

THE EFFECTS OF AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP  
ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

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BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY

2020

THE EFFECTS OF AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP  
ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES

Thesis submitted to the  
Institute for Graduate Studies in Social Sciences  
in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy  
in  
Management

by  
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Boğaziçi University

2020

## DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Can Ezerdi, certify that

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## ABSTRACT

### The Effects of Autocratic Leadership on Employee Outcomes

Autocratic leadership, which is a directive style of leadership based on the conceptualization where leaders take all responsibility for decisions and subordinate performance, was a very popular topic within the leadership field after World War II. The main aim of this research is to explore the under-studied topic of Autocratic Leadership and its effects on emotional, cognitive and behavioral employee outcomes, and understand the boundary conditions in which these relationships operate. By collecting data from 202 leaders and 202 of their immediate subordinates, the effects of autocratic leadership on employee's emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes were measured. Contrary to the approach of the field in examining autocratic leadership by looking at the linear relationships, by utilizing social hierarchy theory, this study reveals the importance of investigating autocratic leadership from a curvilinear relationship standpoint. In this context, this research investigates the curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes, which provides the option to look at the outcomes for low, moderate, and high levels of autocratic leadership. The results show support for the idea that the outcomes of autocratic leadership change depending on the amount of autocratic leadership present in the situation, and support for the idea that the construct has different effects on emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes. The moderating effects of leader-member exchange social comparison and perceived organizational support on these relationships is also partially supported by the results.

## ÖZET

### Otokratik Liderliğin Çalışan Sonuçlarına Etkileri

Direktif tarz bir liderlik stili olan ve liderlerin karar verme ve çalışan performansı konularında tüm sorumluluğu alması ile kavramlaştırılan bir liderlik stili olan otokratik liderlik, özellikle 2. Dünya Savaşı sonrasında çok popülerdi. Bu tezin ana amacı, literatürde üzerinde az çalışma bulunan otokratik liderliğin duygusal, bilişsel ve davranışsal çalışan sonuçları üzerindeki etkilerini anlamak ve bu etkileşimlerin hangi ara bulucu değişkenler tarafından etkilendiğini araştırmaktır. 202 lider ve bu liderlerin 202 direkt çalışanından veri toplanması sonucu otokratik liderliğin çalışanların duygusal, bilişsel ve davranışsal sonuçları üzerindeki etkileri ölçülmüştür. Şu ana kadar otokratik liderlik ve çalışan sonuçlarına doğrusal bir ilişki yoluyla bakan liderlik alanının aksine, sosyal hiyerarşi teorisi ışığında otokratik liderlik ve çalışan sonuçlarının ilişkisini eğrisel bir yaklaşım ile incelemenin önemini ortaya koymaktadır. Bu bağlamda tez, otokratik liderlik ve duygusal, bilişsel ve davranışsal çalışan sonuçlarının arasındaki ilişkiye eğrisel bir yaklaşım ile bakarak; otokratik liderliğin düşük, orta ve yüksek hallerinde bu etkileri ve çalışan sonuçlarını inceleme şansı bulmuştur. Tezin sonuçları, otokratik liderlik ve negatif duygusal sonuçlar arasındaki eğrisel ilişkiyi tam olarak desteklemektedir. Ek olarak tez, otokratik liderlik ve duygusal, bilişsel ve davranışsal sonuçlar arasındaki eğrisel ilişkiyi kısmi olarak desteklemektedir. Aynı zamanda tez sonuçları, sosyal karşılaştırmaya bağlı lider-çalışan ilişkisi ve hissedilen organizasyon desteğinin ara bulucu değişken görevlerini kısmi olarak desteklenmiştir.

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Five years is a long time to work on something, and the road to getting your doctoral degree is definitely a bumpy road with lots of obstacles in the way to the ultimate goal: to become a respected and liked professor, and a well-recognized academic. I feel enormously lucky and grateful to have met my guide in this rocky road to success on my first day at school: Prof. Hayat Kabasakal. I sincerely believe with my whole heart that none of the accomplishments of the past 5 years would be possible without the incredibly sincere guidance and enormous help from Hayat Hoca. Hayat Hoca is definitely more than an advisor for me, she is a role model, and my academic mother. The way she handles her students with kindness and care, with utmost interest in their problems, academic or non-academic, has shown me how a professor should be. And I am incredibly proud to say that Hayat Hoca is the type of professor I want to be some day. Although I can be a stubborn person sometimes, and it takes a lot of effort to get me to act on things, I want to thank Hayat Hoca for her patience in growing me as an academic and most importantly as a person. Thank you for all the kind interactions, for showing me the right way to do things. Thank you for teaching me how to think and act like an academic. My gratitude to you for your never-ending patience, kindness, and sincere love in this journey.

I am also very grateful to my dissertation committee. Thank you Prof. Yasin Rofcanin, as my co-advisor, who have always been there for me, both in the U.K and in Turkey. I also would like to thank Prof. Özlem Öz, Prof. Güler İslamoğlu, Prof. Alev Torun and Assoc.Prof. Hüseyin Karaca for their valuable insights. This dream would not have come true without all their valuable contributions.

*To Fenerbahçe, a part of me that will never ever die.*

*To my parents, who always support me unconditionally.*

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

In the long history of leadership research, the focus on autocratic leadership at one time was so popular that it was arguably one of the most researched topics in social sciences (Meloan, 1993). Since the first study on autocratic leadership by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939), many styles were carefully considered and thoroughly researched. However, some argue that authoritarianism and how it influences leadership and leadership processes were neglected in recent decades (Harms, Wood, Landay, Lester & Lester, 2017). Following this, Bass (2008) argues that although there has been significant interest in the autocratic leadership research at the beginning of the century, the interest has faded during the 1980s. Researchers in the field also argue that with the current political and social state of the world, a better understanding of authoritarianism is needed and leadership researchers would benefit from a renewed interest in studying why followers embrace autocratic leaders (Harms et al., 2017). Although one could argue that the recent surge in focus on toxic leadership, abusive leadership and the dark side of leadership somehow covers the area, the specific construct of autocratic leadership is not studied in its entirety. When we delve into the history and the direction of the study of autocratic leadership in the field, we see that autocratic leader behavior in the workplace has generally been attributed to adverse outcomes in the literature. De Hoogh et al. (2015) propose that although it is argued that behaviours that stem from autocratic leadership, and thus leaders, result in lower ratings in team morale and performance, there is a need in exploring the positive outcomes as well. Although this negative view of autocratic leader behavior is still prominent in modern leadership literature, some authors

suggest that autocratic leadership behavior could have positive outcomes as well, especially on morale and performance. (De Hoogh et al., 2015) By nature, autocratic leadership could be characterized by the dispersion of power within an organization, and by the centralization of decision making and directive power in a single dominant leader and creates a clearly defined intrateam hierarchy (Bass & Bass, 2008). Relating these two views on autocratic leadership by Bass and De Hoogh et al. we could argue that through a hierarchy, autocratic leadership uncovers both negative and positive outcomes on the followers, while also depending on the moderating variables present in the environment. The adaptive aspect of Social hierarchy theory suggests that autocratic leadership may also have positive follower outcomes through the creation of positive psychological, cognitive and behavioral outcomes for the followers. Thus, this research will be based on the social hierarchy theory as a framework. (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). In this context, there is a need to define the construct according to the nature of this research, which looks at the relationship of autocratic leadership with specific organizational outcomes, effected by boundary conditions.

Leadership has proven to be quite challenging to define. Countless definitions and concepts have been put forward in countless research papers, essays and books, to define the construct once and for all. Rost (1993) found 221 different definitions of leadership in 587 publications he researched. This number suggests that leadership is hardly a construct that has a universally accepted definition. Although leadership is not only limited to the leaders themselves and contingent on many factors including the environment, the organization and the relationship between leader and follower, early researchers working on the construct labelled their definitions of leadership as “leader-centric definitions of leadership” (Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Bingham, 1927;

Smith, 1934; Gronn, 1999). On the other hand, others took a different approach and looked at the effect of the leader (Cowley, 1928; Davis, 1942; Knickerbocker, 1948; Bellows, 1959; Bennis, 1983; Bass, 1983; Tichy and Davanna, 1986) and the interaction between the leader and the follower (Smith, 1948; Sherif and Sherif, 1956; Raven and French, 1958; Paige, 1977; Lord and Maher, 1991; Shamir, 1991). Although these scattered and sporadic definitions imply that there is no “one size fits all” definition of leadership, it must be considered that this also means that leadership is a construct which changes and adapts depending on the individuals, the relationships and the boundary conditions of the specific context that it is assessed.

On the other hand, as the nature of autocratic leadership implies power in the leader, it is best to take a “leadership as a power relationship” approach when defining leadership in parallel with the aims of this thesis (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Although this point of view is usually associated with political theorists such as Marx and Machiavelli in explaining the theory of political leadership, it is applicable in an organizational setting as well, since some leaders regardless of the nature of their leadership (political or otherwise) “tend to transform any opportunity for leadership into an overt power relationship” (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). Subsequently, since the use of power in leader-follower relationships is almost always regarded as a form of influence relationship, the results of this power-based dynamic have led researchers to altogether reject the notion of authoritarian leadership because of the “frequency of this observation and the often undesirable consequences of it for individuals and societies”. (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). In the end, I agree with not giving a clear cut definition of leadership but talking about how it is a universal phenomenon, and how it is “an interaction between two or more members of the group that often involves

the structuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of the members” (Bass and Stogdill, 1990).

There is a reason why leadership is a popular topic in social sciences and continues to be so. Leadership is a phenomenon that is engraved in our existence. We need to be nurtured for an extended period by our parents in order to stay alive. In early childhood, we are instructed usually by our parents, then as we grow up, social pressures and friends start to take their role as leaders. How we think, how we act and behave, and even our attitudes are shaped through our contact with SUCH “leaders”. Accordingly, leadership will always be a universal topic and a crucial one, as well. Although the concept of leadership is ever-present in our lives, “the patterns of behavior that are regarded as acceptable in leaders differ from time to time and from one culture to another, although there are some surprising commonalities” (Bass and Stogdill, 1990). This element of change in leadership, or how different times calls for different leaders, and how we have defined the construct as adapting to its surroundings is an essential concept, and one of the reasons why leadership was studied and why it is studied meticulously now. Similar to leadership, change is constant, and there is a change in what we expect from a leader. The expectations of a leader in 1920 and 2020 are significantly different from one another. Bill Gates famously pointed out: “If the 1980s were about quality, and the 1990s were about reengineering, then the 2000s will be about velocity, about how quickly business itself will be transacted.” (Gates, 1999). When we look at organizations of the previous century and compare them to the organizations of 2020, we can see stark differences, especially in aspects such as organizational culture, people within organizations, systems that are governing these organizations, information that is processed and most relevant to the thesis in hand, the styles of leadership exercised

within these organizations (Hiebert and Klatt, 2001). It is important to emphasize that the change does not only happen on an organizational level. Starting from us, the individuals to the groups we work in, to the organizations we devote ourselves to, and to the nations we feel citizens of, are all changing very fast. Therefore, leadership is essential to study, as outstanding as it was 100 years ago, maybe it is more crucial for us to find leadership that will either guide us out from these tumultuous times now or leadership that will provide us with the means to be self-sufficient and find our ways out of the mess.

Since the early days, leadership has been a construct which is scrutinized in every imaginable way. In their study linking leadership to organizational outcomes, Hiller et al. (2011) categorized leadership outcomes into four segments, namely effectiveness, attitude, behavior and cognition-based outcomes. In the effectiveness segment, we can see three sub-categories: tangible outcomes, leadership effectiveness and performance rating. Examples of tangible outcomes can be described as bankruptcy (Daily & Dalton, 1995), sale growth (McGee, Dowling, & Megginson, 1995), market valuation (Certo, Daily, Cannella, & Dalton, 2003), profit (Ensley & Pearce, 2001) and finally return on sales, assets and invested capital (Henderson, Miller, & Hambrick, 2006). In this context, almost all tangible outcomes in relation to leadership are financial outcomes. At the attitude segment, we can see three sub-categories: attitude, motivation, and emotion. In this category, leadership is linked to attitudinal outcomes such as cynicism (Bommer, Rich & Rubin, 2005), identification (Chun, Yammarino, Dionne, Sosik & Moon, 2009), organizational commitment (Kinicki & Vecchio, 1994), satisfaction (Erez, Le Pine & Elms, 2002), self-esteem (De Cremer, van Knippenberg, van Knippenberg, Mullenders, & Stinglhamber, 2005), trust (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991) and reverence (Conger,

Kanungo, & Menon, 2000). There are three sub-categories in the behavior category: group processes, OCB and self-reported behaviors. In this segment, some examples of behavioral leadership outcomes are cooperation (De Cremer & Tyler, 2007; Kahai, Sosik, & Avolio, 2003), communication processes (Marks, Zaccaro, & Mathieu, 2000), transition and action (Mathieu, Gilson, & Ruddy, 2006), five-factor model of personality traits and organizational citizenship behavior (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990), helping and prosocial behaviors (Den Hartog, De Hoogh, & Keegan, 2007; George & Bettenhausen, 1990) and finally turnover behavior and turnover intentions (Nishii & Mayer, 2009; Bauer, Erdogan, Liden, & Wayne, 2006). The final segment Hiller et al. (2011) defined is cognition with only one sub-category: perceptual outcomes. In this sub-category, we see perceptual outcomes such as climate (Salvaggio et al., 2007), leader prototypicality (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), perceived organizational support and structure (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2003; Miller & Droge, 1986) and finally, self-schema (Engle & Lord, 1997).

Without a doubt, Lewin, Lippitt and White's (1939) work on operationalizing different styles of leadership has paved the way for other researchers to scrutinize the construct furthermore. Since their work in the late 1930s, dozens of styles of leadership have emerged. However, in their seminal work, Lewin et al. (1939), through experiments, operationalized the construct only as autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire styles of leadership. Since then, there has been a plethora of work on these styles operationalized by Lewin et al. (1939); especially democratic leadership is a prominent area of research for leadership scholars (Rosenfeld & Plax, 1975; Gastil, 1994a; Foels, Driskell & Mullen, 2000; Raelin, 2012; Ulukan, 2012), followed by autocratic leadership (Gastil, 1994b; Perez-Linan, 2003; Van Vugt,

Jepson & Hart, 2004; Van de Vliert, 2006; De Cremer, 2006; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; De Hoogh, Greer, Den Hartog, 2015; Caillier, 2020) and finally the laissez-faire style of leadership (Krauft, 1971; Deluga, 1990; Eagley, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2002; Skogstad, Einarsen & Torsheim, 2007; Skogstad, Hetland & Glaso, 2014; Glambek, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2018).

Bass (2008), in his *Handbook of Leadership*, argued that discussion on the duality of how leaders should lead, democratically or autocratically, has been going on for hundreds of years. It is also argued that this question is primarily about human nature, as opposing doctrines from theologians and philosophers suggesting the human soul was either “cursed by the original sin or blessed with the ability to find salvation” (Bass, 2008). The believers of the idea that human soul was cursed also believed that humans were innately evil, and needed to be “controlled, directed and uplifted by authority” (Bass, 2008). On the other end of the spectrum, the believers of the idea that humans were good, believed that “they must be given freedom in which to act, learn, grow and overcome” (Bass, 2008). I believe this question is still relevant today, and worth researching. In the literature, these concepts are categorized as leadership clusters. In the democratic leadership cluster, the most dominant theme is the concern shown for the subordinates. According to Bass (2008), democratic leaders are considerate leaders (Fleishman, 1953), which later would become a dimension in transformational leadership (Conger, 1999). They are democratic as demonstrated in the early works of Lewin and Lippitt (1938), consultative and participative in the sense that they involve employees in decision making (Bass, 1976), employee-centered, which relates to the consultative and participative aspect as well (Likert, 1961), concerned with people, especially for the well-being of their employees (Blake & Mouton, 1964), relationship-oriented in the

sense that the quality of the relationships they form are more important than the outcomes of the relationship (Foels, Driskell & Mullen, 2000) and oriented toward joint decision making, which in nature implies a democratic style of leadership as opposed to an autocratic one (Heller, 1969).

Leaders who are on the autocratic end of the spectrum convey very different attitudes and behaviors compared to their democratic counterparts. Leaders who belong to the autocratic-authoritarian leader cluster are “arbitrary, controlling, power-oriented, coercive, punitive and close-minded” (Bass, 2008). These adjectives shed a negative light on the construct since these leadership characteristics are not in line with the modern organization and the modern employee we usually imagine. However, in nature, the autocratic style of leadership encompasses the idea of taking all responsibility for decisions and actions on leader’s part, while assuming responsibility for the performance and well-being of their followers as well. This style in its nature implies that autocratic leaders are more concerned with getting things done, while also showing some concern for the well-being of their followers in attaining these goals. In order to achieve this goal attainment, they tend to expect strict adherence to the rules and their authority. Autocratic leadership can be described as a construct with a dual nature. While creating adverse outcomes for the leader and the follower, especially on the satisfaction spectrum, it also tends to create positive outcomes in transactional processes in the organization, meaning that at the end, they get the job done (Flax, 1984). Bass (2008) describes the characteristics of autocratic leaders as directive (Bass & Barrett, 1981; Heller, 1969), coercive and persuasive (Bass, 1960), concerned with production (Blake & Mouton, 1964), lone decision-makers (Vroom & Yetton, 1974), initiators of structure (Fleishman, 1953), production-centered (Likert, 1961), goal emphasizees and work facilitators (Bowers

& Seashore, 1966), task-oriented (Fiedler, 1967), and concerned about performance (Misumi, 1985).

Although we have defined what autocratic leadership is, we believe it is important to point out to what autocratic leadership is not as well. One clear distinction between autocratic leadership and destructive styles of leadership such as tyrannical leadership or right wing fascism is the fact that while autocratic leaders show some amount of concern for the well-being and performance of their followers, tyrannical leaders lack this concern for their followers and are very self-oriented. Thus, we can argue that while autocratic leadership could not be defined as a purely dark style of leadership, it could not be described as a purely bright style of leadership either (De Hoogh et al., 2015).

It is fair to say that autocratic leadership within the literature has been a construct which is under-scrutinized. When examined, the seminal works on autocratic leadership links the construct to social dilemmas (Van Vugt, Jepson & Hart, 2004), burnout (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, 2009), climate and wealth (Van de Vliert, 2006), productivity and satisfaction (Gastil, 1994b), self-uncertainty and team performance (De Hoogh, Greer & Den Hartog, 2015). Overall, in looking at the research conducted on autocratic leadership, there is a gap in linking the construct to individual-level outcomes and looking at the boundary conditions which affect autocratic leadership. According to Harms et al., (2017), a better understanding of authoritarianism is needed, and leadership researchers would benefit from a renewed interest in studying why some followers embrace autocratic leaders and what they get in return.

According to the above line of reasoning, by integrating social hierarchy theory (Magee & Galinsky, 2008) and affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano,

1996), this dissertation's focus is to explore to which emotional, behavioral and cognitive outcomes autocratic leadership is associated with on the individual level. For this purpose, this research aims to investigate the curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and emotional, behavioral and cognitive individual level employee outcomes.

Furthermore, as a boundary condition, this study examines the perceived organizational support by the employee, which refers to an employee's perception of the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being (Eisenberger, 1986; Eisenberger et al., 2001). In this research, POS (Perceived organizational support) is expected to interact with autocratic leadership as a boundary condition and change the direct relationship outcomes, since the perception of support from the organization could change the effects of autocratic leadership on individual outcomes. Additionally as a boundary condition, this study aims to examine the effects of LMXSC between the leader and the follower on the relationships between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes. LMXSC refers to the degree which employees judge their LMXs relative to their perceptions of LMX relationships that other members of the workgroup form with the leader (Vidyardhi et al., 2010). We expect the employee LMXSC to interact with the degree of the autocracy of the leader and change the effect of autocratic leadership on the outcomes examined in this research.

This research substantially contributes to the field both in the data analysis method it employs and the outcomes it discovers. The findings of the research are significant for both academia and practice. The first contribution of the thesis is the novel approach taken in the data analysis method it employs, of looking at the curvilinear relationships between variables rather than linear relationships. While

linearity is assumed in almost all research regarding autocratic leadership, the relationship does not have to be ever-increasing or decreasing, especially with employee outcomes (Hayes, 2017). Looking at curvilinear relationships between constructs lets the researcher assess the relationship for low, moderate and high levels of autocratic leadership, which in return provides the ability to derive more meaningful results from the data analysis. Additionally, this research further expands the autocratic leadership field by linking the construct to multiple employee outcomes which are under-researched in the past and needs further scrutiny. Consequently, the method employed, and the results presented in this research have the potential to contribute and shed light to further research and researchers who are interested in analyzing autocratic leadership.

The following sections of the dissertation are organized as follows. In Chapter 2, a review of the literature on leadership, directive styles of leadership, emotions and leadership, autocratic leadership and the outcomes of the construct is presented. Additionally, literature reviews on the theories employed will be provided. Chapter 3 includes the theoretical background of the study, the conceptual model and the hypotheses. In Chapter 4, the significance of the study, research design and measures are introduced. Chapter 5 incorporates the results of data analysis and hypotheses testing. Chapter 6, which is the final chapter of this thesis, consists of the general findings, theoretical and practical implications of the thesis and finally, limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

"Of all the hazy and confounding areas in social psychology, leadership theory undoubtedly contends for the top nomination. And, ironically, probably more has been written and less known about leadership than about any other topic in the behavioral sciences" Bennis (1959)

The literature review section will first cover the main approaches related to leadership (trait approach, behavioral approach, situational approach, integrative approach and the power-influence approach). Then, the primary variable of the study autocratic leadership and its review of outcomes from a literature standpoint will be made. Finally, other relevant variables in this study, namely emotional, cognitive and behavioural outcomes and the moderators hypothesized in our research will be reviewed.

