur before taking corrective action are exercising passive management by exception.

### **2.1.2.2 Transformational Leadership**

Theories of transformational leadership are characterised by broad viewpoints and consideration of traits, attitudes and power of leaders. Burns (1978) argues transactional leadership impacts the direction of organisational development and transformation through subordinates. Bass (1985) built on and improved the concept developed by Burns (1978) by including the notion that transformational leadership involves persuading subordinates to work out their own interests, while transactional leaders outline how subordinate needs are met through task completion tasks and rewards.

Furthermore, Bass (1985) reasons transformational leaders consider employee needs while also attempting to broaden employee needs. Bass (1985) extends the notion to include analysis of the overall leader-subordinate relationship, suggesting leaders may possess both transactional and transformational attributes. From a conceptual point of view, there are considerable differences between transaction and transformational leadership. Bass (1985, 1998) argues transactional and transformational leadership produce different outcomes and both may be effective.

According to Bass and Avolio (1994), transformational leadership is divided into four components: (1) idealised influence, (2) inspirational motivation, (3) intellectual stimulation and (4) individual consideration. Representing different types of attitude, each part is employed to motivate staff and improve performance. The following explains each of the components of transformational leadership. The manner in which a leader sets out to earn respect, trust and admiration from employees is defined as idealised influence (II) and includes behaviour intended to lead by example, such as demonstrating high standards and acting in the best interests of the team.

Bass and Avolio (1994) argue leaders are role models and subsequently demonstrate and share risks with employees. The ability of a leader to inspire a team spirit, elicit an enthusiastic response and incite optimism among employees is defined as inspirational motivation (IM). Bass and Avolio (1994) maintain inspirational leadership encourages group members to seek out significant workplace activity and participate in creating a better future. Key aspects of IM are creating a future vision, recognisable figures and emotional justification, and communicating enthusiasm and optimism.

Bass and Avolio (1994) argue intellectual stimulation (IS) promotes innovation and creativity in those in leadership positions and improves the ability to re-frame issues, question assumptions and present alternative approaches and options to employees. New points of view, ideas and suggestions that are different to the ideas of the leader are welcomed. Behaviours identified as increasing awareness of problems and challenges faced by employees is defined as intellectual stimulation. Leaders adopting supportive, encouraging and coaching-based approaches to leadership are exercising individualised consideration (IC). Bass and Avolio (1994) point out leadership attention focuses on the employee need to achieve. IC incorporates positive and constructive feedback, communicating appreciation for effective employee performance. Leaders demonstrating IC by setting examples of effective performance while simultaneously advising and mentoring employees.

Nevertheless, transformational leadership is considered reflective of the characteristics prevalent in Western society. The majority of research on leadership culture in traditional Eastern societies is based on leadership theories developed in Western culture. Hofstede (1980) and Hofstede and Bond (1988) argue differences between cultural values of East and West are obvious.

According to Westwood (1997) concepts of personal freedom and equality are cornerstones of Western culture, while Eastern cultures are based on notions of maintaining social order and harmony.

Aycan (2006) argues from the perspective of the significance of paternalism in cultures of the Pacific, especially Asian cultures of China, Japan, Korea and India. Given that Turkey is included in Asia, the presence of paternalistic characteristics amongst managers in Turkish organisations is expected. Pellegrini and Scandura (2006a) highlight research investigating the effectiveness of a paternalistic approach to leadership within the context of Middle Eastern business. Hofstede (2001) and House et al. (2004) argue the traditional commercial environment in Turkey is characterised by high power distance and patterns of collectivism supporting the viability of paternalistic leadership approaches and management strategy. Consequently, this research focuses on paternalistic leadership as a key variable.

## **2.2 Paternalistic Leadership (PL)**

Mussolino and Calabro (2013) note results in academic work supporting claims that as a construct, paternalism is complex and interesting and can be used to gain insight into understanding how relationships form between leaders and employees and different styles, forms and techniques for managing staff and the organisation. Bing (2004) notes the roots of the word 'paternalism' - a derivative of 'pater', Latin for a principle or managerial praxis for governing people, organisations or nations in a benevolent, fatherly manner or a father's raising of his children in an intrusive way. Such a definition implies paternalism exists in the context of a dyadic relationship between a 'leader' and 'follower(s)' and is based on hierarchy and differing roles. In both work related and non-work related areas, 'leaders' are tasked with caring for, protecting and guiding 'followers', while loyalty and deference to leaders is expected of 'followers'.

The notion of paternalism is defined as acting in the manner of a father, or treating other people like children. Erben and Guneser (2007) refer to the modern philosophy definition of paternalism, which refers to acting in the best interests of another person without the person's consent, as parents act for children.

Gelfand, Erez, and Aycan (2007) maintain paternalism is characteristic of cultures that value collectivism. VandenBos (2007) and Hofstede (2001) state collectivist cultures are characterised by the views of its members who consider themselves part of an extended family or social group, emphasising “we” rather than the socially isolated “I”. Hofstede (2001) notes collectivist cultures are based on a strong sense of family, with loyalty and duty to family at the top of the hierarchy and apparent in personal and business life.

Paternalistic leadership is increasingly attracting the attention of management researchers, however there are many and varied views regarding the definition and effectiveness of a paternalistic leadership. Farh and Cheng (2000:91) argue despite a plethora of divergent definitions suggested by different researchers, the notion of paternalistic leadership is traditionally defined as a form of leadership incorporating strong discipline and authority with paternal compassion. Aycan (2006) notes the cost of such paternal care and protection is the expected demonstration of loyalty, respect and deference to the leader.

As a concept, paternalism suggests adoption of an individual interest in non-work related activities of staff by leaders to safeguard staff welfare. According to Pasa, Kabasakal and Bodur (2001), positions of authority in paternalistic cultures include parental-type roles and regard provision of protection of those under managerial care as their duty. James, Chen and Cropanzano (1996) note in return for the provision of parental-type care and protection, employees are expected to show loyalty, deference and obedience.

According to Sinha (1990) values embraced by traditional societies regarding nurturing father figures perceived as dependable, authoritative, strict and demanding, form the basis of the relationship between benevolence and authority embodied in paternalistic leadership. There is an implication that children accept father figure authority. Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2005) argue Western literature associates paternalistic leadership with authoritarianism, describing this style of leadership as manipulative and authoritative. Aycan (2006) and Martinez (2005) argue for the suitability of paternalistic leadership to non-Western cultures. Farh and Cheng (2000) maintain application of paternalistic leadership has positive implications.

Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, and Kurshid (2000) conducted cross-cultural research amongst employees in China, Pakistan, India and Turkey, finding the presence of significantly higher patterns of paternalism compared to employees in the US, Canada, Israel and Germany. Alongside traditional strong cultural family norms, the national legal framework also influences paternalistic attitudes in a country.

Aycan (2006) notes Turkey scored highly on paternalism. Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) note the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership within the framework of the Turkish business environment, suggesting the high score may be associated with the common family model across Turkey, under which decisions and rules set by the father are accepted without question. Furthermore, Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) suggest the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership in Turkey is not only supported by the structure of the Turkish business environment, but also a military influence facilitating creation of hierarchical relationships across organisations and working environments. Furthermore, as the nature of the Turkish economy changes, the need for paternalistic leadership increases.

Hofstede (1984) notes despite deviations in Turkish society, the nation is still characterised by a highly collectivist culture. Hofstede (2001) and House et al. (2004) argue the traditional Turkish organisational structure is characterised by high power distance and patterns of collectivism, providing a suitable environment supporting paternalistic leadership viability as a business strategy. Collectivist cultures emphasise maintenance of relationships and value loyalty and duty, reflecting the dynamics of relationships based on a paternalistic approach. Consequently, expectations of a high degree of paternalism across Turkish business is logical.

Farh and Cheng (2000) identified three dimensions of paternalistic leadership - benevolence, morality and authoritarian leadership. Each aspect is defined below :

### **2.2.1 Benevolent Leadership (BL)**

Leadership behaviour incorporating personalised concern for employee needs and welfare, both at and outside the workplace is benevolent leadership. Benevolent leaders exhibit concern for all aspects of staff welfare and ensure families are well cared for. According to Tsui and Farh (1997) group members experience deep appreciation and an obligation to return the favour in future. Typical aspects of a benevolent leadership include a dedicated effort to care for group members, concern employee comfort and encouragement when facing problems. Chan Chi Hong (2007) argues situations in which employees perform poorly see benevolent leaders attempt to understand the cause of the poor performance.

According to Cheng et al. (2003) and Farh et al. (2004) there is a positive association between benevolent leadership and employee identification with the leader through deference and gratitude, loyalty, trust and respect and willingness to perform extra roles such as organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB). Cheng et al. (2002) discovered a positive effect of paternalistic leadership on interaction, commitment and satisfaction of members in a team environment. Farh et al. (2004), Yang (1994) and Cheng and Farh (2001) argue the only dimension of paternalistic leadership demonstrating a positive association with gratitude and reciprocation was benevolent leadership.

### **2.2.2 Moral Leadership (ML)**

Moral leadership is defined as attitudes towards leadership based on demonstrating superior individual virtue, self-discipline and a lack of selfishness. Moral leadership is characterised by treatment of others according to virtues displayed and the absence of envy of the talents and virtues of others. There is a notable absence of use of authority to secure special privileges under moral leadership, as moral leaders refuse to take advantage of group members to serve their own ends, or use relationships to gain illicit advantage. Yang (1957) and Yang (1994) note the high likelihood of employees respecting and imitating the actions of moral leaders. Burns (1978), Bass (1985) and Podsakoff et al. (1990) argue under Western models of management, moral leaders lead by example and the models imply an emphasis on ethical values such as equity and justice.

### **2.2.3 Authoritarian Leadership (AL)**

There is consistency between an authoritarian leadership approach and the cultural notion of Confucianism, where leaders assert and maintain strong authority and group members are obliged to comply. Under authoritarian leadership, group members are subject to extremes of authority and control. Obedience is not questioned under an authoritarian leader. Chan Chi Hong (2007) maintains authoritarian leaders behave in a commanding manner when interacting with employees and inflict punishment when rules are broken.

Cheng et al. (2002) notes authoritarian leadership has a consistently negative association with loyalty to and trust in an authoritarian leader. Farh et al. (2004) found a positive association between identification with a leader and commitment to the organisation with fear of a leader. Cheng et al. (2002) found a negative effect on team interaction, group member commitment and satisfaction with the leader in team environments under an authoritarian leader. According to Wu et al. (2002), an authoritarian approach elicits negative emotional responses from employees including anger, agitation and fatigue and is associated with a tendency to suppress clarification of negative emotions.

### **2.2.4 Comparison of PL with Transformational Leadership Theory**

According to Dorfman and Howell (1988), Kim (1994), Martinez (2005) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2006), Middle Eastern, Asia Pacific and Latin American business environments and cultures are characterised by and support effectiveness of paternalistic leadership. Nevertheless, Northouse (1997:39) maintains Western definitions of paternalism incorporating the notion of “benevolent dictatorship” are reflected in negative perceptions of paternalistic leadership in Western cultures. Colella, Garcia, Reidel and Triana (2005:26) refer to negative perceptions as embodying a “hidden and insidious type of discrimination.”

The concept of paternalism is compatible with customary praxis of cultures characterised by collectivism and high power distance. This is the result of desired and expected involvement of paternalistic leaders in the personal lives of employees in cultures based on collectivism, however individualistic, Western cultures, regard such involvement as encroaching on employees personal lives.

Aycan (2006) notes in relationships in paternalistic cultures, leaders, like fathers, close friends or brothers are involved on a personal level in the non-work lives of employees and are seen as entitled to expect personal favours in return. Such relationships in paternalistic cultures form on the assumption of an accepted power imbalance between leadership and subordinate positions. Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) argue the unquestioned power imbalance between the two parties forms the basis for criticism of paternalistic leadership.

The Western style of transformational leadership and the Eastern style of paternalistic leadership both originate from unequivocal leadership theories developed in different cultural contexts and based on diverse assumptions regarding obligations and rights of leaders. Both approaches exhibit inherent leadership patterns and particular types of individual as perceived by group members. According to Bass (1985) intellectual inspiration and individual charisma are the hallmarks of transformational leadership. Farh and Cheng (2000) identify authority, control and image building as hallmarks of paternalistic leadership. There are commonalities, despite the differences. The personalised care of transformational leadership shares common ground with benevolent leadership. Parry and Proctor-Thomsen (2002) researched integrity as a personal quality amongst transformational leaders, shares common aspects with moral leadership.

### **2.2.5 Research Studies on Paternalistic Leadership**

Farh and Cheng (2000) developed the triad model of paternalistic leadership based on the hypothesis of compliance and dependence as responses to authoritarian leadership, respect and identification the responses to moral leadership and obligation and restitution the responses to benevolent leadership. Cheng et al. (2004) produced results supporting the strong relationship between employee identification and moral leadership and the association between obligation and loyalty as reimbursement and benevolent leadership. Research results support benevolent leadership and moral leadership as the only leadership variables significantly influencing employee organisational citizen behaviour. Nevertheless, such studies do not support the existence of positive associations between authoritarian leadership and conformity. Wu et al. (2002) argue strong relationships have been discovered between authoritarian leadership and fear and anger.

Cheng et al. (2002) and Wu et al. (2002) found authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee loyalty and trust. Adoption of paternalistic leadership impacts individual psychological responses elicited from employees.

A key aim of this research is examination of the relationship between Paternalistic Leadership and Leader Member Exchange. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue under LMX theory, effective leadership is achieved through maintaining high quality relationships based on mutual trust, respect and obligation. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue in relationships that follow the principles defined by LMX theory, leaders rely on employees for assistance and in turn, employees rely on leaders for support and career development.

Gerstner and Day (1997) point to research indicating behavioural and emotional aspects of relationships between leaders and employees as associated with multiple positive outcomes including employee satisfaction with the job and management, performance and commitment to the organisation. Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) claim it is possible for high quality LMX relationships to positively impact the protection and care forming the basis of paternalistic leadership.

### **2.3 Leader Member Exchange (LMX)**

The differential practice of social exchange manifest in LMX is based on bipartite leader – employee relationships. Organisational outcomes are significantly affected by the nature of interaction between leaders and employees. According to Liden et al. (1997) and Bauer and Green (1996) dyadic characteristics form the basis for traditional views of the relationship. Bauer and Green (1996) argue a series of exchanges occurring over time form the basis for development and negotiation of dyadic relationships. Bhal et al. (2009) point out dyadic LMX may be regarded as multidimensional and created by development of employee roles.

According to Graen and Cashman (1975) and Gouldner (1960) roles are typically negotiable, multidimensional and created and developed through a series of exchanges across multiple developmental levels and facilitate the exchange of objects in dyadic relationships including physical resources and intangibles including information or valued task assignments.

Gouldner (1960) argues the notion of Leader member Exchange originated in the concept of “reciprocity”. Blau (1964) claims LMX evolved from “social exchange”. Katz and Kahn (1978) claim it evolved from ‘similarity attraction’ and “role”. Reciprocity is a significant aspect in promoting LMX relationships. According to Gouldner (1960), reciprocity globally applicable norm, omnipresent in interpersonal relations and facilitates social structure stabilisation. There is an expectation that employees will feel obliged to reciprocate preferential treatment by leaders through performing duties over and above mandatory employment contract requirements. Gouldner (1960) maintains that as a standard, reciprocity demands the return of favourable treatment in the future.

Eisenberger et al. (2001) point to observations that interpersonal workplace relationships are strengthened on the basis of the obligation to repay favourable treatment under the standards of reciprocity. According to Rousseau (1995), employees who believe their contributions, team values and concern for wellbeing feel obliged to increase performance in expected tasks and extra tasks but show a decrease in sense of perceived obligation where employees believe the organisation does not value or reward their efforts.

Extending the standard of reciprocity via social exchange in an organisation demonstrates dyadic relationships between leaders and an employees based on obligations created from courtesies extended and assigned tasks completed, with value added through completion of significant extra tasks. According to Jha and Jha (2013), under this type of social exchange, employees are prepared to assume responsibility and perform tasks outside job descriptions outside working hours or outside the workplace if required, to achieve outcomes expected by leaders.

Gerstner and Day (1997) argue social exchange creates an obligation for employees to reciprocate trust and favourable treatment from a leader through good performance and organisational citizen behaviour (OCB). Blau (1964) notes direct social exchanges are not required to occur between leaders and employees as indirect social exchanges can be created through task regulation when employees work in established teams. A unique aspect of LMX relationship development is provided under similarity-attraction theory. Similarity-attraction theory suggests there will be a greater number of positive interactions reported by individuals who are similar to each other.

Kacmar et al. (2009) observe perception of a deep level of similarity between parties based on shared perspective, likes and receptiveness has increased impact on LMX relationship quality compared to superficial actual similarities such as age, gender, race, background, religious affiliation, cultural traits etc). Jha and Jha (2013) add in employees tend to identify with leaders who display identical personality traits including openness, optimism, extroversion/introversion, conscientiousness, self-esteem, view of the world etc.

A key element of Leader Member Exchange relationships is the role. Doll (1977) notes explanations of roles take many forms, ranging from informal expectations and standards to formal specification of duties, communication patterns and hierarchical relationships. The roles is assigned a key aspect of employee positions within the organisation upon signing of employment contracts. Graen (1976) highlights the perception of LMX as the process of role creation. Graen (1976) and Graen and Scandura (1987) argue operational forms of working Leader Member Exchange relationships are based on processes of role taking, role making and role formalisation and standardisation. Workplace roles allocated to employees outline expected performance levels, attitudes towards leaders and colleagues and expectations for interaction with others. Graen (1976) and Graen and Scandura (1987) argue employees build high quality LMX relationships through repetition of role episodes in role making, role taking and role standardisation.

Dansereau et al. (1975) point to claims that vertical dyad linkages theory is the basis of LMX process development. Vertical dyad linkages theory is based on the creation of dyadic relationships between managers and employees on the basis of differentiation of work unit relationships. Graen et al. (1982) argue almost a decade later, it was shown that vertical dyad linkages theory forms the basis for creation of Leader Membership Exchange.

According to Graen et al. (1982), LMX theory expanded vertical dyad linkages theory by shifting emphasis to volatile characteristics inherent in bipartite relationships between manager and employees that have an impact on relationship quality over time. Graen et al. (1982) suggested a continuum scale ranging from low to high in negotiating dyadic relationship attitude. Employees with high negotiating latitude formed an 'in-group', while those with low negotiating latitude formed an 'out-group'. According to Graen and Cashman (1975) managers were observed adopting a more directive leadership with out-group employees and a more collaborative approach with in-group members.

