

A Meta-Analytic Review of Paternalistic Leadership

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Scholars have proposed that paternalistic leaders may demonstrate authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality in their actions. In this study, I conduct a meta-analysis of the relationships between paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes. I found that authoritarian leadership is related negatively and benevolence and moral leadership are related positively to numerous follower outcomes. Results from relative weight analyses suggest unique contribution of paternalistic leadership over and above transformational leadership and leader member exchange (LMX) in the prediction of follower outcomes. Moreover, I found that LMX partially mediates the relationship between paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes. With respect to moderators, I found mixed evidence for publication status and power distance. Finally, studies that used Cheng et al.'s measurement showed weaker mean corrected correlations and employee samples from law enforcement organisations showed stronger mean corrected correlations for relationships between paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes.

INTRODUCTION

“When I worked in Istanbul, I felt extremely overwhelmed by my managers’ interest in my personal life. After four years of working in the U.S., I now find myself longing for that attention. American managers are disinterested and distant. They could at least ask me how my children are doing or whether I’m planning to have more. I’m not expecting a detailed discussion about my personal life, but I feel like managers here only focus on the task and not on us—the people.”

(Turkish employee working in New Jersey; quoted in Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008)

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Over the last decade, newly industrialised nations such as India and China have emerged as powerful players in technological innovation and foreign business investment. The growing business interest in non-Western cultures has also sparked scholarly interest in leadership styles that are unique to these cultures (Dorfman, 1996). A leadership style that is widespread in Asian, Middle Eastern and Latin-American cultures is paternalistic leadership (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Rawat & Lyndon, 2016). Paternalistic leadership is not a new concept and is rooted in the traditional Chinese philosophy of Confucianism (Farh & Cheng, 2000). Confucianism is a prevalent philosophy in collectivist and high-power distance cultures and highlights the importance of a top-down hierarchical system based on morality, kindness, and deference to authority (Aycan, 2006). In the workplace, the Confucius philosophy shapes the role of the leader as a father or a close friend who cares genuinely about the well-being of their followers. The role of the follower is to reciprocate through appreciation and obedience the leader's care and support.

Although there are many different conceptualisations of paternalistic leadership, researchers have argued that paternalistic leadership involves three important leadership styles: authoritarianism, benevolence, and moral leadership (Cheng, Chou, & Farh, 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Paternalistic leaders are authoritarian and enforce discipline and follower compliance to leader's decisions. Paternalistic leaders are also benevolent and moral individuals. They take personal interest in the well-being of their followers and exemplify a life of superior personal virtues, selflessness and integrity (Farh & Cheng, 2000). In the last decade, several scholars have used the above conceptualisation to examine the effects of paternalistic leadership on a variety of follower outcomes. Specifically, scholars have examined the effects of the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership on follower outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviors, organisational commitment, and job satisfaction (Cheng, Huang, & Chou, 2002; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Pellegrini, Scandura, & Jayaraman, 2010).

Although paternalistic leaders are positively perceived in non-Western cultures (Aycan, Schyns, Sun, Felfe, & Saher, 2013; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Sinha, 1990), these leaders evoke unfavourable perceptions in Western contexts. In Western cultures, paternalistic leaders are routinely viewed as "benevolent dictators" indulging in "non-coercive exploitation" or "an insidious form of discrimination" (Northouse, 1997, p. 39; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Because paternalistic leadership is associated with power distance and unequal authority between leaders and followers, it is congruent with the values of non-Western cultures but contradicts the Western beliefs of individualism and equal treatment

(Aycan et al., 2013). This contradiction is further compounded by inconsistencies in the empirical research on the effects of paternalistic leadership. Although some scholars have found that authoritarian leadership had negative effects and moral and benevolent leadership had positive effects on follower outcomes (e.g., Afsar & Rehman, 2015; Gu, Tang, & Jiang, 2015), other researchers have found opposite effects or insignificant results (e.g., Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Nnaemeka and Onebunne, 2017). A primary purpose of my paper is, therefore, to address this confusion and assess how paternalistic leadership and its three dimensions influences follower outcomes.

In this study, I contribute to the literature on paternalistic leadership in three ways. First, I analyse the relationships of the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership, namely authoritarianism, benevolence, and moral leadership (proposed by Cheng et al., 2000) with follower work outcomes. I also assess the relationships between an aggregate composite measure of paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes (Aycan et al., 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Second, I examine the moderating effects of contextual and study-specific variables on the relationships between paternalistic leadership and its consequences. Specifically, I examine the moderating role of publication status, the scale used to measure paternalistic leadership, organisational sector, and power distance of the study sample. The results from these moderator analyses may help explain some of the inconsistent findings observed in previous studies on paternalistic leadership. Third, I conduct a relative weight analysis to compare the effects of paternalistic leadership with transformational leadership and leader member exchange (LMX) in the prediction of four important follower work outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, and task performance). I also use meta-analytic structural equation modelling (MASEM) to provide a more comprehensive understanding of the mediating role of LMX in the relationships between paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes. From a managerial standpoint, the results of my meta-analytic review can inform practitioners about the follower outcomes associated with the different dimensions of paternalistic leadership. From a theoretical standpoint, my results may extend our understanding of paternalistic leadership and its impact on follower outcomes.

In the next section, I review the conceptualisation and theoretical foundation of paternalistic leadership. I then propose study hypotheses and hypotheses for study-specific moderators. Next, I provide detailed methodology of my meta-analytic procedures and research findings. Finally, I discuss limitations and directions for future research.

CONCEPTUALISATION AND OPERATIONALISATION OF PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP

Researchers have argued that paternalistic leadership is rooted in the Chinese indigenous philosophy of Confucianism (Farh & Cheng, 2000). The Confucian philosophy is based on social relationships and shapes the role of a leader in two ways; leader as a paternal figure and leader as a patriarch. Leader as a paternal, father figure demonstrates high moral values and a genuine concern for the followers' well-being. Leader as a patriarch, head of the family, acts in the best interest of the follower and expects followers to obey the leader's decisions.

Aycan (2006) discussed the duality between control and benevolence in paternalistic leadership; a paternal leader exercises control to influence followers and at the same time shows concern for their well-being. Some scholars have used the eastern philosophy of Yin-Yang to explain this duality in paternalistic leadership (Wu, Huang, Li, & Liu, 2012b; Zhang, Waldman, Han, & Li, 2015b). The Yin-Yang philosophy embraces a holistic, dynamic, and dialectical view of the world and emphasises the interdependence and coexistence of two opposing cosmic energies: Yin and Yang (Li, 1998; Chen, 2002; Fang, 2012). According to the philosophy, Yin represents the "female" energy and Yang represents the "male" energy; although the two forces may seem opposite and paradoxical, they are actually complementary and combine to form a unified whole (Fang, 2012). When applied to paternalistic leadership, scholars have suggested that the seemingly opposite and paradoxical components of authoritarianism, benevolence, and moral leadership coexist like yin and yang: they have an opposing impact on follower outcomes and yet, interact and complement each other to form a holistic component of paternalistic leadership (Wu et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 2015b).

Scholars have used many different conceptualisations to define and measure paternalistic leadership (Aycan, 2006; Cheng et al., 2000; Wagstaff, Collela, Triana, Smith, & Watkins, 2015). Aycan (2006) for instance, used a 2×2 matrix to describe four distinct leadership styles: benevolent paternalism, exploitative paternalism, authoritarian approach, and authoritative approach. In benevolent paternalism, leaders show genuine concern for the follower well-being and followers respond with obedience and respect toward the leader. In exploitative paternalism, leaders show care and concern to further organisational goals and followers respond with deference because of the hierarchical positioning and power of the leader. In authoritarian leadership, leaders use control and exploitation and followers comply to receive rewards and/or avoid punishment. Finally, authoritative leaders exercise control for the benefit of their followers. With this model, Aycan (2006) argued that

paternalism is not a unified construct and the style of leadership depends on the role expectations in the leader-follower relationship.

More recently, Wagstaff et al. (2015) used dominance theories (Jackman, 1994) to suggest that paternalism reflects an interactive relationship between benevolence and control. Followers are more likely to perceive their leader as paternalistic when the leader is both benevolent and controlling (Wagstaff et al., 2015). A leader who exercises control without showing benevolence is perceived as aggressive and hostile. Similarly, a leader who shows benevolence without exercising any control is not perceived as paternalistic (Wagstaff et al., 2015). With this conceptualisation, Wagstaff et al. (2015) argued that paternalism reflects an overall assessment of the extent to which leaders are perceived as benevolent and controlling by their followers.

Farh and Cheng (2000, p. 84) integrated the paternal and patriarchal concepts to define paternalistic leadership as “a style that combines strong discipline and authority with fatherly benevolence and moral integrity couched in a personalistic atmosphere”. This definition highlights three distinct characteristics of a paternalistic leader: authoritarianism, benevolence, and morality. First, paternalistic leaders are authoritarians, they exercise complete control and authority over their followers. They enforce strict workplace guidelines and expect followers to obey their decisions. Second, paternalistic leaders are benevolent and are genuinely concerned for both the personal and professional well-being of their followers. Third, paternalistic leaders are moral individuals; they demonstrate integrity and superior personal virtues. As moral leaders, they are concerned with the good of their followers rather than their self-interests.

Scholars have used both uni-dimensional and multi-dimensional measurement instruments to capture the features of paternalistic leadership (Aycan, 2006; Aycan et al., 2013; Cheng et al., 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Wagstaff et al., 2015). For example, Wagstaff et al. (2015) created a uni-dimensional measure of subordinate’s perception of supervisor’s benevolence and control. Example items were “My supervisor acts like a parent toward me” and “My supervisor protects me from unpleasant news, independently of my wishes”. In another study, Pellegrini and Scandura (2006) used the initial item pool developed by Aycan (2006) to measure benevolent paternalism. Example items were “My manager creates a family environment in the workplace” and “My manager gives his/her employees a chance to develop themselves when they display low performance”. On the other hand, Aycan (2006) and Cheng et al. (2000) developed multi-dimensional measures of paternalistic leadership. Aycan (2006), for instance, developed a 21-item, 5-dimensional paternalistic leadership questionnaire (PLQ). The author subsequently validated a 10-item short form PLQ with three dimensions in six countries and languages (Aycan et al., 2013). Example items were “My supervisor creates

a family environment in the workplace” and “My supervisor expects loyalty and deference in exchange for his/her care or nurturance”. Finally, Cheng et al. (2000) developed a three-dimensional measure of paternalistic leadership that captured a leader’s authoritativeness, benevolence, and morality. Example items are “My supervisor exercises strict discipline over subordinates”, “My supervisor will help me when I am in an emergency”, and “My supervisor does not take advantage of me for personal gain”.