A literature review is not only a summary of the existing literature but a critical assessment of what is written related to leadership and more specifically, autocratic leadership and its outcomes. In parallel with the aim of this thesis, this research will show the seminal works on the topic of leadership and autocratic leadership, the key papers and authors working on these papers. This section also includes main theories used in the leadership literature, the themes and gaps and weaknesses of the field as well. Before diving into autocratic leadership, there is a need to focus on leadership literature in general and examine the essential research, theories and recurring themes within the literature.

As autocratic leadership was, and is gaining popularity now, we can argue that leadership has been a popular construct since the day of its inception. Although forever popular, leadership research within the last decade has grown exponentially through the work of academics and practitioners (Dinh, Lord & Gardner, 2013). This exponential growth on leadership research has bared fruit through advancements in theory on micro-processes (e.g., Bono & Ilies, 2006; Dinh & Lord, 2012; Lee, Aaker, & Gardner, 2000; Trichas & Schyns, 2012), and macro processes (Chang & Johnson, 2010; DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Erdogan, Kraimer, & Liden, 2004; Gardner & Avolio, 1998; Liden, Sparrowe, & Wayne, 1997) as well as dynamic processes in which the leader effects or changes the organization.

## 2.1 Leadership and leadership theories

There have been attempts at organizing a literature review on leadership, but this has almost always ended up as a partial success because of the vast and bewildering works. As a solution to how to conduct a useful literature review on leadership, scholars suggest focusing on the type of variable that is emphasized the most in explaining effective leadership. Subsequently, in order to be consistent with the leadership literature, researchers suggest classifying the empirical research and theories of leadership in five approaches, namely the trait approach, the behaviour approach, the power-influence approach, the situational approach and the integrative approach (Yukl, 2010). Thus, this literature review follows the conceptualization of Yukl (2010) by thoroughly analyzing each approach to leadership and the theories nested in these approaches.

One of the first approaches to studying leadership was the trait approach. The first assumptions on leaders started with the Great Man theory of leadership, which

argued that effective leaders are people who are gifted with characteristics which then enable them to become leaders. Carlyle (1888) famously argued that "the history of the world is but the biography of the great man". In the opposite direction, early researchers on the trait theory opted to focus not on exceptional historical figures, but rather what made them exceptional. This focus on the personality and traits rather than specific characters paved the way for a century of empirical research on leadership. Therefore, we can argue that the scientific study of leadership started with the trait school. In trying to answer the question what makes an effective leader, psychology scholars focusing on leaders suggested that leaders had specific inherited characteristics and what made a leader effective was this natural ability and characteristics that made a good leader.

Although this era of leadership has failed to produce influential theories, it is crucial in the sense that early trait approach to leadership has paved the way for the field to expand and become the vast field under organizational behaviour today (Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm & McKee, 2011). In the trait approach, the leader was the focal point of the researchers, meaning that this approach focused on the personal attributes of leaders. Consequently, we can argue that the emphasis was on the characteristics of the leader such as personality, motives, values and skills. (Yukl, 2010). One common assumption in regard to leadership in this era was the idea that leaders were born with certain traits which were not shared by others. Early work on trait theory began with researchers investigating the differences between leaders and followers. These studies on the underlying factors which differentiated leaders with non-leaders revealed certain traits such as height, intelligence, extraversion, adjustment, dominance and self-confidence on the part of the leader (Fleenor, 2011). The findings in this era of study regarding differences between leaders and non-

leaders were significant, but researchers were not able to find any traits that would guarantee leadership success. However, although they were not able to prove the relationship with success, this did not hold behind the researchers of the time coming up with certain traits that were related to successful leadership. Even though these lists were very mixed and included skills and behaviours which were identified as traits at the time, they typically included characteristics such as self-confidence, intelligence, ambition, perseverance, assertiveness, emotional stability, creativity and motivation as traits that would lead to successful leadership (Fleenor, 2011). Conclusively, although researchers at the time came up with specific characteristics and traits that they thought were universal predictors of success, they found little relationship between these traits and effective leadership practices.

There are several reasons behind the difficulty to come up with a theory proving leadership traits related to leadership effectiveness. First, the trait theory of leadership neglects the followers and the situational characteristics in linking leadership traits to leader effectiveness. The second criticism from the field on the trait theory is related to the disregard of how traits lead to success on part of the leaders (Yukl, 2010). The final criticism of the approach is the assumption that leader traits would produce behavior which are consistent in every situation and would fit in every situation, which means that traits are eternal and would lead to success in all circumstances.

Although at the time trait approach to leadership failed to prove the link between traits and effective leadership, we can argue that the approach has been renewed in the following years. With the accumulation of research and methods on how to measure leader effectiveness, researchers working on the trait theory have made progress in discovering how leader traits lead to leader behavior and leader

effectiveness, especially on the subject of leader values and ethical leadership (Yukl, 2010).

The inability to prove the relationship between traits and effective leadership, has led researchers to look for differences among leaders. Fleenor (2011) has pushed the field to take a different route in relating the construct to effectiveness: he suggested focusing on the behaviours of the leader rather than the traits, which resulted in the foundation of the behavioural approach to leadership.

As mentioned, criticisms on the trait approach to leadership encouraged researchers to look beyond leadership traits and understand how leader behaviours lead to effectiveness (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011). In general, we can argue that researchers started to look at what leaders did on the job rather than the characteristics they inherited. Researchers investigating the behavioral approach to leadership scrutinized the construct in two general categories: while one stream of research focused on the daily activities of leaders in terms of their responsibilities and functions as managers, another stream of research investigated how managers coped with demands, constraints and role conflict in their jobs (Yukl, 2010).

In examining the history of research on effective leader behaviours, it is crucial to scrutinize the Ohio State (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957) and Michigan (Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950) leadership studies. One aim of the researchers working at Ohio State University was to measure how leaders showed leadership behaviours. In pursuing this aim, they came up with a questionnaire consisting of 150 items which were good examples of leader behaviour. A factor analysis of this questionnaire resulted in potentially the two most essential aspects of leader behavior: initiation of structure and consideration. In this

context, we believe it is important to note that these behaviours are not mutually exclusive, which means leaders could employ some degree of initiating structure and consideration at the same time. These two aspects of leadership have been integrated into many leadership theories and significantly impacted the future of the field; Fiedler's (1967) contingency model, Blake and Mouton's (1964) managerial grid and transformational and transactional styles of leadership (Bass et al., 2003; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990) all employ initiating structure and consideration in their essence.

While the consideration aspect of leader behavior is related to the how concerned the leader is with the relationships formed, the initiating structure aspect is related to how the leader is concerned with task accomplishment (Yukl, 2010). On the consideration part, the leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, showing concern for the well-being of subordinates. Examples of consideration include personal favours, finding time to help a subordinate with a problem and defending subordinates under challenging situations. On the other hand, in behaviour related to initiating structure, leaders define and structure their and their subordinate's roles in the aim of accomplishing a task. Behaviours related to initiating structure include assigning tasks, maintaining standards of performance, focusing on procedures and coordination on the part of the leader.

As mentioned earlier, the second critical study on leadership in the 1950s surfaced from Michigan University. Different to the studies at Ohio State, researchers at Michigan aimed to identify the relationships between leader behaviour, group processes and measures of group performance (Yukl, 2010). The research consisted of a series of field studies in different industries such as insurance (Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950), manufacturing (Katz & Kahn, 1952) and railroads (Katz,

Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951). The field studies aimed to classify managers as either effective or ineffective. Later, Likert (1961) worked on the differences between effective and ineffective leaders and came up with three types of leadership behaviour: task-oriented behaviour, relations-oriented behaviour and participative leadership.

The task-oriented behavior aspect of leadership is related to how effective managers spend their time and effort and how these concepts are different from their subordinates. Researchers defining the aspect argued that effective managers did not do the same tasks as their subordinates, but they were concerned with how these tasks would be accomplished, such as planning and scheduling the work and coordinating subordinate activities (Yukl, 2010).

The relations-oriented behaviour aspect of leadership is related to how effective managers support and help their subordinates. Supportive behaviours that were correlated with effective leadership according to Likert (1961) are: showing trust and confidence in the followers, acting considerate, allowing considerable autonomy in how subordinates do the work and providing recognition for subordinates' contributions and accomplishments.

The participative leadership aspect of leadership behaviour is related to how effective leaders prefer to lead groups rather than individuals. One effective way of making this happen is group meetings, which is proven to have positive effects on subordinates. Participation in this context does not mean the leader will forget all responsibilities and leave them to the group, but rather the leader is still responsible for all decisions and their results but encourages participation in making these decisions.

The situational approach provided the field with the importance of contextual factors in examining leadership. It also introduced important situational variables such as characteristics of followers, the nature of work performed by the leader's unit, the type of organization and the nature of the external environment (Yukl, 2010). On top of this, situational leadership emerged as a response to the "one size fits all" ideas about leadership that was generated in the trait approach era. Two sub-categories in this approach to leadership dominated the subject; the first sub-category was concerned with how leadership processes changed across organizations. This approach used outcome variables such as managerial perceptions, attitudes and managerial behavior patterns. The second category in this approach is related to identifying how leader attributes were related to leadership effectiveness. This link between the constructs leads to the idea that there are different leader attributes applicable to different situations. Theory originating from this approach to leadership has generally revolved around situational and contingency theories of leadership. The links between autocratic leadership and contingency theories were evident in the works of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1975), where they have described certain factors which they believed to influence leader behavior.

Interestingly, Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1975) used autocratic and democratic leadership in explaining their "leadership continuum model" (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1975). The result from this body of work was concluded with the idea that leaders should neither be purely autocratic or democratic, but they have to be flexible enough to alter their style of leadership according to the situation. After the research of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1975), situational leadership theory was built upon by Hersey and Blanchard (1977) in their situational leadership theory. The researchers came up with four styles of leadership built upon initiating structure

and consideration, namely telling, selling, participating and delegating (Hersey & Blanchard, 1977). The third theory related to the situational approach to leadership was Fiedler's (1967) contingency theory, where he argued that leader effectiveness was a result of the relationship between leadership style and leadership characteristics, depending on the situation (Fiedler, 1967).

Followers of the integrative approach to leadership, on the other hand, were interested in using more than one type of leadership variable. In their approach to leadership, looking at the construct only from a single point of view such as traits, skills or behaviours was a gap in the literature and had to be addressed. In their work, these researchers chose to examine leadership effectiveness through the complementation or implementation of different variables, rather than a single one. Studies employing an integrative approach to leadership found that leadership effectiveness is a multidimensional construct, including trait, skill, behaviour and process levels (Lacerda, 2015), and investigated ethical leadership (Eisenbeiss, 2012), leader development (Penlington, 2008), social support (Suganuma, 2001) and followership (Johnson, 2009).

Finally, power-relations research on leadership examines the influence processes between leaders and other people (Yukl, 2010). Power-relations is most adjacent to the subject in terms of how it defines leadership, as the amount of power a leader holds and exercises on followers. The construct which is essential to the power relations theory of leadership is power, which is “the potential ability of one person to influence others to carry out orders” (Dahl, 1957). Autocratic leaders and the accumulation of decision-making power has been linked starting from the work of Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939), where the autocratic leader is described as someone who makes all the decisions. In linking the power-relations approach to

autocratic leadership, we can argue that autocratic leaders often accumulate decision-making power and uses this power to exert influence on their followers. Thus, we believe this study will be an addition to the power-influence approach to leadership as well. On another dimension, Rast III et al. (2004) characterizes autocratic leaders as "making all important decisions" and "maintaining considerable social distance from their followers". This power-distance characterization of autocratic leadership is convenient with respect to the power-influence theory of leadership.

In contemporary theories of leadership, the field looks at leadership as a construct "that evolves over different timespans depending on the hierarchical level at which leaders are investigated (Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008). Contemporary theories scrutinize leadership both from a micro standpoint and a macro standpoint. (Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Liden, 2013)

Research categorizing the leadership field through 752 papers published in the top 10 leadership journals since 2000 shows certain trends arising within the literature (Dinh, Lord, Gardner, Liden, 2013). In the research, neo-charismatic leadership (transformational and charismatic leadership) theories received the most attention with 294 papers. Following them is leadership and information processing theories (leader and follower cognitions and implicit leadership), which were included in 194 instances (House & Aditya, 1997). The third most common theories in the review were social exchange/relational theories (LMX, LMXSC) with 156 instances out of 752

## 2.2 Democratic and autocratic leadership

One of the most studied topics in the field of directive styles of leadership is the contrast between democratic and autocratic leadership (Gastil, 1994b; Foels et al.,

2000; Choi, 2007). Especially Gastil's (1994b) meta-analytic review work on the link between democratic and autocratic leadership and productivity and satisfaction is considered to be an essential research paper which lays out the state of the field. As we talk about the importance of autocratic leadership and its place in history, we cannot overlook the opposite side: democratic style of leadership and how it was perceived within the field. In fact, the significance of the construct is embedded in the history of the field, according to Gastil (1994a), in the early 1920's and 1930's, democratic leadership started to show up in writings about economy. Researchers argue that this inception of democratic leadership was nested in the aim to discover a style of leadership which was more suited to a democratic society such as the U.S. (Busch, 1934; Smith & Lindeman; 1926; Tead, 1935; Whitehead, 1936).

As with autocratic style of leadership, Lewin, Lippitt and White's (1939) study on the effects of democratic and autocratic leadership on groups of small children is considered to be the pioneering work in defining and introducing the constructs to the literature. The model itself was the first attempt at conceptualizing these constructs, and it led to "a flood of studies and theoretical essays" (Gastil, 1994b). This rise in popularity was not ever-present; the field has lost its interest in these styles of leadership during the 1980s where other styles of leadership such as transformational and transactional came into prominence within the field. Today, we can argue that both democratic and autocratic styles of leadership are gaining popularity, with more articles published on the topic in the 2000s compared to the entire period of 1950-2000. When looked at the outcomes of autocratic and democratic leadership, we can see that they were associated with different types of outcomes such as performance reviews (Caillier, 2020), where democratic leadership was found to have a positive impact on performance reviews and autocratic

leadership was found to have a negative impact. On the other hand, Van de Vliert (2006) looked at how democratic and autocratic leadership styles were linked to climate and wealth and found out that in terms of effectiveness, autocratic leadership, as the opposite of democratic leadership, is seen as less effective in wealthier countries with more demanding climates but as more effective in poorer countries with more demanding climates (Van de Vliert, 2006). Gastil's (1994b) research on linking democratic and autocratic leadership to productivity and satisfaction have found no support for the link between neither style of leadership with productivity. On the other hand, he found that democratic leadership was positively correlated to member satisfaction.

### 2.3 Autocratic leadership

Once very popularly researched by scholars all around the world, autocratic leadership, especially during and after WWII gained popularity with the rise of autocratic leaders in this era. Autocratic leadership was once studied so much that it was deemed to be one of the most popular topics in leadership. However, “due to developments within the field, the resurgence of liberal democracies and the ever-decreasing popularity of autocrats, by the 1980s, research interest in the performance of the autocratic leader has faded” (Bass, 2008)

Autocratic leadership is defined as the concentration of power on an individual, and our model tries to understand the relationship between autocratic leadership and follower outcomes within an organizational context. In the history of leadership research, autocratic leadership has not always been considered to have both positive and negative outcomes. Earlier models of autocratic leadership were

generally associated with adverse outcomes for the follower, such as negative performance and well-being.

Literature review on autocratic leadership has pointed to studies which are generally focused on the negative aspect of this leadership style. Although there has been work on the subject which points out to positive outcomes in relation to autocratic leadership, we believe it is necessary to map out which outcomes autocratic leadership leads to, both negative and positive.

The first research that has originated on the relationship between variables of the psychology of perception and behavior was conducted by a Nazi scientist, Eric Rudolf Jaensch. Jaensch based his research on an ideal; he believed there was a Nazi personality or type (Ray, 1988). Although this type of thought seems archaic now, we can argue that researchers of the time saw this theory as attractive by looking at how the theory was used in the literature, especially in the post-war era (Adorno et al., 1950). Their most novel approach to this theory was to reverse or change individual values that were proposed by Jaensch, as they seemed to be built upon fascist values of a Nazi regime. Additionally, the Jaensch theory received extensive empirical testing in the 50s and the 60s (Ray, 1988). In the end, Bochner (1965) summarized Jaensch's research and concluded that the theory failed to confirm the predicted association.

As mentioned, in the history of leadership research, autocratic leadership has not always been considered to have positive outcomes. The first study in this sense to be considered is the set of studies by Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) which measured the effects of leadership on group dynamics and performance named "Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates". In the context of autocratic leadership, the paper from Lewin et al. (1939) could be defined

as the pioneering work on the subject. Therefore, we believe it is crucial to thoroughly analyze this paper in order to understand how authoritarian and autocratic behavior was first observed in experimental conditions.

After the pioneering work from Lewin, Lippitt and White, and the atrocities conducted during WWII, researchers came to the conclusion that autocratic leaders were more powerful in group situations where members were more inclined towards supporting unwanted acts. Thus, in order to understand this phenomenon, leadership researchers started to focus on the authoritarian character of the followers and autocratic leaders. This shift towards understanding the character of the leader could be traced back to World War II, as authoritarian characters were very prominent in this era where they decided on the fate of the world. The main question in the minds of the researchers, in this case, was to understand how rational human beings were convinced to participate in the horrors orchestrated by others, namely Adolf Hitler.

After Lewin, and after the horrific events of World War II, other scientists tried to reveal what was behind the authoritarian character. Especially noteworthy is Milgram's (1964) studies on obedience, where he found out that participants who were ordered by an authoritarian figure tended to act more aggressively. In his study, Milgram ran an experiment on 40 males between the ages of 20 and 50. The procedure went on as "ordering a naïve S (subject) to administer increasingly more severe punishment to a victim in the context of a learning experiment" (Milgram, 1964). Although very cruel in its execution, Milgram found compelling evidence in supporting Lewin's (1936) work on autocratic and democratic leadership. In the replication of the work of Lewin by Milgram, Harms et al. (2018) argue that "just as not all participants in the Lewin study preferred the democratic condition, not all participants in Milgram's study were able to be pressured into acts of cruelty."

Another seminal work on the topic from the early period of research on autocratic leadership was the book "Authoritarian Personality" by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick and Levison (1950). It is clearly one of the most critical pieces of work created on the authoritarian personality and shaped the future of the field as well. Adorno (1950) argues that personality is not a constant or "something given at the beginning", but it evolves under the impact of the social environment and can never be isolated from social pressures.

Although looking at the history and the emergence of autocratic leadership is essential, the main aim of this literature review is to look at how autocratic leadership was operationalized in research and to which positive and negative outcomes it relates to and how it produces such outcomes. First of all, Bass (2008) suggested that "autocratic leadership was associated with lower levels of satisfaction and increased stress in subordinates, but that the relation with performance was less clear and likely impacted by a number of moderators". We have found this to be true in our literature review, but we believe the further investigation of the construct and its outcomes and boundary conditions is still a gap in the field. In examining the literature, we can see that the relationship between autocratic leadership and performance has been found to be both positive and negative, depending on the situation. On the purely negative consequences of autocratic leadership, we can argue from the literature that individuals do not like highly dominant or aggressive leaders (Van Vugt, 2006) and they tend to be less satisfied when led by autocratic leaders (Foels, Driskell, Mullen, & Salas, 2000). Additionally, on the performance front, researchers tried to associate lower levels of performance in the organization with autocratic leadership through certain moderators such as "followers being less valued" (Chan, Huang, Snape, & Lam, 2013), "higher levels of cynicism" (Jiang, Chen, Sun, & Yang, 2017) and

through "increased feelings of role conflict and role overload" (Zhang & Xie, 2017). In their research on the effects of autocratic leadership and team performance, De Hoogh, Greer and Den Hartog (2015) have discovered that autocratic leadership had an indirect positive effect on team performance when team power struggles were low. On the other hand, when the team power struggles were high, autocratic leadership was related negatively to team performance. Although direct relationships are not investigated, this stream of research contributes to our idea that autocratic leadership could have both positive and negative outcomes. On the part of the negative outcomes, the research by De Hoogh and Den Hartog (2009), which linked autocratic leadership to burnout has discovered new relationships. In their research, autocratic leadership moderated by neuroticism resulted in a positive relationship with burnout when the follower was neurotic. Interestingly, this effect was weakened when the follower was more stable. Van Vugt, Jepson, Hart and De Cremer (2004), on the other hand, have examined the effects of autocratic leadership on group stability. They have discovered that group members were more inclined to exit the group if they were supervised by an autocratic leader. In some instances, we saw that autocratic leadership was operationalized as a moderator, such as De Cremer (2006)'s study on the relationship between leader self-sacrifice and its affective and motivational consequences. As a result, De Cremer (2002) found that the positive effects of leader self-sacrifice were more substantial when the leader did not act in an autocratic manner. On the part of the moderators and a positive consequence of autocratic leadership, Fiedler (1964) and Rosenbaum (1971) argued that autocratic leadership was seen most effective in a crisis situation or some other higher stress condition. On the face of such ambiguity in linking the construct to positive or negative outcomes within the literature and the lack of scrutiny in uncovering the

boundary conditions, the aim of this thesis is to investigate the nature of the relationship of autocratic leadership with emotional, cognitive and behavioural outcomes. Additionally, this thesis aims to look at the boundary conditions in which autocratic leadership leads to these groups of outcomes.