### **2.3.1 High or Low Quality LMX Relationships**

Deluga (1994) notes LMX quality is determined in initial developmental stages of dyadic relationships and remains relatively stable over time. Gerstner and Day (1997) and Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) argue employee attitude and job performance can be predicted on the basis of LMX relationship quality. According to Gerstner and Day (1997), high quality LMX relationships can lead to positive work experiences, including effective outcomes and job performance. Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) maintain the LMX relationship quality is distinguished by mutual respect, trust and obligation creating influence between manager and employees. Janssen and Van Yperen (2004) claim key distinguishing features of low quality LMX relationships include formal approaches to role definition and interaction and creation of contractual exchanges based on hierarchical relationships characterised by distance between parties and a top-down flow of influence. According to Erdogan, Kraimer and Liden (2004), negative employee experience is counterbalanced by social support delivered through LMX relationship quality.

High and low quality are two ways of differentiating dyadic relationship quality under Leader Member Exchange, with differentiation based on bi-directional interaction between managers and employees. According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), under LMX, unique relationships form between managers and employees through discerning exchange. Trust, loyalty, respect and duty are characteristics of high quality relationships that facilitate creation of balanced influence between manager and employee. By contrast, formal job requirements and employment contracts form the basis of low quality relationships and create distance between parties.

The quality of exchange is the basis of employee classification as either in-group under high quality LMX, or out-group under low quality LMX. Dansereau et al. (1975) identify reciprocity, extra-contractual attitudes, mutual trust, respect, affection and solidarity as characteristic of exchanges with in-group members, while out-group member exchanges are marked by a relationship based on the nature of tasks assigned and the influence of a unidirectional hierarchy.

According to Graen and Scandura (1987), Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), Graen et al. (1990) and Liden and Graen (1980) under LMX, workplace interaction is the initial basis for establishment of manager – group member relational dynamics. Abu Bakar, Mustaffa, Mohamad (2009) argue constraints of time create a continuum in which managers may develop close high quality LMX relations with a few group members and retain low quality LMX relationship formalities with remaining group members. Employees who develop high quality relationships with managers exhibit higher levels of job satisfaction and performance, lower levels of turnover and most significantly, increased task quality.

Liden and Graen (1980) and Liden et al. (1982) maintain the reverse applies regarding employees with low quality relationships with managers, which can produce simple contractual relations, increased managerial control and monitoring, less desirable tasks, decreased employee satisfaction and increased turnover. Higher correlations exist between LMX and relations-oriented behaviour compared to other forms of leadership. Relations-oriented behaviour is characterised by psychological support availability, recognition of group member contributions, developing employee skill bases, a collaborative approach to ideas development and addressing issues and delegating more responsibility and authority to employees.

Dienesch and Liden (1986) and Liden and Maslyn (1998) proposed four aspects to explain differential exchange quality. The first aspect is affect, referring to mutual affection developed between parties on the basis of interpersonal relationships, rather than on the basis of job or professional values. Affect is concerned with emotional aspects of relationships between dyad parties. Loyalty refers to expression of public support for goals and individual employee attributes in the LMX dyad. Defence of actions of the other party is a key attribute of loyalty. Contribution refers to perception of quantity, direction and quality of job-related tasks that each party contributes to the relationship to achieve explicit and implicit shared goals. The willingness of employees to participate and get involved to support the manager reflects perceived contribution. Professional respect refers to perception of the degree to which each party to the relationship has created a reputation, within and external to the organisation, due to work performance excellence. The way job-related skills and expertise of each party to the relationship is recognised reflects professional respect.

According to Maslyn and Uhl-Bien (2001) affect, loyalty and professional respect are likened to social currency focusing on the social nature of exchanges between manager and employee, whereas contribution is likened to job currency. Previously, Dienesch and Liden (1986) proposed a similar approach, suggesting LMX is based on three exchange currencies- task behaviour or perceived contribution, loyalty and liking each other or affect. Perceived contribution addresses work aspects of exchanges, loyalty social support aspects and affect positive emotions that go beyond job environments. According to Jenkins (1994), three aspects of variables are associated with personality that impact formation of in- and out-groups under the LMX model.

Locus of control may be an external locus referring to degrees to which events are perceived as controlled by others, or internal locus, referring to degrees to which events are perceived as controlled by the person. Jha and Jha (2013) argue internal locus of control may facilitate improved communication through improved interaction with the environment for some. Jha and Jha (2013) note the need for power, where those with a greater need for power accept additional roles and responsibilities with the intention of furthering their own cause within a group or organisation. Judge and Bono (2003) assert self-esteem, referring to those who value themselves highly and thus have high self-esteem, demonstrate higher satisfaction levels and a focus on more positive job aspects. Thus, employees with internal loci of control, greater need for power and high self-esteem have an increased probability of being members of in-groups in any organisation under the LMX. Lord and Brown (2001) and Lord et al. (1999) argue perceptions of self-held by employees strongly impact the determination of attitudes and reactions to managers, especially where self-esteem is described at the relational level. Consistent with Korman's (1970) self-consistency theory is the suggestion that employees with positive self-perceptions exhibit tendencies to adopt positive approaches and behaviours also consistent with their self-perception. Mahsud, Yukl and Prussia (2010) argue some personality traits of managers and employees such as agreeableness, extroversion and positive affect are linked to interaction under the LMX model.

Alongside personality aspects, high quality LMX relationships are formed and maintained based on other contributing environmental factors. According to Erdogan et al. (2006), honest and trustworthy managers with and genuine concern for the employee wellbeing are more likely to form high quality exchange relationships.

Brown and Trevino (2006) state high quality exchange relationships are likely to be created by moral managers through honest and open communication and decisions directed by principals. Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) maintain there a strong association exists between interpersonal communication fairness and LMX. Landry and Vandenberghe (2009) claim employees who feel valued by management are more likely to engage in agreeable relationships and actively avoid conflict.

Kang and Stewart (2007) argue levels of emotional support and exchange of valuable resources between manager and employees are key determinants of high quality relationships. According to Mahsud, Yukl, and Prussia (2010), creation of exchange relationships may be impacted by the combined effect of empathy, ethical values and relation-oriented behaviour. Furthermore, Liden et al. (1993) and Henderson et al. (2009) note developmental paths of relationships under the LMX model is influenced by the combination of organisational culture, human resource practices, type of group and work unit, team size and organisational policy.

Liden et al. (1997) highlight the influence of environmental variables on development of Leader Member Exchange, claiming development of favourable exchange relationships is more difficult for managers in situations where working teams or groups include temporary members, when members are widely dispersed and interaction with the manager as a group is rare, where a manager has too much responsibility that restricts time available to interact with employees, or where a manager lacks authority to provide desired rewards and benefits. Liden and Maslyn (1998) observe a generally higher quality LMX relationship in situations where group members and managers exchange more valued resources, information and desirable tasks. High quality relationships have attributes including demonstration of trust, respect and loyalty, while low quality relationships are marked by mistrust, lack of respect and loyalty. Sparrowe and Liden (1997) argue more time, information and emotional support is given to high quality LMX relationships compared to low quality relationships. High quality relationships have an advantage over others through access to others in managerial social networks, additional information and a wider range of valuable resources. The essence of the LMX relationship is trust. Liden and Graen (1980) argue acceptance of employees into in-groups is determined by the extent employees can demonstrate trustworthiness, expertise, skills and motivation.

Schriesheim et al. (1999) suggest a higher probability of development of high quality relationships where there is mutual trust between managers and employees. Liden and Graen (1980) argue working exchanges with attributes of mutual trust and support, form the basis for high quality leader-member relationships. Dansereau et al. (1975) claim this facilitates increasing levels of commitment and employee competence. Graen et al. (1990) and Yukl (1994) maintain managers in such relationships provide reassuring rewards for performance and career development. In this manner, in-group employees are willing to work beyond the requirements of the role and contribute more to job success. In return, in-group members receive more attention and support from managers. Jha and Jha (2013) note out-groups are comprised of those not chosen by managers. According to Dansereau et al. (1975), Graen and Cashman (1975) and Liden and Graen, (1980) contractual relationships with managers form the basis for low quality LMX exchanges between out-group members and managers. A higher quality exchange relationship is more likely where group members are perceived as competent, reliable and possessing similar values, demographic attributes and behaviours as the manager.

### **2.3.2 Outcomes of Leader Member Exchange**

LMX represents a model of workplace relations and constituent dimensions, based on dyad relationships of interdependent practices and mutual outcomes producing concepts of context, cause and value. According to Gerstner and Day (1997), advantageous gains of high quality exchange relationships for both manager and employee include increased performance, commitment and satisfaction. Masterson et al. (2000) add helping attitudes to advantages of high quality exchange relationships.

Zijada and Jasna (2009) highlight high quality leader-member exchanges as a source of competitive advantage in retaining and motivating experts in an organisation. According to Graen and Cashman (1975), low quality leader member exchanges contrast with high quality leader-member exchanges through formation on contractual obligations and economic exchanges, resulting in routine job performance by employees and receipt of standardised organisational gains by managers. Wayne et al. (1997) highlight a demonstrated association between high quality LMX and enhanced role performance. As a result, group members maintaining high quality managerial exchanges are expected to demonstrate Organisational Citizen Behaviour, including working extra hours and accepting extra tasks.

Wang and Wang (2011) are among few researchers demonstrating the positive association between LMX relationships and group member Organisational Citizen Behaviour. Graen and Scandura (1987) note managers allocate employees the degree of autonomy and discretion required to promote innovation under high quality dyadic relationships. Basu and Green (1997) and Scott and Bruce (1994, 1998) claim positive associations between manager and employee regarding innovative attitudes under high quality exchange relationships.

According to Macey and Schneider (2008), high quality LMX relationships promote increased levels of employee engagement. Buckingham and Coffman (2000) suggest increased employee productivity is influenced by the relationship of an employee with the immediate manager. Dixon-Kheir (2001) argues high quality relationships with managers are integral determinants employee decisions to remain with an organisation for the long term. Jha and Jha (2013) suggest high quality LMX relationships foster employee development and increase overall interest in organisational development while aligning their own values, mission and purpose with those of the organisation. Alignment in this manner proves beneficial for managers, employees and organisations. Consequently, highly engaged employees with long-term career aspirations with an organisation, demonstrate increased willingness to contribute more to achievement of organisational goals.

LMX relationship research over the past thirty years produced results supporting positive associations between dyadic relationships and employee performance, overall levels of satisfaction with job and career, loyalty and reliability, levels of employee engagement, turnover and retention, innovative attitudes, career development and progression and increased group efficiency, as illustrated in Table 2.2. All consequences mentioned are integral in maintaining marketplace competition. According to Jha and Jha (2013), the relevance of dyadic relationships is backed by outcomes of high quality LMX in modern workplaces.

High quality LMX relationships generate many outcomes considered necessary for staff and organisational efficiency. Irrespective of quality, LMX may still lead to several outcomes that adversely impact achievement of organisational vision, mission and strategic organisational objectives. According to Othman et al. (2010), decisions regarding reward and resource allocation by managers are influenced by quality social exchanges with employees, with managers demonstrating preference for in-group members.

Under a dysfunctional model, other employees perceive high quality exchanges between managers and employees as inequitable. Consequently, out-group members may consider this unfair and develop negative attitudes towards perceived workplace inequity. Liden et al. (2006) argue there is a higher probability that out-group members will withhold contributions and subvert overall team performance in highly differentiated groups.

**Table 2.2** Outcome Dimensions of Leader Member Exchange

Sl. No.	Outcome of LMX	Researches conforming indicated outcomes
1.	Employees' job performance	Dunegan et al. (2002), Wayne et al. (2002), Gerstner & Day (1997), Liden et al. (1997), Liden et al. (1993), Graen & Scandura (1987).
2.	Job/career/overall satisfaction	Han (2010), Cogliser et al. (2009), Schyns & Croon (2006), Schriesheim et al. (1998), McClane et al. (1991), Duchon et al. (1986), Scandura & Graen (1984), Graen et al. (1982).
3.	Organizational commitment	Cogliser et al. (2009), Klein & Kim (1998), Kinicki & Vecchio (1994), Nystrom (1990), Dienesch & Liden (1986), Duchon et al. (1986), Scandura & Graen (1984).
4.	Organizational citizenship behaviour	Ilies, et al. (2007), Hackett & Lapierre (2007), Lee & Ansari (2004), Hofmann et al. (2003), Hui et al. (1999); Wayne et al. (1997), Wayne et al. (1997), Anderson & Williams (1996), Settoon et al., (1996), Setton et al. (1996), Deluga (1994).
5.	Decline in turnover intentions and actual turnover	Bauer et al., (2006), Gerstner & Day (1997), Graen et al. (1982).
6.	Employee withdrawal behavior	Ferris (1985), Graen et al. (1982).
7.	Increased team effectiveness	Boies & Howell (2006).
8.	Career development	Kacmar et al. (2003) Graen et al. (1990)
9.	Employee engagement	Macey & Schneider (2008).
10.	Loyalty and reliability	Flaherty & Pappas (2000), Delvecchio (1998), Wakabayashi et al. (1990).
11.	Employee retention	Dixon-Kheir, (2001), Buckingham & Coffman (2000).
12.	Innovative behaviour and creativity	Mun˜oz-Doyague & Nieto (2012), Atwater & Carmeli (2009), Lee (2008), Liden (2002), Tierney et al. (1999), Basu & Green (1997), Scott & Bruce (1994), Erdogan et al (1994).

Source: Jha & Jha (2013, p.48)

Employees subject to high levels of workplace stress demonstrate higher levels of burnout, decreased performance, higher turnover intention and a range of other negative consequences. Nevertheless, the influence of LMX on job stress is a field lacking published research. Therefore, this research aims to investigate the influence of LMX on job role stressors including role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

## **2.4 Job Stress**

Job-related stress is a global phenomenon and studies have shown it has a negative organisational and behavioural effect on employee health, performance and general wellbeing. Colligan and Higgins (2005, p.90) maintain job stress is a complex scientific structure for which understanding requires a first step of understanding the “parent construct” called stress. Stress is generally experienced as physiological and psychological responses producing negative human conditions in situations where individual capabilities are exceeded. According to Babatunde (2013), this is why job stress is generally defined as incompatibility between physiological requirements demanded in an organisation and the lack of employee ability to address such requirements.

Dewe and Trenberth (2004) argue stress is experienced and encountered in many different ways in an organisation, making it difficult to create a standard definition that can be applied across research and investigation into the effects of stress on organisational wellbeing and productivity. Over the years, many definitions of stress have been proposed including stress as a stimulus, a response, a combination of stimulus-response or a transactional relationship between people and the environment.

Babatunde (2013) argues stress as a stimulus is encountered as irritating environmental variables, affecting the individual’s ability to reason. As such, stimulus-response models of stress focus on experiences of what happens to individuals and not what happens within individuals. In contrast, stress as a reaction stress is primarily based on individual psychological responses to stressors. According to Selye (1974), stress is defined as non-specific physiological responses to demands made of the body and which impacts individual physiological homeostatic regulation.

Selye (1974) discovered the notion of disparity between eustress and distress. Colligan and Higgins (2005) note Greek term “Eu” is means “good” and was used to describe specific positive reactions activated by external stressors, while distress refers to stressors initiating adverse reactions. Selye (1974) argues responses to stressors are either positive in the form of eustress or negative in the form of distress, while stressors initiate general physiological responses that prepare the individual for a fight or flight response.

Nevertheless, it is suggested the linear nature of the arguments above produced a standard description of the stimulus-response relationship. Both explanations are supported by the development that stress is more than a personal reaction to external factors. Stress is regarded as interaction between individuals and external stressors that impair health. Michie (2002) notes this perspective defines stress as uncontrollable, unpredictable, uncommon and increases the likelihood of occurrence in certain people over others in particular situations. Cooper and Cartwright (1997, p.7) note underlying arguments of an ‘interactionist’ approach to stress define stress as an outcome of lack of structural fit between needs and demands and the individual and the environment.

Consequently, there is a lack of a widely accepted definition of stress, which results in a plethora of models for application in a multitude of contexts. Hackman and Oldham (1980) note there are many models and theories developed to explain and measure stress, from person-environment fit theory and job characteristics framework, including Karasek’s (1979) own job demand-control model of job-related stress, Siegrist’s (1966) notion of effort-reward imbalance and Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) transactional theory of psychological stress and coping. Mark and Smith (2008) note such models represent a selection that managed to gain traction in research on stress, irrespective of varying degrees of popularity and empirical support. Nevertheless, one of the most efficient models of stress is the transactional theory of psychological stress and coping. The Lazarus and Folkman (1984) transactional theory of psychological stress and coping features evaluations and coping structures describing how primary evaluations of stressful situations are conducted to assess the potential risk level – referred to as primary appraisal – followed by notification of appraisal outcome to coping tactics possessed by an individual – referred to as secondary appraisal –designed to familiarise, decrease or remove a perceived threat or stressor.

Within the context of job stress, the transactional approach analyse the relationship between employee and work environment through appraisal of conditions harbouring potential threats to the health of the individual. Following appraisal, problem-solving and emotional-focused coping strategies are evaluated for suitability for coping in such situations. Nevertheless, transactional model limitations were uncovered in the form of the incorporation of subjective variables such as emotions and potential effects of individual differences in evaluating stressful situations, attitudes and identities, making difficult to evaluate how individuals respond to and overcome stressful situations on an empirical basis. Mazzetti and Blenkinsopp (2012) argue quantitative methodologies are often applied to stress research and consequently criticised for capturing data representing a single moment in time.

In addition, qualitative approaches to data collection such as surveys and questionnaires have been subject to criticism for failing to capture the full richness of data across fluctuating timelines, locations and the variable nature of subjective descriptions of individual experiences of stress. Consequently, such inherent methodological limitations are often intensified under the transactional model. Earlier discussion on the diversity of definitions of job stress resulted in considerable inequality regarding whether job stress should be conceptualised as environmental pressure, pressure inside the individual or the interactional or transactional relationship between an individual and external factors.

Babatunde (2013) expands such discussions by arguing the variation and differentiation amongst models of stress appear to add to the intensity of the issue of developing a universal definition of job-related stress. As a result, issues inherent in methodologies further limit understanding of the endemic nature of factors associated with job stress that are often in full bloom in contemporary work environments, nurtured by rapid technological development, inflexible global market competition, increasing globalisation, and continued job system automation. This has uncovered unprecedented workplace modifications in contemporary workplaces manifest in a number of detrimental trends. Babatunde (2013) argues that, in this context general criticism is essential to the consideration of the range of factors contributing to job-related stress.

### **2.4.1 Factors of Job Stress**

Mc Vicar et al. (2013) argue the significance of the challenges associated with job stress become obvious as the body of published work expands. The primary sources of stress have been identified in Figure 2.1 from Murphy (1995) and Michie (2002). Murphy (1995) developed a model in which factors related to job stress were assumed to exist within the context of a job. Michie (2002) improved and expanded on this notion so as to embody both organisational and external outcomes associated with sources of job stress. The experiences of stress initiated by the content of a job are often associated with inherent job role factors as illustrated in diagrammatical format in Figure 2.1. This group incorporates employees who often struggle with the characteristics of the job, which initiates an imbalance between the requirements of the situation and the ability of the individual to cope with such requirements.