Despite the popularity of Cheng et al.’s (2000) three-dimensional paternalistic leadership scale (PLS), scholars have raised concerns about its validity (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Wagstaff et al., 2015). For instance, some scholars have argued that paternalism is best captured as a uni-dimensional construct that combines authority and benevolence because paternalistic leaders use authority and compassion interchangeably (Jackman, 1994; Wagstaff et al., 2015). Other scholars have observed that authoritarianism correlates negatively with benevolence and moral dimensions and hence, questioned the psychometric properties of PLS (Aycan, 2006; Farh, Cheng, Chou, & Chu, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Wagstaff et al., 2015). Indeed, some scholars have proposed that the three dimensions of Cheng et al.’s (2000) measure represent three distinct leadership styles (Farh et al., 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Although these are valid and important concerns, Cheng et al.’s (2000) three-dimensional PLS remains one of the most widely known and adopted measures. Moreover, the majority of the empirical research on paternalistic leadership is conducted in cultures where Confucian and Ying-Yang philosophies inspire coexistence and integration of opposing leader behaviours into a larger construct of paternalistic leadership (Chen, 2002; Wu et al., 2012b). Therefore, in this study, I use Cheng et al.’s (2000) conceptualisation to analyse the relationships between the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes. I also analyse the moderating effects of publication status, the scale used to measure paternalistic leadership, organisational sector, and power distance of the study sample.

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION AND HYPOTHESES

Researchers have used social dominance theory (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001) and social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) to explain the effects of paternalistic leadership on follower work outcomes. According to social dominance theory, all human societies are based on group-based social hierarchies (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). These social hierarchies may provide higher status to one group over another group and allow one group to dominate another (Sidanius, Levin, Liu, & Pratto, 2000; Levin, 2004). Examples of these social hierarchies include divisions based on age systems, gender systems,

and arbitrarily set systems. A group may dominate another group because of prevailing age systems, in which adults are given more power than children. A group may also dominate another due to prevailing gender systems, in which males have more power than females. Finally, groups may enjoy dominance due to existing arbitrary-set systems, where dominance is based on socially constructed classes such as ethnicity, race, social class, etc. (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Paternalistic leaders enjoy dominance over their followers because of arbitrary-set systems that provide higher organisational status to leaders. Paternalistic leaders as authoritarian leaders exercise personal dominance over their followers and control the decision-making process (Cheng et al., 2004, p. 91; Tsui et al., 2004). Followers of a paternalistic leader respect the leader's decisions and comply willingly with a leader's authority (Aycan, 2006).

Scholars have also used social exchange theory to understand how paternalistic leadership influences followers' work outcomes (Blau, 1964). Social exchange theory focuses on the norms of reciprocity that underlie social interactions and relationships (Gouldner, 1960). According to social exchange theory, when one party engages in a transaction that benefits the other party, the other party feels obligated to reciprocate in kind. Paternalistic leaders use their authority to protect and promote the well-being of their followers (benevolence leadership). Paternalistic leaders also engage in moral leadership; they exercise self-discipline, and demonstrate superior personal virtues and unselfish behaviours. When followers perceive their leader as caring and selfless, they reciprocate the leader's support with loyalty and trust (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

In the next section, I draw upon social dominance (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001) and social exchange (Blau, 1964) theories to examine the relationship between the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes. I also propose study hypotheses for the relationships between paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership and paternalistic leadership and leader member exchange.

Authoritarian Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

Several scholars have argued that authoritarian leadership is related negatively to follower work outcomes (Cheng et al., 2002, 2004; Farh et al., 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). I propose that authoritarian leadership will predict negative outcomes such as lower levels of follower job satisfaction, organisational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), task performance, loyalty, trust, and higher levels of turnover intentions and psychological withdrawal. Authoritarian leaders exert influence on their followers in two ways: through personal dominance and through negative social exchange. According to dominance theory, successful relationships

are based on the principle of complimentary dominance and submission, where one group assumes a dominant role while the other group assumes a submissive, docile role (Carson, 1969). Leaders may enjoy dominance over their followers because of organisational structures that grant leaders with superior hierarchical status. Authoritarian leaders use their elevated hierarchical status in the organisation to assert personal dominance over their followers (Tsui et al., 2004). Specifically, authoritarian leaders exercise absolute control over the decision-making process and demand unquestionable obedience from their followers. They impose strict discipline, use threats and punishment to influence their followers, and disregard followers' suggestions. Such controlling behaviour from the leader is perceived as oppressive by the followers, and creates an abusive work environment where followers are more likely to experience distrust and reduced loyalty and commitment toward the leader (Farh et al., 2006). When followers perceive their leader as authoritarian and controlling, they are more likely to respond with negative attitudes and behaviours (Farh & Cheng, 2000).

Scholars have also used social exchange theory to understand the relationship between authoritarian leadership and follower work outcomes. Social exchange theory suggests that when one party engages in a positive or negative action towards another party, the recipient party responds in a reciprocal fashion (Blau, 1964). In other words, individuals repay favourable treatment through favourable actions and return negative treatment of others through unfavourable attitudes and behaviours (Gouldner, 1960). Authoritarian leaders are less likely to show support and confidence in their followers and demonstrate little respect for followers' opinions and values. Followers of authoritarian leaders are thus less likely to voice their concerns and seek support from the authoritarian leader. In addition, authoritarian leaders use threats and punishment to exercise influence and have a low-quality exchange relationship with their followers. Such low-quality exchange relationship is due to authoritarian leaders' controlling and demanding behaviour that may make employees dissatisfied and more likely to turnover and withdraw from the work situation (Chen and Kao, 2009; Schaubroeck, Shen, & Chong, 2017). Indeed, scholars have shown that when employees perceive a low-quality relationship with their leader, they are more likely to experience negative emotions and reduced work outcomes (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Authoritarian leaders are less likely to build positive relationships with their followers and can trigger a negative exchange process where followers respond to the dominating leader through decreased work outcomes.

Hypothesis 1: Follower perceptions of authoritarian leadership negatively influence follower (a) job satisfaction, (b) affective commitment, (c) continuance commitment, (d) supervisor loyalty, (e) OCB-I, (f) OCB-O, (g) task performance,

(h) affective dependence, (i) affective trust, (j) supervisor deference, (k) supervisor trust, and (l) employee voice.

Hypothesis 2: Follower perceptions of authoritarian leadership positively influence follower (a) turnover intentions, and (b) psychological withdrawal.

Benevolent Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

According to social exchange theory, relationships are based on reciprocity; individuals feel obliged to reciprocate the beneficial or counterproductive behaviours of other individuals (Gouldner, 1960; Blau, 1964). In a work context, when employees perceive their leader as supportive and caring, they reciprocate with positive attitudes and behaviours (Gouldner, 1960). These positive outcomes are directed towards the leader as well as the organisation that the leader represents. I propose that benevolent leadership will generate positive reciprocity from the followers and predict positive outcomes such as increased levels of follower job satisfaction, organisational commitment, OCBs, job performance, loyalty, trust, and lower levels of turnover intentions and psychological withdrawal. Benevolent leaders generate positive reciprocity from their followers because they show a genuine concern for followers' welfare and build a personalised emotional bond with their followers (Niu, Wang, & Cheng, 2009). Benevolent leaders treat their followers as family members and show a holistic concern for their professional and personal well-being, which, in turn engenders high levels of trust, obedience, and loyalty in followers (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh, Liang, Chou, & Cheng, 2008). Professionally, benevolent leaders act as mentors to their followers and facilitate follower growth and development (Wang & Cheng, 2010). Personally, benevolent leaders assist followers during personal crisis, and show concern for followers' family members (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh et al., 2008). Such supportive and caring behaviour from the leader enhances the emotional bond between the leader and the follower, and thus creates a cycle of positive reciprocation (Chen et al., 2014). Benevolent leaders engender gratitude and feelings of trust in their followers, which, in turn, cause followers to reciprocate in mutually beneficial ways such as increased job satisfaction, organisational commitment, and OCBs (Farh & Cheng, 2000; Farh et al., 2008). Conversely, when leaders show a genuine concern for follower well-being, and treat their followers like family members, employees are less likely to turnover and engage in work withdrawal (Chen & Kao, 2009; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Hypothesis 3: Follower perceptions of benevolent leadership positively influence follower (a) job satisfaction, (b) affective commitment, (c) continuance

commitment, (d) supervisor loyalty, (e) OCBs, (f) OCB-I, (g) OCB-O, (h) task performance, (i) affective dependence, (j) supervisor deference, (k) supervisor trust, and (l) employee voice.

Hypothesis 4: Follower perceptions of benevolent leadership negatively influence follower (a) turnover intentions, and (b) psychological withdrawal.

Moral Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

Several scholars have proposed that moral leadership is positively associated with follower work outcomes (Cheng et al., 2004; Farh et al., 2006; Liang, Ling, & Hsieh, 2007). Moral leaders are known for their integrity and avoid compromise or accommodation in areas where their core values are at stake. Moreover, moral leaders demonstrate superior personal virtues and use their status to further the collective interests of their followers (Cheng et al., 2004). Thus, moral leaders engage in two key behaviours: they demonstrate integrity and they move beyond self-interest to act in the best interests of their followers. Social identity theory suggests that a belief in leader's integrity and superior moral standards is likely to engender perceptions of trust, loyalty, and identification with the leader (Cheng et al., 2004; Wu, Huang, & Chan, 2012a). Scholars have shown that followers of moral leaders are more likely to respect their leader and internalise and imitate the value driven behaviours of their leader (Cheng et al., 2004; Wu et al., 2012a). Moreover, moral leaders engender a work environment that is fair, supportive, and thus more conducive to positive experiences at work, such as increased levels of work satisfaction, commitment and OCBs (Deng & Chen, 2013; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Conversely, when leaders behave immorally or engage in selfish behaviours, employees are more likely to experience negative work outcomes such as increased turnover intentions (Nnaemeka & Onebunne, 2017).

Hypothesis 5: Follower perceptions of moral leadership positively influence follower (a) job satisfaction, (b) affective commitment, (c) continuance commitment, (d) supervisor loyalty, (e) OCBs, (f) OCB-I, (g) OCB-O, (h) task performance, (i) affective dependence, (j) supervisor deference, (k) supervisor trust, and (l) employee voice.

Hypothesis 6: Follower perceptions of moral leadership negatively influence follower turnover intentions.

Several scholars have reported the relationship between an overall paternalistic leadership construct and follower work outcomes (Pellegrini et al., 2010; Ertureten, Cemalcilar, & Aycan, 2013; Deng & Chen, 2013; Goncu, Aycan, & Johnson, 2014). I propose that paternalistic leadership will predict

beneficial outcomes such as increased levels of follower job satisfaction, organisational commitment, OCBs, job performance, organisational identification, trust, and lower levels of turnover intentions and workplace deviance. As mentioned previously, the opposite and paradoxical components of paternalistic leadership may interact and complement each other to form a holistic component of paternalistic leadership (Wu et al., 2012b; Zhang et al., 2015b). Paternalistic leaders create a family-like work environment that is based on support, compassion, and morals. Paternalistic leaders establish close and individualised relationships with their followers, engage in moral and principled behaviours, and expect follower obedience to the parent-like leader's authority (Farh & Cheng, 2000). In general, followers of paternalistic leaders perceive their leader as authoritative, yet caring and approachable. Such parent-like behaviour from the leader enhances followers' loyalty and trust in the leader and creates a desire to reciprocate with positive work outcomes such as increased satisfaction, commitment, OCBs and performance (Cheng et al., 2004; Erben & Güneşer, 2008; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Because positive work experiences are associated with higher levels of organisational identification, increased levels of positive work attitudes can result in reduced levels of turnover intentions and employee deviant behaviours (Ertureten et al., 2013; Goncu et al., 2014).