#### 2.4 Autocratic leadership and team performance

The amount of power leaders is willing to share with their team members is a topic that is important and well-researched in both academia and practice. According to the characterization of autocratic leadership as the centralization of decision making and directive power in a single individual, it is important to look at the construct from a power perspective. These actions involving power accumulation in autocratic leaders have negative consequences on both individual and team outcomes. Namely, the act of power centralization activates team members' feelings of being undervalued and wronged (Adams, 1965; Anderson & Brown, 2010), may increase perceptions of inequity (Muller, 1985) and may hinder team climate and team performance. In spite of the negative reputation of autocratic leadership within the field, the act of centralizing power and decision making within an organization does not guarantee negative employee outcomes. Autocratic leadership in some cases shown to facilitate team functioning (Camalleri, Hendrick, Pittman, Blout & Parther, 1973; Page & McGinnies, 1959). Scholars within the field derives from Social Hierarchy Theory when explaining the positive effects of autocratic leadership on team functioning. As mentioned in the theoretical development section of the thesis, social hierarchy stemming from autocratic leadership could in turn satisfy the need for hierarchical differentiation in groups (Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Tiedens et al. 2007; Zitek & Tiedens, 2012) providing a psychologically reassuring environment (Tiedens &

Fregale, 2003). It is also argued that hierarchy derived from autocratic leadership helps clarify roles and improves predictability within the organization (Fromm, 1941; Halevy et al., 2011; Kruglanski & Webster, 1996) and also facilitates cooperation and coordination within teams, thus enhancing team performance. As a conclusion, we can argue that in some conditions, autocratic leadership has the potential to benefit team climate and performance through creating a psychologically appealing hierarchical order within the team (de Hoogh et al., 2015).

## 2.5 Autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes

In explaining the relationship between leadership and emotions, we need to delve into the emotion literature and look at how the field operationalizes and defines the construct. In the literature, emotions are defined as feelings that manifest themselves both physiologically and psychologically who have a precise aim, beginning and end states (Frida, 1986). In comparison, affect refers to a broader construct which includes feelings and moods (Forgas, 1995; Russell & Barrett, 1999). One of the main distinctions between emotions and affect is the idea that affects includes evaluative judgements which in turn influences leadership outcomes such as liking and optimism (van Knippenberg et al., 2008). On the other hand, emotions do not are short and definite in contrast to affect. Looking at the psychological (valence, pleasantness)-physiological (arousal, activation) circumplex defined in the literature, we can see how certain affect states have different conceptualizations. The literature makes a distinction between positive affect states and negative affect states regarding the level of arousal derived from the event.

Looking at the literature, we can see the work on emotional contagion not only on the leadership level but mainly from an evolutionary psychology standpoint

as well (Hatfield, Cacioppo & Rapson, 1993). Emotional contagion can be defined as the tendency to catch other people's emotions. While some psychology scholars chose to examine the construct from a primitive standpoint, where contagion is "relatively automatic, unintentional, uncontrollable and largely unconscious" (Hatfield et al., 1998), others in the field preferred to focus on the leader's emotional contagion on the part of their followers (Johnson, 2008; Dasborough & Ashkanasy, 2009; Judge, Bono & Ilies, 1996). There are several studies that investigated how leaders engender positive emotions on the part of their followers: In focusing on the leadership standpoint of emotional contagion, the research focused on the perceptions of charismatic leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (Johnson, 2008), organizational attitudes (Antonakis et al., 2009), performance (van Knippenberg & Van Kleef, 2013) and charisma (Bono, 2006). In their research, van Knippenberg & Van Kleef (2013) have found that emotional contagion predicted follower's creative performance and perceived leadership effectiveness. On the part of negative affect contagion, Dasborough et al. (2009)'s research on meso-level negative emotional contagion investigated the effect of the construct on an organizational setting. As a result, they have uncovered that leader behaviour resulted in negative emotions, which then through emotional contagion, spread to the rest of the team. Building upon the research on emotional contagion, we aim to investigate the effects of autocratic leader behavior on emotional outcomes and investigate whether emotional contagion has a part in it.

Although leadership research until the very beginning has focused on how leaders influence and affect their followers, many researchers in the field have taken behavioral or cognitive approaches in explaining this relationship between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes. As van Knippenberg (2008) noted: "Somewhat

surprisingly, however, despite its long history, leadership has only relatively recently started to empirically investigate the role of leader and follower affect and emotions". As leadership is a concept which is built upon social interaction (Brief & Weiss, 2002), emotions without a doubt play an essential role in the operationalization of the construct (Humphrey, 2002; Lord & Brown, 2004).

Examining the emotions literature from the leaders' point of view, we reach to the topics of leaders affect and leader effectiveness as a result. Leaders and followers are in a constant social interaction process in the organization. In this equation, both sides feel emotions or belong to certain mood states. In this context, it is not unexpected to think that leaders' emotions and affect have an influence on their follower counterparts, which in return has an influence on leadership effectiveness. Leaders exhibit positive and negative affect in the organization. The antecedent of this affect could be ranging from poor performance on the part of the followers, which result in anger for the leader or conflict between leader and follower, which leads to anxiety. Like all human beings, leaders have the right to feel and express emotions and have certain moods. It is the extent to which they influence their followers emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes that categorizes their emotions as destructive or constructive. According to Bono and Ilies (2006), leaders showing positive affect score higher on charismatic leadership. Rubin et al. (2005) showed that leaders who smile more during speeches score more on both positive affect and transformational leadership. As mentioned before, leaders are human too and could express negative affect and intentionally or unintentionally reflect these emotions on their followers. In parallel to this thesis' main point, these negative emotions do not always lead to negative outcomes on the part of the followers. Gaddis et al. (2004) discovered that although leaders' positive affect usually leads to

higher scores in leadership effectiveness, when leaders project negative affect and the followers are focused on preventing negative outcomes, their effectiveness score is higher compared to followers with promotion ambitions.

When talking about the emotional reactions to the leader on the part of the employee, we think it is critical to talk about the leaders' management of their employee's emotions as well. In the literature, a common approach in defining emotion management on the part of the leader is often tied to a characteristic of a leader: emotional intelligence (Humphrey et al., 2008). Although some researchers focused on the emotional intelligence aspect of emotion management, some took the road to look at the actual behaviours that enable leaders to manage their subordinate's emotions successfully. Leaders' management of emotions actually takes many shapes: the effects of leader emotional displays (Connelly & Ruark, 2010), the emotional consequences of leader decision-making (De Cremer, 2007) and communication (Dasborough, 2006), and the role of leaders in establishing emotional norms (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995).

In line with our measurement of the construct, in our research, we are mainly interested in the emotional experiences of the subordinates in their relations to the autocratic leader. In the literature, as autocratic leaders "emphasize 'absolute authority and control over subordinates and demand unquestionable obedience from subordinates" (Zhang & Xie, 2017), it is argued that this aspect would result in negative emotional outcomes on the part of the follower. Although Zhang and Xie (2017) focused on the behavioral outcome (OCB) of autocratic leadership behaviour, the consequences they have listed on the part of the autocratic leader such as "feeling uneasy and oppressed" (Wu, Huang, Li & Liu, 2012) suggests to us that autocratic leadership could have negative emotional outcomes. On the other side of the coin,

autocratic leaders are known to make all crucial decisions (Uhl-Bien & Maslyn, 2005) and set high requirements (Cheng & Wang, 2015), which in turn could lead to positive emotional outcomes for followers who are more comfortable working with autocratic leaders. Thus, in this thesis, we aim to uncover the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes.

One of the variables belonging to the emotional outcome group investigated in this research is affective commitment. In the model developed by Meyer and Allen (1987), there were three approaches to organizational commitment labelled "affective", "continuance" and "normative" commitment. While the approach of Meyer and Allen (1987) is currently challenged within the literature, it is arguably the dominant typology in explaining organizational commitment. While affective commitment refers to the desire to achieve goals in favour of the organization, normative commitment is defined as the obligation to be a member of the organization, and finally, continuance commitment refers to the bond that the employee creates with the organization (Allen & Meyer, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). The common theme among these three types of organizational commitment is the idea that these approaches tie the employee and the organization together and as a result, decrease the likelihood of turnover. Although the central theme is common, there are apparent differences between the components. The clear differentiator among them is the nature of their commitment to the organization, and thus, the reason why they stay committed and do not leave the organization. Meyer and Allen (1987) argue that employees with strong affective commitment remain because they want to, those with strong continuance commitment because they need to, and those with strong normative commitment because they have to do so. In our research, as we are mainly looking at the affective outcomes of autocratic leadership

and because it has been consistently identified as the one exhibiting the most substantial connection to the organizational outcomes (Breitsohl & Ruhle, 2013), we decided to focus on the affective commitment aspect of organizational commitment. Research-wise, it is not wrong to argue that affective commitment has also seen the most interest in the literature. This popularity of affective commitment can be identified by the constructs it is related to the most such as turnover intentions (Griffeth et al., 2000; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Morin et al., 2005), absenteeism (Hausknecht, Hiller, & Vance, 2008; Meyer et al., 2002), job performance (Becker & Kernan, 2003; Riketta, 2002) and finally organizational citizenship behavior (Gellatly, Meyer, & Luchak, 2006; Morin et al., 2005). The main idea behind affective commitment is to "achieve goals in favour of the organization", which is argued to build on three bases: shared values, personal involvement and identity-relevance (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Shared values can be defined as the congruence of the values between the individual and the organization, which in turn affects affective commitment. Arguably, when employees share the same values with their respective organizations, they are more emotionally bound to stay at the organization. In terms of personal involvement, we can define the construct as the intrinsic motivation to be a part of the organization. Finally, the identity relevance aspect of affective commitment refers to the "degree to which individuals derive their identity from being associated with the organization" (Breitsohl & Ruhle, 2013). In examining the research linking autocratic leadership to affective commitment, we can see that the closest work in terms of commitment is the Van Vugt et al., (2004) paper linking autocratic leadership to group stability. In their paper, the researchers argued that the presence of an autocratic leader leads to higher rates in terms of exiting the group. To further extend this idea, it can be expected as a direct result of

the behaviours of the autocratic leader, employees who have little or no participation in the decision-making process may feel "undervalued and unfairly treated" (Anderson & Brown, 2010), which in turn would lead to a negative relationship with affective commitment. In this thesis, we aim to uncover the nature of the relationship of autocratic leadership with affective commitment.

## 2.6 Autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes

### 2.6.1 Goal and process clarity

In organizations, employees have specific tasks to complete. In order to complete these tasks, they need clear expectations about their own sub-goals, the paths to accomplish these goals and the link between one's work and work of others (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Subsequently, they need clear roles to act, and these clear goals lead to effectiveness on the part of the individual, team and the organizations. The pioneering work on goal and process clarity is from Sawyer (1992), who argued that goal clarity and process clarity are two distinct constructs. Sawyer (1992) came up with the idea that although these constructs are separate in what they are explaining, their effect on the individual and the team are the same. He argued that clarity on the goal and process aspects within the organization would not only lead to effectiveness in terms of results, but would also "highlight individuals' connections to co-workers, teams, and the organization" (Hu & Liden, 2011).

Based on the premises of the Social Cognitive Theory, Bandura (1988) suggests that individuals reporting higher role clarity are expected to be more efficacious and perform better than those with lower role clarity. On the part of the goal clarity aspect of goal and process clarity, we can argue that it is undoubtedly related to goal setting theory, which is based on a simple observation: Conscious

human behaviour is purposeful, and it is regulated by the individual's goals. (Latham & Locke, 1991).

Therefore, basing our assumptions on social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1997) and goal setting theory (Latham & Locke, 1991), we expect autocratic leaders to have positive effects on goal and process clarity. In support of this argument, Foels, Driskell, Mullen and Salas (2000) argued that by "providing direction and clarity, autocratic leaders then might offer team members ease and peace of mind". On the other end of the spectrum, Zhang and Xie (2017) argue "authoritarian behavior is expected to generate subordinate perceptions of role conflict, role ambiguity, and role overload, with consequent negative effects on OCB". Zhang and Xie's (2017) research, in fact, looks at the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB from a role theory standpoint, and thus use role conflict as a mediator. This idea that autocratic supervisors may provoke acute perceptions of role conflict by making unilateral decisions and centralizing authority on themselves (Tsui, Wang, Xin, Zhang, & Fu, 2004) contradicts the Foels et al. (2000) research by arguing that autocratic leadership does not, in fact, provide clarity and direction for followers. In this thesis, considering the two-headed nature of the research on the relationship of the construct, we aim to investigate the true nature of the effects of autocratic leadership on goal and process clarity.

Goal-setting theory approaches this issue from the level of humans; it focuses on the variance in task performance among individuals (Ryan, 1970).

### 2.6.2 Job performance

In an organizational context, valid operational metrics are vital in judging employee effectiveness. These metrics help organizations in improving human performance.

Previously used metrics to assess performance include supervisory ratings, productivity indexes, absenteeism, turnover, salary and promotion (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). Literature defines job performance as "the total expected value to the organization of the discrete behavioral episodes that an individual carries out over a standard period of time (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). In simpler terms, it is what is expected of an employee to do within a work setting. As is the case with other variables, we look at job performance on an individual level, as individual performance. In literature, it is argued that motivation is behind the ability to do the job required from the employee (Qi et al., 2016). There is a controversy over the job performance construct in defining whether it is a behavior or a result of a behavior. Motowidlo and Borman (2012), in their book chapter on job performance, made the distinction quite clear: they argued that behavior, performance and results are not the same. In their conviction, behavior is defined as what people do. Performance is defined as the expected organizational value of what they do. Furthermore, finally, they define results as "states or conditions of people or things that are changed by what they do in ways that contribute to or detract from organizational effectiveness" (Motowidlo & Borman, 2012).

In our research, as implied with the scale on which job performance is measured, we take an approach in which employees are required to do as they are expected on an organizational setting. Although there are advantages and disadvantages in linking job performance with behavior rather than results, we believe in the context of our research, modelling job performance as a cognitive outcome rather than a behavioral one makes more sense. Thus, we have placed job performance as a dependent variable on the model as a cognitive outcome of autocratic leadership. On the part of the performance outcomes that stem from the

literature which links autocratic leadership to performance, we have seen Chan, Huang, Snape and Lam 's (2013) and Zhang & Xie's (2017) work on the negative relationship between autocratic leadership and performance. On the other hand, De Cremer (2002) discovered that under certain circumstances (low neuroticism), autocratic leadership lead to positive outcomes. In trying to examine the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, this thesis will try to examine the effects of the construct on job performance.

## 2.7 Autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes

### 2.7.1 Deviant behaviours

Workplace deviance is defined as "voluntary behaviour that violates significant organizational norms and in so doing threatens the well-being of an organization, its members, or both" (Robinson and Bennett, 1995) These behaviours are sometimes also called Counterproductive Work Behaviours (CWB) and they are situated in the direct opposite side of organizational citizenship behaviour (OCB) on the helping scale. (Fox et al., 2011). CWB or deviant behaviours has been a popular construct which drew much interest from researchers. Some opted to look at the construct from an aggression standpoint (Douglas & Martinko, 2001; Fox & Spector, 1999), from a deviance standpoint (Hollinger, 1986; Robinson & Bennett, 1995), a retaliation standpoint (Skarlicki & Folger, 1997), and a revenge standpoint (Bies, Tripp, & Kramer, 1997). Although they are quite different constructs in defining deviant behaviours within the organizations, they have two concepts in common. The first commonality between the approaches to deviant behaviours is the idea that these actions are not accidental or dictated by someone; they are personal acts which are taken by the consideration of the individual. The second common aspect of deviant

behaviours is the idea that these behaviours harm every level of the organization: individuals as co-workers, subordinates, supervisors, customers and stakeholders. On the organizational level, these behaviours harm the organization because the basis of the behaviour comes from the idea of harming the organization itself. Early work on the subject by Robinson and Bennett (2005) points out to the multi-dimensionality of the construct. As is the case with OCB, deviant behaviours are also categorized according to the target of the behaviour. In the case of deviant behaviour being targeted towards a person who is in connection with the organization, the behaviour is called interpersonal deviance. On the other hand, when the target of the deviant behaviour is the organization itself, the construct is named organizational deviance. (Robinson & Bennett, 2005). One research that has focused on the relationship of autocratic leadership and unwanted outcomes came from the first investigation of the construct; Lewin and Lippitt's (1939) work on democratic, autocratic and laissez-faire style leadership has found that autocratic leadership resulted in "increases of spontaneous aggression and hostile behaviours (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939), and also research on the negative influence on conscientious behaviour (Wang, Tsai & Lin, 2013), shows us that autocratic leadership leads to unwanted behaviours on the part of the follower. To further extend this idea and fill the gap in the literature, this thesis will aim to examine the effects of autocratic leadership on deviant behaviours.

### 2.7.2 Organizational citizenship behaviours (OCB)

Just like leadership itself, organizational citizenship behaviours have attracted much controversy in the quest to find a universal definition of the construct. Although the term first appeared on the work of Smith et al. (1983), the conceptualization can be found in the past literature. Barnard, in his seminal work *The Functions of the*

Executive argues that "the vitality of organizations lies in the willingness of individuals to contribute forces to the cooperative system" (Barnard, 1968). Organ (1997), conceptualizes OCB as the desirable behaviours that support the social fabric of the organization that is outside the core job tasks. Others within the literature generally described OCB as behaviours that discretionary and not officially recognized and rewarded directly by the organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). There is a distinction between these conceptualizations in the sense that while Fox's (2011) conceptualization of the construct does not imply a discretionary behaviour or an action taken on the part of the organization, Podsakoff et al. conceptualized OCB as such. Later, Katz (1963) noted the importance of taking actions which are not specified by role definitions within the organization. This argument is compatible with Barnard's (1968) idea that some people display new willingness to go further of their defined roles within the organization. To further extend this idea, it can be expected in order to overcome and minimize the effects of autocratic leadership on the part of their immediate supervisors; employees would engage in OCB and thus would be in support of their co-workers and organizations.

Apart from Fox (2011) and Organ et al. (2006), the literature on OCB conceptualizes the construct in two different segments: OCB towards the organization which is called OCB-O and OCB towards the individuals within the organization called OCB-I. People high on OCB-O tend to be punctual, have a positive attitude, and make suggestions regarding the well-being of the organization. (Ertürk, 2007). On the other hand, people high on OCB-I engage in behaviours, such as helping colleagues with their work. (Ertürk, 2007).

In this thesis, we will analyze if autocratic leadership will influence OCB of followers in an organizational setting. To further extend this idea, it can be expected

in order to overcome and minimize the effects of autocratic leadership on the part of their immediate supervisors; employees would engage in OCB and thus would be in support of their co-workers and organizations. In terms of measuring the construct, we will not make a distinction between OCBO and OCBI and focus on the general positive behaviour on the part of the employee represented by OCB.

## 2.8 Boundary conditions (moderators) for autocratic leadership

### 2.8.1 Leader-Member exchange social comparison

LMX or Leader-Member Exchange, which is a traditional construct in the leadership literature, defines the quality of the relationship between the leader and the subordinate. In its conceptualization, researchers argue that leader-follower relationships could take many shapes, and in the context of LMX, this relationship is based on social exchange. According to the conservation of resources theory, there is a finite amount of resources within an organization which every aspect of the organization must share. On the part of LMX, this means that leaders develop differentiated relationships with each of their subordinates through a series of work-related exchanges which can vary in quality, ranging from high to low (Graen & Scandura, 1987). There is a clear distinction among the quality of relationships the leaders have with their followers in LMX theory. When leaders form high-quality relationships with their subordinates, these members of the organization are defined as "in-group" members. The relationship between the leader and the in-group members of the team/organization is based on trust, respect, liking and reciprocal influence (Dansereau et al., 1975). On the other end of the spectrum, when leaders form low-quality relationships with the members of the team/organization, these members are named "out-group" members, and the relationship with their leaders is

based on economic exchanges (Dansereau et al., 1975). Although this relationship between the leader and the follower seems to be leader-centric in the sense that it depends on the leader to form these meaningful or non-meaningful relationships, LMX theory argues that both sides have to bring some sort of value to the table in order to make the exchange fair (Graen & Scandura, 1987). In literature, we have seen the conceptualization of a construct named Relative LMX, or RLMX, which is the degree of difference between one's own LMX and the LMXs of co-workers (Henderson, Wayne, Shore, Bommer & Tetrick, 2008).

In this research, we decided to use a more recent and specific construct related to LMX, namely LMXSC, or Leader-Member Exchange Social Comparison. In context, LMXSC could be defined as "through which employees judge their LMXs relative to their perceptions of LMX relationships that other members of the workgroup form with the leader." (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). The conceptualization of LMXSC comes from the idea that employees observe how their leader treats them, and how the leaders treat others within the organization and make assessments of their relative standing in terms of the relationship with their leader. This assessment is formed for the proximity of their co-workers with the leader as well, employees look at how close others are to the leader, and they assess their individual proximity too. Conclusively, the comparison between one's own LMX and that of co-workers is defined as LMX social comparison, or LMXSC (Vidyarthi et al., 2010). In their seminal work on the construct, Vidyarthi et al. (2010) argue that because perceptions are more influential in attitudes compared to reality, social comparison of the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower will have more influence on attitudes and behaviours within the organization.

In the context of our research, we assume that subordinate LMXSC will interact with autocratic leadership to influence follower outcomes as a result. As people within an organization continuously scan their environments for information and their relative social status (Wood, 1996), we believe the subordinates of autocratic leaders will also naturally engage in LMXSC perceptions. The difference between our research and the previous literature on LMXSC is the idea that the favouritism and distance aspect of autocratic leaders may push these employees to certain deviant or citizenship behaviours within an organizational context. Overall, we have not found any work using LMXSC as a moderator between autocratic leadership and outcomes. Thus, our aim in this thesis is to investigate the interaction effects of LMXSC with autocratic leadership on employee outcomes. Collectively, we believe that LMXSC is a mechanism for employees to manage specific negative effects of autocratic leadership present in the organization through having a higher-quality relationship with their autocratic supervisors.