The illustration shows a number of internal organisational attributes that harbour the potential to create negative organisational and external outcomes that often have an adverse effect on physical and psychological health. Figure 2.2 represents the first category of associated with the job role, including workload, excessive pace of work and time pressures, lack of job significance and job autonomy, external inconveniences such as noise and overcrowding and work systems accompanied by a health hazards that impair employee health such as exposure to toxic substances in poor work environments.

Category number two represents the origination of stress in the job role and the responsibility associated with the job role within the workplace. According to Babatunde (2013), stressful events in such an environment are often associated with managerial positions with high levels of responsibility and authority and a lack of clear demarcation lines, or where managers or others overload employees with responsibility in a simultaneous yet unrealistic way. Subsequently, individuals in such positions are often subject to role stress comprised primarily of ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

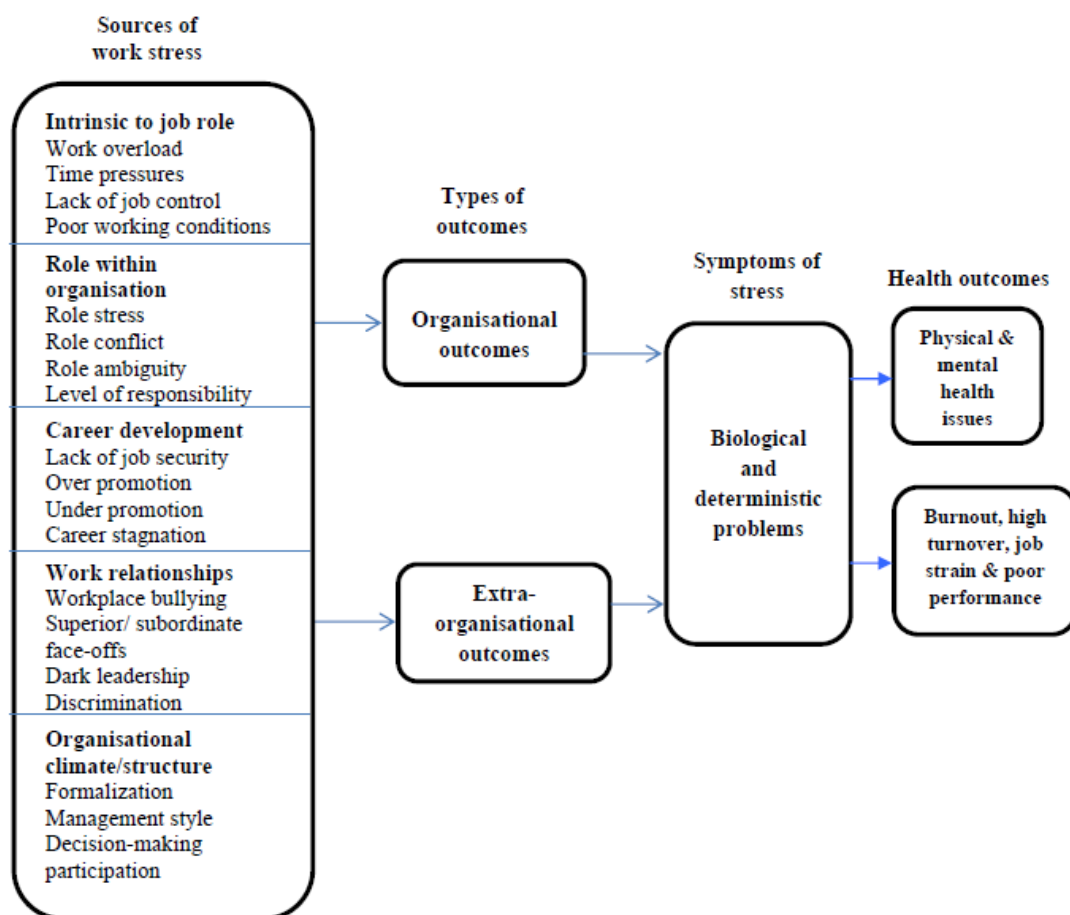
Kahn et al. (1964) and Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) define role ambiguity as the extent to which an employee perceives the responsibilities, expectations and evaluations associated with the job role as unclear. Kahn et al. (1964) assert role ambiguity may be the outcome if a lack of information required to complete an allocated task.

Role ambiguity may also be the result of perceived uncertainty or unpredictability with regards to the behavioural expectations or evaluations of others regarding the behaviour of the individual. According to Kahn et al. (1964) and Rizzo et al. (1970) role conflict is explained as the experience of inconsistency in job tasks and contradictory tasks and duties assigned by others. Role conflict may also arise as a result of conflict between work and external roles, including a lack of work-life balance or work-family role conflict. Inter-organisational relationships may also be a source of role conflict. The focus of this research is on the work-related roles within the organisation in which an employee works.

Peterson et al. (1995) and Tordera et al. (2008) define role overload as the extent to which an individual perceives that the quantitative or qualitative workload assigned exceeds the abilities and available resources at the disposal of the individual and compromises quality. Glazer and Beehr (2005), Kahn and Byosiere (1990) and Tordera et al. (2008) note that despite the conceptualisation of role overload classified as a sub-category of role conflict as suggested by Kahn, later research suggests conceptualisation of role overload as a separate construct, in the same way as the dimensions of role ambiguity and role overload.

Contextual stress factor category number three incorporates stress factors that initiate stress through the threat of undermining career progression. Babatunde (2013) argues this grouping indirectly includes issues related to stress that originate in a lack of job security and often harbour the potential to inhibit career progression and have an adverse impact on employee sense of wellbeing and job commitment. An example is in the established modifications made to a job role in contemporary workplaces due to technological progression. Kossek et al. (2012) point out organisations employ such modifications to enhance job performance and improve competitive advantage, which has resulted in an increase in the number of temporary employees in an organisation and conditional job regulations introduced through downsizing, restructuring, outsourcing, mergers and acquisitions and rearranging job scheduling in an effort to counter the rapidity of technological development and overcome intensifying global competition. Colligan and Higgins (2005) argue consequently, the adoption of such modifications by contemporary organisations has led to stressful working environments characterised by low job autonomy, lack of job security, poor career development prospects and working conditions which lack opportunities for employees to develop their careers.

Category number four represents the viable job relationships within the organisation, which serve as contextual participators to job stress. Social corruption is often introduced by way of problematic relationships between managers, employees and colleagues in many forms including bullying, violence and intimidation, prejudice, lack of managerial support, harassment, unnatural social or physical workplace separation and other problematic deviations. Dillard and Fritz (1995, p. 12) argue such problematic relations may produce a spectrum of outcomes, from passive to active dislike, animosity, lack of respect, detrimental interactions and others in the workplace. Reasons such negative outcomes may occur include job stress, employee burnout, personal injury and high employee turnover that translates into loss of organisational and employee income.



**Figure 2.2** A schematic framework of factors associated with job stress and outcomes

Source: Babatunde (2013), p. 76 – based on Murphy (1995) & Michie (2002)

The fifth and final category includes responses stimulated by stress as a result of organisational structure and landscape. A primary characteristic of this category is the formalisation of organisational structure, which refers to the degree to which roles within the organisation are standardised and job content is governed by obligations and structure. Babatunde (2013) argues employees working in an environment characterised by a high degree of job formalisation, may have less autonomy in the fruitful completion of job requirements. The formalisation of jobs creates a system of stringent procedures and engagement obligations, which may contribute to the increased possibility of employees experiencing job-related stress that originates in an inappropriate locus of control relative to the demands of the job. In a similar manner, the collective experiences of employees and the multifaceted nature of organisational work life influenced the organisational climate. Babatunde (2013) argues this category includes commercial objectives that drive high performance, prioritisation in human resources policy and praxis, type of leadership, job design, technology level of employee engagement, communications systems, motivational circumstances, reward systems, work environment, amongst others. To conclude, predictive indicators within the commercial environment that may have an adverse effect on organisational and external outcomes are created from a group of characteristics that generate the presence of role stressors, including role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload, interruptions to communications systems, fragmented job attributes, poor remuneration, job insecurity and low social value of jobs.

## **2.5 The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on Leader Member Exchange**

The attitudes of both manager and group member have an influence on the development of LMX relationships. Vertical dyads are required to adapt so as to meet the requirements of particular norm-based roles. Facilitation of the development of high quality exchange relationships occurs when both parties identify with the values, behaviours and attitudes of the other party. Zhao and Bo (2007) point out in comparison, manager and group member low quality relationships have limited interaction, with the majority of interaction based on contractual obligation. A separate analysis of each dimension of Paternalistic Leadership and LMX will be undertaken. This is due to the nature of LMX relationship development being influenced in a multitude of ways by the actions of benevolent, moral and authoritarian leaders and their delegates.

### **2.5.1 The Effects of Benevolent Leadership on Leader Member Exchange**

Cheng, Chou and Farh (2000) described benevolent leadership as including shi-en attitudes or the granting of favours for example, “individualised care” and “understanding and forgiving.” The notion of individualised care is defined as the preferential and supportive treatment of group members as members of the work family, providing encouragement and assistance where required. “Understanding and forgiving” suggests managers prefer to forgive employees when mistakes are made and provide the opportunity for them to make amends, rather than embarrass them. Cheng et al. (2004) identify the key attributes of benevolent leadership as primarily the concern of the manager extended to individual topics and secondly the incorporation of long-term shi-en attitudes and finally, the permanent reminder from the manager regarding who wields authority.

The behaviour of benevolent leaders may influence the work behaviours of both employees and managers. Shi-en attitudes are considered a type of social investment that may promote the gratitude and returning the favour. As such leadership attitudes are personalised, and holistic with a long-term orientation, group members may feel obliged to managers, which will strengthen the emotional connection to the manager. Group members will attempt to return the favour in earnest and commit themselves in the interest of serving the manager, reflecting loyalty to the leader. Furthermore, group members will increase their contributory efforts to deliver enhanced performance in response to shi-en attitudes exhibited by a manager, which is advantageous to high quality LMX relationships. According to Wang (2003), benevolent leadership exerts a positive effect on levels of trust amongst employees in a manager, which in turn has repercussions for administrative satisfaction. In addition, Cheng (1999) suggests a positive association exists between the shi-en attitudes held by a manager and the level of commitment and loyalty of group members to the manager.

Hsu et al. (2002) applied the employee categorisation model to demonstrate a significant, positive association between managerial categorisation criteria for example, guanxi, loyalty and competence and concern for group members. Chan and Mak (2011) argue that under a concept similar to LMX differentiation, benevolent managers picture unique dyadic relationships with group members of the same work team. Such a notion implies that the contributions and interests of the group members may play a significant role in the variation in the benevolence of a manager.

An imbalance may exist in the quality exchange and benefits of individualised care and welfare of the work family in the work place from the perspective of group members by a manager with a non-benevolent approach to leadership. From this perspective, the more often exchanges take place and the broader the scope of the exchange, the increased likelihood of high quality LMX relationships. As a result of the abovementioned aspects, benevolent leadership is considered to generate a positive impact on LMX. The following hypothesis and sub-hypothesis are proposed within the boundaries of the theoretical frameworks and empirical studies:

**H<sub>1</sub>** There is a significant relationship between Paternalistic Leadership styles and Leader - Member Exchange Theory.

**H<sub>1a</sub>** There is a positive relationship between Benevolent Paternalistic Leadership style and Leader - Member Exchange Theory.

Expected findings are that where a leader possesses benevolent characteristics, there will be a high quality exchange between the leader and group member.

## **2.5.2 The Effects of Moral Leadership on Leader Member Exchange**

According to Cheng, Chou and Farh (2000), moral leadership is defined as including attitudes of to shuh-der (setting an example) such as not taking advantage of others, 'selfless paragon', and the notions of integrity and fulfilment of obligations. Moral leadership is exercised through leading by example, rather than obstructing the rights of group members and preventing organisational development. Moral leaders do not abuse power in order to serve their own interests, nor do they exact personal revenge in the name of public interest. Zhao and Bo (2007) argue in addition moral leaders commit themselves to the job and keep promises made.

Under supervisor commitment theory, when the attitudes of leaders are compatible with the value patterns of group members, the theory predicts that group members will adopt the attitudes and behaviours of the manager. According to Zhao and Bo (2007) group members are likely internalise their values as a result of the tendency to associate with managers who exercise moral leadership and to demonstrate respect and identify with moral supervisors.

Under LMX, the shuh-der attitudes of the supervisor may be considered as beneficial offers, which may encourage group members to model their own behaviour on that of the supervisor for example, unselfishness and altruism. In addition, group member access to job-related and information and necessary resources is improved under the leadership of a moral supervisor.

The level of group member trust and respect for a supervisor has a direct association with the integrity and consistency of attitude of the supervisor. The higher the degree of trust, the higher the probability that high quality LMX relationships will be formed. Interpersonal attraction forms the basis for LMX relationships between moral leaders and group members. Research conducted by Cheng (1999), Wang (2003) and Cheng (2006) investigating the efficiency of PL, indicates a positive association between moral leadership and levels of affection. Loyalty and commitment of group members. Contemporary society is characterised by the preference of individuals to identify with a manager exercising individual virtues and self-discipline.

Using the theoretical frameworks and empirical studies as a basis, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H<sub>1b</sub>** There is a positive relationship between Moral Paternalistic Leadership style and Leader-Member Exchange Theory.

Where a leader demonstrates moral characteristics, it is expected that leader-group member exchanges will be high quality.

### **2.5.3 The Effects of Authoritarian Leadership on Leader Member Exchange**

Cheng, Chou and Farh (2000) identify five types of li-wei (awe-inspiring) attitudes under authoritarian leadership, namely “powerfully subduing”, “authority and control”, “intention hiding”, “rigorousness” and “doctrine”. Supervisors exercising this type of leadership avoid empowering group members and accept advice from them.

According to Zhao and Bo (2007) authoritarian leaders prefer to control group members and limit access to information. Maintaining a strong sense of authority is facilitated by a dislike of challenges from group members. Group members who do not perform as expected can expect review and indoctrination by the supervisor.

Those exercising authoritarian leadership in the workplace conduct themselves in the manner of a father as the head of a family. According to Zhao and Bo (2007), the exercising of such authority is intended to elicit a display of total obedience and compliance in alignment with role-based norms. Bargaining with and opposition to authoritarian supervisors is not permitted. The intention of authoritarian leadership is to instil fear as a route to establishing trust, respect and loyalty. In such an environment, the supervisor controls and monitors access to information and all necessary resources.

Decision-making, performance appraisals and reward distribution are controlled by the supervisor under an authoritarian approach to leadership, with group members' opportunities to communicate with the supervisor limited, which has an impact on team performance. Imbalanced and inequitable are the hallmarks of exchanges between the vertical dyads. Early research indicates there are several dimensions of LMX relationships that are adversely affected by authoritarian leadership. Cheng, Chou and Farh (2000) and Cheng (1999) proposed the degree of trust extended to an authoritarian leader by group members may be adversely affected by the li-wei attitudes of the supervisor. According to Wu et al. (2002), an authoritarian approach to leadership promoted feelings of anger amongst group members. Zhao (2005) notes an authoritarian approach may contribute to psychological stress. On the basis of these theoretical frameworks and empirical studies the following sub-hypothesis is proposed:

**H<sub>1c</sub>** There is a negative relationship between Authoritarian Paternalistic Leadership style and Leader-Member Exchange Theory.

Where leaders demonstrate an authoritarian approach, it is expected that the exchange between leader and group member will be low quality.

## **2.6 The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on Job Stress**

Researchers are increasingly concerned job stress associated with particular approaches to leadership due to the implications for both the organisation and its employees of certain leadership styles. Babatunde (2013) argues such individuals often subject to job stress that occurs as a result of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload.

### **2.6.1 The Effects of Benevolent Leadership on Job Stress**

A key aspect of a benevolent paternalistic style of leadership is an individualised, holistic concern for the wellbeing of group members by the manager and is suggestive of a degree of managerial respect, care and concern for group members and the provision of adequate support. There is a close connection between job viability and job stress. Social corruption is often introduced by way of problematic relationships between managers, employees and colleagues in many forms including bullying, violence and intimidation, prejudice, lack of managerial support, harassment, unnatural social or physical workplace separation and other problematic deviations. Dillard and Fritz (1995, p. 12) argue such problematic relations may produce a spectrum of outcomes, from passive to active dislike, animosity, lack of respect, detrimental interactions and others in the workplace. Reasons such negative outcomes may occur include job stress, employee burnout, personal injury and high employee turnover that translates into loss of organisational and employee income.

According to Harvey and Evans (1995) and Neubauer and Lank (1998), a benevolent approach to leadership is intended to establish high levels of trust, mutual support and open channels of communication. Chirico et al. (2012) may have a positive impact on value creation and development of dynamic abilities. An influential association has been demonstrated between cohesiveness and commitment, due to the promotion of a group member's identification with the organisation through the individualised care approach adopted by a benevolent manager. Furthermore, benevolent leadership encourages employees to form emotional bonds and has an impact on employee decisions and rationalisation of the cost of leaving the organisation. According to Rehman and Afsar (2012) in this manner, employees perceive benevolent managers as the bond that ties the employee to the organisation. Consequently, a negative relationship is expected to exist between benevolent leadership and job stress.

On the basis of these theoretical frameworks and empirical studies the following hypothesis and the sub-hypothesis are proposed:

**H<sub>2</sub>** There is a significant relationship between Paternalistic Leadership styles and Job Stress levels of workers.

**H<sub>2a</sub>** There is a negative relationship between Benevolent Paternalistic Leadership style and Job Stress levels of workers.

Where a leader possesses benevolent characteristics, it is expected that levels of job stress within the workplace will be low.

## **2.6.2 The Effects of Moral Leadership on Job Stress**

Modelling and mentoring are key characteristics of a moral approach to leadership. A moral paternalistic approach to leadership renders leadership a role model at the workplace. Nielsen (1989) argues in such a manner, a moral paternalistic approach to leadership embodies the expression of attitudes regarded as ethically appropriate and set the example for how moral problems and issues should be addressed, namely by exercising unselfishness and self-discipline.

Job stress may be positively or negatively affected by the organisational environment and organisational structure. Formalisation is a key attribute of the structure of the majority of organisations. Formalisation refers to the degree of standardisation of job roles within the organisation and the degree to which job content is governed by obligations and structure. Babatunde (2013) argues in situations characterised by a high degree of job formalisation, employees are likely to have little autonomy in the fruitful fulfilment of job requirements.

The formalisation of jobs creates a system of stringent procedures and engagement obligations, which may contribute to the increased possibility of employees experiencing job-related stress that originates in an inappropriate locus of control relative to the demands of the job. In a similar manner, the collective experiences of employees and the multifaceted nature of organisational work life influenced the organisational climate.