Hypothesis 7: Follower perceptions of paternalistic leadership positively influence follower (a) job satisfaction, (b) organisational commitment, (c) OCBs, (d) task performance, (e) organisational identification, and (f) supervisor trust.

Hypothesis 8: Follower perceptions of paternalistic leadership negatively influence follower (a) turnover intentions, and (b) workplace deviance.

PATERNALISTIC LEADERSHIP AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND LMX

Transformational Leadership. Transformational leaders provide individual support to their followers and inspire them to reach their highest potential (Bass, 1985). Transformational leadership includes four dimensions: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders engage in idealised influence and exemplify superior ideals and morals to their followers. Transformational leaders engage in inspirational motivation and emphasise followers' intrinsic motivation and commitment to collective goals. Transformational leaders engage in intellectual stimulation by questioning prevailing norms and stimulating innovation and creativity in their followers. Transformational leaders also engage in individualised consideration

by acting as a coach or mentor and paying special attention to individual follower's need for achievement and growth (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Cheng et al. (2004) proposed that their conceptualisation of paternalistic leadership is distinct from transformational leadership in two ways. First, paternalistic leadership is a culture-specific (emic) style of leadership that is prevalent in collectivistic and hierarchical cultures. In contrast, transformational leadership is a predominant leadership style in Western, individualistic cultures. Second, paternalistic leaders form personal relationships with their followers to improve follower personal and work outcomes (Cheng et al., 2004). Transformational leaders, on the other hand, also emphasise personal relationships but the purpose is to further follower work outcomes. To prove this distinction, Cheng et al. (2004) examined the additional variance explained by paternalistic leadership over and above transformational leadership and found that all three dimensions of paternalistic leadership accounted for additional variance in predicting leader identification, leader indebtedness and leader dependence. Despite the distinctiveness of paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership, there is, however, a partial overlap between the two constructs (Cheng et al., 2004). In this study, I propose a positive relationship between benevolent and moral leadership and individualised consideration, idealised influence, and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership. Specifically, I propose that benevolent leaders and moral leaders are similar to individualised consideration leaders because they develop personalised relationships with their followers and pay special attention to followers' well-being. Benevolent leaders and moral leaders also engage in idealised influence and inspirational motivation. They emphasise the importance of superior personal virtues, exemplify value-driven behaviour, and inspire their followers to achieve their full potential. Furthermore, I expect a negative relationship between authoritarian leadership and individualised consideration, idealised influence, and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership. Unlike transformational leaders, authoritarian leaders are less likely to believe in their followers' capabilities and more likely to make decisions on their behalf. Authoritarian leaders are primarily concerned with maintaining their superior hierarchical status and ensuring subordinate compliance with the leader's authority.

Hypothesis 9: Benevolent leadership is positively associated with (a) individualised consideration, (b) idealised influence, and (c) inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 10: Moral leadership is positively associated with (a) individualised consideration, (b) idealised influence, and (c) inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 11: Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with (a) individualised consideration, (b) idealised influence, and (c) inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership.

Leader Member Exchange (LMX). Leader member exchange (LMX) theory refers to the quality of relationship between a leader and a follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Followers who have a high-quality exchange relationship with their leader experience positive work outcomes such as high levels of trust, respect, and commitment (Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997). In comparison, followers in a low-quality exchange relationship with their leader experience low levels of trust, support, and commitment (Gerstner & Day, 1997). Past scholars have examined the similarities and differences between paternalistic leadership and LMX (Liden & Graen, 1980; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2005; Pellegrini et al., 2010). For instance, Pellegrini et al. (2010) argued that paternalistic leadership is distinct from LMX due to several reasons. First, paternal leaders are focused on enhancing follower work as well as personal outcomes. LMX, on the other hand, focuses solely on enhancing the employee's work outcomes. Second, high-LMX relationships are based on recurrent economic transactions where the leader rewards followers' work efforts through favourable economic outcomes such as improved performance ratings and/or pay increases (Graen & Scandura, 1987). Paternalistic relationships, on the other hand, involve social transactions where the outcomes go beyond economic benefits and are instead focused on enhancing personal relationships and personal commitment. Finally, paternalistic leaders make decisions using a directive approach whereas LMX relies on a participative style of management (Schriesheim, Neider, & Scandura, 1998; Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2005). I suggest that benevolent and moral leaders have high-quality LMX relationships with their followers. Benevolent leaders genuinely care for the welfare of their followers and act in their best interest. Moral leaders lead by example and display superior personal virtues. The protection and care offered by benevolent leaders and the integrity of moral leaders is likely to engender high-quality relationship with the followers. On the other hand, authoritarian leaders will have low-quality relationships with their subordinates. Low-quality relationships are defined by hierarchical, role-defined interactions and leader-follower relationships are based on follower obedience and fulfilment of tasks. Because authoritarian leaders engage in such hierarchical and dominant behaviours, they are more likely to have low-quality relationships with their followers (Liden & Graen, 1980).

Hypothesis 12: Benevolent leadership positively influences perceptions of high quality leader member exchange.

Hypothesis 13: Moral leadership positively influences perceptions of high quality leader member exchange.

Hypothesis 14: Authoritarian leadership negatively influences perceptions of high quality leader member exchange.

POTENTIAL MODERATORS

Published versus Unpublished Studies

Researchers have argued that the suppression of non-significant findings in the publication process may present a threat to the robustness of meta-analytic results (Lipsey & Wilson 1993; Rosenthal, 1979). Rosenthal (1979) called this the “file drawer problem” or the likelihood of non-significant studies to stay unpublished and buried away in file drawers. I propose that published scholarly observation reports will have stronger associations between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and between paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes. Indeed, scholars have shown that published studies are more likely to have stronger mean effect sizes than unpublished studies (Rosenberg, 2005; Banks & McDaniel, 2011).

Hypothesis 15: Published scholarly reports will report stronger mean corrected correlations than unpublished scholarly reports.

Measurement of Paternalistic Leadership

I also examined the role of the scale used to measure paternalistic leadership on the relationships between paternalistic leadership and its proposed outcomes. Specifically, I investigated if results of studies that used Cheng et al.'s (2000) three-dimensional conceptualisation of paternalistic leadership were stronger or weaker than studies that used other established measures, such as Aycan (2006) and Pellegrini and Scandura (2006). Although Cheng et al.'s (2000) three-dimensional conceptualisation of paternalistic leadership is one of the most accepted measures, it has yielded inconsistent findings regarding its psychometric properties (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In addition, there is mixed evidence regarding the strength of relationships between paternalistic leadership and its outcomes and between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership. Therefore, I do not propose any hypothesis for this moderator.

Research question 1: Are mean corrected correlations of studies that use Cheng et al.'s (2000) conceptualisation of paternalistic leadership stronger or weaker than mean corrected correlations of studies that use other established measures?

Power Distance and Organisational Sector

Several scholars have suggested that paternalistic leadership is congruent with the values of high power distance cultures (Cheng et al., 2004; Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Pellegrini et al., 2010). For example, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) study found that collectivist and high power distance cultures tend to have high levels of paternalism (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004). Thus, I propose that samples from high power distance cultures will have stronger associations than samples from low power distance cultures. Finally, I also examine whether organisational sector (law enforcement versus hospitality versus manufacturing) of study samples accounts for significant differences in mean corrected correlations. For example, Jing-Hong Lu and Hsu (2015) surveyed 252 college athletes in Taiwan and found a non-significant relationship between benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership ($r = 0.10$). Chine, Lo and Lee (2006) surveyed employees from two hotels in China and found a significant positive relationship between benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership ($r = 0.23$). Given that previous scholars have observed mixed results for organisational sector, I propose a research question.

Hypothesis 16: Samples from high power distance cultures will report stronger mean corrected correlations than samples from low or moderate power distance cultures.

Research question 2: Are the relationships between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership moderated by organisational sector of study samples?

METHOD

Literature Search and Inclusion Criteria

I employed a comprehensive search strategy to locate all relevant studies on paternalistic leadership and its outcomes. I conducted a computerised search of several academic databases, including ABI/INFORM, EBSCOhost, Google Scholar, ProQuest Dissertations & Theses, and PsycINFO. I used multiple broad keywords to identify empirical studies published on paternalistic leadership. Specifically, I used the terms *paternalistic leadership*, *paternalism*,

paternalistic leadership scale, benevolent leadership, moral leadership, authoritarian leadership, and paternal leader. I then conducted a manual search of a reference list of retrieved articles to identify additional citations. Finally, I carried out manual searches of journals and authors that had previously published articles on paternalistic leadership. Using the above search techniques, I was able to identify over 285 conceptual and empirical publications, unpublished dissertations, and book chapters on paternalistic leadership. A study was included in my meta-analysis if: (a) it measured authoritarianism or/and moral or/and benevolence of a “paternalistic leader”; (b) I was able to compute an effect size between one of the dimensions of paternalistic leadership and another variable. I also included studies that reported correlation information between overall paternalistic leadership score and another variable; (c) the study used one of the paternalistic leadership scales to measure authoritarian, benevolent or moral leadership; (d) the study reported sample sizes; and (e) the study presented data from independent samples. I excluded studies where a sample seemed to overlap the sample of another study. In addition, I only included variables for which there were at least three correlations to calculate mean corrected correlation (ρ). These inclusion criteria yielded a total of 84 independent samples involving 26,693 employees. Of these samples, 65 were from published journal articles, 9 were from unpublished dissertations, and 10 were other unpublished papers. Examples of samples from high power distance cultures were India, China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Vietnam, Turkey, and Korea while moderate power distance cultures were Pakistan and Taiwan. I did not find representative samples from low power distance cultures. Finally, the first author was responsible for coding all study variables. In addition, I hired a research assistant to independently code 50 per cent of the studies. The inter-rater agreement was 98.9 per cent. We resolved any discrepancies through discussion.

Meta-Analytic Approach

I used Hedges and Olkin's (1985) meta-analytic approach to correct observed correlations for unreliability and sampling error. To avoid biases associated with averaging correlations, I transformed each observed correlation using Fisher's z -transformation and calculated the weighted- z values. For each relation, I computed mean corrected correlation (ρ), average effect size (*Mean ES*), uncorrected standard deviation (*SD*), standard deviation of corrected correlations (*SD_c*), 95 per cent confidence interval (*95%CI*) and 95 per cent credibility interval (*95%CrI*). I also computed the Q homogeneity statistic, Q total (Q_T). A significant Q_T indicates a need to investigate other explanatory variables and conduct a moderator analysis. In these cases, I computed a Q within (Q_W) statistic to assess heterogeneity of studies. A significant Q_W statistic rejects the null hypotheses of homogeneity (Hedges, 1994).

Finally, I computed Q between (Q_B). If the Q_B is significant then it indicates that the magnitude of the effect differs between different categories of the moderator.