### 2.8.2 Perceived organizational support

Perceived Organizational Support, or POS, refers to the extent which the employees within the organization believe that their organization values their contributions and is committed to their well-being (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison & Sowa, 1986). One contribution of POS is the idea that employees, through POS, can adequately be prepared to the changes within the organizational environment. In that sense, we can argue that POS is also a support mechanism in which the employees are prepared for significant changes. POS also provides specific socio-emotional resources such as respect, self-esteem and approval and provides tangible economic benefits as well (e.g. wages, incentives, rewards) to address issues within the

organization. In relation to autocratic leadership, POS aids employees in managing job-related stressors (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). As a consequence of their organizations providing support, or even when the employees perceive their organizations to be supportive, employees show a greater willingness to adapt to changes in their environments, and take on new challenges (Shore & Wayne, 1993; Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997) Additionally, POS helps employees manage the high work demands that are projected upon them by autocratic leaders, by giving them a sense of competence (Rhodes & Eisenberger, 2002) Collectively, we believe that POS is a mechanism for employees to manage certain harmful effects of autocratic leadership present in the organization through actual or perceived help from their respective organizations.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

#### 3.1 Summary of theoretical underpinning

Following the previous section on the literature review of the research topic, it is clear from the literature that autocratic leadership has important effects on the employee outcomes within the organization. The theoretical framework of this proposal is a functional model of Social Hierarchy Theory. Hierarchy is defined as "implicit or explicit rank order of individuals or groups with respect to a valued social dimension" (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). In this context, we can talk about elements of a hierarchy, and why, how and when hierarchy improves performance and well-being within an organization. According to the literature, "organizations differ in how steep or strong the hierarchy is, as well as in the nature of relationships between higher and lower ranks in the hierarchy (Bass & Bass, 2008; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Schriesheim, Castro & Cogliser, 1999). This difference in the nature of the hierarchy can be also observed for the individuals within the organizations, employees are differentiated along multiple dimensions of hierarchy including power, status, and participation. Also, concerning these dimensions and the difference, it is fair to say that individuals are diverse in the sense in which they try to attain these hierarchical dimensions within an organization, stemming from their "individual qualities and behaviours" (McCoy & Major, 2007; Schmidt & Hunter, 1998).

Autocratic leadership is defined as the concentration of power on an individual within an organization. As we try to understand the relationship between autocratic leadership and follower outcomes, including emotions, behaviors, and

cognitions, Social Hierarchy Theory is considered a good fit for the overall model. According to Social Hierarchy Theory, hierarchies within the organization can enhance performance. Within the framework of the Social Hierarchy Theory, we argue that due to the unique nature of humans in resource sharing and the way that they have formed hierarchical groups in order to survive, they seek authority and hierarchy. Organizations are in fact bodies where authority and hierarchy exist, and thus, people within the organizations must endure some type of authority or hierarchy based on their membership to an organization. Due to this instinctive characteristic of human beings, explained by Social Hierarchy Theory, we believe that followers within an organization would yield increased follower outcomes in the presence of some degree of authority, or in the context of the thesis, a certain degree of autocratic leadership. The need and wish of people belonging to an organization to look for some amount of authority or hierarchy tells us that autocratic leadership would improve follower outcomes, at least in conditions where authority and hierarchy is needed.

### 3.2 Social hierarchy theory

From our early childhood, we find ourselves in some sort of competition, whether this is sports, an essay contest, point grade averages or standardized test scores. This competition demonstrates us an important fact about human interaction, "we learn to view our social world in terms of who is better, smarter, or more favoured than anyone else" (Koski, Xie & Olson, 2015). As we progress through life, this environment consisting of competition and comparison does not change much. We, as people, still look at both material and abstract possessions, and compare ourselves to others regarding the amount of status we attain to these possessions. As a result,

human psychology is conditioned to rank its status by comparing it to others, either within their group or outside. In fact, “the ease with which we perceive status cues and assign a rank to others reflects a general preference for a hierarchical social organization" (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012). Accordingly, this assignment of rank depending on status and the place in the hierarchy is the backbone of the relationship we build between autocratic leadership and Social Hierarchy Theory. In literature, it is suggested that the ongoing comparison of status in the human mind is essential for defining social roles and promoting successful social interaction (Halevy, Chou & Galinsky, 2011; Savin-Williams, 1979). Thus, this mechanism of assigning status to others in order to foster social interaction is why we believe followers of autocratic leaders show positive outcomes in certain relationships.

"To each his own" is a critical idiom. Not only it conveys the idea that we are all unique in our view of life in general, but it tells us that every one of us undoubtedly varies in terms of skills, traits and the characteristics we possess. Consequently, it is not too far-fetched to assume that we all have preferences in whom we want to listen, whom we want to model, on and whom we want to emulate our behaviours on. In fact, we want to listen, follow or emulate someone with the skills and traits we consider the most desirable or important (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012).

There are benefits to arranging groups in a hierarchical setting, which can be based on the way humans have successfully lived through and survived in difficult circumstances since the formation of small groups. In addition to this, we know that division of labour and hierarchical organization had benefits in improving the quality of life from a very early age. Koski (2015), argues that organizing social groups in a hierarchical manner is an efficient way to maximize group cohesion and proactivity. In support for the above argument that assigning rank to individuals based on status

and perceived ability, Koski (2015) argues that these characteristics are in fact an important social skill. The persistence in humans to create social hierarchies, and the benefits are not limited to increased social interaction, other benefits include sharing limited resources (Sapolsky, 2005), facilitating social learning through these interactions (Henrich & McElreath, 2003) and maximizing individual motivation through the aim of attaining status within the hierarchy (Halevy et al., 2011; Magee & Galinsky, 2008).

In terms of resource allocation, we can say that people at the top of the hierarchy will almost always get the more significant share since they are perceived to be more skilful and able compared to others in the group. This resource sharing may not sound like the most modern or equal idea, but no one introduces social hierarchies to the group, they are highly widespread in human history, and they appear naturally in social groups. Since they appear naturally, we can argue that it is not a product of the human cognition, but rather a group phenomenon where almost every group-living species demonstrates. One other common characteristic of these groups other than the natural tendency to organize into a social hierarchy is the fact that the higher ranking members of the group obtain more from the resources available to the group (Sapolsky, 2004, Sapolsky, 2005). The prevalence of social hierarchy among species that live in groups tells us that there is an instinctive need for social hierarchy. Therefore, we can argue that humans have evolved specific mechanisms to understand and recognize status within groups quickly. This mechanism still persists in our lives, which is also present in early life (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012).

Hierarchy refers to the ranking of members in social groups based on the power, influence, or dominance they exhibit, whereby some members are superior or

subordinate to others (Fiske, 2010; Magee & Galinsky, 2008; Mazur, 1985). When we talk about hierarchies, I believe it is essential to talk about its components as well. Of the two components, while power component implies control over resources or other group members, dominance implies the ability to acquire resources within the group. Dominance is usually an antecedent of power; thus it could be viewed either as a behavior or a personal trait, which leads to power inequalities among group members (Anderson & Berdahl, 2002; Fragale et al., 2011). The dominance aspect of group dynamics can be separated into two sub-scales: sociable scale and the aggressive scale. Those two subscales emphasize that power can either be obtained through aggressively dominant behaviors or through prosocial and cooperative actions. (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012)

Social hierarchies did not happen overnight. Today, researchers assume that they are widespread, innate, and evolved to support survival in group contexts (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012). Additionally, there is strong evidence as shown earlier in the thesis pointing to the idea that hierarchies were born out of necessity, and overall, they are beneficial for the group. Although social hierarchies are varying according to the group, several standard features are shared among all groups: a) there is a ranking among group members regarding their physical features and cognitive abilities; b) there is rapid and spontaneous formation and c) functional and adaptive values are necessary to the existence and the success of the social group.

One of the critical aspects of social hierarchies is the ranking of group members. While some members occupy lower roles in the hierarchy, others occupy a higher role (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). The dimension in which group members attain lower or higher roles could be a behavior showing dominance or skill or trait that is considered ideal for the survival or success of the group (Anderson & Kilduff,

2009; Hogg, 2001). Although we talked about the factors influencing hierarchies, the most innate concept is that hierarchies are formed as a result of individual differences in power and ability. In conclusion, the most valued member in the dimension gets to achieve higher status, and concurrently, access to more resources (Berger, Rosenholtz & Zelditch, 1980; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). In terms of domains where social hierarchy is born and takes place, there is no difference in the size of the social context; hierarchy happens in small groups as well as big groups. On the other hand, it is not bounded by group limits; it can happen within the group or across groups too. In human groups, hierarchy is not only determined by the dimensions that are valued by individuals within groups, but there are factors such as group consensus or group reputation that contribute to how people will be placed in the hierarchy. As a result of this, human hierarchies are multidimensional, group dependent and self-reinforcing (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012).

As mentioned earlier, hierarchies form quickly and spontaneously in groups, especially in human groups. Literature suggests that "positions of superiority or deference are rapidly identified through asymmetric displays of dominance" (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012). This implies to us that the innate characteristic of showing dominant behaviour is an important predictor of the position in the hierarchy. As with monkeys, humans that are not familiar to each other still display dominance behaviors during interactions in modern life. For example in a two-way interaction, it is possible to observe one human adopting a submissive posture while the other adopts a more dominant posture, which complements the other person (Markey, Funder & Ozer, 2003; Tiedens & Fragale, 2003). This attribution of status is especially quick in human interactions, and humans spontaneously organize into a hierarchical structure. One beneficial aspect of hierarchy other than the quality of

social interactions is the evidence that there is a decline in aggressive interactions and increase in cooperative behavior when hierarchies are introduced to a group. This suggests to us that status roles are quickly determined and accepted in human groups (La Freniere & Chariesworth, 1983; Strayer & Strayer, 1976).

As mentioned in the previous paragraph, the organization of social groups into a hierarchy is beneficial to group well-being since hierarchy here serves as an adaptive function. Especially in situations where resources are limited, hierarchy is an efficient way to divide resources such as goods and labour. This division conveys the idea that one of the benefits of a hierarchy is the ability to define social roles and allocate resources accordingly. Another benefit of the hierarchies within groups is related to the higher ranking members. While hierarchy increases the survival likelihood of the top members by making it easier for them to acquire the necessary resources for survival, it also gives them the ability to exert influence on the group. Hierarchies, since the beginning of the emergence of groups, encourages everyone to look up to individuals with higher skill sets, which could be assessed as an adaptive component of social learning (Henrich & McElreath, 2003). Social learning and looking up to individuals higher in the hierarchy could be beneficial to the group as well since these high-ranking members are assumed to possess desirable knowledge or characteristics. As a final benefit, the advantages that are given to the high ranking members of the hierarchy could act as a motivator, since resources are scarce and privileges in using these resources are given to people higher up in the hierarchy, which in return would increase motivation in the group to climb higher up and self-allocate these resources. Thus, group members who are working towards climbing the hierarchy would be more productive in attaining the necessary skills and traits

that would help them achieve higher in-group status (Halevy et al., 2011; Magee & Galinsky, 2008).

As with monkeys, body size is correlated with higher status in humans. To exemplify, human males with above-average or tall heights are perceived as more dominant and more preferred as reproductive partners (Buunk, Park, Zurriaga, Klavina & Massar, 2008). One other biological factor that is often related to status is the level of testosterone present in the body (Mazur & Booth, 1998; Terburg & van Honk, 2013). This biological factor thus could increase the aggressive dominance behaviour of certain members of the group and lead them to attain higher ranks in the hierarchy.

There are two subscales of dominance: sociable dominance and aggressive dominance. People who score high on sociable dominance tend to be better at relationships, while people who score high on aggressive dominance tend to exhibit more antisocial behaviors. One limitation of the subscales of dominance is the fact that these are not mutually exclusive, meaning scoring high on the sociable dominance scale does not mean that there is no aggressive dominance present in the context. People who score high on both scales of dominance tend to be on top of the hierarchical ladder more often than people who only show aggressive dominance, or who are very sociably dominant.

It is essential to point out that aggressive dominance is not a necessity for gaining high status. Individuals who are characteristically not inclined towards aggression tend to do it by making themselves appear valuable to the group and acting confidently and generously towards others (Anderson & Kilduff, 2009; Henrich & Gil-White, 2001). In this context, we can add prestige to the equation in reaching hierarchical dominance in a group. Prestige, defined as the “competence,

knowledge or skills” (Mazur & Booth, 1998; Terburg & van Honk, 2013) which the members of the group attain, is an important factor in reaching upper levels of hierarchy. An example of this would be college professors, who usually attain higher status without showing aggressive behavior, but rather show their valuable knowledge or skills. In terms of likability, it is proven that people who attain higher status through social dominance and prestige are rated as more likeable than who use traditional dominance (Cheng et al., 2013). Crucially, humans usually do not belong to only one social group, and they tend to come up with different strategies in formulating a way to the top of the hierarchy. Thus, it is fair to assume that different people will employ different strategies in different social settings in order to climb up the hierarchical ladder.

One final aspect which helps humans reach higher levels of hierarchy and attain resources is physical appearance. Not to be confused with the biological predictors of hierarchy within groups such as testosterone, physical appearance is related to the genetic configuration of humans which define their overall look. Although it should be noted that literature is not consistent in linking physical appearance to achieving higher levels of hierarchy, the main difference in views comes from the fact that while physical attractiveness predicts certain high-level position, some studies show no relation between acquiring high positions in hierarchy and attractiveness. On the other hand, there is research that shows physical appearance is advantageous both for males and females, with higher wages related to higher attractiveness (Harper, 2000).

### 3.3 Social hierarchy and autocratic leadership

The term hierarchy in social hierarchy theory already implies a relationship with autocratic leadership. As it is mentioned earlier in the explanation on social hierarchy theory, we learn the essentials of competition starting from our early childhood. This idea of competition among our peers teaches us how to compete in our adulthood; we are in constant competition starting from the day we are born until the day we die. Arguably, these skills are essential for survival in today's organizations. As social hierarchy theory suggests, humans have a natural tendency in group situations to assess who is better, smarter and more favoured, and the tendency to accept individuals who have these qualities as leaders. Literature also talks about the concept of "perceiving status cues", which means by assessing who is better, smarter or more favoured, we rank individuals on a hierarchical position within groups (Magee & Galinsky, 2008). This comparison of individuals is the basis of successful social interactions. Thus, since people in groups perceive status cues and compare and rank individuals according to these comparisons, we can talk of a general preference for a hierarchical social organization. Organizing social groups as a hierarchy is not just a preference of the individuals within the group; they also have benefits for the group such as maximizing cohesion and proactivity for the group (Halevy et al., 2011; Magee & Galinsky, 2008).

The study of autocratic leadership within the framework of social hierarchy theory starts in this position. Although in organizations we should automatically assume that leaders are in their positions because of their compared abilities and traits, we know that this is not always the case. Social hierarchy theory suggests that “we want to listen, follow or emulate someone with the skills and traits we consider

the most desirable or important” (Zitek & Tiedens, 2012). Looking at social hierarchy theory from a reverse angle, we can argue that since autocratic leaders are already at the high levels of hierarchy, individuals within an organization can assume autocratic leaders as having traits considered "most desirable or important". In this context, we believe we can explain the relationships between different levels of autocratic leadership and employee outcomes in this thesis. Again, according to social hierarchy theory, leaders within the organization take the most share out of the resources available to the group. In relation to this resource allocation concept and the idea that "some members are superior to others" within-group situations, we expect followers of autocratic leaders to accept the autocratic behaviours displayed to them because of the resource allocated to autocratic leaders, especially the decision making power within the organization.

This power hoarding aspect of autocratic leadership is under-studied within the literature, but we believe it is the concept that links social hierarchy theory to autocratic leadership. We talk about extreme levels of autocratic leadership because we see that certain outcomes have a spike or change in nature when controlled for high or extreme levels of autocratic leadership. The explanation behind this is linked to social hierarchy theory because we believe followers of autocratic leaders compare and contrast the power and decision-making resources of autocratic leaders. Consequently, as extreme autocratic leaders tend to accrue as much power and decision-making ability on themselves as they can, this could have a reverse effect on employee outcomes concerning social hierarchy: in social hierarchies, the chosen leaders are the ones who are granted the most resources within the organization and thus it is expected of them to accumulate these resources. Since these resources such as power and decision-making are vital for survival in organizations, we argue

employee outcomes on the part of extreme autocratic leadership would change, since employees would not want to be deprived of these resources or have them used against them. For autocratic leaders, we argue that they gain legitimacy and the followership of their subordinates by accumulating specific resources within the organization and tightly controlling these resources. Finally, when their subordinates compare the amount of resources accrued by autocratic leaders and themselves, they automatically attribute desired leadership qualities to autocratic leaders. Moreover, on the extreme levels of autocratic leadership, as this resource hoarding of decision making and power exceeds normal limits, followers tend to demonstrate positive outcomes, or they change their emotional, cognitive and behavioral tendencies because leaders who have accumulated the most vital resources are considered to be the most skilled and able of the group. Conclusively, we expect employees to see these extremely autocratic leaders as people who should be listened to, and they should emulate and have good relationships with.

#### 3.4 Affective events theory

The work on affective events as a part of the organizational setting did not start with Affective Events Theory. Before Weiss and Cropanzano's (1996) work on the topic, several researchers were interested in the emotional aspect of organizations and how emotions play a role in the relationships defined within the social settings of the organization. In 1932, Rexford Hersey published his seminal work on emotions at work. Hersey studied 17 workers in a factory to understand their overall moods and emotions and behaviours. The approach taken by Hersey (1932) was quite different from the research on emotions today, theoretically; Hersey (1932) decided to approach the issue from a crisis standpoint. What he argued was that life, and work-

life in general consisted of major and minor crises, which needed adjustments on the part of the employee. In his study, Hersey (1932) examined the effects of crises by focusing on the emotional reactions of the employees. Although Hersey's empirical standpoint was not very valid, he has reached exciting conclusions. First of all, Hersey was able to create daily mood charts for employees, proving that moods fluctuate over time. After this, by measuring both the mood fluctuations and daily performance levels, he was able to create a link between workplace emotions and performance. Finally, Hersey managed to continue this work of his and took note of the mood fluctuations of the employees for a year.

The second most important work related to workplace emotions came from Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959). Although this study was not directly linked to workplace emotions and dealt with job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction constructs, the methods which the researchers took involved emotional items in the surveys. In looking at the fluctuations in work attitudes, the researchers asked the question "think of a time when you felt especially good or bad about your job" (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), which is quite similar but a primitive version of the measure used in this study to assess emotional reactions to the leader. One other aspect of the work of Herzberg et al., (1959) was the idea that they argued work events in the organization caused the satisfaction and dissatisfaction constructs they were investigating.

As mentioned in the literature review section of the thesis, emotions and moods are different constructs with different conceptualizations. When talking about emotions, we have to talk about Frijda's (1993) four main components: experiential component, appraisal of the event, physiological bodily changes and action readiness. The experiential component of emotions refers to "the irreducible aspect

that gives feelings their emotional, noncognitive character" (Frijda, 1993). The assumption in this thesis about the difference of emotional outcomes to cognitive and behavioral outcomes lies in this definition. The appraisal of the event component of emotions refer to how a person is not usually aware of feeling bad or good, but a person is aware of the pleasantness or the unpleasantness of an event. Thus, Frijda (1993) argues that experience of affect is linked to the appraisal of the event that creates the emotion. Finally, the action readiness aspect of emotions is described as how emotions include a readiness to the events that are happening within the organization. Although there are many scattered definitions of emotions, the shared component is the idea that emotion is a reaction to an event.

On the other hand, when we look at how moods work, we can see three distinctions from emotions: intensity, duration and diffuseness. Moods, compared to emotions are less intense, last longer and are not specific to an event or a behaviour (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). Overall, researchers agree that the most crucial distinctive component of emotions and moods is the concept that moods are not specific to a particular object or an event. On the other side of the coin, emotions are reactions to specific objects and events in the environment.

Works of Watson and Clark (1984) and Watson and Tellegen (1988) shed light onto the dimensionality of affective responses. In the conclusion of their studies, these researchers argued that there are only two dimensions of affective responses: positive affectivity and negative affectivity. Positive affectivity is characterized by adjectives such as "energetic, joy and exhilaration", while negative affectivity is defined as the absence of positive affect (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). This characterization is entirely consistent with the theoretical approach taken in the

thesis, where affective responses are divided into two groups as positive and negative emotional outcomes.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) have structured their theory in a way which enables researchers to use affective events both as outcomes and mediating variables in future research. In this thesis, affective reactions are used as an outcome of autocratic leadership behaviours. The reasoning behind this decision is the idea that emotional outcomes of autocratic leadership are under-studied in the literature. In this context, we believe the need to focus on the autocratic behaviour as a proximal cause of affective reactions exhibited by the employees. Concerning autocratic leadership, the conceptualization of how affective reactions start in organizational settings is relevant to the research in hand. Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that the affective reaction process starts with "an event which is initially evaluated for relevance to well-being in simple positive or negative terms". In our model, events take place in the presence of different degrees of autocratic leadership and the resulting emotions, which are categorized as either positive or negative are investigated.

In this instance, we aim to use affective events theory as a counterbalance to theories which are solely interested in the judgmental, cognitive or behavioral events in the workplace (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). We believe the idea defines events within the organization as causes of affective reactions is in parallel to our assumptions in the thesis as defining autocratic leadership behaviours as a cause of positive and negative affective outcomes defined in the model. In basic terms, things happen to people at work, and they have emotional reactions to these events. (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). In our thesis, our aim is to show what type of affective reactions occur in relation to the autocratic leaders and the behaviours they exhibit.