Babatunde (2013) argues this category includes commercial objectives that drive high performance, prioritisation in human resources policy and praxis, type of leadership, job design, technology level of employee engagement, communications systems, motivational circumstances, reward systems, work environment, amongst others.

Cheng et al. (2004) argue organisational climate is positively influenced by a moral approach to leadership. David and Rothstein (2006) note a key aspect of attitudinal integrity involves behaving in manner compatible with psychological engagement and positively impacts the levels of employee satisfaction with the job and manager, as well as positively influencing employee emotional attachment, support and commitment to the organisation. Trevino et al. (1998) argue that an organisational climate with a high degree of morality and integrity facilitates a positive perception of moral leaders as inspiring moral values, ethical standards, trust and mutual support with the organisation.

Colligan and Higgins (2005) point out problems arise when employees are “stuck” in an organisation with limited or absent opportunities for career progression. This type of environment has a negative impact on employee sense of wellbeing and job commitment. According to Kanungo and Mendonca (1996), a moral approach to leadership supports the empowerment of employees by the manager. Objective feedback regarding employee career development is provided by moral managers to employees.

According to Lansberg and Astrachan (1994), a complementary attitude of mutual respect and understanding can facilitate simplification of the employee commitment to the organisation and self-efficacy. On the basis of these theoretical frameworks and empirical studies the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H<sub>2b</sub>** There is a negative relationship between Moral Paternalistic Leadership style and Job Stress levels of workers.

Where a leader possesses moral attributes, it is expected that levels of workplace job stress will be low.

### 2.6.3 The Effects of Authoritarian Leadership on Job Stress

Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) describe authoritarian leadership as managers exercising visible authority over group members and the demanding of unquestionable obedience. Rehman and Afsar (2012) note the stark contrast of such an approach with an approach that fosters sharing rules and norms and the provision of support within the organisation.

Barnett and Vaicys (2000) emphasize organisational climate is impacted by the norms, standards and duties imposed by company policy, procedures, praxis and reward distribution systems. Job stress may have a positive or negative impact on organisational climate, depending on the approach adopted to leadership. A negative and weak association was found between authoritarian leadership and a supportive organisational climate. Managers adopting an authoritarian approach fail to simplify processes for the transferral of knowledge, skills and competencies to group members. Furthermore, Trevino, Butterfield, and McCabe (1998) note a negative association between commitment and support and an authoritarian approach to leadership. Such an approach to leadership is based on obsessiveness and the centralisation of decision-making, which results in a lack of delegation and limits the ability of employees to contribute. Huse (2010) argues under an authoritarian approach to leadership, managers assume that they know what is best for both the organisation and employees. Obstructing employee career development creates problems associated with job stress. Harvey and Evans (1995) point out authoritarian managers may centralise decision-making processes to an extreme and thereby trigger social unrest within the organisation. The aspects mentioned above result in the perception of authoritarian leadership as a source of employee job stress. On the basis of these theoretical frameworks and empirical studies the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H<sub>2c</sub>** There is a positive relationship between Authoritarian Paternalistic Leadership style and Job Stress levels of workers.

Where a leader possesses authoritarian characteristics it is expected that levels of job stress within the workplace will be high.

## **2.7 The Effects of Leader Member Exchange on Job Stress**

He, Zhao and Archbold (2002) and Montgomery et al. (1996) highlight the common perception of job stress as the psychological and physiological responses of employees to uncomfortable and troublesome threats that occur in the workplace. Sharpley et al. (1996), Cartwright and Cooper (1997), Sparks and Yousef (2002), Eby et al. (2005), Ismail et al. (2010), Tourigny, Baba and Wang (2010) and Yu-Fei et al. (2012) published a literature review which highlighted the occurrence of jobs stress due to role stressors.

Fisher and Gitelson (1983), Glazer and Beehr (2005), Jackson and Schuler (1985), Jex, (1998), Kahn and Byosiere (1990), Kahn et al. (1964), Miller, Ellis, Zook, and Lyles (1990), Peterson et al. (1995) and Sonnentag and Frese (2003) paid close attention to the role of role stressors and their impact on the workplace. According to Kahn et al. (1964) a large proportion of research in this field has been based on the role dynamic theory. Under this theory, the perspective of the job role is used to describe and analyse employees and managers in terms of the prescribed behaviour and expectations associated with the roles as expected by others in the organisation.

According to Kahn et al. (1964), role stressors contain role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload and arise in situations where employees perceive particular psychological aspects as they experience and relate job-related information to the contributory efforts of others. A typical definition of role ambiguity is a situation in which there is a lack of information available pertaining to the objectives, scope and expectations associated with a certain role, which creates tension. Role conflict is described as occurring when a situation arises in which an employee feels unable to cope with the demands of the job in a particular situation and wish to avoid carrying out tasks that may cause stress. The presence of both role conflict and role ambiguity requires employees to make decisions under incompatible demands that may introduce conflict with other job-related demands as well as non-job related demands. As a result, role overload is described as fundamentally based on quantitative and qualitative workloads. For example, quantitative overload is commonly associated with employees carrying out extra or too much work and qualitative overload is associated with employees who feel the demands of a particular role are too complex for their level of skill. Ismail et al. (2013) assert that in such situations, the workloads are beyond the capabilities of the employee and therefore contribute to increasing job-related stress.

The logical association between LMX and role stressors becomes apparent in the consideration of the process of developing roles for employees for whom a manager makes a significant contribution. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) point out that in shifting from seeking and creating a role to implementation of the role, employees establish interactive relationships with managers as strangers, acquaintances and partners. Throughout the role process, communication of expectations associated with the role and appraisals regarding progress from the manager facilitate thriving employees. The assertion that differentiated levels of LMX quality are associated with differing levels of role stressors reported by employees appears to be logical.

According to Gerstner and Day (1997), Snyder and Brunning (1985), Tanner et al. (1993) and Tordera et al. (2008), the majority of empirical evidence produced by LMX research to date supports a negative linear association between LMX and role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. In other words, where higher quality levels of LMX are found, there is a tendency for them to be accompanied by low levels of perceived role stressors.

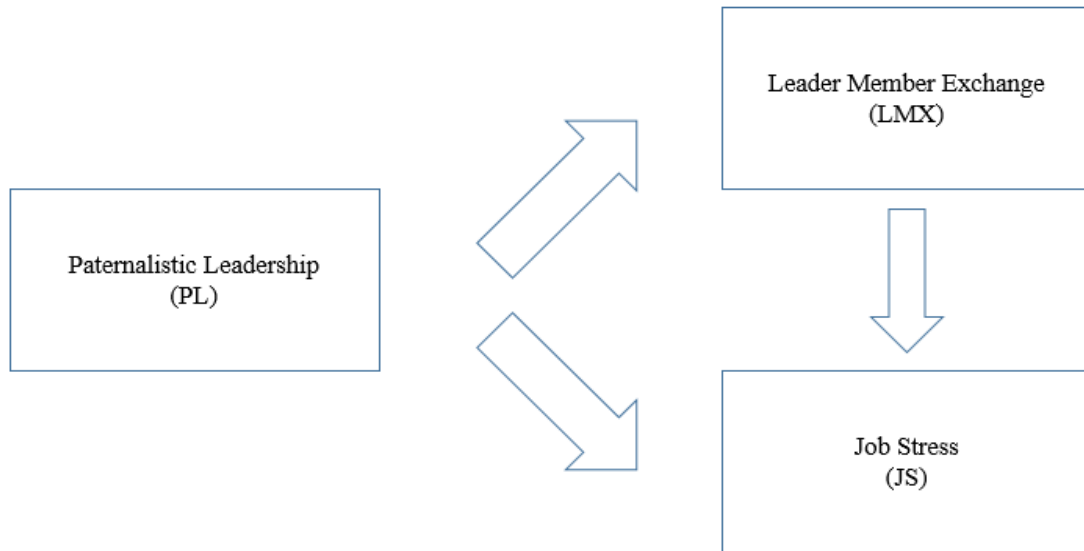
The justification for a negative linear rationale is based on communication and both quality and quantity of resources involved in an exchange. Tanner and Castleberry (1990) and Tanner et al. (1993) argue for example, there may be less communication in terms of quality and quantity in low quality LMX quality relationships, resulting in decreased information flow, feedback, coordination and support between both parties. Less communication results in perceived role conflict and role ambiguity by employees. In addition to including communication, resources also refers to factors such as time, contributions and desirable job tasks. Nelson et al. (1998) and Tordera et al. (2008) argue access to a greater number of resources may result in higher quality LMX relationships and less experience of role stressors.

On the basis of these theoretical frameworks and empirical studies the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H<sub>3</sub>** There is a significant relationship between Leader-Member Exchange Theory and Job Stress levels of workers.

## 2.8 Conceptual Model

The previous section outlined the theoretical framework for the study including interaction between the concepts and related research studies, relationships and proposed hypotheses. Figure 2.3 illustrates a conceptual model based on these empirical studies:



**Figure 2.3** Conceptual Model of the study

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **METHODOLOGY**

As its goal, this research intends to examine the impact of Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent, Moral and Authoritarian Leadership styles) on Leader Member Exchange. This is conducted in accordance with four dimensions of LMX – namely, Affect, Loyalty, Contribution and Professional Respect, employed by members of both in- and out-groups in assessment LMX relationship quality with their manager or supervisor. The study also investigates the impact of Paternalistic Leadership on Job Stress using key Role Stressors - Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload. A final objective of this research is to investigate how Leader Member Exchange may specifically impact Job Stress (role stressors). This part presents the research sample, design and the instruments of the examination based on questionnaire distributed to the workers in two different organizations.

#### **3.1 Sample**

Sample consists of 155 employees (blue and white collar) working in two companies located in İstanbul and İzmir. The company located in İstanbul is a branch of public institution which works on finding job for registered members and employment opportunities for companies in different sectors. It was founded in 1946. Totally, it has 160 branches and 5000 employees across the Turkey. Only, workers of one branch contributed to this study as participants. The company located in İzmir is a family owned company which produces bicycles. It is the first serial manufacturer of bicycles in Turkey and a well-known brand in Turkish market. It has 250 employees and production capacity of this company is 800.000 bicycles per year. Convenience sampling is used. Out of 250, 155 surveys came back from companies. The return rate is 62%.

#### **3.2 Research Design**

Quantitative research approach will be used in this study. The design of the investigation is hypothesis-testing (explanatory research). The study is also cross-sectional. There are basically three key concepts analysed in the research: Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress.

### **3.3 Measurement Instruments**

Initially, demographic questions (age, gender, marital status, education level etc.) were used in order to be informed about sample. Then, questionnaire used in the study is composed of 3 sections. The first section includes the questions measuring paternalistic leadership perceptions of employees. Second section is associated with the questions measuring LMX. Finally, the third section is related to the questions measuring Job Stress levels of workers.

#### **3.3.1 Paternalistic Leadership (PL)**

Paternalistic Leadership is measured using Paternalistic Leadership Scale developed by Cheng and his colleagues (2004). There are 26-items measuring three dimensions of paternalistic leadership such as benevolent leadership, moral leadership and authoritarian leadership. A 6-point response scale is employed, ranging from totally disagree (1) to totally agree (6).

#### **3.3.2 Leader – Member Exchange (LMX)**

Liden & Maslyn (1998) developed a scale for measuring LMX. The scale is called LMX-MDM. It has 12 questions to be answered on a Likert scale. There are four categories comprising each three questions. These categories are: Affect, Loyalty, Contribution and Professional Respect. All survey items had a six-point response format, with higher scores representing higher exchange quality. The translated form of this scale from English to Turkish is taken from the PhD Thesis of Genç, M.Ö. (2010).

#### **3.3.3 Job Stress (JS)**

The instrument used for measuring Job Stress is a combination of three different scales: role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. Role ambiguity and role conflict were measured using a scale developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970). Role overload was measured using a scale developed by Beehr, Walsh and Taber (1976). Responses from participants were collected on a six point scale starting from “totally agree” (6 points) to “totally disagree” (1 point). The translated form of this scale from English to Turkish is taken from the Master Thesis of Yılmaz, G. (2010).

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH FINDINGS

In this chapter, the results of the empirical study are presented. These results were obtained with the “Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21.0”. Firstly, results of descriptive statistics are explained. Secondly; factor, reliability, correlation and regression analysis were used to investigate the relations between the variables. The chapter is finalized by presenting the T - Test results based on gender.

#### 4.1 Descriptive Statistics

Table 4.1 provides a summary of the descriptive statistics of the sample. From the table, it can be said that the participants’ mean age was 31.76. Most of the respondents (71.6 %) were male. Majority of the participants were married (56.8 %). Most of the participants had either a primary school level (34.8 %) or bachelor’s degree (31 %). The sample mean of total work experience was 11.369. The sample mean of seniority was 4.4664. Finally, most of the supervisors (97.4 %) were male.

**Table 4.1** Descriptive statistics of the sample

Variable	N	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range (Years)
Gender	155	100			
Female	44	28,4			
Male	111	71,6			
Age	155	100	31,76	7,246	17 - 57
Marital Status	155	100			
Single	67	43,2			
Married	88	56,8			
Educational Level	155	100			
Primary School	54	34,8			
High School	31	20			
Vocational School	6	3,9			
Bachelor’s Degree	48	31			
Master’s Degree	18	10,3			
Total Work Experience	155	100	11,369	8,8258	0,92 - 41,08
Seniority	155	100	4,4664	5,05256	0,05 - 24,50
Gender of Supervisor	155	100			
Female	4	2,6			
Male	151	97,4			

## 4.2 Factor and Reliability Analysis

In order to find the factor structure of all scales, factor analysis using principal components solution with varimax rotation was used. Any item with a factor loading less than .50 or loading to more than one factor was discarded from the analysis. Factors with Eigenvalues 1.00 or more were taken into consideration in total variance explained.

26 items of the Paternalistic Leadership (PL) measure were entered into factor analysis. KMO value was found as .910 which marked the homogeneous structure of the variables and the result of Bartlett Test (.000, Chi-Square: 1677.292, df: .136) values showed that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. After few rotations, 17 items were loaded on three factors explaining 67.275% of the total variance. The results of the factor analysis are given in Table 4.2. Considering the original factors (benevolent leadership, authoritative leadership and moral leadership) that Cheng et al. (2004) found as a result of their study, the items loaded similarly in this study.

**Table 4.2** Results of the factor analysis of PL scale

	Factor loadings
Factor 1 : Benevolent Leadership; % variance : 41,450	
PL8 - My supervisor encourages me when I encounter arduous problems.	.863
PL1 - My supervisor is like a family member when he/she gets along with us.	.833
PL11 - My supervisor handles what is difficult to do or manage in everyday life for me.	.823
PL9 - My supervisor takes good care of my family members as well.	.808
PL3 - Beyond work relations, my supervisor expresses concern about my daily life.	.804
PL5 - My supervisor will help me when I'm in an emergency.	.788
PL4 - My supervisor ordinarily shows a kind concern for my comfort.	.760
PL2 - My supervisor devotes all his/her energy to taking care of me.	.746
PL7 - My supervisor meets my needs according to my personal requests.	.737
PL10 - My supervisor tries to understand what the cause is when I don't perform well.	.732
PL6 - My supervisor takes very thoughtful care of subordinates who have spent a long time with him/her.	.726
Factor 2 : Moral Leadership; % variance : 10,435	
PL15 - My supervisor doesn't take the credit for my achievements and contributions for himself/herself.	.889
PL16 - My supervisor does not take advantage of me for personal gain.	.793
Factor 3 : Authoritarian Leadership; % variance : 15,390	
PL24 - My supervisor scolds us when we can't accomplish our tasks.	.822
PL26 - We have to follow his/her rules to get things done. If not, he/she punishes us severely.	.768
PL22 - I feel pressured when working with him/her.	.762
PL23 - My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates.	.755
Kaiser – Meyer - Olkin value : .910; df: 136	
Bartlett significance value : .000; Chi – square value : 1677.292	

12 items of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) measure were entered into factor analysis. Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) value was found as .924 which is above the accepted value. This result marked the homogeneous structure of the variables and the result of Bartlett Test (.000, Chi-Square: 1656.023, df: 55) showed that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. Only one item (LMX 7) was left out of the analysis that had low factor loading. The remaining items were loaded on one factor explaining 69.098 % of the total variance. Table 4.3 lists the results of the factor analysis for LMX scale. Factor structure of this scale showed difference from the Liden & Maslyn (1998)’s research. Although Liden & Maslyn (1998)’s study identified four dimensions, the analysis for LMX scale in this research yielded only one factor. Therefore, the resulting factor was named as ‘‘LMX’’. Finally, 11 items were left and loaded on one factor.

**Table 4.3** Results of the factor analysis of LMX scale

	Factor loadings
Factor 1 : Leader Member Exchange; % variance : 69,098	
LMX10 - I am impressed with my supervisor’s knowledge of his/her job.	.969
LMX4 - My supervisor defends my work actions to a superior, even without complete knowledge of the issue in question.	.954
LMX1 - I like my supervisor very much as a person.	.951
LMX6 - My supervisor would defend me to others in the organization if I made an honest mistake.	.937
LMX9 - I do not mind working my hardest for my supervisor.	.932
LMX8 - I am willing to apply extra efforts, beyond those normally required, to meet my supervisor’s work goals.	.922
LMX3 - My supervisor is a lot of fun to work with.	.921
LMX2 - My supervisor is the kind of person one would like to have as a friend.	.913
LMX5 - My supervisor would come to my defense if I were attacked by others.	.913
LMX11 - I respect my supervisor’s knowledge of and competence on the job.	.884
LMX12 - I admire my supervisor’s professional skills.	.881
Kaiser – Meyer - Olkin value : .924; <i>df</i> : 55	
Bartlett significance value : .000; Chi – square value : 1656.023	

17 items of the Job Stress measure were entered into factor analysis. KMO value was found as .858 which marked the homogeneous structure of the variables and the result of Bartlett Test (.000, Chi-Square: 1004.072, df: 45) values showed that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. After few rotations, 10 items were loaded on two factors explaining 70.823% of the total variance. The results of the factor analysis are given in Table 4.4. Considering the original factors (role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload) that Rizzo et al. (1970) and Beehr et al. (1976) found as a result of their study, the items loaded differently in this study. One factor (role overload) was completely left out of the analysis that had low factor loadings. Therefore, the resulting factors were named as ‘‘role ambiguity’’ and ‘‘role conflict’’.