Relative Weight Analyses and One-Sample Removed Analysis

Previous scholars have found high correlations between transformational leadership and different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and LMX (Chan & Mak, 2012; Liden, 2012; Chen et al., 2014). To identify the relative importance of paternalistic versus transformational leadership and LMX in predicting follower work outcomes, I performed relative weight analysis (Tonidandel & LeBreton, 2011). Relative weight analysis involves a bootstrapping procedure to compute raw weights. These raw weights represent the proportion of predicted variance attributed to each predictor. The resulting weights are summed into R^2 and then compared via ratios. For example, a weight of 0.20 is twice as important as a weight of 0.10 and the summed weight of 0.30 reflects the total variance explained.

Finally, due to the small number of studies available for some of the examined relationships, I conducted a one-sample removed analysis (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2009). One-sample removed analysis computes the effect size multiple times by removing an individual sample in each iteration (with replacement). The test evaluates the sensitivity of the meta-analytic results and examines the robustness of the reported effect sizes.

RESULTS

Authoritarian Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

I found support for Hypotheses 1(a) through 1(l) and 2(a) and 2(b) regarding authoritarian leadership and follower outcomes (Table 1). Specifically, authoritarian leadership was negatively associated with follower (a) job satisfaction ($\rho = -0.12$), (b) affective commitment ($\rho = -0.27$), (c) continuance commitment ($\rho = -0.51$), (d) supervisor loyalty ($\rho = -0.23$), (e) OCB-I (supervisor rated) ($\rho = -0.31$), (f) OCB-O (supervisor rated) ($\rho = -0.22$), (g) task performance—supervisor rated ($\rho = -0.16$) and self-rated ($\rho = -0.12$), (h) affective dependence ($\rho = -0.53$), (i) affective trust ($\rho = -0.16$), (j) supervisor deference ($\rho = -0.15$), (k) supervisor trust ($\rho = -0.37$), and (l) employee voice ($\rho = -0.30$). In addition, I found authoritarian leadership was positively associated with follower (a) turnover intentions ($\rho = 0.16$), and (b) psychological withdrawal ($\rho = 0.29$).

Benevolent Leadership and Follower Outcomes

Table 2 presents my meta-analytic findings for the follower outcomes of benevolent leadership proposed in Hypotheses 3(a) through 3(l) and 4(a) and 4(b). I found support for these hypotheses. Specifically, I found that benevolent leadership was positively associated with follower (a) job satisfaction ($\rho = 0.59$), (b) affective commitment ($\rho = 0.52$), (c) continuance commitment ($\rho = 0.62$), (d) supervisor loyalty ($\rho = 0.62$), (e) OCBs—supervisor rated ($\rho = 0.27$) and self-rated ($\rho = 0.77$), (f) OCB-I (supervisor rated) ($\rho = 0.33$), (g) OCB-O (supervisor rated) ($\rho = 0.25$), (h) task performance—supervisor rated ($\rho = 0.28$) and self-rated ($\rho = 0.16$), (i) affective dependence ($\rho = 0.78$), (j) supervisor deference ($\rho = 0.50$), (k) supervisor trust ($\rho = 0.80$), and (l) employee voice ($\rho = 0.24$). In addition, I found support for Hypothesis 4, which suggested that benevolent leadership was negatively associated with follower (a) turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.25$), and (b) psychological withdrawal ($\rho = -0.22$).

Moral Leadership and Follower Outcomes

My Hypotheses 5(a) through 5(l) and Hypothesis 6 regarding moral leadership and follower outcomes were supported (Table 3). Specifically, I found that moral leadership was positively associated with follower (a) job satisfaction ($\rho = 0.61$), (b) affective commitment ($\rho = 0.74$), (c) continuance commitment ($\rho = 0.79$), (d) supervisor loyalty ($\rho = 0.67$), (e) OCBs (self-rated) ($\rho = 0.65$), (f) OCB-I (supervisor rated) ($\rho = 0.35$), (g) OCB-O (supervisor rated) ($\rho = 0.26$), (h) task performance—supervisor rated ($\rho = 0.31$) and self-rated ($\rho = 0.15$), (i) affective dependence ($\rho = 0.62$), (j) supervisor deference ($\rho = 0.58$), (k) supervisor trust ($\rho = 0.78$), and (l) employee voice ($\rho = 0.34$). In addition, I found support for Hypothesis 6 which suggested that moral leadership was negatively associated with follower turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.30$).

Paternalistic Leadership and Follower Outcomes

I also tested relationships between a composite measure of paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes. I found support for Hypotheses 7(a) through 7(f) and Hypotheses 8(a) and 8(b) (Table 4). Paternalistic leadership was positively associated with follower (a) job satisfaction ($\rho = 0.58$), (b) organisational commitment ($\rho = 0.64$), (c) OCBs (supervisor rated) ($\rho = 0.30$), (d) task performance—self rated ($\rho = 0.21$), (e) organisational identification ($\rho = 0.41$), and (f) supervisor trust ($\rho = 0.75$). Finally, I found support for Hypothesis 8 which suggested that paternalistic leadership was negatively associated with follower (a) turnover intentions ($\rho = -0.37$) and (b) workplace deviance ($\rho = -0.41$).

TABLE 1
Authoritarian Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

Variable	k	N	ρ	Mean ES	SD	SD_c	95%CI	95%CrI	Q_T
Affective Dependence	3	1430	-0.53	-0.59	0.24	0.58	(-0.66, -0.53)	(-1.73, 0.54)	37.93**
Affective Trust	3	1111	-0.16	-0.16	0.27	0.53	(-0.23, -0.09)	(-1.20, 0.87)	68.35**
Supervisor Loyalty	3	1207	-0.23	-0.24	0.12	0.57	(-0.30, -0.17)	(-1.36, 0.88)	11.09*
Job Satisfaction	8	3145	-0.12	-0.12	0.20	0.30	(-0.16, -0.08)	(-0.71, 0.47)	658.38**
Continuance Commitment	5	2433	-0.38	-0.40	0.37	0.42	(-0.45, -0.35)	(-1.23, 0.43)	142.46**
Affective Commitment	7	2976	-0.27	-0.28	0.14	0.40	(-0.32, -0.23)	(-1.07, 0.51)	45.06**
OCB-O (supervisor rated)	6	2581	-0.22	-0.23	0.07	0.40	(-0.28, -0.18)	(-1.01, 0.55)	10.26*
OCB-I (supervisor rated)	5	1844	-0.31	-0.32	0.05	0.51	(-0.38, -0.26)	(-1.32, 0.67)	4.53
Task Performance (supervisor rated)	13	4279	-0.16	-0.16	0.15	0.27	(-0.20, -0.13)	(-0.70, 0.37)	75.63**
Task Performance (self-rated)	3	1748	-0.12	-0.12	0.16	0.60	(-0.17, -0.06)	(-1.30, 1.07)	19.14**
Supervisor Deference	5	2361	-0.15	-0.15	0.05	0.44	(-0.20, -0.10)	(-1.01, 0.71)	3.68
Supervisor Trust	8	2364	-0.37	-0.39	0.33	0.29	(-0.44, -0.34)	(-0.95, 0.18)	236.64**
Turnover Intentions	14	5709	0.16	0.16	0.15	0.27	(0.13, 0.19)	(-0.36, 0.68)	84.09**
Employee Voice (supervisor rated)	3	991	-0.30	-0.31	0.18	0.54	(-0.39, -0.24)	(-1.37, 0.75)	19.39**
Psychological Withdrawal	4	1529	0.29	0.29	0.09	0.60	(0.23, 0.35)	(-0.88, 1.46)	5.81

Note: k = the number of samples in each analysis; N = the total number of individuals in the k samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; Mean ES = average effect size; SD = uncorrected standard deviation; SD_c = Standard deviation of corrected correlations. 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; 95%CrI = 95% credibility interval; Q_T = Q total.
* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

TABLE 2
Benevolent Leadership with Authoritarian and Moral Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

Variable	k	N	ρ	Mean ES	SD	SD _c	95%CI	95%CrI	Q _T
Authoritarian Leadership	45	16242	-0.18	-0.19	0.24	0.15	(-0.20, -0.17)	(-0.47, 0.10)	918.63**
Moral Leadership	39	15168	0.66	0.79	0.18	0.16	(0.77, 0.81)	(0.49, 1.10)	945.55**
Affective Dependence	3	1430	0.78	1.05	0.06	0.58	(0.98, 1.11)	(-0.09, 2.18)	2.84
Supervisor Loyalty	3	1207	0.62	0.73	0.19	0.57	(0.66, 0.79)	(-0.39, 1.85)	54.30**
Job Satisfaction	6	2694	0.59	0.67	0.25	0.39	(0.63, 0.72)	(-0.09, 1.43)	473.29**
Affective Commitment	6	3734	0.52	0.57	0.27	0.36	(0.53, 0.61)	(-0.13, 1.28)	343.10**
Continuance Commitment	3	1416	0.62	0.73	0.34	0.55	(0.66, 0.79)	(-0.35, 1.80)	403.56**
OCB (supervisor rated)	4	1093	0.27	0.27	0.05	0.43	(0.20, 0.34)	(-0.57, 1.12)	3.73
OCB (self-rated)	3	1509	0.77	1.02	0.21	0.62	(0.96, 1.08)	(-0.20, 2.23)	112.93**
OCB-O (supervisor rated)	5	1415	0.25	0.25	0.08	0.39	(0.19, 0.31)	(-0.52, 1.02)	7.76
OCB-I (supervisor rated)	5	1536	0.33	0.35	0.09	0.45	(0.29, 0.41)	(-0.53, 1.22)	12.07**
Task Performance (supervisor rated)	9	2948	0.28	0.29	0.17	0.32	(0.25, 0.32)	(-0.33, 0.91)	121.55**
Task Performance (self-rated)	3	1748	0.16	0.16	0.11	0.60	(0.11, 0.21)	(-1.02, 1.34)	12.41**
Supervisor Deference	5	2361	0.50	0.55	0.19	0.44	(0.50, 0.59)	(-0.31, 1.40)	146.43**
Supervisor Trust	8	2260	0.80	1.09	0.14	0.29	(1.04, 1.14)	(0.52, 1.66)	200.57**
Turnover Intentions	10	4775	-0.25	-0.25	0.16	0.40	(-0.28, -0.22)	(-1.03, 0.53)	80.49**
Employee Voice (supervisor rated)	3	991	0.24	0.24	0.16	0.54	(0.17, 0.31)	(-0.82, 1.30)	15.72**
Psychological Withdrawal	3	1327	-0.22	-0.23	0.14	0.67	(-0.29, -0.17)	(-1.55, 1.10)	8.45**

Note: k = the number of samples in each analysis; N = the total number of individuals in the k samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; Mean ES = average effect size, SD = uncorrected standard deviation; SD_c = Standard deviation of corrected correlations. 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; 95%CrI = 95% credibility interval; Q_T = Q total.
*p < .05; **p < .01.