Weiss and Cropanzano (1996) argue that while cognitive and judgemental outcomes are almost always unidimensional, affective events as a reaction to events and behaviours within the organization are multidimensional. This multidimensionality is also parallel to how we conceptualize emotional outcomes in the model. Rather than using a single measure in defining the emotional response of the follower to different degrees of autocratic leadership behaviors, we have defined positive affect outcomes and negative affect outcomes, which also have certain sub-scales, in order to understand the multidimensionality of the emotional reactions of followers fully.

### 3.5 Conceptual model and hypotheses

In line with the literature review and the theoretical frameworks of Social Hierarchy Theory and Affective Events Theory, a proposed model illustrating the hypothesized relations have been presented in Figure 1

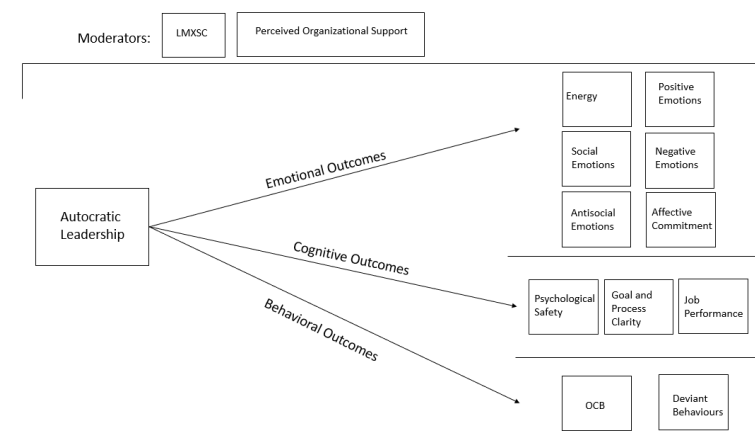


Figure 1. Conceptual model of the study

Looking at the relations, the general assumption of the model in this thesis is that autocratic leadership directly affects a particular group of follower outcomes; namely emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes. Additionally, the model

suggests that the relationship between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes are moderated by perceived organizational support and LMXSC. To elucidate, first, the degree of autocratic leadership influences affective outcomes such as energy, positive emotions, negative emotions, social emotions and psychological safety in employees. Second, the degree to which a leader exhibits autocratic behaviours predicts cognitive follower outcomes such as goal and process clarity, psychological safety and job performance. Finally, autocratic leadership is linked to behavioral outcomes such as OCB and deviant behaviours. In other words, this thesis analyses how followers of autocratic leaders respond to such a leadership style in terms of emotions, cognitions, and behaviours. Also, the model suggests that this relationship between autocratic leadership and follower outcomes are moderated by LMXSC and perceived organizational support. In other words, it is expected that the support that employees receive from their organizations (POS) and the quality of their relationships with their immediate supervisors (LMXSC) will act as boundary conditions for how followers will react to autocratic leadership.

When the quality of the relationship between the leader and the follower is high when compared to other relationships that the leader has with other subordinates (High LMXSC), and the perceived organizational support on the followers' part is high (High POS), we expect the interaction with autocratic leadership to change the magnitude or direction of the follower outcomes presented in the model. In contrast, when the relationship between the leader and the follower is low compared to others (Low LMXSC) or when the followers' perceived organizational support is low (Low POS), we expect this interaction to change the magnitude or direction of follower outcomes. Thus, as moderator variables influence the nature (e.g., magnitude and direction) of the effect of an antecedent on an outcome (Aguinis, Edwards &

Bradley, 2016), we expect LMXSC and perceived organizational support to moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and follower outcomes.

The proposed model of the study is distinct from previously developed models with its integrative and comprehensive nature of involving emotional, cognitive and behavioral employee outcomes and different moderators included in the model investigating the relationship between autocratic leadership and said follower outcomes. Also, by integrating the emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcome classification to follower outcomes in the single model, we aim to uncover a range of responses to autocratic leadership. The hypothesized relationships between the constructs in the model are explained below.

### 3.5.1 Hypothesized relationships

It is not uncommon in the literature to find studies linking autocratic leadership to specific employee outcomes (see: Chong, Schaubroek & Shen, 2017; Gastil, 1994b; Wang & Guan, 2018; De Hoogh & Den Hartog, 2009; Rast, Hogh & Geissner, 2012; Schoel, Bluemke, Mueller & Stahlberg, 2011). The distinct approach in this thesis is the focus on a more comprehensive approach to employee outcomes, including emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes of autocratic leadership on the part of their followers.

Autocratic leaders insist that their followers adhere to certain standards when it comes to productivity and performance and punish employees who fall short of these standards and perform poorly (Wang et al., 2013). Although according to literature these behaviours shown by autocratic leaders would lead to certain adverse outcomes on the subordinate's part such as fear, pressure and turnover intention (Farh and Cheng, 2000; Wang et al., 2016), we believe that these behaviours would, in

turn, could have positive outcomes for the followers. Primarily when a set of different outcomes and relationships are investigated, and all interactions tested. This idea that autocratic leadership could have positive as well as negative behavioral outcomes in a curvilinear relationship is supported by the literature as well (Schaubroek et al., 2017; Tian and Sanchez, 2017). The aspect of autocratic leadership where the leader sets high-performance standard expectations for their followers gives us the idea that certain behaviours shown by autocratic leaders could be used to increase as well as decrease employee outcomes (Aycan, 2006). While the behavior shaping aspect of autocratic leadership aims to limit unwanted behaviours in the workplace and incentivize desired behaviours, the cognitive aspect aims to direct the mindset of their followers to safety and performance, the emotional aspect of autocratic leadership is yet to be unearthed. The overall table for the hypotheses can be found in Appendix A.

### 3.5.2 Effects of autocratic leadership on emotional outcomes

As mentioned above, the literature on autocratic leadership has generally focused on the cognitive and behavioral outcomes of autocratic leadership. In this thesis, we aim to uncover the emotional outcomes of autocratic leadership as well, since we believe the nature of an autocratic leader in terms of decision making and power-sharing, would create emotional outcomes on the part of their followers as well. This argument of ours is based on Social Hierarchy theory. As suggested before, social hierarchies have an adaptive component which is tied to social learning, where high ranking group members are looked up by everyone and where hierarchy within the group encourages members to put these top members on a pedestal, to increase their chances of survival. In the emotional outcome instance, we argue that this adaptive

aspect of social hierarchy would yield different emotional outcomes on the part of followers because this adaptive sequence will diminish the negative effects on emotional outcomes since followers look up to the people higher in the hierarchy. On the part of positive affect outcomes, we expect autocratic leadership to have curvilinear relationships in explaining these outcomes, meaning that the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes will change in such a way that some degree of authoritarianism will yield higher results compared to lower and higher levels of authoritarianism. Although some level of authority and hierarchy is expected to lead to positive affect according to Social Hierarchy Theory, for extreme levels of autocratic leadership, we expect the leader to become much more obedience-oriented and power-hungry; thus we believe this will create negative emotional outcomes and decrease loyalty to the organization as employees who have no say over the decision-making process within the organization would not feel part of it.

H1: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Emotional Reactions and Affective Commitment

H1a: There is a reverse U relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Affect Outcomes in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions is positive. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative.

H1b: There is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Affective Commitment in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative.

For negative affect outcomes, we expect autocratic leadership to have curvilinear relationships in explaining these outcomes, meaning that the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes will change depending on the level of the autocratic leader. For negative emotions, we expect autocratic leadership to act in an opposite way of positive affect outcomes, creating U-shaped curvilinear relationships rather than reverse-U shaped curvilinear relationships, which suggest that for low levels of autocratic leadership, we expect the relationship to be negative. In contrast, for high to extremely high levels, we expect the relationship to be positive. For low levels of autocratic leadership, we argue that the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes will be negative since the obedience expectancy and power hoarding aspects of autocratic leadership would be low. Thus the employee will have low negative emotion outcomes. For extreme levels of autocratic leadership, we expect the leader to become much more obedience-oriented and power-hungry; thus we believe this will create a positive relationship with negative affect outcomes for high to extreme levels of autocratic leadership.

H2: There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Affect outcomes (Negative Emotional Reactions) in such a way that for

low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

### 3.5.3 Effects of autocratic leadership on cognitive outcomes

We certainly live in uncertain times. Furthermore, in uncertain times, people usually look to influential leaders, leaders who can provide direction, and a clear and unambiguous agenda and a path to follow (Rast, Hogg & Giessner, 2013).

According to (Bass, Bass, 2008; Yukl, 2010) autocratic leaders have four qualities: they make all the critical decisions, they are primarily concerned with task accomplishment rather than the happiness or satisfaction of followers, they maintain considerable social distance to followers, and they motivate followers through the use of punishment rather than reward. History is full of leaders who brought direction and order to a relatively unordered situation and gained mass popularity and support (e.g. Ataturk, George W. Bush). In this context, we derive the effects of autocratic leadership on goal and process clarity via the idea that autocratic leaders provide clarity to followers, both in the context of goals and processes. The relationship between leadership and uncertainty is deeply investigated within the literature, especially in the contexts of uncertainty-identity theory and social identity theory of leadership (Hogg, 2007). Especially noteworthy is the aspect of self-uncertainty, where the members of the organization or the group will support the leaders who are "particularly directive and authoritative in terms of providing a clear, unambiguous prototype" and will not favour leaders who are "more consultative and inclusive, and less directive" (Rast, Hogg & Giessner, 2013). It is also proven empirically that autocratic leaders serve as uncertainty-reducers, and they provide a

single accurate version of the follower in reducing their self-uncertainties. (Reicher & Hopkins, 2003). Conclusively, according to Social Hierarchy Theory, we expect autocratic leadership to have curvilinear relationships with cognitive outcomes. Social hierarchies are necessary structures due to the nature of the people; they seek authority and hierarchy. This structure could as well be applied to organizations too. Since organizations are structures where hierarchies are present, we expect the autocratic style of power, which is derived from hierarchy and decision making, to have cognitive outcomes on the part of the follower. In our opinion, the cognitive outcomes aspect of this thesis is highly related to the adaptive value of group hierarchies. In order to survive within the organization, followers feel the need to adapt to the cognitive expectations from other members of the group, and even more to the leaders.

Today, we work in environments which are dynamic, fast-paced and which require continuous improvements through learning, change and innovation (Frazier, Fainshmidt, Klinger, Pezeshkan & Vracheva, 2017). In participating in these processes, the modern employee is expected to be more active in participating in behaviors such as speaking up, collaborating and experimenting (Grant & Ashford, 2008; Nembhard & Edmondson, 2011). These behaviours require a willingness on the part of the employee in taking interpersonal risks and invest their energies into work. (Kahn, 1990). In trying to determine the factors which make employees willing to take risks, a cognitive state has come up in facilitating the process of learning, organizational change and employee engagement; the factor is named psychological safety, representing the belief that the workplace is safe for risk-taking behaviours by the employee (Edmondson, 1990; Kahn, 1990). On top of this, according to Social Hierarchy Theory, on the part of psychological safety, we expect

the relationship to be U-shaped, which means the highest scores of psychological safety will happen at the moderate levels of autocratic leadership. Linking this expectation to theory, the innate need of individuals in seeking hierarchy in social organizations is a topic we discussed. However, followers who feel that the amount of hierarchy or authority present in the situation is too low would yield low psychological safety in our opinion. In the same context, followers who feel that the amount of hierarchy or authority present in the situation to be too high would also yield low psychological safety scores. The idea that the highest scores in psychological safety belonging to the moderate autocratic group can be linked to the idea that humans need just the right amount of hierarchy and authority in organizational settings.

H3: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and cognitive outcomes (psychological safety, goal and process clarity and job performance)

H3a: There is a reverse U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and psychological safety in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

In accordance with the ideas presented above, we argue that as autocratic leadership has the function of decreasing ambiguity and uncertainty in organizations, it will also act as a clarifier and reduce ambiguity for goals and processes presented to followers of autocratic leaders. On the part of goal clarity, autocratic leaders set

goals for their followers that are specific and unambiguous, which also provides them with an objective and unambiguous basis for evaluating the effectiveness of their performance (Locke and Latham, 2006).

On the part of process clarity, although we assume autocratic leaders to expect explicit obedience from their subordinates, as mentioned, they are also very task-focused and require a certain level of performance from their subordinates. This focus of autocratic leaders on productivity and task orientation thus gives us the idea that in addition to their uncertainty-reduction capabilities at the goal level, autocratic leaders will provide their followers with clear directions in how to conduct specific processes in the organization as well.

H3b: There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Goal and Process Clarity in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

We base our assumptions about the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance on goal-setting theory. Since employees have a certain psychological dependence on leaders to offer clear goals (Wang & Guan, 2018), and since autocratic leaders provide "unambiguous goals with which individuals can identify and ameliorate uncertainties" (Schaubroeck et al., 2017), we expect the following:

H3c: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and job performance in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

#### 3.5.4 Effects of autocratic leadership on behavioral outcomes

For behavioral outcomes, we expect autocratic leadership to have both curvilinear and linear relationships, meaning that the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes is expected to either stay the same for all levels of autocratic leadership or change depending on the level of autocratic leadership present in the leader.

Autocratic leadership is a style of leadership in which "a leader's behavior that asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands unquestionable obedience" (Cheng et al., 2004). OCB, on the other hand, is defined as "individual behavior that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the effective functioning of the organization" (Organ, 1988). Basing our assumption on literature and theory, and in linking these two constructs, we expect autocratic leadership to have a curvilinear relationship with OCB, where the OCB of the follower changes depending on the level of autocratic leadership of the leader. The literature on the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB looked at the relationship from an individualist vs collectivist standpoint, where they have discovered a curvilinear relationship between the constructs. Basing our argument on the previous literature, we expect OCB to increase for low levels of autocratic leadership because in social

adaptability situations, individuals tend to comply with authority until some point (Yam et al., 2017; Yang and Wei, 2018). For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, we expect the relationship to be negative, since an increase in autocratic leadership behaviour such as control over the subordinates could lead to unwanted outcomes, especially on high levels of autocratic leadership (Chan et al., 2013). On the extreme part of autocratic leadership, basing our claims on social hierarchy theory (Magee & Galinsky, 2008), we argue that in order to attain the resources and the hierarchical status available to the autocratic leader, employees would act in a more compliant manner.

H4: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and behavioral outcomes (OCB and deviant behaviours)

H4a: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and OCB in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

H4b: There is a positive linear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and deviant behaviours.

### 3.6 Moderating role of leader-member exchange social comparison

In our model, we have decided to use LMXSC as a moderator variable interacting with autocratic leadership leading to employee outcomes. For the behavioral outcomes in the model, we can argue that LMXSC has an ameliorating effect on the

outcomes. For positive emotions, we expect the interaction of autocratic leadership and LMXSC to create higher positive emotions. This is because followers would demonstrate higher positive emotions when they have a higher-quality relationship with the autocratic leader compared to a low-quality relationship. On the negative affect emotions part, we expect the same ameliorating effect of LMXSC. In the thesis, we argue that autocratic leadership does not have purely positive or negative employee outcomes, so with the quality of the relationship in place, we expect LMXSC to ameliorate both the positive and negative emotional outcomes in the model.

H5: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on emotional outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H5a: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H5b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

For the moderating role of LMXSC between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, we argue that LMXSC will have an enhancing effect on the outcomes. Autocratic leaders, in their nature, demand high cognitive outcomes from their employees. This focus of autocratic leaders on cognition-based outcomes on the part of the employee, in our opinion, will be ameliorated with the interaction of LMXSC. The reasoning behind this argument is that with the expectations of the leader in place, having a high-quality relationship with the leader will result in higher cognitive outcomes on the part of the employee.

H6: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H6a: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H6b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H6c: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

For the moderating role of LMXSC between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes, we argue that LMXSC again will have an enhancing effect on the outcomes. Earlier in the thesis, we have argued that autocratic leadership in its nature would yield both positive and negative outcomes in terms of behavioral outcomes for the follower. In the moderating role of the construct, we believe LMXSC will either enhance or diminish the scores for these outcomes, depending on the nature of the relationship. On the part of OCB, we expect LMXSC to moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB. This is due to the idea that the comparison of the quality of the relationship between leader and follower is an essential aspect of mitigating the adverse effects of autocratic leadership on OCB. Followers who have a comparatively better relationship with their autocratic leaders in our opinion would act citizenly and provide extra-role effort. Thus, when the quality of the relationship between the autocratic leader and the follower is high (High LMXSC), we expect OCB to increase because of the idea that on its own, autocratic leadership has a diminishing effect on OCB. However, we argue that if the quality of the relationship between the autocratic leader and the follower is high comparatively, this natural effect of autocratic leadership on OCB could be mitigated by LMXSC.

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, we expect LMXSC to diminish the effects of the construct on the outcome since

autocratic leadership has a naturally enhancing effect on deviant behaviours. This reasoning comes from the literature, where it is shown that high and extreme autocratic leadership behaviour on the part of the leader could lead to adverse outcomes on the part of the employee (Chan et al., 2013). Thus, when the quality of the relationship between the autocratic leader and the follower is high (High LMXSC), we expect deviant behaviours to drop because of the idea that on its own, autocratic leadership has an enhancing effect on deviant behaviours. However, we argue that if the quality of the relationship between the autocratic leader and the follower is high, the follower could portray less deviant behaviours.

H7: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on behavioral outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H7a: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H7b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has an enhancing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are low on LMXSC as compared to those who are high on LMXSC.

### 3.7 Moderating role of perceived organizational support

In our model, we have opted to use perceived organizational support as a moderator between autocratic leadership and the proposed employee outcomes. For the emotional outcomes in the model, we can argue that POS has an ameliorating effect on the outcomes. For positive emotions, we expect the interaction of autocratic leadership and POS to create higher positive emotions. This is because followers would demonstrate higher positive emotions when they perceive the organization to be supportive of them. On the negative affect emotions part, we expect a diminishing effect of POS. In the thesis, we argue that autocratic leadership has both positive and negative outcomes on the part of the employee, but we also argue that the interaction of autocratic leadership with the moderators to change the nature of these outcomes. Thus, with the quality of the relationship in place, we expect POS to act as a diminisher of the negative consequences of autocratic leadership.

H8: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H8a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H8b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

For the cognitive outcomes in the model, we can argue that POS has an ameliorating effect on the cognitive outcomes as well. Looking at the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, we can argue that having the perceived support of the organization would enhance the outcome when compared to the pure relationship between autocratic leadership and safety. We argue that perceiving the organization to be supportive during the interaction of leader-follower, would increase safety, especially for a relationship with an autocratic leader. For goal and process clarity construct, we have to talk about the goal orientation and process orientation parts. In our thesis, we argue that POS will have an enhancing effect on both these outcomes. Assuming autocratic leadership has a positive effect on both these outcomes, we argue that having the support of the organization would make the follower even more goal oriented. On the process orientation part, we again expect the perceived support from the organization, interacting with autocratic leadership to direct the follower in a process-oriented state. In this thesis, we have talked many times about the cognitive outcome expectancy of autocratic leaders. So, in retrospect, we naturally expect autocratic leadership to increase job performance. In the moderating role of POS, we argue that with the perceived support of the organization and the expectancy of the autocratic leader, job performance scores will increase as a result of this interaction.

H9: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H9a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H9b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H9c: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

Finally, we argue that the interaction between autocratic leadership and POS would yield a change in the strengths of the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes. For OCB, we expect POS to strengthen the relationship since we argue that support from the organization would increase OCB in general. This is because of the idea that receiving support from the organization

would ultimately lead to extra-role behaviours for subordinates who want to give back for the support they perceive to receive from the organization. Finally, we expect POS to diminish the effects of autocratic leadership on deviant behaviours. On its own, autocratic leadership is expected to increase deviant behaviours, but interaction with the support from the organization, in our opinion, would diminish these effects on deviant behaviours. This argument is based on the idea that autocratic leadership on its increases deviant behaviours, or adverse outcomes in general. We expect employees who perceive support from their organizations to not act in behaviours that are harmful to the organization, even though they are encouraged because of the autocratic leader.

H10: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on behavioral outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H10a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

H10b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has a diminishing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Autocratic leadership in the field of organizational behaviour and leadership usually focuses on the negative aspects or the dark side and consequences of the construct, associating it with lower performance and lower employee well-being in most situations. However, as we suggest, this picture does not tell the whole story: Some employees prefer an autocratic style of leadership where they could retrieve positive outcomes from the style, or situations where the autocratic style of leadership can yield positive results in some domains. We believe, to fully understand how autocratic leaders operate within organizations, it is vital to examine both the negative and positive effects of the construct through curvilinear relationships. Thus, our main goal in this thesis is to investigate the affective, cognitive and behavioral effects of autocratic leadership on employees and understand the situational moderators where autocratic leadership leads to these groups of outcomes.

#### 4.1 Significance of the study

This research substantially contributes to the field both in the data analysis method it employs and the outcomes it discovers. The findings of the research are important for both academia and practice. The first contribution of the thesis is the novel approach taken in the data analysis method it employs, of looking at the curvilinear relationships between variables rather than linear relationships. While linearity is assumed in almost all research regarding autocratic leadership, the relationship does not have to be ever-increasing or decreasing, especially with employee outcomes (Hayes, 2017). Looking at curvilinear relationships between constructs lets the

researcher assess the relationship for low, moderate and high levels of autocratic leadership, which in return provides the ability to derive more meaningful results from the data analysis. Additionally, this research further expands the autocratic leadership field by linking the construct to multiple employee outcomes which are under-researched in the past and needs further scrutiny. Consequently, the method employed, and the results presented in this research has the potential to contribute and shed light to further research and researchers who are interested in analyzing autocratic leadership.