**Table 4.4** Results of the factor analysis of Job Stress scale

	Factor loadings
Factor 1 : Role Ambiguity ; % variance : 42,402	
JS4 - I know what my responsibilities are.	.910
JS3 - I know that I have divided my time properly.	.870
JS5 - I know exactly what is expected of me.	.865
JS1 - I feel secure about how much authority I have.	.810
JS2 - Clear, planned goals and objectives exist for my job.	.793
JS6 - Explanation is clear of what has to be done.	.740
Factor 2 : Role Conflict ; % variance : 28,421	
JS12 - I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.	.870
JS11 - I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.	.855
JS8 - I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.	.734
JS13 - I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.	.699
Kaiser – Meyer - Olkin value : .858; <i>df</i> : 45	
Bartlett significance value : .000; Chi – square value : 1004.072	

Reliability analyses were conducted for Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange, and Job Stress scales and their subscales. Table 4.5 lists means, standard deviations, and reliability coefficients of scales and subscales.

**Table 4.5** Means, standard deviations, and reliability coefficients of scales and subscales

Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation	Reliability (Alpha)
Paternalistic Leadership (Overall)			.880
Factor 1	3.4516	1.22092	.946
Factor 2	3.6935	1.38333	.802
Factor 3	2.9161	1.08385	.793
Leader Member Exchange (Overall)	3.7114	1.25712	.955
Job Stress (Overall)			.882
Factor 1	2.6710	1.16372	.921
Factor 2	3.6129	1.16782	.820

### 4.3 Correlation Analysis

Before regression analysis, all variables were tested by a Pearson correlation analysis, as shown at Table 4.6, to examine relations between Paternalistic Leadership, Leader Member Exchange and Job Stress. The correlations were significant at  $p < .01$  and  $p < .05$ . Almost all of the correlations were significant at  $p < .01$ . In contrary, one correlation was significant at  $p < .05$ . In addition, no significant relationship is found between authoritarian leadership and role ambiguity.

**Table 4.6** Inter correlation Matrix of All Variables (Pearson)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Benevolent Leadership (BL)	1					
Moral Leadership (ML)	.549**	1				
Authoritarian Leadership (AL)	-.210**	-.171*	1			
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	.826**	.500**	-.266**	1		
Role Ambiguity (RA)	-.634**	-.453**	.156	-.720**	1	
Role Conflict (RC)	-.468**	-.393**	.383**	-.410**	.385**	1

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The Pearson correlation analysis indicates that;

Benevolent Leadership (BL), Moral leadership (ML) and Leader Member Exchange (LMX) are *positively and significantly*,

Authoritarian Leadership (AL) and Role Conflict (RC) are *positively and significantly*,

Authoritarian Leadership (AL) and Leader Member Exchange (LMX) are *negatively and significantly*,

Benevolent Leadership (BL), Moral Leadership (ML) and Job Stress (Role Ambiguity [RA] and Role Conflict [RC]) are *negatively and significantly*,

Leader Member Exchange (LMX) and Job Stress (Role Ambiguity [RA] and Role Conflict [RC]) are *negatively and significantly*,

Authoritarian Leadership (AL) and Role Ambiguity (RA) are *positively related*.

For further analysis, regression analysis is used to test all hypotheses.

#### 4.4 Regression Analysis

In order to test H<sub>1</sub> stating that “*There is a significant relationship between Paternalistic Leadership styles and Leader-Member Exchange Theory*” multiple regression analysis is performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.7. The results of the multiple regression analysis showed that Benevolent Leadership (BL) and Authoritarian Leadership (AL) factors (first and third factors of PL) explained the variance in LMX factor (beta = .806; beta = -.098). BL factor explained the majority of the variance. It was found that, two dimensions of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent and Authoritarian Leadership) vigorously explained Leader Member Exchange in the model. ( $R = .832$ ;  $R^2 = .692$ ;  $F$  value = 170.869;  $p$  value = .000) Consequently, the first hypothesis is partially supported.

**Table 4.7** Multiple regression analysis with PL and LMX

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Leader Member Exchange			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.1 (BL)	.806	17.512	.000
Paternalistic Leadership fac.3 (AL)	-.098	-2.12	.036
R = .832; R <sup>2</sup> = .692; F value = 170.869 ; p value = .000			

With the purpose of test H<sub>1a</sub> stating that “*There is a positive relationship between Benevolent Paternalistic Leadership style and Leader-Member Exchange Theory.*” Simple regression analysis is performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.8. The results of the simple regression analysis showed that Benevolent Leadership (BL) factor (first factor of PL) explained the variance in LMX factor. (Beta = .826 ;) It was found that, this aspect of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent Leadership) vigorously explained Leader Member Exchange in this model. ( $R = .826$ ;  $R^2 = .683$ ;  $F$  value = 329.712;  $p$  value = .000) Consequently, the second hypothesis is totally supported.

For H<sub>1b</sub> stating that “*There is a positive relationship between Moral Paternalistic Leadership style and Leader-Member Exchange theory.*” Simple regression analysis is performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.8. The results of the simple regression analysis showed that Moral Leadership (BL) factor (second factor of PL) explained the variance in LMX factor. (Beta = .500 ;) It was found that, this aspect of the Paternalistic Leadership (Moral Leadership) normally explained Leader Member Exchange in this model. ( $R = .500$ ;  $R^2 = .250$ ;  $F$  value = 51.026;  $p$  value = .000) Consequently, the third hypothesis is totally supported.

For H<sub>1c</sub> stating that “*There is a negative relationship between Authoritarian Paternalistic Leadership style and Leader-Member Exchange Theory.*” Simple regression analysis is performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.8. The results of the simple regression analysis showed that Authoritarian Leadership (AL) factor (third factor of PL) explained the variance in LMX factor. (Beta = -.266 ;) It was found that, this aspect of the Paternalistic Leadership (Authoritarian Leadership) normally explained Leader Member Exchange in this model. ( $R = .266$ ;  $R^2 = .071$ ;  $F$  value = 11.693;  $p$  value = .001) Consequently, the fourth hypothesis is totally supported.

**Table 4.8** Simple regression analysis with PL and LMX

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Leader Member Exchange			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.1 (BL)	.826	18.158	.000
$R = .826$ ; $R^2 = .683$ ; $F$ value = 329.712 ; $p$ value = .000			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.2 (ML)	.500	7.143	.000
$R = .500$ ; $R^2 = .250$ ; $F$ value = 51.026 ; $p$ value = .000			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.3 (AL)	-.266	16.412	.000
$R = .266$ ; $R^2 = .071$ ; $F$ value = 11.693 ; $p$ value = .001			

In order to test H<sub>2</sub> stating that “*There is a significant relationship between Paternalistic Leadership styles and Job Stress levels of workers.*” Two multiple regression analysis are performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.9 and 4.10. Initially, the results of the first multiple regression analysis showed that Benevolent Leadership (BL) and Moral Leadership (ML) factors (first and second factors of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 1 (RA) (beta = -.552; beta = -.150). BL factor explained the majority of the variance. It was found that, two dimensions of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent and Moral Leadership) normally explained Job Stress factor 1 (RA) in the first model. ( $R = .647$ ;  $R^2 = .418$ ;  $F$  value = 54.601;  $p$  value = .000)

**Table 4.9** Multiple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.1 (RA)

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Job Stress fac.1 (RA)			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.1 (BL)	-.552	-7.457	.000
Paternalistic Leadership fac.2 (ML)	-.150	-2.028	.044
$R = .647$ ; $R^2 = .418$ ; $F$ value = 54.601 ; $p$ value = .000			

In addition, the results of the second multiple regression analysis showed that Benevolent Leadership (BL), Moral Leadership (ML) and Authoritarian Leadership (AL) factors (all factors of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 2 (RC) (beta = -.313; beta = -.172; beta = .288 ). BL factor explained the majority of the variance. It was found that, all aspects of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent, Moral and Authoritarian Leadership) normally explained Job Stress factor 2 (RC) in the second model. ( $R = .570$ ;  $R^2 = .325$ ;  $F$  value = 24.203;  $p$  value = .000) Consequently, the fifth hypothesis is partially supported.

**Table 4.10** Multiple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.2 (RC)

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Job Stress fac.2 (RC)			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.1 (BL)	-.313	-3.877	.000
Paternalistic Leadership fac.2 (ML)	-.172	-2.149	.033
Paternalistic Leadership fac.3 (AL)	.288	4.200	.000
$R = .570; R^2 = .325; F \text{ value} = 24.203; p \text{ value} = .000$			

With the aim of test H<sub>2a</sub> stating that “*There is a negative relationship between Benevolent Paternalistic Leadership style and Job Stress levels of workers.*” Two simple regression analysis are performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.11 and 4.12. Initially, the results of the first simple regression analysis showed that Benevolent Leadership (BL) factor (first factor of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 1 (RA). (beta = -.634;) + ( $R = .634; R^2 = .402; F \text{ value} = 102.992; p \text{ value} = .000$ ) Additionally, the results of the second simple regression analysis showed that Benevolent Leadership (BL) factor (first factor of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 2 (RC). (Beta = -.468 ;) + ( $R = .468; R^2 = .219; F \text{ value} = 42.939; p \text{ value} = .000$ ) It was found that, this dimension of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent Leadership) normally explained Job Stress [factor 1 (RA) + factor 2 (RC)] in this model. Consequently, the sixth hypothesis is partially supported.

**Table 4.11** Simple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.1 (RA)

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Job Stress fac.1 (RA)			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.1 (BL)	-.634	-10.149	.000
$R = .634; R^2 = .402; F \text{ value} = 102.992; p \text{ value} = .000$			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.2 (ML)	-.453	-6.285	.000
$R = .453; R^2 = .205; F \text{ value} = 39.497; p \text{ value} = .000$			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.3 (AL)	.156	1.959	.052
$R = .156; R^2 = .024; F \text{ value} = 3.839; p \text{ value} = .052$			

For H<sub>2b</sub> stating that “*There is a negative relationship between Moral Paternalistic Leadership style and Job Stress levels of workers.*” two simple regression analysis are performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.11 and 4.12. Initially, the results of the first simple regression analysis showed that Moral Leadership (ML) factor (second factor of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 1 (RA). (Beta = -.453 ;) + ( $R = .453; R^2 = .205; F \text{ value} = 39.497; p \text{ value} = .000$ ).

Additionally, the results of the second simple regression analysis showed that Moral Leadership (ML) factor (second factor of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 2 (RC). (Beta = -.393 ; ) + ( $R = .393$ ;  $R^2 = .155$ ;  $F$  value = 28.025;  $p$  value = .000) It was found that, this aspect of the Paternalistic Leadership (Moral Leadership) normally explained Job Stress [factor 1 (RA) + factor 2 (RC)] in this model. Consequently, the seventh hypothesis is partially supported.

**Table 4.12** Simple regression analysis with PL and Job Stress fac.2 (RC)

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Job Stress fac.2 (RC)			
Paternalistic Leadership fac.1 (BL) $R = .468$ ; $R^2 = .219$ ; $F$ value = 42.939 ; $p$ value = .000	-.468	-6.553	.000
Paternalistic Leadership fac.2 (ML) $R = .393$ ; $R^2 = .155$ ; $F$ value = 28.025 ; $p$ value = .000	-.393	-5.294	.000
Paternalistic Leadership fac.3 (AL) $R = .383$ ; $R^2 = .147$ ; $F$ value = 26.301; $p$ value = .000	.383	5.128	.000

For  $H_{2c}$  stating that “*There is a positive relationship between Authoritarian Paternalistic Leadership style and Job Stress levels of workers.*” two simple regression analysis are performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.11 and 4.12. The results of the second simple regression analysis showed that Authoritarian Leadership (AL) factor (third factor of PL) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 2 (RC). (beta = .383;) + ( $R = .383$ ;  $R^2 = .147$ ;  $F$  value = 26.301;  $p$  value = .000) It was found that, this aspect of the Paternalistic Leadership (Authoritarian Leadership) explained only Job Stress factor 2 (RC) in this model. Consequently, the eighth hypothesis is partially supported.

With the purpose of test  $H_3$  stating that “*There is a significant relationship between Leader-Member Exchange Theory and Job Stress levels of workers.*” two simple regression analysis are performed. The results are tabulated in Table 4.13. Initially, the results of the first simple regression analysis showed that Leader Member Exchange factor (LMX) vigorously explained the variance in Job Stress factor 1 (RA). (Beta = -.720 ; ) + ( $R = .720$ ;  $R^2 = .519$ ;  $F$  value = 165.039;  $p$  value = .000). Additionally, the results of the second simple regression analysis showed that Leader Member Exchange factor (LMX) explained the variance in Job Stress factor 2 (RC). (Beta = -.410 ; ) + ( $R = .410$ ;  $R^2 = .168$ ;  $F$  value = 30.921;  $p$  value = .000)

It was found that, Leader Member Exchange factor (LMX) normally explained Job Stress [factor 1 (RA) + factor 2 (RC)] in this model. Consequently, the ninth hypothesis is partially supported.

**Table 4.13** Simple regression analysis with LMX, Job Stress fac.1 (RA) and Job Stress fac.2 (RC)

Independent Variables	Beta	t value	p value
Dependent variable : Job Stress fac.1 (RA)			
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	-.720	-12.847	.000
$R = .720$ ; $R^2 = .519$ ; $F$ value = 165.039 ; $p$ value = .000			
Dependent variable : Job Stress fac.2 (RC)			
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	-.410	-5.561	.000
$R = .410$ ; $R^2 = .168$ ; $F$ value = 30.921 ; $p$ value = .000			

#### 4.5 Independent T - Tests

After the T - test which was done for comparison of perception levels of Benevolent Leadership (BL) between female and male workers, it was found that outcomes associated with perception levels are different. ( $t = -5.742$ ;  $p = .000$ ;) The results are shown in Table 4.14. Accordingly, when averages were observed, perception levels of male workers were greater than female workers' perception levels. ( $\mu_{\text{female}} = 2.7107$ ;  $sd = .92487$ ;  $\mu_{\text{male}} = 3.7453$ ;  $sd = 1.20248$ )

**Table 4.14** Independent T – Test results of participants' gender (BL)

	N	Mean	S. Deviation	t value	p value
Benevolent Leadership (BL)	Female	44	2.7107	-5.742	.000
	Male	111	3.7453		

For comparison of perception levels of Authoritarian Leadership (AL) between female and male workers, it was found that outcomes related to perception levels are different. ( $t = 2.410$ ;  $p = .017$ ;) The results are shown in Table 4.15. Accordingly, when averages were observed, perception levels of female workers were greater than male workers' perception levels. ( $\mu_{\text{female}} = 3.2443$ ;  $sd = 1.08704$ ;  $\mu_{\text{male}} = 2.7860$ ;  $sd = 1.05951$ )

**Table 4.15** Independent T – Test results of participants' gender (AL)

		N	Mean	S. Deviation	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Authoritarian Leadership (AL)	Female	44	3.2443	1.08704	2.410	.017
	Male	111	2.7860	1.05951		

For comparison of perception levels of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) between female and male workers, it was found that outcomes associated with perception levels are different. ( $t = -4.813$  ;  $p = .000$ ;) The results are shown in Table 4.16. Accordingly, when averages were observed, perception levels of male workers were greater than female workers' perception levels. ( $\mu_{\text{female}} = 2.9897$ ;  $sd = 1.17017$ ;  $\mu_{\text{male}} = 3.9975$ ;  $sd = 1.17739$ )

**Table 4.16** Independent T – Test results of participants' gender (LMX)

		N	Mean	S. Deviation	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	Female	44	2.9897	1.17017	-4.813	.000
	Male	111	3.9975	1.17739		

For comparison of perception levels of Role Ambiguity (RA) between female and male workers, it was found that outcomes related to perception levels are different. ( $t = 3.541$  ;  $p = .001$ ;) The results are shown in Table 4.17. Accordingly, when averages were observed, perception levels of female workers were greater than male workers' perception levels. ( $\mu_{\text{female}} = 3.1780$ ;  $sd = 1.24067$ ;  $\mu_{\text{male}} = 2.4700$ ;  $sd = 1.07266$ )

**Table 4.17** Independent T – Test results of participants' gender (RA)

		N	Mean	S. Deviation	<i>t</i> value	<i>p</i> value
Role Ambiguity (RA)	Female	44	3.1780	1.24067	3.541	.001
	Male	111	2.4700	1.07266		

Moreover, after the T - test which was done for comparison of perception levels of Authoritarian Leadership (AL) between employees working with female or male supervisors, it was found that outcomes associated with perception levels are different. ( $t = 2.913; p = .004$ ;) The results are shown in Table 4.18. Accordingly, when averages were observed, perception levels of employees working with female supervisors were greater than employees working with male supervisors. ( $\mu_{\text{female}} = 4.4375; sd = 1.12500; \mu_{\text{male}} = 2.8758; sd = 1.05707$ )

**Table 4.18** Independent T – Test results of participants’ gender of participants (AL)

		N	Mean	S. Deviation	t value	p value
Authoritarian Leadership (AL)	Female	4	4.4375	1.12500	2.913	.004
	Male	151	2.8758	1.05707		

For comparison of perception levels of Leader Member Exchange (LMX) between employees working with female or male supervisors, it was found that outcomes associated with perception levels are different. ( $t = -2.123; p = .035$ ;) The results are shown in Table 4.19. Accordingly, when averages were observed, perception levels of employees working with male supervisors were greater than employees working with female supervisors. ( $\mu_{\text{female}} = 2.4091; sd = .63636; \mu_{\text{male}} = 3.7459; sd = 1.25219$ )

**Table 4.19** Independent T – Test results of participants’ gender of participants (LMX)

		N	Mean	S. Deviation	t value	p value
Leader Member Exchange (LMX)	Female	4	2.4091	.63636	-2.123	.035
	Male	151	3.7459	1.25219		

## CHAPTER 5

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As its goal, this research intends to examine the impact of Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent, Moral and Authoritarian Leadership styles) on Leader Member Exchange. This is conducted in accordance with four dimensions of LMX – namely, Affect, Loyalty, Contribution and Professional Respect, employed by members of both in- and out-groups in assessment LMX relationship quality with their manager or supervisor. The study also investigates the impact of Paternalistic Leadership on Job Stress using key Role Stressors - Role Ambiguity, Role Conflict and Role Overload. A final objective of this research is to investigate how Leader Member Exchange may specifically impact Job Stress (role stressors).

The study results show that;

There is a significant relationship between PL and LMX,

There is a significant relationship between PL and JS,

There is a significant relationship between LMX and JS.

The results of analysis showed that, *“There is a positive and significant relationship between Benevolent Leadership (BL) and Leader Member Exchange (LMX)”*. The behaviour of benevolent leaders may influence the work behaviours of both employees and managers. Shi-en attitudes are considered a type of social investment that may promote the gratitude and returning the favour. As such leadership attitudes are personalised, and holistic with a long-term orientation, group members may feel obliged to managers, which will strengthen the emotional connection to the manager. Group members will attempt to return the favour in earnest and commit themselves in the interest of serving the manager, reflecting loyalty to the leader. Furthermore, group members will increase their contributory efforts to deliver enhanced performance in response to shi-en attitudes exhibited by a manager, which is advantageous to high quality LMX relationships. According to Wang (2003), benevolent leadership exerts a positive effect on levels of trust amongst employees in a manager, which in turn has repercussions for administrative satisfaction. In addition, Cheng (1999) suggests a positive association exists between the shi-en attitudes held by a manager and the level of commitment and loyalty of group members to the manager.