TABLE 3
Moral Leadership with Authoritarian Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

Variable	k	N	ρ	Mean ES	SD	SD _c	95%CI	95%CrI	Q _T
Authoritarian Leadership	41	16107	-0.20	-0.21	0.24	0.15	(-0.23, -0.19)	(-0.50, 0.09)	1333.91**
Affective Dependence	3	1430	0.62	0.72	0.06	0.58	(0.65, 0.79)	(-0.41, 1.85)	0.42
Supervisor Loyalty	3	1207	0.67	0.82	0.13	0.57	(0.75, 0.88)	(-0.30, 1.94)	57.20**
Job Satisfaction	6	2694	0.61	0.71	0.24	0.39	(0.66, 0.76)	(-0.05, 1.47)	428.72**
Affective Commitment	4	2214	0.74	0.95	0.34	0.51	(0.90, 1.01)	(-0.05, 1.95)	594.15**
Continuance Commitment	4	2214	0.79	1.07	0.32	0.46	(1.02, 1.13)	(0.17, 1.97)	297.95**
OCB (self-rated)	3	1526	0.65	0.78	0.11	0.61	(0.72, 0.84)	(-0.43, 1.98)	27.05**
OCB-O (supervisor rated)	4	1097	0.26	0.27	0.05	0.45	(0.20, 0.34)	(-0.61, 1.14)	1.07
OCB-I (supervisor rated)	5	1844	0.35	0.37	0.10	0.45	(0.31, 0.42)	(-0.52, 1.25)	18.33**
Task Performance (supervisor rated)	9	3007	0.31	0.32	0.22	0.31	(0.28, 0.36)	(-0.29, 0.93)	258.08**
Task Performance (self-rated)	3	1748	0.15	0.15	0.20	0.60	(0.10, 0.20)	(-1.03, 1.33)	25.76**
Supervisor Deference	6	2854	0.58	0.66	0.29	0.40	(0.62, 0.71)	(-0.11, 1.40)	253.27**
Supervisor Trust	7	2124	0.78	1.05	0.16	0.31	(1.00, 1.10)	(0.44, 1.67)	170.15**
Turnover Intentions	9	4236	-0.30	-0.31	0.10	0.29	(-0.34, -0.27)	(-0.88, 0.26)	76.00**
Employee Voice (supervisor rated)	3	991	0.24	0.24	0.16	0.54	(0.17, 0.31)	(-0.82, 1.30)	15.72**

Note: k = the number of samples in each analysis; N = the total number of individuals in the k samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; Mean ES = average effect size, SD = uncorrected standard deviation; SD_c = Standard deviation of corrected correlations. 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; 95%CrI = 95% credibility interval; Q_T = Q total.

*p < .05; **p < .01.

TABLE 4
Paternalistic Leadership and Follower Work Outcomes

Variable	k	N	ρ	Mean ES	SD	SD _c	95%CI	95%CrI	Q _T
Authoritarian Leadership	7	1770	0.48	0.52	0.30	0.32	(0.46,0.58)	(-0.11,1.15)	821.24**
Transformational Leadership	6	1197	0.79	1.07	0.15	0.43	(1.01,1.13)	(0.23,1.90)	69.59**
LMX	3	856	0.86	1.31	0.11	0.58	(1.23,1.38)	(0.17, 2.45)	149.52**
Job Satisfaction	7	2123	0.52	0.58	0.15	0.40	(0.53,0.62)	(-0.21,1.36)	183.43**
Organisational Commitment	4	990	0.64	0.76	0.13	0.43	(0.68,0.84)	(-0.09,1.61)	26.22**
Workplace Deviance	5	1029	-0.41	-0.43	0.21	0.43	(-0.50,-0.36)	(-1.28,0.41)	51.17**
Supervisor Trust	4	1219	0.75	0.98	0.44	0.49	(0.91,1.04)	(0.01, 1.94)	128.91**
OCB (supervisor rated)	4	1034	0.30	0.31	0.09	0.47	(0.24,0.38)	(-0.62,1.23)	11.14**
Organisational Identification	3	964	0.41	0.43	0.15	0.46	(0.36,0.51)	(-0.47,1.34)	13.30**
Task Performance (self-rated)	4	1440	0.21	0.21	0.08	0.46	(0.15,0.27)	(-0.69,1.11)	10.08*
Turnover Intentions	4	1120	-0.37	-0.39	0.09	0.49	(-0.46,-0.33)	(-1.36,0.57)	8.98

Note: k = the number of samples in each analysis; N = the total number of individuals in the k samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; Mean ES = average effect size; SD = uncorrected standard deviation; SD_c = Standard deviation of corrected correlations; 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; 95%CrI = 95% credibility interval; Q_T = Q total.
*p < .05; **p < .01.

Some of the relationships reported in Tables 1 through 2 were based on a small group of primary studies. To examine the robustness of reported effect sizes, I conducted a one-sample removed analysis (OSR) (Borenstein et al., 2009). The results were generally robust for all analyses, except for the relationships between benevolent leadership and continuance commitment ($\rho = 0.62$ before OSR and $\rho = 0.45$ after OSR), moral leadership and continuance commitment ($\rho = 0.79$ before OSR and $\rho = 0.64$ after OSR), and moral leadership and affective commitment ($\rho = 0.74$ before OSR and $\rho = 0.50$ after OSR). On further analyses, the study (Afsar & Rehman, 2015, $N = 1031$) that appeared as an outlier for these relationships had an observed correlation that was similar to other studies in the sample. The main difference was its large sample size of $N = 1031$. However, I decided to include this study in the final analysis as previous scholars have suggested that studies with large sample sizes provide high power for statistical inferences and a precise estimate of population parameter (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004).

Relationship with other Leadership Constructs

I also examined the relationship between the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership and other leadership styles and constructs. I found support for Hypothesis 9 which predicted a positive association between benevolent leadership and the three dimensions of transformational leadership. Specifically, I found a positive relationship between benevolent leadership and (a) individualised consideration ($\rho = 0.77$), (b) idealised influence ($\rho = 0.78$), and (c) inspirational motivation ($\rho = 0.74$) dimensions of transformational leadership. I also found support for Hypothesis 10 which predicted a positive relationship between moral leadership and (a) individualised consideration ($\rho = 0.57$), (b) idealised influence ($\rho = 0.71$), and (c) inspirational motivation ($\rho = 0.57$) dimensions of transformational leadership. Finally, Hypothesis 11 was also supported and authoritarian leadership was negatively associated with (a) individualised consideration ($\rho = -0.48$), (b) idealised influence ($\rho = -0.38$), and (c) inspirational motivation ($\rho = -0.24$) dimensions of transformational leadership (Table 5).

Finally, I tested the relationship between the three dimensions of paternalistic leadership and LMX. Hypotheses 12 and 13 were supported and I found that both benevolent leadership ($\rho = 0.75$) and moral leadership ($\rho = 0.68$) positively influenced perceptions of high quality leader member exchange (Table 5). In addition, I found support for Hypothesis 14. Authoritarian leadership was negatively associated with perceptions of high quality leader member exchange ($\rho = -0.11$).

TABLE 5
Dimensions of Paternalistic leadership and other Leadership Styles

Variable	k	N	ρ	Mean ES	SD	SD _c	95%CI	95%CrI	QT
Authoritarian Leadership									
Transformational Leadership	4	1296	-0.05	-0.05	0.13	0.50	(-0.11,0.02)	(-1.03,0.94)	11.64**
Individualised Consideration	5	2355	-0.48	-0.52	0.21	0.40	(-0.57,-0.47)	(-1.30,0.26)	88.49**
Idealised Influence	3	1348	-0.41	-0.44	0.17	0.66	(-0.51,-0.38)	(-1.75,0.86)	13.21**
Motivational Stimulation	3	1348	-0.24	-0.25	0.15	0.75	(-0.31,-0.19)	(-1.71,1.21)	7.82*
LMX	5	1449	-0.11	-0.11	0.22	0.43	(-0.17,-0.04)	(-0.95,0.74)	46.78**
Benevolent Leadership									
Transformational Leadership	4	1472	0.70	0.87	0.19	0.48	(0.81,0.93)	(-0.07,1.81)	100.43**
Individualised Consideration	3	1348	0.77	1.01	0.01	0.52	(0.94,1.07)	(-0.02,2.03)	2.26
Idealised Influence	3	1348	0.78	1.05	0.03	0.66	(0.99,1.11)	(-0.25,2.36)	1.34
Motivational Stimulation	3	1348	0.74	0.94	0.04	0.75	(0.89,1.00)	(-0.52,2.40)	2.33
LMX	6	2346	0.75	0.98	0.17	0.35	(0.93,1.02)	(0.29,1.07)	151.22**
Moral Leadership									
Transformational Leadership	3	1077	0.64	0.75	0.14	0.56	(0.69,0.82)	(-0.35,1.85)	12.51**
Individualised Consideration	5	2355	0.57	0.55	0.14	0.56	(0.59,0.70)	(-0.26,1.55)	92.14**
Idealised Influence	3	1348	0.71	0.90	0.09	0.66	(0.82,0.97)	(-0.41,2.20)	19.94**
Motivational Stimulation	3	1348	0.57	0.65	0.11	0.75	(0.58,0.72)	(-0.81,2.11)	11.76**
LMX	5	1398	0.68	0.83	0.17	0.44	(0.77,0.88)	(-0.03,1.69)	54.43**

Note: k = the number of samples in each analysis; N = the total number of individuals in the k samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; Mean ES = average effect size; SD = uncorrected standard deviation; SD_c = Standard deviation of corrected correlations; 95%CI = 95% confidence interval; 95%CrI = 95% credibility interval; Q_T = Q total.
*p < .05; **p < .01.

POTENTIAL MODERATORS

Published versus Unpublished Studies

I found partial support for Hypothesis 15 which proposed stronger relationships for published versus unpublished research (Table 6). Specifically, the relationships between benevolent leadership and moral leadership, paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership, and moral leadership and supervisor deference showed stronger mean corrected correlation for published research (ρ s = 0.67, 0.82, 0.72 respectively) than for unpublished research (ρ s = 0.63, 0.75, 0.26 respectively). However, I found stronger relationships for unpublished research between authoritarian leadership and job satisfaction ($\rho = -0.24$ vs $\rho = -0.21$), benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership ($\rho = -0.36$ vs $\rho = -0.17$), and moral leadership and authoritarian leadership ($\rho = -0.31$ vs $\rho = -0.20$) compared to published research.

Cheng et al.'s (2000) Three-Dimensional Scale versus Other Scales

I found evidence for my research question 1. In general, mean corrected correlations for Cheng et al.'s scale were weaker than the correlations for other scales. Specifically, mean corrected correlations for Cheng et al.'s scale was stronger for the relationship between paternalistic and authoritarian leadership ($\rho = 0.82$ versus $\rho = 0.24$ for other scales). However, I found stronger mean corrected correlations for other measures of paternalistic leadership for relationships between benevolent and authoritarian leadership ($\rho = -0.31$ versus $\rho = -0.10$ for Cheng et al., 2000), benevolent and moral leadership ($\rho = 0.72$ versus $\rho = 0.61$ for Cheng et al., 2000), benevolent leadership and affective commitment ($\rho = 0.55$ versus $\rho = 0.48$ for Cheng et al., 2000), and moral and authoritarian leadership ($\rho = -0.32$ versus $\rho = -0.10$ for Cheng et al., 2000) (Table 7).