#### 4.2 Level of analysis

The construct of leadership is scrutinized in every level possible, starting from the individual level (Chiniara & Bentein, 2017; Caesens, 2014; De Hoogh et al., 2011) to the dyadic level (Ng, 2017; Golden & Veiga, 2008; Wang & Cheng, 2010; Godshalk & Sosik, 2000), the team level (Braun, Peus & Silkefey, 2013; Santos et al., 2016; Mohammed & Nadkarni, 2011) and finally to the organizational level (De Waal & Sivro, 2012; Clark & Singer, 2014; Pillemer, Graham & Burke, 2014). While it is generally accepted to look at the effect of leadership style on any level of organizations, this thesis has decided to scrutinize the construct on the individual level.

First and foremost, the outcomes we have introduced (emotional, cognitive and behavioral group outcomes) are at the individual level of the organization. To further enrich the study, we have introduced certain moderators to the model as well. Although it can be seen as a dyadic level variable, LMXSC is a construct that is treated differently in literature: Although LMXSC is related to the relationship between the leader and the follower, empirical research on it has been conducted

usually at the individual level with a focus on the dyadic relationship in isolation. In our thesis, we decided not to include the dyadic relationship but look at the individual score on how employees compare their relationship with their leaders compared with others in the organization, in fact, the effects of the construct influences group outcomes as well, since the relative quality of the relationship between leader and follower influences the group that the focal employee (the follower) belongs. Although the construct has effects on group outcomes, we have decided not to include this analysis since the model does not include any group data and looks at the individual level of the organization. One other moderator in our model, Perceived Organizational Support, acts in the same way. Although by nature, it is supposed to be an organizational level construct, it is related to the perceived level of support the individual employee receives from their organization. The idea behind the individuality of the construct comes from the perceived nature of the construct; each person has an individual perception of the support they receive from their organizations.

#### 4.3 Sampling and data collection

Data for this study was obtained from 201 followers and their 201 immediate leaders who are working in Istanbul, Turkey. In separate times, two different questionnaires were presented to the followers and their immediate leaders, who are liable for performance appraisals of their followers. Before the start of the questionnaire, a basic confidentiality text was read to the participants, and the questionnaire briefly explained. Each questionnaire was coded with an identification number to match each employee's response with his/her immediate team leader's evaluations.

In the employee questionnaire, the followers were first asked to evaluate their clarity on the aspects of the job, specifically goal and process clarity. Secondly, they were asked to rate the autocracy level of their leader. On top of this, we asked employees to think about their relationship with their leaders and rate the quality of the relationship compared to others. We also asked the followers to complete a rather long scale on the emotions they feel in the workplace. We asked them to rate how psychologically safe they feel in the organization, how they perceive the organization to be supportive of them, and finally, how committed they are to the organization.

On the part of the leaders, the questionnaire was rather short. Leaders rated the job performance, deviant behaviours and OCB of their followers.

Leader-subordinate dyads with at least 1 year of working relationship together were asked to complete the surveys in this study. In terms of the industries that are included in the study, we believe the approach of casting a wider net would be more suitable in our study as the sampling is done in Turkey and in order to get a more generalizable result, several sectors which represent the general economy and work relations is needed. Focusing on a specific sector would naturally yield sector-specific data which may give insights on how leadership works within that sector but would be very hard to generalize. In that sense, to have a wider reach of industries and to obtain a larger dataset, companies from the finance, telecommunications and retail sectors were reached.

This research employs a convenience sampling method explicitly. According to Saunders et al. (2012): Convenience sampling refers to a type of non-probability sampling method where the sample is taken from a group of people easy to contact or to reach.

For the purpose of the study, surveys were used in the pilot phase to gain a more in-depth understanding of the effects of autocratic leadership on employee outcomes. The pilot phase of this thesis was conducted in Istanbul, Turkey. Istanbul was selected due to being the business center of the country, the amount of organizations dispersed throughout the city and the overall socio-economic, demographic and educational profile of the city. In many respects, the characteristics of Istanbul can be deemed similar or involving the general business climate of Turkey. A total of 62 employees and their respective superiors (31 Employees and 31 Managers) participated in the pilot phase. Total number of participants in this study was 62. Selection procedures were based on convenience, but care was taken to ensure that the participants were selected to represent the various dimensions that are important to the study in terms of tenure, direct relationship, and the type of organization.

#### 4.4 Objectives

The purpose of the study was to gain an understanding of the effects of autocratic leadership on emotional, cognitive and behavioral employee outcomes and the boundary conditions for these outcomes.

For this purpose, the preliminary hypotheses that were constructed in the early phases of the study and the literature review phase of the thesis then were modified and refined. The revised hypotheses could be found in the respective chapter of the study. Related measures to test the hypotheses of the study were adopted from previous studies. In the data collection phase of the study, first, a pilot study was conducted with 30 employees and their immediate supervisors.

Psychometric properties of the scales were conducted, and general relationships

between variables were examined, and as a result of the data from the pilot study, we decided to use the same scales.

#### 4.5 Measures

The scales that are used to measure the variables in the proposed model of the study can be found below. Among them, goal and process clarity, autocratic leadership, LMXSC, emotional reaction to the leader, psychological safety, perceived organizational support and affective commitment scale items are used only in the questionnaire conducted to the followers. On the other hand, job performance, deviant behaviours and organizational citizenship behaviour scales are put together to form the questionnaire conducted to the leaders. The English and Turkish versions of the measures presented can be found at Appendix B, Appendix C, Appendix D and Appendix E.

#### 4.6 Assessing measurement tools

This chapter reports the psychometric qualities of measurement scales utilized in the overall questionnaire, which consisted of 13 scales and 110 items in total. It is important to note that all the scales that were used in this research were acquired from previous research on the subject. However, their reliability in the Turkish context has not yet been operationalized enough. Thus there was a need to conduct reliability tests in SPSS. Each variable in the questionnaire was measured with an independent scale; thus, their reliabilities were tested through their internal consistencies and inter-total correlations.

The responses for the pilot study were obtained in September 2019. In order to reach the level of respondents needed, we have employed a non-probability

convenient sampling method. All data collection was done through a trusted third-party data collection company called Artibir Arastirma. In order to limit and control who is included in the sample, some directions were given to the research company. We asked for our sample to have at least a year of work experience, working as a white-collar employee in sectors of energy, telecommunications, finance and services.

#### 4.7 Scales

Related scale items used in this research and the questionnaire can be found in Appendix B, Appendix C, Appendix D and Appendix E of this thesis.

##### 4.7.1 Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership was measured with six items adapted from the Autocratic Leader Behavior Scale from De Hoogh & Den Hartog (2009). The items have a 9-point response scale, ranging from 1 (completely disagree) to 9 (completely agree).

##### 4.7.2 Goal and Process Clarity

Goal and process clarity was measured with the ten items adapted from the Goal and Process Clarity Scale developed by Sawyer (1992). Respondents were asked how clear they are about each aspect of their work regarding Goal Clarity and Process Clarity. The items have a 6-point response scale, ranging from 1 (very unclear) to 6 (very clear).

#### 4.7.3 Leader-member exchange social comparison

LMXSC was measured with six items adapted from the LMXSC Scale from Vidyarthi et al. (2010). Responses to survey questions were measured on a 5-point scale (1- strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree).

#### 4.7.4 Emotional reactions to the leader

Emotional Reaction to the Leader was measured with twenty-four items adopted from the Emotional Reaction to the Leader scale by Kiefer and Barkley (2012). The scale has five subscales, namely: positive experiences, socially connecting behaviours, energy, negative experiences, and socially disconnecting behaviours. Due to the specific measurements of subsets, we think it is essential to measure the reliability of each sub-scale. The initial question for the scale was: “Please think of your interaction with your supervisor. Then state the extent to which you agree with the below” Responses to survey questions were measured on a 5-point scale (1- strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree).

#### 4.7.5 Psychological Safety

Psychological Safety was measured with six items adapted from Edmondson and Woolley’s (2003) psychological safety scale. Items 3-4 and 5 were reverse coded so necessary steps to transform the variables were taken in SPSS. Responses to survey questions were measured on a 5-point scale (1- strongly agree, 5- strongly disagree).

#### 4.7.6 Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support was measured with eight items adopted from the perceived organizational support scale from Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R.,

Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986). Items 2-5-9 and 12 were reverse coded so necessary steps to transform the variables were taken in SPSS. Responses to survey questions were measured on a 7-point scale (1- Never 7- Always)

Items of Perceived Organizational Support Scale

#### 4.7.7 Affective Commitment

Organizational commitment was measured with eight items adopted from the Organizational Commitment scale from Meyer and Allen (1997). It is worth noting that initially there were three sub-scales in this questionnaire, but we opted only to use the affective commitment scale in this instance since we were interested in the affective relationship between the employee and the organization. Items 4-5-6 and 8 were reverse coded so necessary steps to transform the variables were taken in SPSS. Responses to survey questions were measured on a 7-point scale (1- Completely Disagree 7- Completely Agree)

#### 4.7.8 Job Performance

Job performance was measured with four items adopted from the job performance scale from Williams & Anderson (1991). Responses to survey questions were measured on a 7-point scale (1- Completely Disagree 7- Completely Agree) ,

#### 4.7.9 Deviant Behaviors

Deviant Behaviors were measured with eight items adopted from the deviant behaviours scale from Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Responses to survey questions were measured on a 7-point scale (1- Completely Disagree 7- Completely Agree)

#### 4.7.10 Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OCB-I was measured with eight items adopted from the 15-item OCB scale from Bennett, R. J., & Robinson, S. L. (2000). Items 10-11 and 12 were reverse coded so necessary steps to transform the variables were taken in SPSS. Responses to survey questions were measured on a 7-point scale (1- Completely Disagree 7- Completely Agree)

## CHAPTER 5

### DATA ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESES TESTING

After the item selection phase of the thesis, the English version of the questionnaires were translated into English via back translation method. First, the questionnaire was translated to Turkish by the author and then sent to a translator who have excellent command in English and Turkish. The translator than translated the questionnaire to Turkish himself, followed by a discussion on the exact translation of each item. Following this procedure, the Turkish version was sent to an independent translator who re-translated the Turkish version into English. Finally, the translated English version of the questionnaire was checked, and the questionnaire was then prepared for use in research.

Before performing multivariate analysis, the data screening was performed, including identification and handling of missing values, outliers, and normality assessments. Next, data analyses were started by performing exploratory factor analyses.

#### 5.1 Exploratory factor analysis (EFA)

Factor analysis is an interdependence technique whose primary purpose is to define the underlying structure among the variables in the analysis (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2010). To summarize, factor analysis provides the tools for analysing the structure of the interrelationships (correlations) among a large number of variables (e.g., test scores, test items, questionnaire responses) by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors (Hair, Black, Babin,

& Anderson, 2010). Since EFA is the first step in conducting hierarchical regression analysis, it does not require the researcher to have prior knowledge on the number of factors or which variable belongs to which construct. There are various methods in conducting an exploratory factor analysis, namely common factor analyses and principal components analyses. In this instance, the principal components analysis fits the research in hand better since it is used to reduce the data by summarizing the variance in a minimum number of factors for prediction purposes (Hair et al., 2010). In addition to the selection on the part of common factor analysis and principal components analysis, the researchers have the option to either use orthogonal or oblique rotations.

Validating the results of the exploratory factor analysis depends on two tests, namely Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity. In conducting a Bartlett's test of Sphericity, this thesis aims to evaluate the significance of the correlations among variables in order to prove that the variables are related to each other. On the other hand, KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy provides information on the intercorrelations between the variables of the study. Usually in research, a KMO score above 0.50 and a significant Bartlett test together justify the use of EFA (Hair et al., 2010).

Accordingly, by using SPSS software, the suitability of the data and the variables was controlled via KMO and Bartlett's tests, which could be seen in Table 1 of the thesis. The KMO Measure of Sampling Adequacy test provides a value of 0.885 that is above the required threshold of 0.50, and Bartlett's test of sphericity shows a significant result too. In conclusion, the data in hand is applicable for conducting an EFA.

Table 1. Results of KMO and Bartlett's Test

<b>KMO and Bartlett's Test</b>		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.885
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	33781.615
	df	7626
	Sig.	0.000

In the next step, an exploratory factor analysis was performed in order to understand the underlying dimensions of the variables in the study. In an exploratory factor analysis, it is suggested to use the principal components method with varimax rotation since it is the most common method used (Hair et al., 2010). The aim of using an exploratory factor analysis is to reduce the dimensions which are below the necessary factor loadings ( $< 0.5$ ), thus we have decided to show only the items with factor loadings above the necessary threshold.

In order to assess scale reliability, we have calculated all the Cronbach's Alpha scores for each scale used in our research. Appendix F includes each factor's Cronbach's alpha scores, as well as factor loadings of each item in that factor. As per Appendix F, Cronbach's alpha scores of all factors are above the threshold limit of 0.70, which implies high internal consistency.

## 5.2 Construct validity

In order to provide the confidence that item measures taken from a sample characterize the actual true score that exists in the population (Hair et. al, 2010), the constructs within the model need to be checked for both convergent and discriminant validity. Validity assesses how a scale accurately represents what it intends to measure.

In order to confirm construct validity, both convergent validity and discriminant validity of the measurement's scales should be verified. While convergent validity looks at the degree to which two measures of the same nature are correlated, discriminant validity looks how the concepts are distinct (Hair, 2010). High convergent validity implies the scale is measuring what it should measure. On the other hand, a low discriminant validity means that the scales are different from others. In general, Cronbach Alpha measures in assessing construct reliability should be 0.5, and ideally above 0.70 (Hair et al., 2010). Additionally, for reliability and validity measures, CR value should be greater than 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). In order to ensure discriminant validity, the AVE score of each construct should be larger than 0.50. Finally, to ensure reliability and validity, the CR score of the scale should be higher than the AVE of the construct. The AVE and CR scores for the main constructs can be found in Table 2. Additionally, while correlations among study variables can be found in Table 3, descriptive statistics for study variables can be found in Table 4.

Table 2. Reliability, Validity and Factor Correlations for Main Variables

	Main Constructs	AVE	CR	CR > AVE
1	Autocratic Leadership	0.667	0.907	Yes
2	Goal and Process Clarity	0.555	0.681	Yes
3	LMXSC			Yes
4	Affective Commitment	0.541	0.875	Yes
5	Job Performance	0.889	0.969	Yes
6	Deviant Behaviours	0.730	0.955	Yes
7	Organizational Citizenship Behaviour	0.695	0.953	Yes
8	Psychological Safety	0.722	0.938	Yes
9	Emotional Reaction to the Leader	0.754	0.916	Yes

Table 3. Correlations Among Study Variables

	Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Autocratic Leadership	1								
2	Goal and Process Clarity	-.276**	1							
3	LMXSC	-.446**	.229**	1						
4	Affective Commitment	-.453**	.237**	.724**	1					
5	Job Performance	-.530**	.240**	.626**	.731**	1				
6	Deviant Behaviours	.479**	-.236**	-.559**	-.742**	-.882**	1			
7	OCB	-.682**	.253**	.677**	.709**	.855**	-.804**	1		
8	Psychological Safety	-.586**	.065	-.181**	-.100	.074	-0.21	.200	1	
9	Emotional Reaction to the Leader	-.647**	.206**	-.166**	-.058	0.86	-0.39	.216**	.853**	1

Table 4. Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables

	Variable	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Standard Deviation	Mean
1	Autocratic Leadership	1	7	6	2.02	3.77
2	Goal and Process Clarity	4	6	2	0.38	5.71
3	LMXSC	1	5	4	0.90	3.28
4	Affective Commitment	1	7	6	1.62	5.40
5	Job Performance	1	7	6	1.13	6.13
6	Deviant Behaviours	1	6	5	1.11	1.70
7	OCB	2	7	5	1.35	5.52
8	Psychological Safety	1	5	4	1.44	3.20
9	Emotional Reaction to the Leader	1	5	4	1.55	2.79

As it can be observed from the correlations table, our dependent variable autocratic leadership is negatively correlated with all the variables except deviant behaviours, where there is a positive relationship. We expected the linear relationships to be negative, but our argument on these relationships are dependent on the level of autocratic leadership, and that there is a curvilinear relationship

between autocratic leadership and outcome variables will be analysed in the following sections.

In terms of control variables, although the researcher have collected data for such variables, we decided not to include them in the thesis, since the main use for control variables is to rule out alternative explanations for the findings (Schmitt & Klimoski, 1991) or to reduce error terms and increase statistical power (Schwab, 1999). This is not the case for us, in our thesis, basing our choice not to include control variables on the recommendation of Bakker (2015): “if the results of the comparison between primary results and control variables are not different, only the analysis without controls need to be reported”. Thus, analyses were repeated controlling for the control variables, but the results were essentially identical in terms of their strength and significance. Thus, they were excluded from our analyses.

### 5.3 Hypotheses testing

In this thesis, we tested the hypothesized relationships by means of a series of regression analyses. First, we tested the linear assumptions between autocratic leadership and outcome variables. Subsequently, we looked for curvilinear relationships (U-shaped or inverted U-shaped relationships) between autocratic leadership and outcome variables through the curve estimation tool in SPSS. Finally, we checked for cubic relationships between autocratic leadership and outcome variables. A curvilinear relationship is a type of relationship between two variables that has a pattern of correspondence or association between the two variables that change as the values of the variables change (increase or decrease). Whereas some relationships are straightforward to understand, explain, and detect statistically (i.e.,

linear relationships), curvilinear relationships are more complex because the nature of the relationship is different at different levels of the variables (Allen, 2017)

In line with Hypothesis 1, we looked for curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes. In order to test Hypothesis 1a, we checked for a curvilinear quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual and the squared terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 5 and Table 6 is the linear and quadratic model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 5, we present the graphical representation of positive emotions as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line.

**Table 5. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Emotions**

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.448	161.247	1	199	0.000	0.853	0.515	
Quadratic	0.524	109.120	2	198	0.000	-0.506	1.655	-0.161

**Table 6. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Emotions**

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.669	0.448	0.445	1.16231	0.448	161.247	1	199	0.000
Quadratic	0.724	0.524	0.520	1.08131	0.077	31.931	1	198	0.000

Along the lines of Hypothesis 1a, we found that both the linear and the quadratic component of autocratic leadership significantly related to positive emotions.

Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the positive linear effect of autocratic leadership on positive emotions ( $b = 0.51$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this, we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = 1.655$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.161$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Figure 2 shows the graphical representation of the relationship.

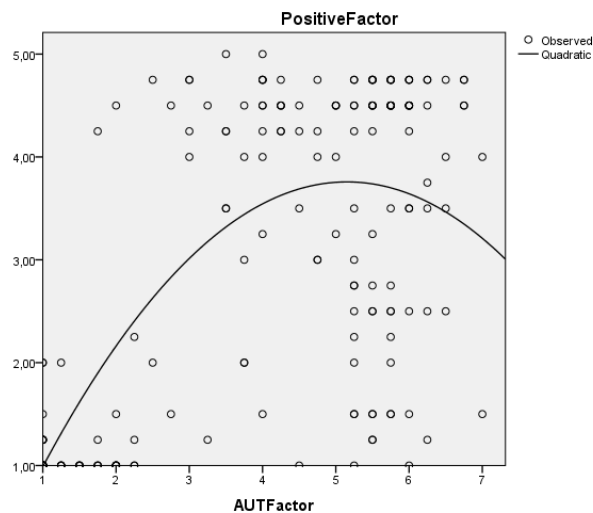


Figure 2. Positive emotions as a function of autocratic leadership

Consequently, X2 was entered as a quadratic term in model 2, in addition to X as the linear term in model 1. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of positive emotions, which is the first factor of positive emotional reactions to the leader. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 44% of variance in positive emotions. After entering the squared term of Autocratic leadership into Model 2 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 52% ( $F(1,198) = 109.120$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). The result

indicated that the addition of the quadratic predictor in model 2 explained an additional 7% of the variance in positive emotions ( $R^2$  change = 0.077). Conclusively, the quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions explain more of the variance compared to the linear relationship and the nature of the relationship changes, starting as a positive relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), than changing to a negative relationship after ( $b_1 = 1.655, p = 0.000; b_2 = -0.161, p = 0.000$ ). These findings support H1a, which suggests that there is a reverse U relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotional reactions in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions is positive. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. This suggests that positive emotions on part of the followers reach its peak at the level of 5 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that very high levels of autocratic leadership lead to the highest levels of positive emotions. When autocratic leadership reaches an extreme level, the positive relationships start to disappear.

In order to test Hypothesis 1a: (There is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Social Emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership , the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. We checked for a reverse U-shaped quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions, which is the second factor of positive emotional reaction to the leader. In Table 7 and Table 8 is the linear and quadratic model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions and the model summary for the

hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 3, we present the graphical representation of social emotions as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line.