Hsu et al. (2002) applied the employee categorisation model to demonstrate a significant, positive association between managerial categorisation criteria for example, guanxi, loyalty and competence and concern for group members. Chan and Mak (2011) argue that under a concept similar to LMX differentiation, benevolent managers picture unique dyadic relationships with group members of the same work team. Such a notion implies that the contributions and interests of the group members may play a significant role in the variation in the benevolence of a manager. An imbalance may exist in the quality exchange and benefits of individualised care and welfare of the work family in the work place from the perspective of group members by a manager with a non-benevolent approach to leadership. From this perspective, the more often exchanges take place and the broader the scope of the exchange, the increased likelihood of high quality LMX relationships.

The results of analysis showed that, “*There is a positive and significant relationship between Moral Leadership (ML) and Leader Member Exchange (LMX)*”. Under supervisor commitment theory, when the attitudes of leaders are compatible with the value patterns of group members, the theory predicts that group members will adopt the attitudes and behaviours of the manager. According to Zhao and Bo (2007) group members are likely internalise their values as a result of the tendency to associate with managers who exercise moral leadership and to demonstrate respect and identify with moral supervisors. Under LMX, the shuh-der attitudes of the supervisor may be considered as beneficial offers, which may encourage group members to model their own behaviour on that of the supervisor for example, unselfishness and altruism. In addition, group member access to job-related and information and necessary resources is improved under the leadership of a moral supervisor.

The level of group member trust and respect for a supervisor has a direct association with the integrity and consistency of attitude of the supervisor. The higher the degree of trust, the higher the probability that high quality LMX relationships will be formed. Interpersonal attraction forms the basis for LMX relationships between moral leaders and group members. Research conducted by Cheng (1999), Wang (2003) and Cheng (2006) investigating the efficiency of PL, indicates a positive association between moral leadership and levels of affection. Loyalty and commitment of group members. Contemporary society is characterised by the preference of individuals to identify with a manager exercising individual virtues and self-discipline.

The results of analysis showed that, “*There is a negative and significant relationship between Authoritarian Leadership (AL) and Leader Member Exchange (LMX)*”. Previous research has proposed that authoritarian leadership has negative influences on several dimensions of LMX relationships.

Those exercising authoritarian leadership in the workplace conduct themselves in the manner of a father as the head of a family. According to Zhao and Bo (2007), the exercising of such authority is intended to elicit a display of total obedience and compliance in alignment with role-based norms. Bargaining with and opposition to authoritarian supervisors is not permitted. The intention of authoritarian leadership is to instil fear as a route to establishing trust, respect and loyalty. In such an environment, the supervisor controls and monitors access to information and all necessary resources.

Decision-making, performance appraisals and reward distribution are controlled by the supervisor under an authoritarian approach to leadership, with group members’ opportunities to communicate with the supervisor limited, which has an impact on team performance. Imbalanced and inequitable are the hallmarks of exchanges between the vertical dyads. Early research indicates there are several dimensions of LMX relationships that are adversely affected by authoritarian leadership.

Cheng, Chou and Farh (2000) and Cheng (1999) proposed the degree of trust extended to an authoritarian leader by group members may be adversely affected by the li-wei attitudes of the supervisor. According to Wu et al. (2002), an authoritarian approach to leadership promoted feelings of anger amongst group members. Zhao (2005) notes an authoritarian approach may contribute to psychological stress.

The results of analysis showed that, “*There is a significant relationship between Paternalistic Leadership styles and Leader-Member Exchange Theory*”. Paternalistic leadership affects followers' responses and attitudes (Farh et al., 2004). It was found that, two dimensions of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent and Authoritarian Leadership) have a significantly relationship with Leader Member Exchange in this study. The attitudes of both manager and group member have an influence on the development of LMX relationships.

Vertical dyads are required to adapt so as to meet the requirements of particular norm-based roles. Facilitation of the development of high quality exchange relationships occurs when both parties identify with the values, behaviours and attitudes of the other party. Zhao and Bo (2007) point out in comparison, manager and group member low quality relationships have limited interaction, with the majority of interaction based on contractual obligation.

The results of analysis showed that, *“There is a negative and significant relationship between Benevolent Leadership (BL) and Job Stress (RA)”* and *“There is a negative and significant relationship between Benevolent Leadership (BL) and Job Stress (RC)”*. A key aspect of a benevolent paternalistic style of leadership is an individualised, holistic concern for the wellbeing of group members by the manager and is suggestive of a degree of managerial respect, care and concern for group members and the provision of adequate support. There is a close connection between job viability and job stress. Social corruption is often introduced by way of problematic relationships between managers, employees and colleagues in many forms including bullying, violence and intimidation, prejudice, lack of managerial support, harassment, unnatural social or physical workplace separation and other problematic deviations. Dillard and Fritz (1995, p. 12) argue such problematic relations may produce a spectrum of outcomes, from passive to active dislike, animosity, lack of respect, detrimental interactions and others in the workplace. Reasons such negative outcomes may occur include job stress, employee burnout, personal injury and high employee turnover that translates into loss of organisational and employee income.

According to Harvey and Evans (1995) and Neubauer and Lank (1998), a benevolent approach to leadership is intended to establish high levels of trust, mutual support and open channels of communication. Chirico et al. (2012) may have a positive impact on value creation and development of dynamic abilities. An influential association has been demonstrated between cohesiveness and commitment, due to the promotion of a group member’s identification with the organisation through the individualised care approach adopted by a benevolent manager. Furthermore, benevolent leadership encourages employees to form emotional bonds and has an impact on employee decisions and rationalisation of the cost of leaving the organisation. According to Rehman and Afsar (2012) in this manner, employees perceive benevolent managers as the bond that ties the employee to the organisation.

The results of analysis showed that, “*There is a negative and significant relationship between Moral Leadership (ML) and Job Stress (RA)*” and “*There is a negative and significant relationship between Moral Leadership (ML) and Job Stress (RC)*”. Job stress may be positively or negatively affected by the organisational environment and organisational structure. Formalisation is a key attribute of the structure of the majority of organisations. Formalisation refers to the degree of standardisation of job roles within the organisation and the degree to which job content is governed by obligations and structure. Babatunde (2013) argues in situations characterised by a high degree of job formalisation, employees are likely to have little autonomy in the fruitful fulfilment of job requirements.

The formalisation of jobs creates a system of stringent procedures and engagement obligations, which may contribute to the increased possibility of employees experiencing job-related stress that originates in an inappropriate locus of control relative to the demands of the job. In a similar manner, the collective experiences of employees and the multifaceted nature of organisational work life influenced the organisational climate. Babatunde (2013) argues this category includes commercial objectives that drive high performance, prioritisation in human resources policy and praxis, type of leadership, job design, technology level of employee engagement, communications systems, motivational circumstances, reward systems, work environment, amongst others.

Cheng et al. (2004) argue organisational climate is positively influenced by a moral approach to leadership. David and Rothstein (2006) note a key aspect of attitudinal integrity involves behaving in manner compatible with psychological engagement and positively impacts the levels of employee satisfaction with the job and manager, as well as positively influencing employee emotional attachment, support and commitment to the organisation. Trevino et al. (1998) argue that an organisational climate with a high degree of morality and integrity facilitates a positive perception of moral leaders as inspiring moral values, ethical standards, trust and mutual support with the organisation.

Colligan and Higgins (2005) point out problems arise when employees are “stuck” in an organisation with limited or absent opportunities for career progression. This type of environment has a negative impact on employee sense of wellbeing and job commitment.

According to Kanungo and Mendonca (1996), a moral approach to leadership supports the empowerment of employees by the manager. Objective feedback regarding employee career development is provided by moral managers to employees. According to Lansberg and Astrachan (1994), a complementary attitude of mutual respect and understanding can facilitate simplification of the employee commitment to the organisation and self-efficacy.

The results analysis showed that, “*There is a positive and significant relationship between Authoritarian Leadership (AL) and Job Stress (RC)*”. Barnett and Vaicys (2000) emphasise organisational climate is impacted by the norms, standards and duties imposed by company policy, procedures, praxis and reward distribution systems. Job stress may have a positive or negative impact on organisational climate, depending on the approach adopted to leadership. A negative and weak association was found between authoritarian leadership and a supportive organisational climate. Managers adopting an authoritarian approach fail to simplify processes for the transferral of knowledge, skills and competencies to group members.

Furthermore, Trevino, Butterfield, and McCabe (1998) note a negative association between commitment and support and an authoritarian approach to leadership. Such an approach to leadership is based on obsessiveness and the centralisation of decision-making, which results in a lack of delegation and limits the ability of employees to contribute. Huse (2010) argues under an authoritarian approach to leadership, managers assume that they know what is best for both the organisation and employees. Obstructing employee career development creates problems associated with job stress. Harvey and Evans (1995) point out authoritarian managers may centralise decision-making processes to an extreme and thereby trigger social unrest within the organisation.

The results analysis showed that, “*There is a significant relationship between Paternalistic Leadership styles and Job Stress levels of workers*”. Researchers are increasingly concerned job stress associated with particular approaches to leadership due to the implications for both the organisation and its employees of certain leadership styles. Babatunde (2013) argues such individuals often subject to job stress that occurs as a result of role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. It was found that, two dimensions of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent and Authoritarian Leadership) have a significantly relationship with Job Stress (RA).

Additionally, all dimensions of the Paternalistic Leadership (Benevolent, Moral and Authoritarian Leadership) have a significantly relationship with Job Stress (RC). Benevolent and moral paternalism can be particularly useful for organizations because they consider both the rights and feelings of employees and govern by guidance rather than control.

The results of analysis showed that, *“There is a significant relationship between Leader-Member Exchange Theory and Job Stress levels of workers”*. According to Gerstner and Day (1997), Snyder and Brunning (1985), Tanner et al. (1993) and Tordera et al. (2008), the majority of empirical evidence produced by LMX research to date supports a negative linear association between LMX and role ambiguity, role conflict and role overload. In other words, where higher quality levels of LMX are found, there is a tendency for them to be accompanied by low levels of perceived role stressors.

The justification for a negative linear rationale is based on communication and both quality and quantity of resources involved in an exchange. Tanner and Castleberry (1990) and Tanner et al. (1993) argue for example, there may be less communication in terms of quality and quantity in low quality LMX quality relationships, resulting in decreased information flow, feedback, coordination and support between both parties. Less communication results in perceived role conflict and role ambiguity by employees. In addition to including communication, resources also refers to factors such as time, contributions and desirable job tasks. Nelson et al. (1998) and Tordera et al. (2008) argue access to a greater number of resources may result in higher quality LMX relationships and less experience of role stressors.

Through T – Test applications which were done for comparison of perception levels for all variables between female and male workers, several significant outcomes were found that; perception levels of male workers were greater than female workers’ perception levels for BL and LMX. On the other hand, perception levels of female workers were greater than male workers’ perception levels for AL and RA. In addition that, employees working with female or male supervisors are compared according to their perceptions for each variable by researcher and some results of T - Test are significant; perception levels of employees working with female supervisors were greater than employees working with male supervisors for AL. Also, perception levels of employees working with male supervisors were greater than employees working with female supervisors for LMX. It is possible that, different results may be found with different sample distributions and sizes for other organizations.

## **5.1 Limitations of the Study**

The most significant limitation of the study is sample size, which restricted the ability to generalise the study results. A survey was adopted as the method of data collection for both the independent and dependent variables from the same source. Subsequently, this may produce an issue of same source bias or common method variance.

In addition, the study sample incorporated respondents recruited from a public organisation and a private organisation. The public company from which data was collected is located in Istanbul and the private company was a manufacturer in Izmir. As a result, this further limits the generalizability of the study results beyond the cultural boundaries of Turkey. Farh, Leung and Law (1998), Hofstede (1994), Westwood (1997), Farh, Earley, and Lin (1997) and Farh, Podsakoff and Cheng (1987) demonstrated a potential variation of leadership across cultures. Consequently, it may be expected that different cultures may produce different results. Despite the limitations mentioned, this research provides a significant contribution to Turkish managerial literature and praxis.

## **5.2 Suggestions for Future Research**

Several recommendations and suggestions have been identified as potential areas for future research. PL has gained traction in academic circles during the last ten years, nevertheless, more research into the field is required. This is particularly true with regards to further research in the context of Eastern culture, which can provide fruitful results. This may contribute to the expansion of theoretical understanding of a paternalistic approach to leadership and may also contribute to development of practical applications that can be applied by different type of organisation to achieve and maintain competitive advantage.

The perspective of the subordinate employee was adopted as the perspective for measurement of Paternalistic Leadership and LMX. The recommendation for future research is for evaluation and analysis of the variables to be carried out from the perspectives of both the manager and the group member, so as to investigate the presence of an influence of the measurement perspective on the relationship between PL and LMX.

This research study represents the first of its kind in Turkey – that is the first empirical study investigating the relationship between a paternalistic style of leadership and job stress, however there remain a number of questions that require investigation. An example is the increasingly diverse character of the Turkish labour market, which may give rise to cultural differences in perceptions of paternalism that may influence job stress and attitudes towards jobs, such as organisational behaviour and rates of staff turnover. In addition, there is a global trend of an increasing number of women entering the workforce, which suggests a potential area of research may be to analyse whether there is a significant or moderating relationship between gender and the effectiveness of adoption of a paternalistic approach to leadership.

A final note regarding the study results is that the results reflect a cross-sectional picture of how differing quality levels across LMX relationships are associated with role stressors. An interesting development centres on whether there are similar patterns that exist from the evolutionary perspective of the development of LMX and its correlation with changes in the levels of role stress. A dynamic picture of the association linking LMX development and role stressors may be created using repeated measures of relationship definition, role definitions and role stressors over time. Future research in these areas will also contribute to the existing body of academic work on the influence of PL in LMX and job stress.

### **5.3 Managerial Implications**

The results of this study suggest adoption of an authoritarian approach to leadership has an adverse effect on the psychological status of employees as well as work performance. More effective and efficient management of Turkish employees does not require adoption of an authoritarian approach to leadership and does not represent nor elicit the ideal in terms of organisational behaviour. Exercising appropriate leadership behaviours is of critical importance to the improvement of employee work performance. Cheng et al. (2004) produced results that are consistent with the results found in this study and which demonstrate the existence of a negative effect on employee attitudes and exercising an authoritarian approach to leadership. In comparison, adoption of a benevolent approach to leadership has been shown to have a positive effect on interactions with employees and job performance. The study results can be extended to assisting general management to develop insight into the significance and importance of the psychological aspects associated with work and organisational behaviour in the improvement of performance.

In terms of PL and LMX, the study results are of relevance to human resources professionals and organisational development. The results indicate support for exercising specific leadership behaviours, which is carried out in the process of training and development, may contribute to more effective management of employees by human resources professionals. It is common for a human resources role to include aspects developing and appropriately leveraging managerial expertise in leadership assessment and development, coaching of executives, management skills training and placement. It is recommended that relevant training programmes are implemented to facilitate career progression and development of managers and interaction with practising leaders.

Considerate behaviour by managers such as coaching and training and the provision of timely feedback may support employees in managing roles and reducing role stressors. Such behaviour may promote a cycle of positivity that facilitates higher quality LMX and an enhanced work environment with a decrease in employee exposure to role stressors.

Proactive interventions to prevent job stress have become necessary implementations within the structural context of work, such as job control, work schedules, staffing levels, physical work environment and organisational structure, along with consideration of the psychological status of employees and factors that contribute to a healthy psyche including commitment to the job, psychological support, employee engagement and affective wellbeing initiatives.

Moreover, better organisational outcomes may also be achieved through effective strategic implementation of managerial stress awareness training, adjustments to workload, identification of hazards, and development of social structures, moderate stress effects and clarification of roles. The differences between individual physical, psychological and contextual situations should be incorporated into working conditions. Development of the psychological capital of employees in the areas of self-efficacy, hope, trust, optimism and resilience, is proposed as essential to organisational status, competitive advantage and performance in the contemporary business landscape.

## **REFERENCES**

## REFERENCES

A.A. Zhao. The Association between Paternalistic Leadership in Taiwanese Organizations and Employees' Stress. Taipei: Sun Yat-sen University, 2005. (In Chinese)

Abu Bakar, Hassan, Mustaffa, Che Su & Mohamad, Bahtiar (2009). LMX quality, supervisory communication and team-oriented commitment: A multilevel analysis approach. *Corporate Communications: An International Journal*, Vol. 14 No. 1, pp. 11-33.

AbuAlRub, R. F. (2004). Job stress, job performance and social support among hospital nurses. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship*, 36 (91), 73-78.

Aycan, Z. (2006). Paternalism: Towards conceptual refinement and operationalization. In K. S. Yang, K. K. Hwang, & U. Kim (Eds.), *scientific advances in indigenous psychologies: Empirical, philosophical, and cultural contributions* (pp. 445–466). London: Sage Inc.

Aycan, Z., Kanungo, R. N., Mendonca, M., Yu, K., Deller, J., Stahl, G., et al. (2000). Impact of culture on human resource management practices: A ten country comparison. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 49(1), 192–220.

Babatunde, A. (2013) Occupational Stress: A Review on Conceptualizations, Causes and Cure. *Economic Insights – Trends and Challenges*, Vol. II (LXV) No.3/2013, p.73-80.

Barnett, T., & Vaicys, C. (2000). The moderating effect of individuals' perceptions of ethical work climate on ethical judgments and behavioral intentions. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 27(4), 351–362.

Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bass, B. M. 1985. *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. 1990. Bass and Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research and Managerial Expectations (3rd Ed). New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. 1998. Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and educational impact. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Basu, R. & Green, S. G. (1997). Leader-member exchange and transformational leadership: An empirical examination of innovative behaviors in leader-member dyads. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, Vol. 27, pp. 477-99.

Bauer, T. N., & Green, S. G. (1996). The development of leader-member exchange: A longitudinal test. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 1538-1567.

Beehr, T. A., Walsh, J. T., & Taber, T. D. (1976). Relationship of stress to individually and organizationally valued states: Higher order needs as a moderator. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 61, 41-47.

Bhal, K. T., Gulati, N. & Ansari, M. A. (2009). Leader-member exchange and subordinate outcomes: Test of a mediation model, *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 30 No. 2, 2009 pp. 106-125.

Bing, S. (2004). Sun Tzu was a sissy: Conquer your enemies, promote your friends, and wage the real art of war. New York: HarperCollins.

Blake, R. R. & Mouton, J. S. (1964). *The managerial grid*, Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.