Power Distance and Organisational Sector

I found mixed evidence for Hypothesis 16, which proposed stronger relationships for high power distance cultures (Table 8). Specifically, the relationships between benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and turnover intentions, and authoritarian leadership and turnover intentions showed stronger mean corrected correlation for high power distance cultures (ρ s = -0.20 , -0.35 , 0.23 respectively) than for moderate power distance cultures (ρ s = -0.18 , -0.18 , 0.15 respectively). However, I found stronger relationships for moderate power distance cultures for relationships between benevolent leadership and moral leadership

TABLE 6
Moderating Effects of Publication Status

<i>Variable</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	<i>Mean ES</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SD_c</i>	<i>95%CI</i>	<i>95%CrI</i>	<i>Q_w</i>	<i>Q_b</i>
Pat. Leadership – Transf. Leadership Published	3	557	0.82	1.17	0.12	0.59	(1.08,1.26)	(0.02,2.32)		
Unpublished	3	640	0.75	0.98	0.18	0.61	(0.89,1.06)	(-0.22,2.18)	60.53**	9.06**
Auth. Leadership – Job Satisfaction Published	4	1219	-0.21	-0.22	0.03	0.45	(-0.28,-0.15)	(-1.10,0.67)		
Unpublished	3	1776	-0.24	-0.24	0.19	0.48	(-0.30,-0.18)	(-1.18,0.70)	46.32**	612.06**
Ben. Leadership – Auth. Leadership Published	38	13401	-0.16	-0.16	0.25	0.16	(-0.18,-0.14)	(-0.47,0.15)		
Unpublished	5	2284	-0.36	-0.38	0.13	0.44	(-0.42,-0.33)	(-1.24,0.49)	834.94**	83.69**
Ben. Leadership – Moral Leadership Published	32	12327	0.67	0.81	0.20	0.18	(0.79,0.83)	(0.46,1.16)		
Unpublished	5	2284	0.63	0.73	0.05	0.38	(0.68,0.78)	(-0.01, 1.47)	923.06**	22.49**
Moral Leadership – Auth. Leadership Published	33	12468	-0.20	-0.21	0.25	0.17	(-0.23, -0.19)	(-0.54,0.13)		
Unpublished	6	2534	-0.31	-0.32	0.06	0.41	(-0.37,-0.27)	(-1.12, 0.48)	1127.75**	206.16**
Moral Leadership – Sup. deference Published	3	1424	0.72	0.90	0.08	0.56	(0.84, 0.96)	(-0.19, 1.99)		
Unpublished	3	1430	0.26	0.26	0.19	0.57	(0.19, 0.34)	(-0.85, 1.37)	78.27**	175.00**

Note: *Auth. Leadership* = Authoritarian Leadership; *Ben. Leadership* = Benevolent Leadership; *k* = the number of samples in each analysis; *N* = the total number of individuals in the *k* samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; *Mean ES* = average effect size, *SD* = uncorrected standard deviation; *SD_c* = Standard deviation of corrected correlations. *95%CI* = 95% confidence interval; *95%CrI* = 95% credibility interval; *Q_w* = *Q* within; and *Q_b* = *Q* between. ***p* < .01.

TABLE 7
Moderating Effects of Measurement of Paternalistic Leadership

Variable	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	Mean <i>ES</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SD_c</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	95% <i>CrI</i>	<i>Q_w</i>	<i>Q_b</i>
Pat. Leadership – Auth. Leadership										
PLS	3	593	0.82	1.15	0.46	0.47	(1.04,1.25)	(0.23,2.06)		
Other Scales	4	1177	0.24	0.25	0.16	0.42	(0.18,0.32)	(-0.57,1.07)	755.49**	65.75**
Ben. Leadership – Auth. Leadership										
PLS	29	9839	-0.10	-0.10	0.26	0.17	(-0.13,-0.08)	(-0.44,0.23)		
Other Scales	11	4631	-0.31	-0.32	0.19	0.33	(-0.35,-0.29)	(-0.97,0.33)	733.85**	184.78**
Ben. Leadership – Moral Leadership										
PLS	26	9279	0.61	0.71	0.19	0.18	(0.69,0.74)	(0.35,1.07)		
Other Scales	9	4293	0.72	0.91	0.34	0.34	(0.87,0.94)	(0.23,1.58)	766.47**	179.08**
Ben. Leadership – Affective Commit.										
PLS	3	1416	0.48	0.52	0.12	0.67	(0.46,0.58)	(-0.80,1.84)		
Other Scales	3	2318	0.55	0.62	0.11	0.41	(0.56,0.67)	(-0.18,1.42)	337.72**	5.38*
Ben. Leadership – LMX										
PLS	4	1283	0.74	0.96	0.13	0.47	(0.89,1.02)	(0.03,1.89)		
Other Scales	3	1063	0.76	1.00	0.25	0.52	(0.93,1.07)	(-0.03,2.03)	150.42**	0.80
Moral Leadership – Auth. Leadership										
PLS	22	10420	-0.10	-0.10	0.26	0.17	(-0.12,-0.07)	(-0.43,0.24)		
Other Scales	8	4091	-0.32	-0.34	0.12	0.37	(-0.37,-0.30)	(-1.06,0.39)	1193.32**	140.59**

Note: *Auth. Leadership* = Authoritarian Leadership; *Ben. Leadership* = Benevolent Leadership; *Pat. Leadership* = Paternalistic Leadership; *PLS* = Paternalistic leadership scale; *k* = the number of samples in each analysis; *N* = the total number of individuals in the *k* samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; *Mean ES* = average effect size; *SD* = uncorrected standard deviation; *SD_c* = Standard deviation of corrected correlations. 95%*CI* = 95% confidence interval; 95%*CrI* = 95% credibility interval; *Q_w* = *Q* within; and *Q_b* = *Q* between. ****p* < .01.

TABLE 8
Moderating Effects of Organisational Sector and Power Distance

<i>Variable</i>	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>ρ</i>	<i>Mean ES</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SD_c</i>	<i>95%CI</i>	<i>95%CrI</i>	<i>Q_w</i>	<i>Q_b</i>
Ben. Leadership – Auth. Leadership										
<i>Organisational Sector</i>										
Law Enforcement	3	2225	-0.36	-0.37	0.16	0.55	(-0.41, -0.32)	(-1.45, 0.72)		
Manufacturing	6	1918	-0.03	-0.03	0.31	0.35	(-0.08, 0.03)	(-0.71, 0.65)		
Hospitality	4	1175	-0.19	-0.19	0.25	0.43	(-0.25, -0.12)	(-1.03, 0.66)	257.10**	661.53**
<i>Power Distance</i>										
High	29	9329	-0.20	-0.20	0.27	0.17	(-0.22, -0.18)	(-0.53, 0.13)		
Moderate	14	6356	-0.18	-0.18	0.24	0.28	(-0.21, -0.15)	(-0.72, 0.36)	902.96**	15.67**
Ben. Leadership – Moral Leadership										
<i>Organisational Sector</i>										
Law Enforcement	3	2225	0.78	1.04	0.04	0.58	(0.99, 1.08)	(-0.10, 2.18)		
Manufacturing	6	1918	0.59	0.68	0.12	0.39	(0.63, 0.73)	(-0.09, 1.45)		
Hospitality	3	995	0.57	0.64	0.26	0.48	(0.57, 0.72)	(-0.30, 1.59)	227.17**	718.39**
<i>Power Distance</i>										
High	25	8747	0.60	0.69	0.23	0.17	(0.67, 0.72)	(0.35, 1.04)		
Moderate	12	5864	0.72	0.90	0.07	0.30	(0.87, 0.93)	(0.31, 1.49)	1034.12**	299.79**
Moral Leadership – Auth. Leadership										
<i>Organisational Sector</i>										
Law Enforcement	3	2225	-0.38	-0.40	0.19	0.55	(-0.45, -0.36)	(-1.49, 0.68)		
Manufacturing	6	1918	-0.07	-0.07	0.28	0.35	(-0.12, -0.02)	(-0.75, 0.60)		
Hospitality	3	748	-0.27	-0.27	0.22	0.44	(-0.37, -0.18)	(-1.14, 0.59)	242.04**	1091.87**
<i>Power Distance</i>										
High	26	8838	-0.20	-0.21	0.21	0.18	(-0.23, -0.18)	(-0.55, 0.14)		
Moderate	13	6712	-0.21	-0.21	0.31	0.28	(-0.24, -0.18)	(-0.75, 0.33)	1320.29**	13.62**

TABLE 8
Continued

Variable	<i>k</i>	<i>N</i>	ρ	Mean <i>ES</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>SD_c</i>	95% <i>CI</i>	95% <i>CrI</i>	<i>Q_w</i>	<i>Q_b</i>
Ben. Leadership – Turnover Intentions										
Power Distance										
High	5	1569	-0.35	-0.37	0.12	0.42	(-0.43, -0.32)	(-1.20, 0.46)		
Moderate	3	2540	-0.18	-0.18	0.02	0.49	(-0.23, -0.13)	(-1.15, 0.79)	27.16**	53.32**
Auth. Leadership – Turnover Intentions										
Power Distance										
High	7	2064	0.23	0.24	0.15	0.36	(0.19, 0.29)	(-0.47, 0.94)		
Moderate	3	1626	0.15	0.15	0.10	0.54	(0.09, 0.21)	(-0.92, 1.22)	49.89**	14.20**
Ben. Leadership – Task Performance										
Power Distance										
High	5	1577	0.24	0.25	0.13	0.41	(0.19, 0.30)	(-0.56, 1.05)		
Moderate	4	1371	0.32	0.33	0.23	0.49	(0.27, 0.39)	(-0.63, 1.29)	117.41**	4.14*
Moral Leadership – Task Performance										
Power Distance										
High	6	1803	0.21	0.22	0.17	0.37	(0.16, 0.27)	(-0.51, 0.94)		
Moderate	3	1204	0.45	0.48	0.29	0.55	(0.41, 0.55)	(-0.59, 1.55)	221.62**	36.46**
Auth. Leadership – Task Performance										
Power Distance										
High	10	3075	-0.15	-0.15	0.17	0.32	(-0.19, -0.10)	(-0.77, 0.47)		
Moderate	3	1204	-0.20	-0.20	0.08	0.55	(-0.27, -0.14)	(-1.28, 0.87)	73.56**	2.14

Note: *Auth. Leadership* = Authoritarian Leadership; *Ben. Leadership* = Benevolent Leadership; *Pat. Leadership* = Paternalistic Leadership Scale; *k* = the number of samples in each analysis; *N* = the total number of individuals in the *k* samples; ρ = mean corrected correlation; *Mean ES* = average effect size, *SD* = uncorrected standard deviation; *SD_c* = standard deviation of corrected correlations. 95%*CI* = 95% confidence interval; 95%*CrI* = 95% credibility interval; *Q_w* = *Q* within; and *Q_b* = *Q* between. ***p* < .01.