Table 7. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Social Emotions

	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.710	486.935	1	199	0.000	0.639	0.667	
Quadratic	0.764	320.662	2	198	0.000	-0.537	1.653	-0.139

Table 8. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Social Emotions

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.843	0.710	0.708	0.86668	0.710	486.935	1	199	0.000
Quadratic	0.874	0.764	0.762	0.78350	0.054	45.501	1	198	0.000

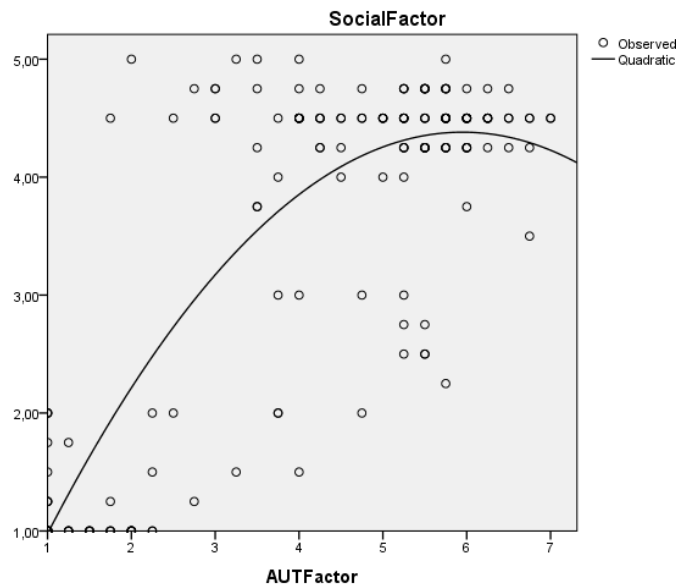


Figure 3. Social emotions as a function of autocratic leadership

Along the lines of Hypothesis 1a (There is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Social Emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative), we found that both the linear and the quadratic component of autocratic leadership significantly related to social emotions. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the positive linear effect of autocratic leadership on social emotions ( $b = 0.66$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this, we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = 1.653$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.139$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a quadratic term in model 2, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of social emotions. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 71% of variance in social emotions. After entering the squared term of Autocratic leadership into Model 2 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 74% ( $F(2,198) = 320.662$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the quadratic predictor in model 2 explained an additional 6% of the variance in positive emotions ( $R^2 \text{ change} = 0.054$ ). Conclusively, the quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions explain more of the variance compared to the linear relationship and the nature of the relationship changes, starting as a positive relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), than changing to a negative relationship ( $b_1 = 1.655$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.161$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). These findings support H1a, which

suggests that (there is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and social emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. This suggests that social emotions on part of the followers reach its peak at the level of 5 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that very high levels of autocratic leadership lead to the highest levels of social emotions. When autocratic leadership reaches an extreme level, the positive relationships start to disappear.

To check for Hypothesis 1a, we looked for a reverse U-shaped quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and energy, which is the third factor of emotional reactions to the leader. In Table 9 and Table 1 is the linear and quadratic model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 6, we present the graphical representation of energy as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line.

Table 9. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Energy

Equation	Model Summary	Parameter Estimates						
		F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.385	124.606	1	199	.000	0.994	0.449	
Quadratic	0.489	94.673	2	198	.000	-0.493	1.697	-.176

Table 10. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Energy

				Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.621	0.385	0.382	1.15388	0.385	124.606	1	199
Quadratic	0.699	0.489	0.484	1.05467	0.104	40.196	1	198

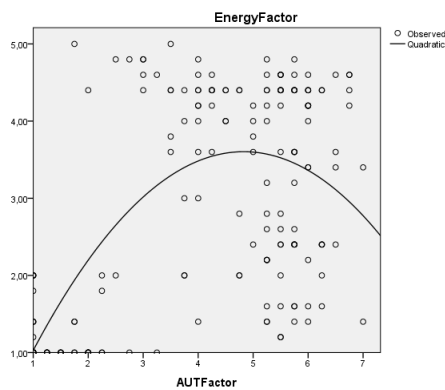


Figure 4. Energy as a function of autocratic leadership

In analysing Hypothesis 1a (There is a reverse U relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Emotional Reactions in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions is positive. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. We found that both the linear and the quadratic component of autocratic leadership significantly related to energy. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the positive linear effect of autocratic leadership on energy ( $b = 0.44$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this, we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = 1,697$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.176$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a quadratic term in model

2, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of energy as a sub-dimension of positive emotional reactions. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 38% of variance in positive emotions. After entering the squared term of Autocratic leadership into Model 2 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 48% ( $F(2,198) = 94.673, p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the quadratic predictor in model 2 explained an additional 6% of the variance in energy ( $R^2 \text{ change} = 0.104$ ). Conclusively, the quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and energy explain more of the variance compared to the linear relationship and the nature of the relationship changes, starting as a positive relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), then changing to a negative relationship. These findings support H1a, which suggests that there is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and energy in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. This suggests that energy on part of the followers reach its peak at the level of 5 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that very high levels of autocratic leadership lead to the highest levels of energy. When autocratic leadership reaches an extreme level, the positive relationships start to disappear.

To test for Hypothesis 1b (There is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Affective Commitment in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership

and affective commitment is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative), we looked for a negative curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment. In Table 11 and Table 12 is the linear model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and the loyalty dimension of affective commitment and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 7, we present the graphical representation of loyalty as a function of autocratic leadership, with a linear fit line.

Table 11. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Loyalty dimension of Affective Commitment

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.206	51.490	1	199	.000	6.774	-0.364	
Quadratic	0.207	25.782	2	198	.000	6.941	-0.504	0.020

Table 12. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Loyalty dimension of Affective Commitment

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.453	0.206	0.202	1.455	0.206	51.490	1	199	.000

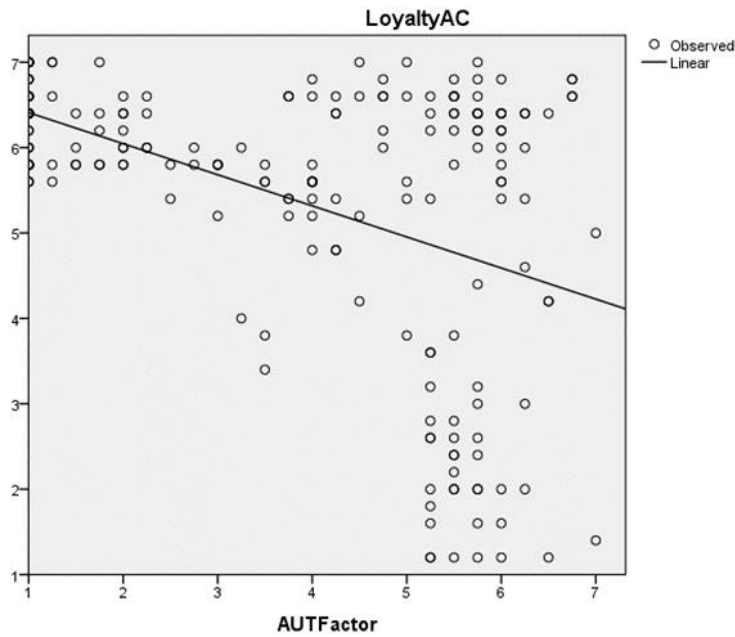


Figure 5. Loyalty sub-dimension of affective commitment as a function of autocratic leadership

These result does not support Hypothesis 1b, which proposes a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment. On the contrary, this finding suggests that there is a negative relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment. People have lower levels of loyalty to their organizations when the autocratic leadership levels of their immediate supervisor's increase.

In Table 13 and Table 14 is the linear model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and the disloyalty dimension of affective commitment, which is the second factor of affective commitment and which suggests an effect of disengagement from the organization. In Figure 6, we present the graphical representation of disloyalty as a function of autocratic leadership, with a linear fit line.

Table 13. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Disloyalty Dimension of Affective Commitment

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.097	21.442	1	199	.000	3.317	0.178	

Table 14. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Disloyalty dimension of Affective Commitment

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.312	0.097	0.093	1.106	0.097	21.442	1	199	.000

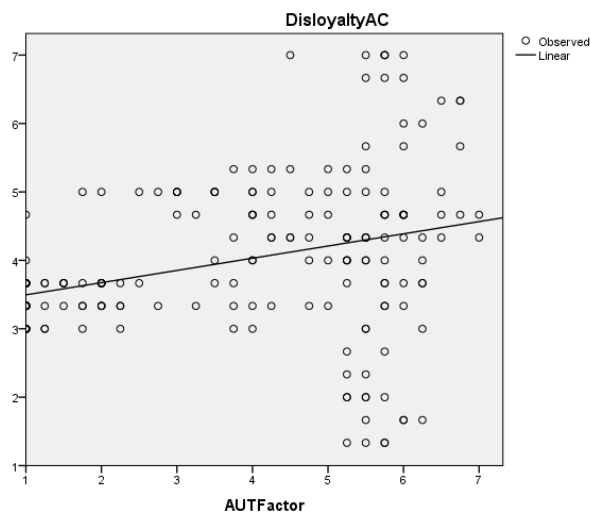


Figure 6. Disloyalty sub-dimension of affective commitment as a function of autocratic leadership

These result does not support Hypothesis 1b, which proposes a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment. On the contrary, this finding suggests that there is a positive relationship between autocratic leadership and the disloyalty dimension of affective commitment. People have higher levels of disloyalty to their organizations when the autocratic leadership levels of their immediate supervisor's increase.

Examining for Hypothesis 2 (There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Affect outcomes (Negative Emotional Reactions) in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. We looked for curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes. In order to test Hypothesis 2a, we checked for a curvilinear quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual and the squared terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 15 and Table 16 is the linear and quadratic model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 7, we present the graphical representation of negative emotions as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line:

**Table 15. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Emotions**

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.418	143.103	1	199	.000	5.040	-0.518	
Quadratic	0.491	95.460	2	198	.000	6.416	-1.673	0.163

Table 16. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Emotions

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.647	0.418	0.415	1.24165	0.418	143.103	1	199	.000
Quadratic	0.701	0.491	0.486	1.16452	0.073	28.234	1	198	.000

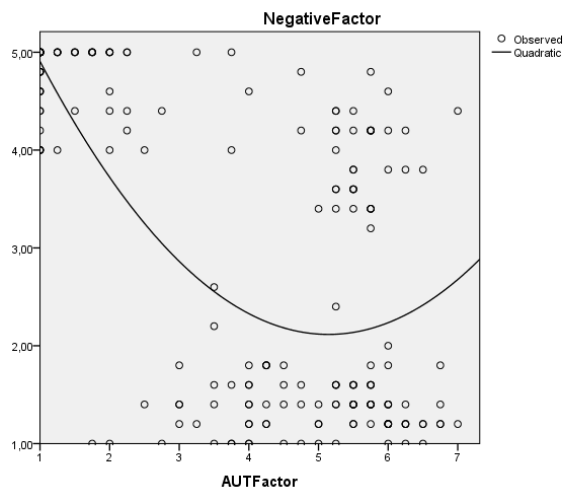


Figure 7. Negative emotions as a function of autocratic leadership

In analysing Hypothesis 2a, we found that both the linear and the quadratic component of autocratic leadership significantly related to negative emotions factor of negative affect emotions. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the negative linear effect of autocratic leadership on negative emotions ( $b = -0.518$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this, we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = 1.673$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.163$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a quadratic term in model 2, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict

levels of negative emotions. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 41% of variance in negative emotions. After entering the squared term of Autocratic leadership into Model 2 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 49% ( $F(2,198) = 95.440, p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the quadratic predictor in model 2 explained an additional 8% of the variance in negative emotions ( $R^2 \text{ change} = 0.073$ ). Conclusively, the quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions explain more of the variance compared to the linear relationship and the nature of the relationship changes, starting as a negative relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), than changing to a positive relationship. These findings support H2a, which suggests that there is a U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and negative emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. This suggests that negative emotions on part of the followers reach its low at the level of 5 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that very high levels of autocratic leadership lead to the lowest levels of negative emotions.

In order to test Hypothesis 2b (There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and antisocial emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. We checked for a U-shaped curvilinear quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later

using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual and the squared terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 17 and Table 18 is the linear and quadratic model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 10, we present the graphical representation of antisocial emotions as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line.

**Table 17. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Antisocial Emotions**

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.591	287.594	1	199	.000	5.217	-0.634	
Quadratic	0.679	209.013	2	198	.000	6.775	-1.941	0.184

**Table 18. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Antisocial Emotions**

Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change	Statistics	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
					R Square Change	F Change			
Linear	0.769	0.591	0.589	1.07298	0.591	287.594	1	199	.000
Quadratic	0.824	0.679	0.675	.95362	0.088	53.933	1	198	.000

In analysing Hypothesis 2b (There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and antisocial emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. We found that both the linear and the quadratic component of autocratic leadership significantly related to antisocial

emotions. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the negative linear effect of autocratic leadership on antisocial emotions ( $b = -0.634$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this, we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = -0.1941$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = 0.184$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a quadratic term in model 2, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of antisocial emotions. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 59% of variance in antisocial emotions. After entering the squared term of Autocratic leadership into Model 2 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 67% ( $F(2,198) = 209.013$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the quadratic predictor in model 2 explained an additional 8% of the variance in antisocial emotions (R squared change = 0.088). Conclusively, the quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions explain more of the variance compared to the linear relationship and the nature of the relationship changes, starting as a negative relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), than changing to a positive relationship. These findings support H2b, which suggests that there is a U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and antisocial emotions in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. This suggests that antisocial emotions on part of the followers reach its low at the level of 5 on a range

from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that very high levels of autocratic leadership lead to the lowest levels of antisocial emotions.

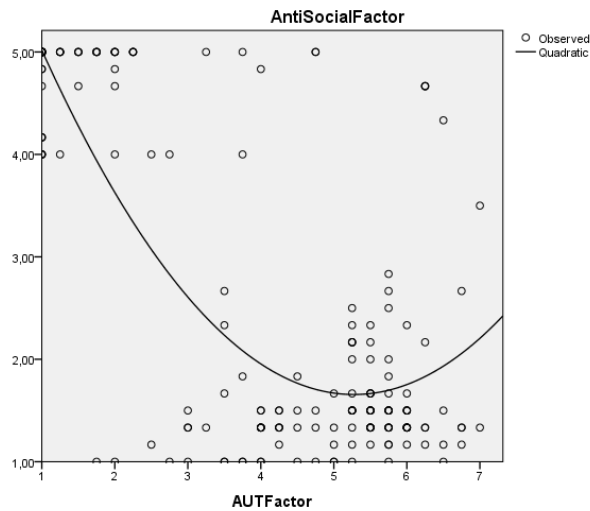


Figure 8. Antisocial emotions as a function of autocratic leadership

Examining for Hypothesis 3 (There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and cognitive outcomes (psychological safety, goal and process clarity and job performance), we looked for curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes. In order to test Hypothesis 3a (There is a reverse U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and psychological safety in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we checked for a curvilinear quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual and the squared terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 19 and Table 20 is the linear and quadratic model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic

leadership and psychological safety and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 9, we present the graphical representation of psychological safety as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line.

Table 19. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Psychological Safety

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.343	104.006	1	199	.000	4.782	-0.418	
Quadratic	0.417	70.931	2	198	.000	6.023	-1.459	0.147

Table 20. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Psychological Safety

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.586	0.343	0.340	1.176	0.343	104.006	1	199	.000
Quadratic	0.646	0.417	0.412	1.111	0.074	25.205	1	198	.000

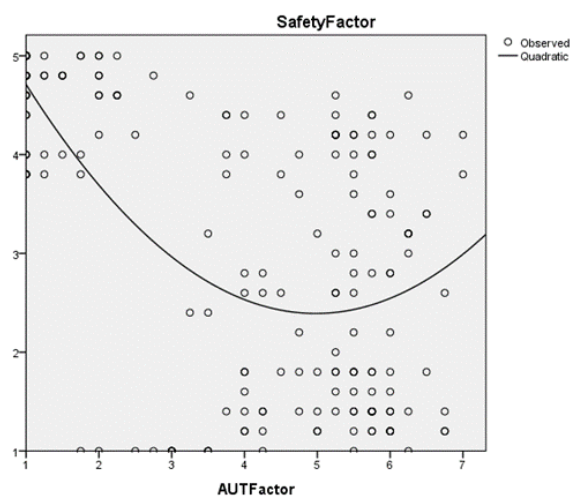


Figure 9. Psychological Safety as a function of autocratic leadership

In analysing Hypothesis 3a (There is a reverse U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and psychological safety in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we found that both the linear and the quadratic component of autocratic leadership significantly related to psychological safety. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the negative linear effect of autocratic leadership on psychological safety ( $b = -0.418$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this, we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = -0.1459$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = 0.147$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a quadratic term in model 2, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of psychological safety. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 34% of variance in psychological safety. After entering the squared term of Autocratic leadership into Model 2 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 41% ( $F(2,198) = 70.931$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the quadratic predictor in model 2 explained an additional 7% of the variance in psychological safety (R squared change = 0.074). Conclusively, the quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety explain more of the variance compared to the linear relationship and the nature of the relationship changes, starting as a negative relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), than changing to a positive relationship. These findings does not support H3a, which suggests that

there is a reverse U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and psychological safety in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety is negative. Although the hypotheses is not supported in this instance, the result of the analysis is interesting nonetheless. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive. This suggests that psychological safety on part of the followers reach its low at the level of 5 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that very high levels of autocratic leadership lead to the lowest levels of psychological safety.

In order to test Hypothesis 3b (There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Goal and Process Clarity in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we checked for a curvilinear quadratic relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual and the squared terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 21 and Table 22 is the linear, quadratic, and cubic model summaries and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 10, we present the graphical representation of process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity as a function of autocratic leadership, with a quadratic fit line.

Table 21. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Process Orientation aspect of Goal and Process Clarity

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.076	16.410	1	199	.000	5.904	-0.053	
Quadratic	0.093	10.182	2	198	.000	6.064	-0.187	0.019

Table 22. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and and Process Orientation aspect of Goal and Process Clarity

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.276	0.076	0.072	0.374	0.076	16.410	1	199	0.000
Quadratic	0.305	0.093	0.084	0.371	0.017	3.730	1	198	0.055

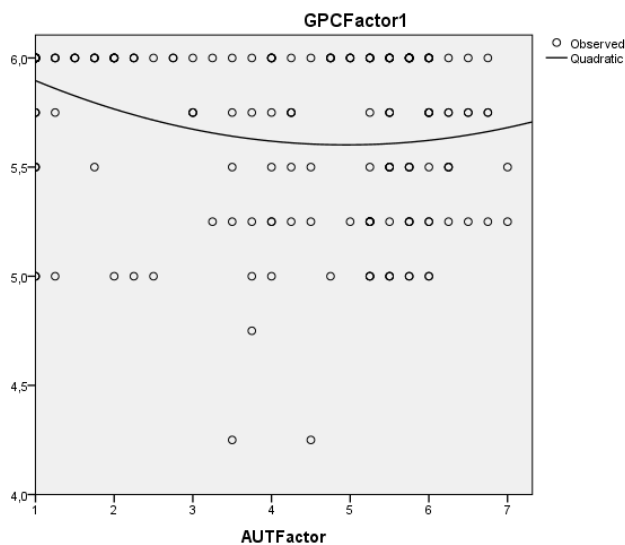


Figure 10. Process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity as a function of autocratic leadership

Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of process orientation. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 7% of variance in psychological safety. Furthermore, the introduction of the second order term of

autocratic leadership in order to assess curvilinearity has not produced a significant result ( $p = 0.055$ ). These result does not support Hypothesis 3b, which proposes a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity. On the contrary, this finding suggests that there is a positive relationship between autocratic leadership and the process orientation dimension of goal and process clarity. People have higher levels of process orientation when the autocratic leadership levels of their immediate supervisor's increase.

In order to test Hypothesis 3b, we checked for a cubic relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual, squared and cubic terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 23 and Table 24 is the linear, quadratic, and cubic model summaries and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 11, we present the graphical representation of goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity as a function of autocratic leadership, with a cubic fit line.

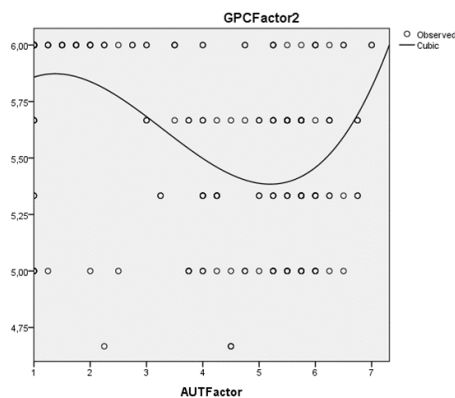


Figure 11. Goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity as a function of autocratic leadership

Table 23. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Goal Orientation aspect of Goal and Process Clarity

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.183	44.690	1	199	0.000	5.930	-0.085	
Quadratic	0.213	26.715	2	198	0.000	6.146	-0.266	0.025
Cubic	0.245	21.314	3	197	0.000	5.637	0.376	-0.173

Table 24. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Goal Orientation aspect of Goal and Process Clarity

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
Linear	0.428	0.183	0.179	0.364	0.183	44.690	1	199	0.000
Quadratic	0.461	0.213	0.205	0.358	0.029	7.321	1	198	0.007
Cubic	0.495	0.245	0.234	0.352	0.033	8.492	1	197	0.004

In analysing Hypothesis 3b (There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we found that both the linear, quadratic and cubic components of autocratic leadership significantly related to goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the negative linear effect of autocratic leadership on goal orientation ( $b = -0.085$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). On top of this,

we can observe the change in the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation through the beta values of the quadratic term ( $b_1 = -0.266, p = 0.000; b_2 = 0.025, p = 0.000$ ). The curve changes three times when checked for a cubic interaction ( $b_1 = 0.376, p = 0.000; b_2 = -0.173, p = 0.000, b_3 = 0.018, p = 0.000$ ) Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a cubic term in model 3, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1 and quadratic term in model 2. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of goal orientation. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 18% of variance in goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity. Quadratic term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 2 and explained 21% of variance in goal orientation. After entering the cubic term of Autocratic leadership into Model 3 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 24% ( $F(3,197) = 21.314, p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the cubic predictor in model 3 explained an additional 3% of the variance in goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity ( $R^2 \text{ change} = 0.033$ ). Conclusively, the cubic relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation explain more of the variance compared to the linear and quadratic relationships. The nature of the relationship changes, starting as a positive relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 2 (Low Autocratic), changing to a negative relationship for 2 (Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), than changing to a positive relationship for 5 (High Autocratic) levels to 7 (Extreme Autocratic) levels. This result suggests that the highest scores for goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity are for high to extreme levels of autocratic leadership. We believe this result to be an important finding for the literature which discovers how extreme

autocratic leadership creates goal orientation on part of the follower. These findings partly support H3b, which suggests that there is a U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

For the final hypotheses in the cognitive outcome group, we checked for a cubic relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual, squared and cubic terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 25 and Table 26 is the linear, quadratic and cubic model summaries and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 12, we present the graphical representation of job performance as a function of autocratic leadership, with a cubic fit line.