Blau, P. (1964). *Exchange and power in social life*. New York: Wiley.

Bono, J., & Judge, T. 2003. Self-concordance at work: toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46: 554-571.

Brown, M.E. and Trevino, L.K. (2006). Ethical leadership: A review and future directions. *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 17, pp. 595-616.

Buchanan, D. and Huczynski, A. (2004) *Organizational Behavior: an introductory text (5<sup>th</sup> edition)*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Buckingham, M. & Coffman, C. (2000). *First, break all the rules: What the world's greatest managers do differently*. New York: Simon & Schuster.

Burns, J.M. 1978. *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Cartwright, S., & Cooper, C.L. (1997). *Managing workplace stress*. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

Chan Chi Hong, S. (2007) *Paternalistic Leadership Styles and Follower Performance: Examining mediating variables in a multi-level model*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Hong Kong Polytechnic University.

Chan, S. C. H. & Mak, W.M. (2011). Benevolent leadership and follower performance: The mediating role of leader–member exchange (LMX). *Asia Pacific Journal of Management* June 2012, Volume 29, Issue 2, pp 285-301.

Cheng, B. S. & Farh, J. L. 2001. Social orientation in Chinese societies: A comparison of employees from Taiwan and Chinese mainland. *Chinese Journal of Psychology*, 43: 207-221. (In Chinese)

Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F., Huang, M. P., Farh, J. L., & Peng, S. 2003. A triad model of Paternalistic leadership: Evidence from business organization in Mainland China. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 20: 209-252.

Cheng, B. S., Huang, M. P. & Chou, L. F. 2002. Paternalistic leadership and its effectiveness: Evidence from Chinese organizational teams. *Journal of Psychology in Chinese Societies*, 3: 85-112.

Cheng, B. S., Shieh, P. Y. & Chou, L. F. 2002. The principal's leadership, leader-member exchange quality, and the teacher's extra-role behavior: The effects of transformational and paternalistic leadership. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 17: 105-161. (In Chinese)

Cheng, B.S., Chou, L.F., Wu, T.Y., Huang, M.P. & Farh, J.L. 2004. Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model in Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 7: 89-117.

Cheng, B.S., L.F. Chou, and J.L. Farh. A Triad Model of Paternalistic Leadership: The Constructs and Measurement. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 2000, (14): 3-64. (In Chinese)

Cheng, B.S., L.F. Chou, T.Y. Wu, M.P. Huang, and J.L. Farh. Paternalistic Leadership and Subordinate Responses: Establishing a Leadership Model in Chinese Organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 2004, 7(1): 89-117.

Cheng, B.S. Is Traditional Leadership in Chinese Organizations out of Season? <http://www.pkubr.com>, 2006.8. (In Chinese)

Cheng, B.S. Trust between Supervisor and Subordinate in Chinese Business Organizations. *Sociological Studies*, 1999, (2): 22-37. (In Chinese)

Chirico, F., Nordqvist, M., Colombo, G., & Mollona, E. (2012). Simulating dynamic capabilities and value creation in family firms: Is paternalism an “asset” or a “liability”? *Family Business Review*, 25(3), 318–338.

Clarke, S. and Cooper, C. L. (2004). *Managing the risk of workplace stress: Health and safety hazards*. London, Routledge.

Cohen-Charash, Y. & Spector, P. E. (2001). The role of justice in organizations: A meta-analysis. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, Vol. 86, pp. 278– 321.

Colella, A. & Garcia, M.F. (2004). Paternalism: Hidden discrimination? Paper presented at the Academy of Management Meetings, New Orleans, LA.

Colella, A., Garcia, F., Triana, M., & Riedel, L. (2005, August). Measuring paternalism: Opening the door to research. Paper presented at the Academy of Management Annual Meeting, Honolulu, HI.

Colligan, T.W. & Higgins, E.M. (2005). Workplace stress: Etiology and consequences. *Journal of Workplace Health*, 21, 2, pp. 90-97.

Cooper, C. L. & Cartwright, S. (1997). An intervention strategy for workplace stress. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 43, 1, pp. 7-16.

Cox, T., Griffiths, A., Barlowe, C, Randall, K., Thomson, L. and Rial-Gonzalez, E. (2000). *Organizations interventions for work stress: A risk management approach*, Sudbury: HSE books.

Cropanzano, R., & Mitchell, M. S. (2005). Social exchange theory: An interdisciplinary review. *Journal of Management*, 31, 874-900.

Dansereau, F., Graen, G. & Haga, W. (1975). A vertical dyad approach to leadership within formal organizations. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 13 No. 1, pp. 46-78.

Davis, A., & Rothstein, H. (2006). The effects of the perceived behavioral integrity of managers on employee attitudes: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 67, 407–419.

Deluga, R. J. (1994). Supervisor trust building, leader-member exchange and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 67, pp. 315–326.

Dewe, P. & Trenberth, L. (2004). Work stress and coping: Drawing together theory and practice. *British Journal of Guidance and Counselling*, 32, pp. 143-156.

Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader–member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 11, pp. 618– 634.

Dillard, J.P. & Fritz, J. (1995). Interpersonal relationships and organizational performance. Paper presented at Annual Convention of the Western Speech Communication Association, Portland, OR.

Dixon-Kheir, C. (2001). Supervisors are key to keeping young talent. *HR Magazine*, Vol. 46 No. 1, pp. 139-42.

Doll, W. J. (1977). The regulatory mechanisms of Katz & Kahn framework. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, pp. 188-192.

Dorfman, P. W., & Howell, J. P. (1988). Dimensions of national culture and effective leadership patterns: Hofstede revisited. In E. G. McGoun (Ed.), *Advances in international comparative management* (Vol. 3, pp 127-149). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Dubrin, R. (1998). Central life interests and organizational commitment of workers. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 20, 441-421.

Eby, L.T., Casper, W.J., Lockwood, A., Bordeaux, C. & Brinley, A. (2005). Work and family research in IO/OB: Content analysis and review of the literature 1980-2002. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 66, 124-197.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, & P. D. Rhoades, L. (2001). Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 86, pp. 42-51.

Erben, G. S., & Guneser, A. B. (2007). The relationship between paternalistic leadership and organizational commitment: Investigating the role of climate regarding ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 82(4), 955–968.

Erdogan, B., Kraimer, M. L., & Liden, R. C. (2004). Work value congruence and intrinsic career success: The compensatory roles of leader-member exchange and perceived organizational support. *Personnel Psychology*, 57, 305-332.

Erdogan, B., Liden, R. C. & Kraimer, M. L. (2006). Justice and leader-member exchange: The moderating role of organizational culture. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 49, pp. 395-406.

Farh, J. L., & Cheng, B. S. (2000). A cultural analysis of paternalistic leadership in Chinese organizations. In J. T. Li, A. S. Tsui, & E. Weldon (Eds.), *Management and organization in the Chinese context* (pp. 85–127). London: Macmillan.

Farh, J. L., Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F., & Chu, X. P. 2004. Authority and Benevolence: Employees' Responses to Paternalistic Leadership in China. Paper presented at 2004 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management. New Orleans, U.S.A.

Farh, J. L., Earley, P. C. & Lin, S. C. 1997. Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42: 421-44.

Farh, J. L., Leung, F. & Law, K. 1998. On the cross-cultural validity of Holland's model of vocational choices in Hong Kong. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 52: 425-40.

Farh, J. L., Podsakoff, P. M., & Cheng, B. S. 1987. Culture-free leadership effectiveness versus moderators of leadership behavior: An extension and test of Kerr and Jermier's substitutes for leadership model in Taiwan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 18: 43-60.

Fielder, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fisher, C. D., & Gitelson, R. (1983). A meta-analysis of the correlates of role conflict and ambiguity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68, 320-333.

Fox, M., Nilakant, V., & Hamilton, R. T. (1996). Managing succession in family-owned businesses. *International Small Business Journal*, 15(1), 15–25.

Gelfand, M. J., Erez, M., & Aycan, Z. (2007). Cross-cultural organizational behavior. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 58, 479–514.

Genç, M.Ö. (2010). *The Influence of Organizational Culture, Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) and Employees’ Attitudes toward Change on Information Systems Implementations in Turkey*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Yeditepe University, İstanbul.

Gerstner, C. R., & Day, D. V. (1997). Meta-analytic review of leader-member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 827-844.

Glazer, S., & Beehr, T. A. (2005). Consistency of implications of three role stressors across four countries. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26, 467-487.

Goldberg, S. D., & Wooldridge, B. (1993). Self-confidence and managerial autonomy: Successor characteristics critical to succession in family firms. *Family Business Review*, 6, 55-73.

Gouldner, A. W. (1960). The norm of reciprocity: A preliminary statement. *American Sociological Review*, Vol. 5, pp. 161-171.

Graen, G. B. & Cashman, J. F. (1975). A role making model in formal organizations: A developmental approach. In Hunt, J. G. & Larson, L. L. (Eds), *Kent: Leadership Frontiers*, Kent State Press.

Graen, G. B. & Scandura, T.A. (1987), “Toward a psychology of dyadic organizing”, in Staw, B.M. and Cummings, L.C. (Eds), *Research in Organizational Behavior*, JAI Press, New York, NY, pp. 175-209.

Graen, G. B. (1976). Role making processes within complex organization. In M. D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. Chicago: Rand- McNally.

Graen, G. B., & Uhl-Bien, M. (1995). Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly*, 6: 219–247.

Graen, G. B., Liden, R. C., & Hoel, W. (1982). The role of leadership in the employee withdrawal process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 67, pp. 868–872.

Graen, G. B., Wakabayashi, M., Graen, M. R. & Graen, M. G. (1990). International generalizability of American hypotheses about Japanese management progress: A strong inference investigation. *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 1, pp. 1-23.

Greenhaus, J. H., & Beutell, N. J. (1985). Sources of conflict between work and family roles. *Academy of Management Review*, 10, 76–88.

Hackman, J. R. & Oldham, G. R. (1980). *Work redesign*. Readings, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Handler, W. C. (1989). *Managing the family firm succession process; the next-generation family member's experience*. School of Management, Boston University.

Harvey, M., & Evans, R. (1995). Life after succession in the family business: Is it really the end of problems? *Family Business Review*, 8(1), 3–16.

He N., Zhao J. & Archbold C.A. (2002). Gender and police stress: A convergent and divergent impact of work environment, work-family conflict and stress coping mechanism of female and male police officers. *Policing: An International Journal of Police Strategies & Management*, 25(4), 687-708

Henderson, D. J., Liden, R. C., Glibkowski, B. C. & Chaudhry, A. (2009). LMX differentiation: A multilevel review of its antecedents and outcomes. *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 20, No. 4, pp. 517-34.

Hobson, C. J., Kesic, D., & Delunas, L. (2001). A framework for redesigning or finetuning your benefit package — results from a national survey of stressful life events. *Benefits Quarterly* (Third quarter), 46-50.

Hoel, H., Sparks, K. & Cooper, C. L. (2002). The cost of violence/stress at work and the benefits of a violence/stress-free working environment (Vol. 81). Geneva, the International Labor Organization (ILO).

Hofmann, D. A., Morgeson, F. P. & Gerras, S. J. (2003). Climate as a moderator of the relationship between leader-member exchange and content specific citizenship: Safety climate as an exemplar. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 88, No. 1, pp. 170-8.

Hofstede, G. (1980) *Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-Related Values*. Beverly Hills CA: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. (1984). The cultural relativity of the quality of life concept. *Academy of Management Review*, 9(3), 389–398.

Hofstede, G. (1994). *Cultures and organizations: Software of the mind*. London, England: McGraw-Hill.

Hofstede, G. (2001). *Culture's consequences* (2nd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. and Bond, M. H. (1988), "The Confucius Connection: From Cultural Roots to Economic Growth," *Organizational Dynamics*, Vol. 16, No. 4, 4-21.

House, R. J. & Michell, T. R. (1974). Path-goal theory of leadership. *Contemporary Business*, 3, 81-98.

House, R., Hanges, P., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (2004). *Culture, leadership and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

House, R., Hanges, P., Ruiz-Quintanilla, A., Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., & Gupta, V. (1999). Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project GLOBE. In W. Mobley (Ed.), *Advances in global leadership* (pp. 171-233). Stamford, CT: JAI Press.

House, R.J. 1977. A 1976 theory of leadership effectiveness. In J.G. Hunt & L.L. Larson (Eds), *Leadership: The cutting edge* (pp. 189-207). Carbondale: Southern Illinois Press.

Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B.J. 1993. Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78: 891-902.

Hsu, W.L. Cheng, B.S. and Huang, M.P. Supervisors' Employee Categorization and Managerial Behavior in Chinese Business Organizations. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 2002, (18): 51-94. (In Chinese)

Huse, M. (2010). *The value creating board: Corporate governance and organizational behavior*. Routledge Studies in Corporate Governance.

ILO. (2002). *the cost of violence/stress at work and the benefits of a violence/stress-free working environment*. Geneva: International Labor Organization (ILO).

Ismail, A., Hasan, N. A., Chin, Y. F. M., Ismail, Y., & Samah, A. (2013). Job Stress as a Predictor of Employee Health. *Studies in Business and Economics*, 8(2), 20-34.

Ismail, A., Mohamed, H.A., Sulaiman, A.Z., Ismail, Z., & Wan Mahmood, W.N. (2010). Relationship between work stress, coworker's social support, work stress and work interference with family conflict: An empirical study in Malaysia. *International Business Management* 4(2), 76-83.

Jackson, S. E., & Schuler R. S. (1985). A meta-analysis and conceptual critique of research on role ambiguity and role conflict in work settings. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 36, 16-78.

James, K., Chen, D. L., & Cropanzano, R. (1996). Culture and leadership among Taiwanese and U.S. workers: Do values influence leadership ideals? In M. N. Ruderman, M. W. Hughes James, & S. E. Jackson (Eds.), *selected research on work team diversity* (pp. 33-52). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association/Center for Creative Leadership.

Janssen, O. & Van Yperen, N. W. (2004). Employees' goal orientations, the quality of leader-member exchange, and the outcomes of job performance and job satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 47, No. 3, pp. 368–384.

Jenkins, S. R. (1994). Need for power and women's careers over 14 Years – structural job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 86, pp. 80-92

Jex, S. M. (1998). *Stress and job performance: Theory, research, and implications for management practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Jha, S. & Jha, S. (2013). Leader Member Exchange: A Critique of Theory & Practice. *Journal of Management & Public Policy*, Vol. 4, No.2, June 2013.

Kabasakal, H., & Bodur, M. (2007). Leadership and culture in Turkey: A multifaceted phenomenon. In J. S. Chhokar, F. C. Brodbeck, & R. J. House (Eds.), *Culture and leadership across the world: The GLOBE book of in-depth studies of 25 societies* (pp. 835-874). New York, NY: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kacmar, K. M., Harris, K. J. Carlson D. S. & Zivnuska, S. (2009). Surface-level actual similarity vs. deep-level perceived similarity: Predicting leader-member exchange agreement. *Journal of Behavioral & Applied Management*, Vol. 10, No. 3, pp. 315- 334.

Kahn, R. L., & Byosiere, P. (1990). Stress in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette & L. M. Hough (1990). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (Vol. 3, pp. 571-650). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Kahn, R. L., Wolfe, D. M., Quinn, R. P., & Snoek, J. D. (1964). *Organizational stress: Studies in role conflict and ambiguity*. New York, NY: Wiley.

Kang, D. S., & Stewart, J. (2007). Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership and HRD: Development of units of theory and laws of interaction. *Leadership & Organizational Journal*, Vol. 28, No. 6, pp. 531-551.

Kanungo, R. N., & Mendonca, M. (1996). *Ethical dimensions of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Karasek, R. A. (1979). Job demands, job decision latitude and mental strain: Implication for job redesign. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 24, 285-306.

Karasek, R. and Theorell, T. (1990). *Healthy work: Stress, productivity, and the reconstruction of working life*. New York: Basic Books.

Katz, D. & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organization*. (22nd Ed.). New York: Wiley.

Kelloway, E. K., Teed, M. & Kelly, E. (2008). The psychosocial environment: Towards an agenda for research. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 1, 1, pp. 50-64.

Kets de Vries, M. F. R. (1996). *Family Business* (1st Ed.). London: Chapman & Hall.

Kim, U. M. (1994). Significance of paternalism and communalism in the occupational welfare system of Korean firms: A national survey. In U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. Kagitcibasi, S. Choi, & G. Yoon (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications* (pp. 251-266). London, England: Sage.

Kinman, G. & Jones, F. (2008). Effort-reward imbalance, over-commitment and work-life conflict: testing an expanded model. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 23, 3, pp. 236-251.

Korman, A. K. (1970). Toward a hypothesis of work behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 54, pp. 31-41.

Kossek, E. E., Kalliath, T., Kalliath, P. (2012). Achieving employee wellbeing in a changing work environment: an expert commentary on current scholarship. *International Journal of Manpower*, 33, 7, pp. 738-753.

Kotter, J. (1990) 'What leaders really do', *Harvard Business Review*, May-June, p 103-111. Reproduced in Jeffrey Sonnenfeld (1995) *Concepts of Leadership*, Aldershot: Dartmouth Publishing Co. Ltd.

Kotter, J.P. (1990) *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs From Management*. New York: Free Press.

Landry, G. & Vandenberghe, C. (2009). Role of commitment to the supervisor, leader– member exchange, and supervisor-based self-esteem in employee–supervisor conflicts. *Journal of Social Psychology*, Vol. 149, No. 1, pp. 5-27.

Lansberg, I., & Astrachan, J. H. (1994). Influence of family relationships on succession planning and training: The importance of mediating factors. *Family Business Review*, 7(1), 39-59.

Larson, L.L. (2004). Internal auditors and job stress. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 19(9), 1119-1130.

Lazarus, R. S. & Folkman, S. (1984). *Stress: Appraisal and coping*. New York: Springer.

Lewin, K., Lippit, R. & White, R. K. (1953). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimental created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10, pp. 271-299.

Liden, R. C. & Graen, G. B. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 23 No. 3, pp. 451-65.

Liden, R. C., & Maslyn, J. M. (1998). Multidimensionality of leader-member exchange: An empirical assessment through scale development. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 24, pp. 43-72.

Liden, R. C., Graen, G. B. & Hoel, W. (1982). Role of leadership in the employee withdrawal process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 67, No. 6, pp. 662-74.

Liden, R. C., Sparrowe, R. T., & Wayne, S. J. (1997). Leader-Member Exchange theory: The past and potential for the future. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 15, 47-119.

Liden, R. C., Wayne, S. J. & Stilwell, D. (1993). A longitudinal study on the early development of leader-member exchanges. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 78, pp. 662–674.

Liden, R.C., Erdogan, B., Wayne, S.J. & Sparrowe, R.T. (2006) Leader-member exchange, differentiation and task interdependence: implications for individual and group performance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27(6), 723-746.