($\rho = 0.72$ vs $\rho = 0.60$), moral leadership and authoritarian leadership ($\rho = -0.21$ vs $\rho = -0.20$), benevolent leadership and task performance ($\rho = 0.32$ vs $\rho = 0.24$), and moral leadership and task performance ($\rho = 0.45$ vs $\rho = 0.21$) compared to high power distance cultures. Finally, I found some preliminary evidence for Research question 2 which examined the moderating role of organisational sector (Table 8). In general, I found that the relationships between study variables were stronger for samples from law enforcement followed by hospitality and manufacturing sectors. More specifically, I found stronger mean corrected correlations between benevolent leadership and authoritarian leadership, benevolent leadership and moral leadership, and moral leadership and authoritarian leadership for samples from law enforcement industry ($\rho_s = -0.36, 0.78, -0.38$ respectively) compared to hospitality ($\rho_s = -0.19, 0.57, -0.27$ respectively) and manufacturing ($\rho_s = -0.03, 0.59, 0.07$) sectors.

Relative Importance of Paternalistic Leadership

I performed relative weights analysis to explore the distinctive contribution of various dimensions of paternalistic leadership in predicting follower work outcomes. To construct the correlation matrix, I used the studies from current meta-analysis or used correlations from previous meta-analyses (Dulebohn, Bommer, Liden, Brouer, & Ferris, 2012; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002; Iaffaldano, & Muchinsky, 1985; Ilies, Nahrgang, & Morgeson, 2007; Nielsen, Hrivnak, & Shaw, 2009; Ricketta, 2002; Tett, and Meyer, 1993). Using the above techniques, I was able to construct correlation matrices for four follower outcomes: job satisfaction, affective commitment, OCBs, and task performance. Overall, benevolent and moral leadership showed greater dominance over authoritarian leadership in predicting follower outcomes. Specifically, benevolent and moral leadership showed greater dominance for job satisfaction (RW = 0.23, %RW = 52.14% for moral; RW = 0.20, %RW = 46.75% for benevolent), affective commitment (RW = 0.40, %RW = 70.22% for moral; RW = 0.13, %RW = 22.81% for benevolent) and task performance (RW = 0.05, %RW = 50.22% for moral; RW = 0.04, %RW = 36.07% for benevolent). However, authoritarian leadership and moral leadership showed greater dominance in the prediction of OCB(I)s (RW = 0.07, %RW = 37.03% for authoritarian and RW = 0.07, %RW = 34.24% for moral) (Table 9).

I also compared the relative contribution of various dimensions of paternalistic leadership with transformational leadership and LMX in predicting follower outcomes. Overall, LMX and transformational leadership showed greater dominance over paternalistic leadership for task performance (RW = 0.04, %RW = 27.80% for LMX and RW = 0.04, %RW = 27.73% for

TABLE 9
Relative Importance of Various Dimensions of Paternalistic Leadership

	<i>Follower Job Satisfaction</i>		<i>Follower Affective Commitment</i>	
	<i>Raw Relative Weights (RW)</i>	<i>Relative Weights as a % of R² (%RW)</i>	<i>Raw Relative Weights (RW)</i>	<i>Relative Weights as a % of R² (%RW)</i>
Authoritative Leadership	0.00	1.11	0.04	6.97
Benevolent Leadership	0.20	46.75	0.13	22.81
Moral Leadership	0.23	52.14	0.40	70.22
			<i>R² = 0.57</i>	
	<i>Follower OCB(I)s</i>		<i>Follower Team Performance</i>	
Authoritative Leadership	0.07	37.03	0.02	13.71
Benevolent Leadership	0.06	28.73	0.04	36.07
Moral Leadership	0.07	34.24	0.05	50.22
	<i>R² = 0.20</i>		<i>R² = 0.11</i>	

Note: RW = raw relative weight; %RW = percentage of relative weight calculated by dividing individual relative weights by their sum (total R²) and multiplying by 100 (RWs add up to R² and %RWs add up to 100%, respectively).

transformational leadership). However, moral and benevolent leadership showed greater dominance for commitment (RW = 0.33, %RW = 57.56% for moral; RW = 0.09, %RW = 16.16% for benevolent) and job satisfaction (RW = 0.15, %RW = 33.13% for moral; RW = 0.12, %RW = 26.76% for benevolent). In addition, authoritarian followed by LMX showed greater dominance for OCBs (RW = 0.07, %RW = 34.07% for authoritarian; RW = 0.05, %RW = 23.35% for LMX) (Table 10).

DISCUSSION

In this study, I contribute to the literature on paternalistic leadership in at least three ways. First, I clarify the relationship between the different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and follower work outcomes. My results show that authoritarian leadership is related negatively and benevolence and moral leadership are related positively to numerous follower outcomes such as follower performance and job satisfaction. Second, I explore the moderating effects of publication status, a scale used to measure paternalistic leadership, organisational sector, and power-distance of study samples on the relationships between paternalistic leadership and its proposed outcomes. My analyses show mixed evidence for these moderators. Finally,

TABLE 10
 Relative Importance of Various Dimensions of Paternalistic Leadership and LMX and Transformational Leadership

	<i>Follower Job Satisfaction</i>		<i>Follower Affective Commitment</i>	
	<i>Raw Relative Weights (RW)</i>	<i>Relative Weights as a % of R² (%RW)</i>	<i>Raw Relative Weights (RW)</i>	<i>Relative Weights as a % of R² (%RW)</i>
Authoritarian Leadership	0.00	1.02	0.04	6.43
Benevolent Leadership	0.12	26.76	0.09	16.16
Moral Leadership	0.15	33.13	0.33	57.56
LMX	0.06	12.85	0.07	11.86
Transformational Leadership	0.12	26.24	0.05	8.00
			<i>R² = 0.58</i>	
	<i>Supervisor Ratings of Follower OCB(I)</i>		<i>Follower Task Performance</i>	
Authoritarian Leadership	0.07	34.07	0.02	11.56
Benevolent Leadership	0.03	12.79	0.02	12.58
Moral Leadership	0.04	17.67	0.03	20.33
LMX	0.05	23.35	0.04	27.80
Transformational Leadership	0.03	12.12	0.04	27.73
			<i>R² = 0.15</i>	

Note: *RW* = raw relative weight; *%RW* = percentage of relative weight calculated by dividing individual relative weights by their sum (total *R²*) and multiplying by 100 (*RWs* add up to *R²* and *%RWs* add up to 100%, respectively).

I examine the relative importance of different dimensions of paternalistic leadership in predicting follower outcomes. I also conducted relative weight analysis to compare how well paternalistic leadership, transformational leadership, and LMX predict follower work outcomes. In general, I found that benevolent and moral leadership dimensions of paternalistic leadership showed greater dominance in the prediction of follower work outcomes.

Theoretical Implications

One of the main findings of my study is that different dimensions of paternalistic leadership are associated with different follower outcomes. In general, authoritarian leadership has a negative impact on followers, with the most pronounced effect on follower continuance commitment ($\rho = -0.51$) and affective dependence ($\rho = -0.53$). On the other hand, benevolent and moral leadership have beneficial outcomes for the followers. For

instance, benevolent leadership had a strong positive effect on supervisor trust ($\rho = 0.80$), affective dependence on the leader ($\rho = 0.78$), and follower OCBs ($\rho = 0.77$) while moral leadership had a strong positive influence on follower continuance commitment ($\rho = 0.79$), supervisor trust ($\rho = 0.78$), and affective commitment ($\rho = 0.74$). Overall, these results have two implications. First, my results clarify inconsistencies in previous research on the relationships between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and corresponding follower outcomes. I found that while authoritarian leaders have a negative impact on their followers, benevolent leaders and moral leaders have a positive influence on their followers' work outcomes. Second, my results suggest that paternalistic leaders play an important role in shaping follower attitudes towards the leader as well as the organisation that the leader represents. Specifically, I found that authoritarian leaders negatively influence followers' organisational commitment and trust in the leader, but benevolent and moral leaders have a positive influence on these outcomes. Taken together, these results suggest that organisations can benefit if they encourage their leaders to display benevolence leadership and moral leadership.

Furthermore, I found that when the three dimensions were combined to create an overall composite measure of paternalistic leadership, there was a significant relationship between paternalistic leadership and employee trust in the leader ($\rho = 0.75$) and follower commitment ($\rho = 0.64$). These results suggest that paternalistic leaders have a significant influence on fostering employee trust in the leader. This finding is significant because several scholars have proposed that employee trust in the leader indicates a positive exchange relationship between followers and leaders (Lewicki, Wiethoff, & Tomlinson, 2005; Moorman & Byrne, 2005). This positive exchange relationship may then elicit positive reciprocation from followers in the form of higher commitment, OCBs, job satisfaction, and so on (Organ, 1990; Sue-Chan, Au, & Hackett, 2012). Future researchers should further explore the mediating role of employee trust and other psychological mechanisms in the relationships between paternalistic leadership and employee outcomes.

Another interesting finding of my study was that both benevolent and moral leaders were effective in reducing follower turnover intentions. Indeed, scholars have proposed that benevolent leaders evoke follower gratitude and repayment of leader's concern; moral leaders elicit follower respect and identification with the leader's values (Farh & Cheng, 2000; Cheng et al., 2004). Thus, one possible explanation for this finding is that benevolent leaders enhance follower personal well-being whereas moral leaders enhance follower identification with the leader and a desire to stay with the leader and organisation. Future researchers should investigate other relevant explanations and

the specific process by which moral leaders influence follower turnover intentions and what makes them different from benevolent leaders.

I also investigated the relationship between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and LMX and between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership and transformational leadership. I found that LMX was correlated strongly with benevolent ($\rho = 0.75$) and moral leadership ($\rho = 0.68$). These results are not surprising as both benevolent and moral leaders maintain high-quality relationships with their followers and engage in behaviours that are in the best interest of their followers. In addition, I found that the correlation between an overall paternalistic leadership construct and LMX was the strongest ($\rho = 0.86$) (Table 4). This result is in agreement with previous scholars who have argued that paternalistic leaders may influence their followers by developing high quality, leader-follower relationships (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Pellegrini et al., 2010). Such high quality relationship with the leader may then elicit followers to reciprocate in the form of positive work outcomes such as increased levels of trust in the supervisor, job satisfaction, commitment, OCBs, and reduced levels of turnover intentions. To investigate the mediating role of LMX in shaping follower outcomes, I conducted meta-analytic structural equation modelling (MASEM). To build the correlation matrix for MASEM, I used meta-analytic correlations from this study and the correlations between various outcomes from previously published meta-analyses by Dirks and Ferrin (2002); Dulebohn et al. (2012); Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001); Lepine, Erez, and Johnson (2002); Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009); Riketta (2002); Tett and Meyer (1993); and Zimmerman and Darnold (2009). Table 11 shows the meta-analytic correlation matrix that was used as an input for the MASEM. I found that LMX partially mediates the relationships between paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes (χ^2 (df = 1) = 1.26 ($p > .05$); CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .009) (Figure 1). The fit of the partially mediated model was better than the full mediation (χ^2 (df = 6) = 257.86 ($p < .05$); CFI = .90; RMSEA = .28) or no mediation model (χ^2 (df = 2) = 2246.33 ($p < .05$); CFI = .70; RMSEA = .82). Taken together, my results suggest that paternalistic leaders may have both a direct as well as an indirect effect (through LMX) on follower outcomes. These results extend the literature on paternalistic leadership and add to our understanding of the specific process by which paternalistic leaders may influence follower work outcomes. Future scholars should examine the role of other relevant mediators of followers, leaders, as well as organisational outcomes of paternalistic leadership.

I also found that authoritarian leadership was associated negatively but benevolent and moral leadership were associated positively with individualised consideration, idealised influence, and inspirational motivation dimensions of transformational leadership. Specifically, I found that authoritarian

TABLE 11
Meta-Analytic Correlation Table

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Paternalistic Leadership (ρ)	---							
2. LMX (ρ) (k/N)	0.86 (3/856)	---						
3. Org. Commitment (ρ) (k/N)	0.64 (4/990)	0.47 (58/14208)	---					
4. Job Satisfaction (ρ) (k/N)	0.52 (7/2123)	0.49 (88/22520)	0.70 (68/35282)	---				
5. Job Performance (ρ) (k/N)	0.21 (4/1440)	0.34 (108/25520)	0.24 (32/8060)	0.30 (312/54471)	---			
6. OCB (ρ) (k/N)	0.30 (4/1034)	0.39 (27/7541)	0.20 (17/5133)	0.24 (22/7100)	0.60 (72/21881)	---		
7. Supervisor Trust (ρ) (k/N)	0.75 (4/1219)	0.73 (18/4918)	0.59 (40/9676)	0.65 (34/10631)	0.70 (21/5686)	0.22 (7/3166)	---	
8. Turnover Intentions (ρ) (k/N)	-0.37 (4/1120)	-0.39 (38/11790)	-0.54 (51/13829)	-0.58 (88/35494)	-0.14 (35/9557)	-0.22 (90/26510)	-0.47 (17/3297)	---

Note: Harmonic Mean = 3339, k = number of independent effect sizes; N = combined sample size used to determine meta-analytic correlation between variables; ρ = corrected correlation of the population (correcting for measurement error).

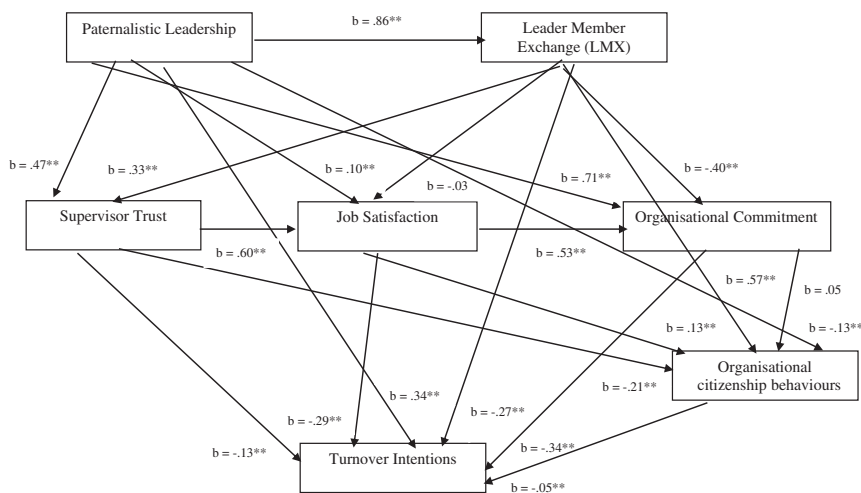


FIGURE 1. Partially mediated meta-analytic structural equation model (mediated by LMX).

Note: Values represent standardized regression weights. $^{**}p < .01$.

leadership was associated negatively ($\rho = -0.48$), while benevolent and moral leadership were strongly associated with idealised influence dimensions ($\rho = 0.78$ for benevolent vs $\rho = 0.71$ for moral). Furthermore, benevolent leadership had a strong association with the other two dimensions of transformational leadership, individualised consideration ($\rho = 0.77$) and inspirational motivation ($\rho = 0.74$). Overall, these results suggest that benevolent leaders and moral leaders regularly use transformational techniques to influence their followers. These findings are consistent with Walumbwa, Wang, Lawler and Shi (2004) who proposed that benevolent and moral leaders may use transformational leadership behaviours. For example, they may provide a compelling vision, emphasise collective interests, and develop personalised interactions with their followers—behaviours that are similar to the behaviours of transformational leaders. Indeed, researchers have argued that the essence of Confucian leadership is not authoritarianism but leadership rooted in virtues and harmony. Pellegrini and Scandura (2008), for instance, argued that the authoritarianism may have contextual limitations and may not apply in cultures with pluralistic and egalitarian values. Nevertheless, future researchers should investigate the extent to which paternalistic leadership is similar to or different from other leadership constructs, such as LMX and transformational leadership (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Taken together, my results reaffirm the concerns raised by previous researchers (e.g., Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Wagstaff et al., 2015) and raise

the issue of construct validity of paternalistic leadership. To further investigate this issue, I performed relative weight analysis to compare the relative contribution of paternalistic versus transformational leadership and LMX in predicting follower outcomes. I found that both benevolent and moral leadership outperformed transformational leadership and LMX in predicting job satisfaction and commitment. Interestingly, authoritarian leadership and LMX outperformed transformational leadership in the prediction of OCB (I)s. Finally, I found that transformational leadership and LMX outperformed the dimensions of paternalistic leadership in predicting follower task performance. With the exception of OCB (I)s, these results suggest that transformational leadership and LMX are better predictors of individual level outcomes while paternalistic leadership is a better predictor of organisational level outcomes. Scholars have suggested that paternalistic leadership style is prevalent in cultures that value collectivism and hierarchical relationships (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006, 2008). It is possible that followers' perceptions of a paternal leader as a caring and moral individual has a more direct impact on follower's positive attitudes about the leader and the organisation that the leader represents. These positive perceptions about the leader may then elicit followers to reciprocate in the form of positive work consequences such as increased job satisfaction and commitment. In addition, because OCBs are discretionary and informally rewarded, it is possible that employees require some form of leader direction and moral guidance to engage in such extra-role behaviours. Future scholars should explore this and other possible explanations. Moreover, scholars should examine the extent to which leaders in individualistic cultures can use paternalistic leadership style to influence organisational outcomes.

Finally, I investigated several methodological and cultural moderators of paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes relationship. With respect to publication status, I found partial evidence. In 3 out of 6 relationships, correlations of unpublished studies were stronger than correlations found in published studies. It is possible that relatively few unpublished studies (22.62%) in my sample may have influenced these results. I also found evidence for the moderating effects of measurement instrument used to assess paternalistic leadership. Specifically, Cheng et al.'s (2000) widely used measure of paternalistic leadership showed stronger correlations in one case while other measures of paternalistic leadership showed stronger correlations in four cases. As mentioned previously, scholars have questioned the validity of Cheng et al.'s (2000) multi-dimensional instrument and have argued that the three dimensions fail to form a coherent and holistic second-order construct of paternalistic leadership (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Moreover, with respect to the uni-dimensional measures, it is possible that these measures assess different types of paternal leader behaviours which may then elicit

different types of follower outcomes. Taken together, these results highlight the importance of additional research surrounding the validity and characterisation of paternalistic leadership construct. Moreover, future scholars should attempt to collect more unpublished studies and investigate the differences between different measurements of paternalistic leadership.

With respect to organisational sector, I found that the correlation between different dimensions of paternalistic leadership was stronger for law enforcement employees followed by hospitality and manufacturing. It is possible that paternal leaders with an authoritarian yet principled and caring attitude are more inclined to work in law enforcement where they can serve and protect other individuals. Future scholars should explore the influence of organisational sectors in shaping followers' responses to paternalistic leadership. Finally, I found that in four out of seven cases, inter-dimensional relationships and correlations between paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes were weaker for studies conducted in high power distance cultures (e.g., Malaysia, China, India) than moderate power distance cultures (e.g., Pakistan and Taiwan). These findings suggest that in moderate power distance cultures, paternalistic leadership has a stronger influence in shaping follower outcomes and follower perceptions of paternalistic leadership. However, I recognise that these results may be different if I had enough studies to compare low versus high power distance cultures. Indeed, a number of contextual and other factors may influence the cultural/geographic differences and I call upon additional theoretical and empirical research to uncover the nature of this variation.

Practical Implications

My meta-analytic results have several practical implications. First, my results confirm that paternalistic leadership, and more specifically, benevolent and moral leadership are associated positively with several follower work outcomes. As such, organisations can benefit by promoting and training leaders on these leadership styles. Second, although authoritarian leadership is an important component of paternalistic leadership, my results show that employees respond unfavourably to authoritarian leaders. Therefore, when possible, leaders should avoid using an authoritarian approach to influence their followers. Finally, I found that different leadership styles are associated with different types of follower outcomes. Specifically, my results suggest that leaders should use paternalistic leadership style when their objective is to enhance follower commitment or job satisfaction. However, LMX or transformational leadership styles are more relevant for leaders interested in improving employee task performance.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

Although the results of my study contribute meaningfully to the literature on paternalistic leadership, it has limitations. First, the majority of the primary studies included in this meta-analysis were non-experimental and/or cross-sectional in nature. This limits my ability to infer causation. In addition, due to insufficient data, I was unable to test interactions between high and low levels of authoritarianism, benevolence, and moral leadership. Moreover, the majority of the variables used in the current analyses were self-reported by employees. Thus, some of the relationships reported in my meta-analyses may raise the likelihood of common method bias. In the future, scholars should conduct longitudinal research and seek multiple sources for the measurement of key variables. Second, the majority of the study samples used in the current analyses were collected in high power distance, collectivist and/or Eastern cultures such as China, India, and Turkey. Thus, it is difficult to generalise the results obtained in this study to other low power distance cultures. Future researchers should therefore examine the influence of paternalistic leadership on follower outcomes in individualistic and Western cultures. Third, due to insufficient data, I was unable to analyse a broader range of antecedents, outcomes, and moderators of paternalistic leadership and the relationship between paternalistic leadership and intellectual stimulation dimension of transformation leadership. Furthermore, my results may suffer from second-order sampling error due to the small number of studies available for some of the paternalistic leadership and follower outcomes relationships. As such, I encourage future scholars to examine other possible relationships and consider research design that uses within and between-person designs to account for individual differences in outcomes associated with paternalistic leadership. Finally, although I was able to test the relative importance of different leadership styles in predicting follower outcomes, I was unable to test for interaction effects. In addition, due to insufficient data I was unable to test the relative contribution of paternalistic leadership vis-à-vis other leadership styles such as ethical leadership or servant leadership. Finally, because of insufficient evidence I was unable to test for other moderators such as low power distance and self-versus-other ratings of follower outcomes. Future researchers should address these limitations and test a broader theoretical model underlying the various moderators, predictors, and outcomes of paternalistic leadership.

CONCLUSION

In this study, I conducted a comprehensive meta-analytic review of the relationships between paternalistic leadership and its three dimensions with various follower work outcomes. I found that authoritarian leadership

is associated negatively while benevolent and moral leadership are associated positively with various follower outcomes. My results also highlight the significance of different leadership styles in predicting different follower outcomes. Specifically, I found that LMX and transformational leadership outperformed paternalistic leadership in predicting follower task performance. However, paternalistic leadership outperformed LMX and transformational leadership in predicting follower job satisfaction and organisational commitment. I encourage future researchers to build upon these findings and engage in research that enhances our understanding of various individual, organisational, and contextual factors that influence the emergence and effectiveness of paternalistic leadership.

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