Likert, R. (1967). *The Human Organization*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book.

Lord, R. G., & Brown, D. J. (2001). Leadership, values, and subordinate self-concepts.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J. & Freiberg, S. J. (1999). Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in the leader/follower relationship. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, Vol. 78, pp. 167–203.

Macey, W. H. & Schneider, B. (2008). The meaning of employee engagement. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, Vol. 1, No. 1, pp. 3-30.

Mahsud, R., Yukl, G. Prussia, G. (2010). Leader empathy, ethical leadership, and relations oriented behaviors as antecedents of leader-member exchange quality. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, Vol. 25, No. 6, pp. 561-577.

Major, V.S, Klein, K.J. & Ehrhart, M.G. (2002). Work time, work interference with family, and psychological distress. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87, 427-436.

Martinez, P. G. (2005). Paternalism as a positive form of leadership in the Latin American context. In M. Elvira & A. Davila (Eds.), *Managing human resources in Latin America: An agenda for international leaders* (pp: 75-93). Oxford, England: Routledge.

Mark, G. M. and Smith, A. P. (2008). Stress models: a review and suggested new direction. In: Houdmont, J. and Leka, S. eds. *Occupational Health Psychology*. Nottingham: Nottingham University Press, pp. 111-144.

Maslyn, J. & Uhl-Bien, M. (2001). Leader-member exchange and its dimensions: Effects of self-effort and other's effort on relationship quality. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 86, pp. 697-708.

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M. & Taylor, M. S. (2000). Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 4, pp. 738-48.

Mazzetti, A. & Blenkinsopp, J. (2012). Evaluating a visual timeline methodology for appraisal and coping research. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 85 (4), pp.649-665.

Mc Vicar, A., Munn - Giddings, C., Seebohm, P. (2013). Workplace stress interventions using participatory action research designs. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 6, 1, pp. 18-37.

McMurry, R. N. (1960). The Case for Benevolent Autocracy. *Business Review*, 36, p 82-90.

Messersmith, J. (2007). Managing work-life conflict among information technology workers. *Human Resource Management*, Wiley Inter Science, 46, 3, pp. 429–451.

Michie, S. (2002). Causes and management of stress at work. *Journal of Occupational and Environmental Medicine*, 59, 1, pp. 67-72.

Miller, D., Steier, L., & Le Breton-Miller, I. (2003). Lost in time: Intergenerational succession, change, and failure in family business. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 18, 513–531.

Miller, K. I., Ellis, B. H., Zook, E. G., & Lyles, J. S. (1990). An integrated model of communication, stress and burnout in the workplace. *Communication Research*, 17, 300-326.

Montgomery, D.C., Blodgett, J.G., & Barnes, J.H. (1996). A model of financial securities sales persons' job stress. *The Journal of Services Marketing* 10(3), 21-34.

Murphy, L. R. (1995). Occupational stress management: Current status and future directions. *Trends in Organizational Behavior*, 2, pp. 1-14.

Mussolino, D. & Calabro, A. (2013) Paternalistic Leadership in Family Firms: Types and Implications for Intergenerational Succession. *Journal of Family Business Strategy*.

Nelson, D., Basu, R., & Purdie, R. (1998). An examination of exchange quality and work stressors in leader–follower dyads. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 5(2), 103-112.

Neubauer, F., & Lank, A. G. (1998). *The family business: Its governance for sustainability*. London: Macmillan.

Nielsen, R. P. (1989). Changing unethical organizational behavior. *Academy of Management Executive*, 3(2), 123–130.

NIOSH. (1999). *Stress at work*. (Publication No. 99–101). Cincinnati, OH: Department of Health and Human Services.

Northouse, P. G. (1997). *Leadership-theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Northouse, P.G. (2004) *Leadership: Theory and Practice (3rd Edition)*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Othman, Rozhan, Fang Ee, Foo & Lay Shi, Ng (2010). Understanding dysfunctional leader member exchange: Antecedents and outcomes. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 31, No. 4, pp. 337-350.

Parry, K.W. & Proctor-Thomson, S.B. 2002. Perceived integrity of transformational leaders in organizational settings. *Journal of Business*, 35: 75-96.

Pasa, S. F., Kabasakal, H., & Bodur, M. (2001). Society, organizations, and leadership in Turkey. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 50, 559-589.

Pellegrini, E. K., & Scandura, T. A. (2006). Leader-member exchange (LMX), paternalism and delegation in the Turkish business culture: An empirical investigation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37(2), 264–279.

Pellegrini, E. K., & Scandura, T. A. (2008). Paternalistic leadership: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Management*, 34, 566–593.

Peterson, M. F., Smith, P. B., Akande, A., Ayestaran, S., Bochner, S., & Callan, Viedge, C. (1995). Role conflict, ambiguity, and overload: A 21-nation study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 429-452.

Podsakoff, P. M., Todor, W. D., & Skov, R. 1982. Effect of leader contingent and non-contingent reward and punishment behaviors on subordinate performance and satisfaction. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 810—821.

Podsakoff, P., Mackenzie, S., Moorman, R., & Fetter, R. 1990. Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Leadership Quarterly*, 1: 107—142.

Rehman, M., & Afsar, B. (2012). The impact of paternalistic leadership on organization commitment and organization citizenship behavior. *Journal of Business Management and Applied Economics*, 5(5), 148–159.

Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15, 150-163.

Robbins, S. P. (1996). *Essentials of organizational behavior* (7th Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Rousseau, D. M. (1995). *Psychological contracts in organizations: Understanding written and unwritten organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schriesheim, C. A., Castro, S. L. & Cogliser, C. C. (1999). Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of the theory, measurement, and data-analytic practices. *Leadership Quarterly*, Vol. 10, No. 1, pp. 63-113.

Scott, S. G. & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 37.

Scott, S. G. & Bruce, R. A. (1998). Following the leader in R&D: The joint effect of subordinate problem-solving style and leader-member relations on innovative behavior. *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, Vol. 45, pp. 3-10.

Selye, H. (1974). *Stress without Distress*. New American Library: New York.

Sharpley, C.F., Reynolds, R., Acosta, A. & Dua, J.K. (1996). The presence, nature and effects of job stress on physical and psychological health at a large Australian university. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 34(4). 73-86.

Siegrist, J. (1996). Adverse health effects of high-effort/low-reward conditions. *Journal of Occupational Health and Psychology*, 1, pp. 27-41.

Sinha, J. B. P. (1990). *Work culture in Indian context*. New Delhi, India: Sage.

Sinha, J. B. P. (1994). Major trends in research on leadership and power. *Indian Psychological Abstracts*, 1, 385-414.

Snyder, R. A., & Brunning, N. S. (1985). Quality of vertical dyad linkages: Congruence of superior and subordinate competence and role stress as explanatory variables. *Group and Organization Studies*, 10, 81-94.

Sonnentag, S., & Frese, M. (2003). Stress in organizations. In W. C. Borman, D. R. Ilgen, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Comprehensive handbook of psychology: Vol. 12. Industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 453-491). New York, NY: Wiley.

Sparks, K., & Cooper, C.L. (1999). Occupational differences in the work-strain relationship: towards the use of situation specific models. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 72, 219-29.

Sparrowe, R. T. & Liden, R. C (1997). Process and structure in leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Review*, Vol. 22, No. 2, pp. 522-52.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

Tannenbaum, R. & Schmidt, W. H. (1958). How to choose a leadership pattern. *Harvard Business Review*, Mar.-Apr., p. 96.

Tanner, J. F., Jr., & Castleberry, S. B. (1990). Vertical exchange quality and performance: Studying the role of the sales manager. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 10, 17-27.

Tanner, J. F., Jr., Dunn, M. G., & Chonko, L. B. (1993). Vertical exchange and salesperson stress. *Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*, 13, 27-36.

Tordera, N., Gonzalez-Roma, V., & Peiro, J. M. (2008). The moderator effect of psychological climate on the relationship between leader-member exchange quality (LMX) and role overload. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 17(1), 55-72.

Tourigny L., Baba V.V., & Wang X.W. (2010). Stress episode in aviation: The case of China. *Cross Cultural management: An International Journal*, 17(1), 62-78.

Trevino, L. K., Butterfield, K. D., & McCabe, D. L. (1998). The ethical context in organizations: Influences on employee attitudes and behaviors'. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 8(3), 447-476.

Tsui, A. S. & Farh, J. L. (1997). Where guanxi matters: Relational demography and guanxi in the Chinese context. *Work and Occupations*, 1997, 24, 56-79.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Maslyn, M. (2005). Paternalism as a form of leadership: Differentiating paternalism from leader-member exchange. Paper presented at the meeting of the Academy of Management, Honolulu, Hawaii.

VandenBos, G. R. (2007). *APA dictionary of psychology*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Wang, J. & Wong, C. K. (2011). Understanding organizational citizenship behavior from a cultural perspective: An empirical study within the context of hotels in Mainland China. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, Vol. 30, No. 4, pp. 845-54.

Wang, X.Y. (2003) *Paternalistic Leadership, Trust and Employees' Effectiveness*. Taipei: Sun Yat-sen University, 2003. (In Chinese)

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M. & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 40, pp. 82-111.

Westwood, R. 1997. Harmony and Patriarchy: The cultural basis for Paternalistic Headship among the overseas Chinese. *Organization Studies*, 18(3): 445-480.

Wickramasinghe V. (2012) Supervisor support as a moderator between work schedule flexibility and job stress: Some empirical evidence from Sri Lanka. *International Journal of Workplace Health Management*, 5(1), 44-55.

Wu, C.C. (2010). *The Influence of Paternalistic Leadership on Satisfaction towards the Performance of the Division I Volleyball Athletes and Their Turnover Intention in Colleges/Universities in Taiwan*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of the Incarnate Word, San Antonio, TX.

Wu, T. Y., Hsu, W. L. and Cheng, B. S. (2002). Expressing or suppressing anger: Subordinate's anger responses to supervisors' authoritarian behaviors in a Taiwan enterprise. *Indigenous Psychological Research in Chinese Societies*, 18: 3-49. (In Chinese)

Yang, L. S. 1957. The concept of pao as a basis for social relations in China. In J. K. Fairbank (Ed.), *Chinese Thought and Institution*, (pp.291-309). Chicago University

Yang, M. M. 1994. *Gifts, Favors and Banquets: The Art of Social Relationships in China*. Ithaca, NY: Cornell University Press.

Yilmaz, G., (2010). The Relationship between Employee Perception of Organizational Climate, Work Stress and Job Satisfaction: A Study in Call Centers. Unpublished Master's Theses, Yeditepe University, İstanbul

Yousef, D.A. (2002). Job satisfaction as a mediator of the relationship between role stressors and organizational commitment: A study from an Arabic cultural perspective. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 17(4), 250-266.

Yu-Fei (Melissa), C., Ismail, A., Ahmad, R., & Kuek, T.Y. (2012). Impacts of job stress characteristics on the workforce – organizational social support as the moderator. *South-Asia Journal of Marketing and Management Research*, 2(3), 1-20.

Yukl, G. (1994). *Leadership in organizations*. (3rd Ed.) Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall,.

Yukl, G.A. (2002) *Leadership in Organizations: Fifth Edition*, Upper Saddle River, NJ, Prentice-Hall.

Yukl, G., & Van Fleet, D.D. 1992. Theory and research on leadership in organizations. In M.D. Dunette & L.M. Hough (Eds). *Handbook of Industrial & Organizational Psychology*, (2nd Edition, Vol.3, pp. 147-149). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Zhao, Z. & Bo, J. (2007). The Effects of Paternalistic Leadership on Leader-Member Exchange. *International Conference on Management Science and Engineering*. <http://www.seiofbluemountain.com>.

Zijada, R. & Jasna, K. (2009). The leader-member exchange in teams of B & H companies. *Zbornik radova Ekonomskog fakulteta u Sarajevu br*, Vol. 29, pp. 89-104.

## **APPENDIX**

# The Survey Questionnaire

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, iş yaşamımızdaki uygulamalara ilişkin bir çalışmadır. Bu amaçla hazırlanmış olan bu anket formunda sizden istediğimiz, soruları kendi fikirlerinizi ve yaklaşımlarınızı dikkate alarak doldurmanızdır. Bize vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece ilgili bilimsel araştırma dahilinde kullanılacak ve kimliğiniz kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. İsmimizi veya kimliğinizi açığa çıkartacak herhangi bir işareti anket formu üzerine yazmamanızı önemle hatırlatırız. Bu araştırmaya vereceğiniz katkı için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.  
Assist. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Begüm Ötken, Yeditepe University - Eray Kaygısız, MBA, Yeditepe University

1. Cinsiyetiniz:  Kadın  Erkek
2. Yaşınız:
3. Medeni Durumunuz:  Bekar  Evli
4. Eğitim Durumunuz:  İlköğretim  Lise  Yüksek Okul  Lisans  Yüksek Lisans  Doktora
5. Çalışma Hayatındaki süreniz: Yıl Ay
6. Mevcut işinizde çalışma süreniz: Yıl Ay
7. Yöneticinizin cinsiyeti:  Kadın  Erkek

## I. BÖLÜM

\*Lütfen her soru için aşağıdaki seçeneklerden sadece birini seçiniz.

No	Aşağıda, iş hayatında yöneticilerin sergilediği davranışlarla ilgili tanımlar yer almaktadır. Birlikte çalıştığınız ve doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz ilk yöneticiyi düşündüğünüzde bu 26 ifadenin her birine ne derece katıldığınıza ilişkin görüşünüzü "Tamamen Katılıyorum"dan "Tamamen Katılmıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birini seçerek belirtiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
1	Bize aileden biri gibi davranır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Beni gözetmek için bütün enerjisini kullanır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	İş ilişkisinin dışında, özel hayatım konusunda duyarlıdır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Genelde rahatsız için özen gösterir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Zor bir durumda kalırsam bana yardım edecektir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Kendisiyle uzun zamandır çalışan elemanlarına itina gösterir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Kişisel isteklerimi yerine getirir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Zor sorunlarla karşılaştığımda bana cesaret verir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Aile bireylerimi de gözetir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Düşük performans gösterdiğimde bunun sebebini anlamaya çalışır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Günlük hayatımda benim için yapması veya idaresi zor olan konuları halleder.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Topluluğun yararları söz konusu olduğunda hakarete uğrasa bile intikam almayı düşünmez.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Kişileri meziyetlerine göre görevlendirir ve başkalarının meziyet ve yeteneklerini kıskanmaz.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Otoritesini kendine ayrıcalıklar elde etmek için kullanır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	Benim başarı ve katkılarımı kendi başarısım gibi göstermez.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Kendi menfaatleri için beni kullanmaz.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	Bireysel ilişkileri ve bir takım saklı-gizli ilişkileri yasadışı bireysel yararlar sağlamak için kullanmaz.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18	Emirlerine tamamen uymamı ister.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
19	Önemli veya önemsiz şirketteki bütün kararları verir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
20	Toplantılarda her zaman en son kararı verir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
21	Çalışanların gözü önünde her zaman emreder şekilde davranır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
22	Yöneticimle çalışırken kendimi baskı altında hissedirim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
23	Astlarına sıkı bir disiplin uygular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
24	Görevlerimizi yerine getiremediğimizde bizi azarlar.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
25	Grubumuzun şirketteki en iyi performansı gösteren birim olmasını gerektiğini vurgular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
26	İşleri yapmak için onun kurallarına uymamız gerekir. Aksi takdirde bizi cezalandırır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**II. BÖLÜM**

\*Lütfen her soru için aşağıdaki seçeneklerden sadece birini seçiniz.

No	Çalıştığınız işyerinde bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle olan ilişkinizi ve yöneticinizle ilgili düşüncelerinizi aşağıdaki 12 ayrı durum bakımından değerlendirdiğinizde, bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınıza ilişkin görüşünüzü "Tamamen Katılıyorum"dan " Tamamen Katılmıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birini seçerek belirtiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
1	Kişisel olarak yönetimi çok beğeniyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Yöneticim herkesin arkadaş olmak isteyeceği biridir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Yöneticimle beraber çalışmaktan büyük keyif alıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Yöneticim detaylı bilgisi olmadığı durumlarda dahi beni üstlerime karşı korur.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	Bana karşı bir saldırı olduğunda yöneticim bana destek verecektir.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Yöneticim dürüstçe bir hata yaptığımda şirket içinde beni savunacaktır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	İş tanımından fazlasını yöneticim için yaparım/yapıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Yöneticimin iş hedefleri için beklenenin üstünde ekstra efor sarfetmeye istekliyim.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Yöneticim için çok yoğun çalışmaya itiraz etmem.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Yönetimin iş bilgisinden çok etkileniyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Yöneticimin işle ilgili bilgi ve yeteneğine saygı duyuyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Yöneticimin mesleki yeteneklerini takdir ediyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**III. BÖLÜM**

\*Lütfen her soru için aşağıdaki seçeneklerden sadece birini seçiniz.

No	Çalıştığınız işyerinde, iş hayatınızla ilgili düşüncelerinizi aşağıdaki 17 ayrı durum bakımından değerlendirdiğinizde, bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınıza ilişkin görüşünüzü "Tamamen Katılıyorum"dan "Tamamen Katılmıyorum" a doğru uzanan değerlendirme aralığında cevap seçeneklerinden birini seçerek belirtiniz.	Tamamen Katılıyorum	Oldukça Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Pek Fazla Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
1	Görevimde ne kadar yetki sahibi olduğum konusunda kesin bir fikrim var.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2	Yaptığım işin net, açık ve planlanmış amaçları vardır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3	Zamanımı en uygun şekilde işlerim arasında bölüştürdüğüme inanıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4	Sorumluluklarımın tam olarak neler olduğunu biliyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5	İşimde, tam olarak benden neler beklendiğini biliyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6	Görevimde yapılması gereken işler açıkça tanımlanmıştır.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7	Bazı durumlarda, aslında benim sorumluluğumda olmayan işleri de üstlenmek zorunda kalıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8	Çalışma gücümün üstünde işler almak durumunda kalıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9	Verilen bir görevi yerine getirebilmek için bir kuralı veya genel olarak geçerli bir politikayı ihlal etmek durumunda kalabiliyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10	Birbirinden çok farklı biçimde iş gören iki veya daha fazla grupla birlikte çalışmak durumunda kalabiliyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11	Bazı durumlarda işimle ilgili olarak birbiriyle çelişen istekler alıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12	Bazılarınca kabul görüp, diğerlerince kabul görmeyebilecek işler yapma durumundayım.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13	Yeterli kaynak ve materyal olmaması durumunda dahi işimi yerine getirmek durumunda kalabiliyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14	Gereksiz işler üzerinde çalışıyorum.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15	İşimde benden bekleneni yerine getirmeye yetecek zamanım var.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16	Genellikle bir kişinin yüklenebileceğinden daha fazla görevim var.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17	İşimdeki performans standartları çok yüksek.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>