**Table 25. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Job Performance**

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	0.281	77.679	1	199	0.000	7.246	-0.296		
Quadratic	0.281	38.650	2	198	0.000	7.227	-0.280	-0.002	
Cubic	0.296	27.649	3	197	0.000	6.237	0.970	-0.388	0.034

Table 26. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Job Performance

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared		Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.530	0.281	0.277	0.963	0.281	77.679	1	199	0.000
2	0.530	0.281	0.274	0.965	0.000	.008	1	198	0.929
3	0.544	0.296	0.286	0.957	0.016	4.343	1	197	0.038

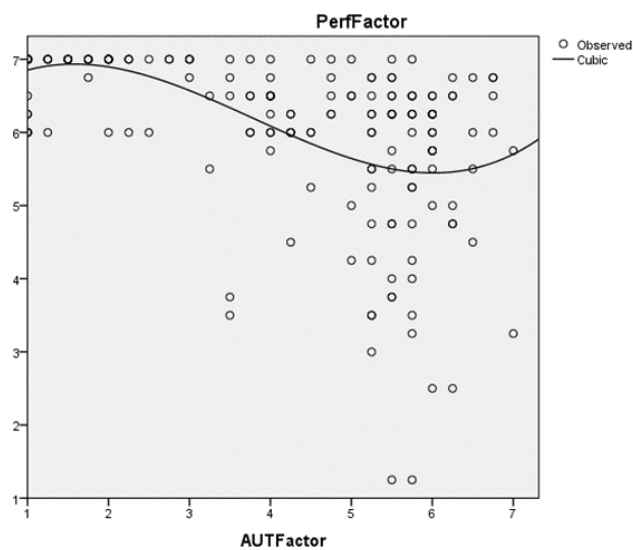


Figure 12. Job performance as a function of autocratic leadership

In analysing Hypothesis 3c (There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and job performance in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we found that both the linear, quadratic and cubic components of autocratic leadership significantly related to job performance. Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the negative linear effect of autocratic leadership on job

performance ( $b = -0.296$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ). The curve changes three times when checked for a cubic interaction ( $b_1 = 0.970$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.388$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ,  $b_3 = 0.034$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ) Consequently, autocratic leadership was entered as a cubic term in model 3, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1 and quadratic term in model 2. Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of job performance. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 18% of variance in job performance. Quadratic term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 2 and explained 28% of variance in job performance. After entering the cubic term of Autocratic leadership into Model 3 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 29% ( $F(3,197) = 27.649$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated that the addition of the cubic predictor in model 3 explained an additional 3% of the variance in job performance ( $R^2 \text{ change} = 0.016$ ). Conclusively, the cubic relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance explains more of the variance compared to the linear and quadratic relationships. The nature of the relationship changes, starting as a positive relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 2 (Low Autocratic), changing to a negative relationship for 2 (Low Autocratic) to 5 (High Autocratic), then changing to a positive relationship for 5 (High Autocratic) levels to 7 (Extreme Autocratic) levels. These findings partly support H3c, which suggests that there is a U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and job performance in such a way that for very low levels to low levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance is positive. For low to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive again. This suggests that job

performance on part of the followers reach its high at the level of 2 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that moderate levels of autocratic leadership lead to the lowest levels of job performance. When autocratic leadership reaches an extreme level, there is a change observed from negative to positive values.

Examining for Hypothesis 4 (There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and behavioral outcomes (OCB and deviant behaviours)), we looked for curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes. In order to test Hypothesis 4a (There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and OCB in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we checked for a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behavior aspect of OCB first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual, squared and cubic terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 27 and Table 28 is the linear, quadratic and cubic model summaries and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behavior aspect of OCB and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 13, we present the graphical representation of helping behavior aspect of OCB as a function of autocratic leadership, with a cubic fit line.

Table 27. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Helping Behavior aspect of OCB

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	0.465	172.847	1	199	0.000	7.241	-0.456		
Quadratic	0.467	86.906	2	198	0.000	7.021	-0.272	-.026	
Cubic	0.491	63.469	3	197	0.000	5.545	1.592	-0.602	0.051

Table 28. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Helping Behavior aspect of OCB

Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change	Statistics			
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.682	0.465	0.462	0.996	0.465	172.847	1	199	0.000
2	0.684	0.467	0.462	0.996	0.003	.981	1	198	0.323
3	0.701	0.491	0.484	0.975	0.024	9.305	1	197	0.003

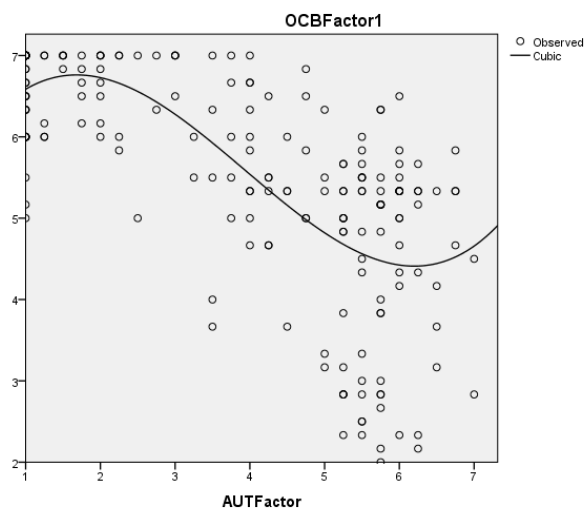


Figure 13. Helping behavior aspect of OCB as a function of autocratic leadership

In analysing Hypothesis 4a (There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and OCB in such a way that for low levels of autocratic

leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive), we found that both the linear, quadratic and cubic components of autocratic leadership significantly related to helping behavior aspect of OCB.

Looking at the beta value for the linear relationship, we see the negative linear effect of autocratic leadership on helping behavior aspect of OCB ( $b = -0.456$ ;  $p = 0.000$ ).

The curve changes three times when checked for a cubic interaction ( $b_1 = 1.592$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ;  $b_2 = -0.602$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ,  $b_3 = 0.051$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). Consequently, autocratic

leadership was entered as a cubic term in model 3, in addition to autocratic leadership as the linear term in model 1 and quadratic term in model 2. Hierarchical

multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of helping behavior aspect of OCB. Linear term of Autocratic

Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 68% of variance in helping behavior aspect of OCB. After entering the cubic term of Autocratic leadership into

Model 3 in order to assess curvilinearity between the variables, the total variance explained by the model was 70% ( $F(3,197) = 63.469$ ,  $p = 0.000$ ). The result indicated

that the addition of the cubic predictor in model 3 explained an additional 2% of the variance in helping behavior aspect of OCB ( $R^2$  change = 0.024).

Conclusively, the cubic relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behavior aspect of OCB explain more of the variance compared to the linear and

quadratic relationships. The nature of the relationship changes, starting as a positive relationship from the 1 (Very Low Autocratic) to 2 (Low Autocratic), changing to a

negative relationship for 2 (Low Autocratic) to 6 (Very High Autocratic), than changing to a positive relationship for 6 (Very High Autocratic) levels to 7 (Extreme

Autocratic) levels. These findings partly support H4a, which suggests that there is a

U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and helping behavior aspect of OCB in such a way that for very low levels to low levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behavior aspect of OCB is positive. For low to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive again. This suggests that helping behavior aspect of OCB on part of the followers reach its high at the level of 2 on a range from 1 to 7, which lends support to the proposition that moderate levels of autocratic leadership lead to the lowest levels of helping behavior aspect of OCB. When autocratic leadership reaches an extreme level, there is a change observed from negative to positive values.

To test for Hypothesis 4a, we looked for a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and negative citizenship aspect of OCB. In Table 29 and Table 30 is the linear model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and the negative citizenship aspect of OCB and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 14, we present the graphical representation of and negative citizenship aspect of OCB as a function of autocratic leadership, with a linear fit line.

Table 29. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for Negative Citizenship aspect of OCB

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates	
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1
Linear	0.149	34.799	1	199	0.000	1.029	0.289
Quadratic	0.149	17.397	2	198	0.000	0.910	0.389

Table 30. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Citizenship aspect of OCB

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.386	0.149	0.145	1.406	0.149	34.799	1	199	0.000
2	0.387	0.149	0.141	1.409	0.001	0.144	1	198	0.705

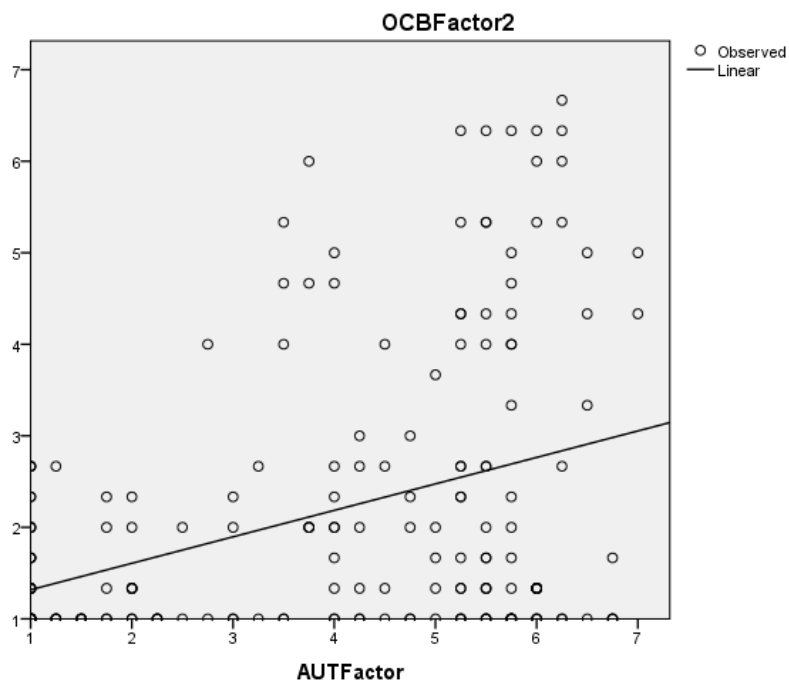


Figure 14. Negative citizenship aspect of OCB as a function of autocratic leadership

Hierarchical multiple regression was calculated to assess the ability of autocratic leadership to predict levels of negative citizenship. Linear term of Autocratic Leadership was entered into Step 1 and explained 14% of variance in negative citizenship. Furthermore, the introduction of the second order term of autocratic leadership in order to assess curvilinearity has not produced a significant

change in R squared (R squared change = 0.001). These result does not support Hypothesis 4a, which proposes a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and negative citizenship. This finding suggests that there is a positive linear relationship between autocratic leadership and negative citizenship. People have higher levels of negative citizenship when the autocratic leadership levels of their immediate supervisor's increase.

In order to test Hypothesis 4a, we checked for a cubic relationship between autocratic leadership and rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB first through the curve estimation tool provided in SPSS and then later using a standard multiple regression by entering the actual, squared and cubic terms of autocratic leadership. In Table 31 and Table 32 is the linear, quadratic and cubic model summaries and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 15, we present the graphical representation of rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB as a function of autocratic leadership, with a cubic fit line.

Table 31. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Rule Obedience aspect of OCB

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates			
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2	b3
Linear	0.026	5.389	1	199	0.021	5.920	-0.143		
Quadratic	0.050	5.211	2	198	0.006	5.057	0.581	-0.102	
Cubic	0.062	4.316	3	197	0.006	3.706	2.286	-0.629	0.047

Table 32. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Rule Obedience aspect of OCB

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.162	0.026	0.021	1.764	0.026	5.389	1	199	0.021
2	0.224	0.050	0.040	1.747	0.024	4.927	1	198	0.028
3	0.248	0.062	0.047	1.740	0.012	2.448	1	197	0.119

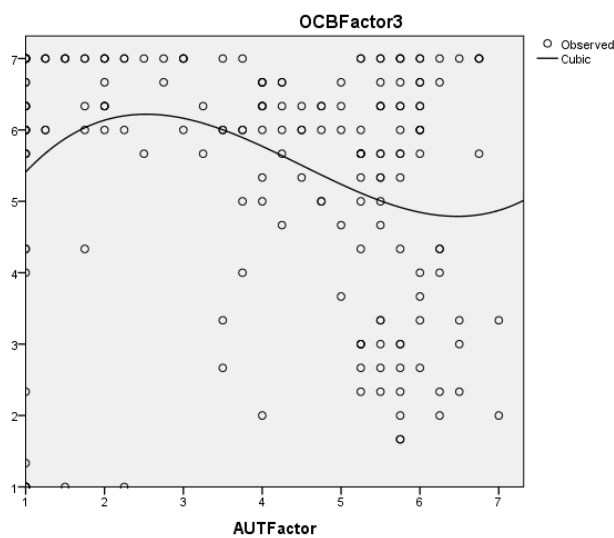


Figure 15. Rule obedience aspect of OCB as a function of autocratic leadership

In analysing Hypothesis 4a, we found that only the linear components of autocratic leadership significantly related to rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB. These result does not support Hypothesis 4a, which proposes a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB. On the contrary, this finding suggests that there is a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB. People have lower levels of rule obedience behavior aspect of OCB when the autocratic leadership levels of their immediate supervisor's increase.

To test for Hypothesis 4b (There is a positive linear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and deviant behaviours), we looked for a positive linear relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours. In Table 33 and Table 34 is the linear model summary and parameter estimations for the relationship between autocratic leadership and the deviant behaviours and the model summary for the hierarchical multiple regression. In Figure 16, we present the graphical representation of deviant behaviours as a function of autocratic leadership, with a linear fit line.

Table 33. Model Summary and Parameter Estimates for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Deviant Behaviours

Equation	Model Summary					Parameter Estimates		
	R Square	F	df1	df2	Sig.	Constant	b1	b2
Linear	0.230	59.396	1	199	0.000	0.704	0.264	

Table 34. Model Summary for the Relationship Between Autocratic Leadership and Deviant Behaviours

					Change	Statistics			
Model	R	R squared	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	0.479	0.230	0.226	0.983	0.230	59.396	1	199	0.000

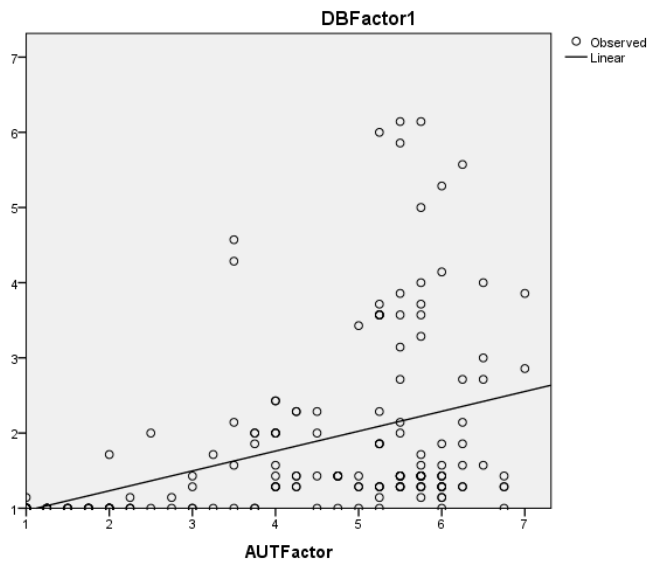


Figure 16. Deviant behaviours as a function of autocratic leadership

These results support Hypothesis 4b, which proposes a linear relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours. People have higher levels of deviant behaviours when the autocratic leadership levels of their immediate supervisor's increase.

#### 5.4 Moderation analysis

To test the hypotheses whether moderators in the model influence the relationship between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. In the first step, two variables were included: autocratic leadership and the single order term of the moderator. Then, it was checked whether these variables accounted for a significant amount of variance in employee outcomes ( $R^2 = 0.340$ ,  $F(2, 297) = 76.57$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). To avoid potentially problematic high multicollinearity with the interaction term, the variables were centered and an interaction term between autocratic leadership and moderators was created (Aiken & West, 1991). Next, the interaction term between autocratic

leadership and the moderators was added to the regression model, looking for how much the interaction accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in employee outcomes. Concurrently, the interaction plot was checked to see whether it showed an enhancing effect that as autocratic leadership and moderators increased, employee outcomes increased. Finally, a 4 by 4 matrix was created to look for scores employee outcomes as a result of the interaction between autocratic leadership and moderators in the model. This has allowed us to look for effects of the interaction for low and high levels of autocratic leadership.

#### 5.4.1 Moderating role of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes

To test the hypothesis whether LMXSC moderates the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes (H5), a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions, which is a sub-dimension for positive affect outcomes in the model (H5a), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining positive emotions ( $R^2 = 0.749$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 295.761$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in positive emotions ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.02$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 18.82$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.761$ ,  $t(296) = 4.33$ ,  $p < .01$ ). These findings support H5a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC). While the summary of

the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 35, interaction scores can be found in Table 36. Figure 17 represents the interaction plot.

Table 35. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Positive Emotions (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	0.725	0.031	23.705	0.000
	LMXSC	1.055	0.068	15.431	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.094	0.148	0.638	0.000
	LMXSC	0.190	0.210	0.904	0.000
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	0.184	0.042	4.339	0.000

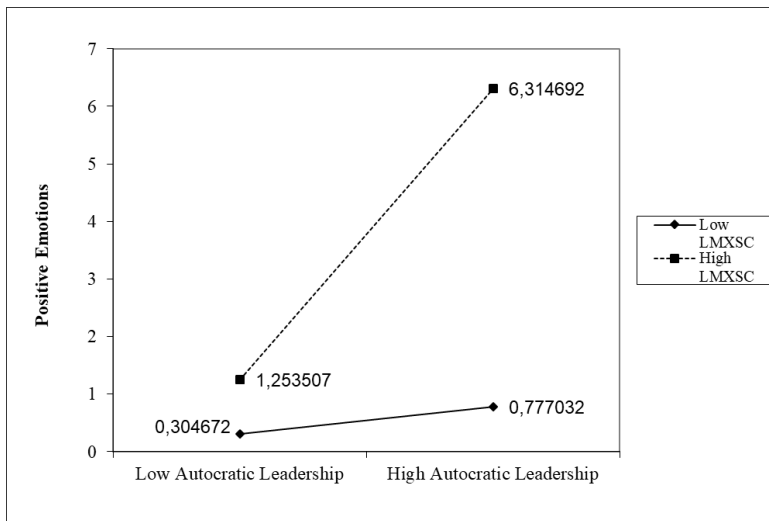


Figure 17. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and positive emotions

Table 36. Positive Emotions Scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and positive emotions

Positive Emotions	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	0.30	1.25
High Autocratic Leadership	0.77	6.31

Examination of the interaction plot showed an enhancing effect that as autocratic leadership and LMXSC increased, positive emotions increased. Followers with high LMXSC scores who had highly autocratic leaders had the most positive emotions. These findings support H5a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

For the moderation between autocratic leadership and social emotions sub-scale H5a: (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC) , the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining social emotions ( $R^2 = 0.756$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 306.998$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in social emotions but was not statistically significant ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.002$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 205.87$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -0.231$ ,  $t(197) = 1.64$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that LMXSC does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions. These findings does not support H5a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

In order to test the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy sub-scale moderated by LMXSC, H5a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining energy ( $R^2 = 0.702$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 233.515$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in energy as well ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.019$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 13.26$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.705$ ,  $t(197) = 3.64$ ,  $p < .01$ ). While the summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found in Table 36, interaction scores can be found in Table 37. Figure 18 represents the interaction plot.

Table 37. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Energy (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	0.652	0.031	20.798	0.000
	LMXSC	1.018	0.070	14.524	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.102	0.154	0.664	0.000
	LMXSC	0.264	0.218	1.209	0.000
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	0.160	0.044	3.643	0.000

Table 38. Energy scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and energy

Energy	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	0.41	1.72
High Autocratic Leadership	0.92	6.24

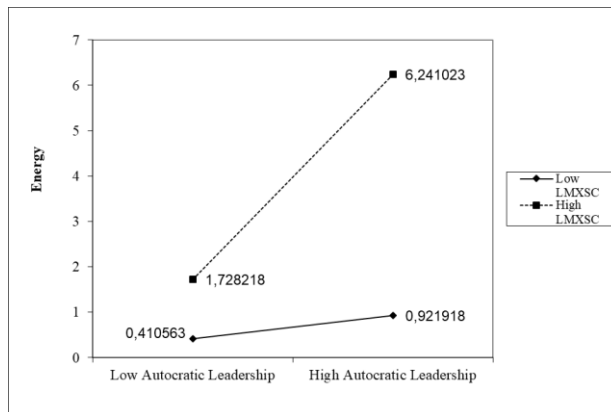


Figure 18. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and energy

Examination of the interaction plot showed an enhancing effect that as autocratic leadership and LMXSC increased, energy increased. Followers with high LMXSC scores who have highly autocratic leaders had the most energy. These findings does support H5a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy sub-scale of positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on energy sub-scale of positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

In order to test the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions sub-scale moderated by LMXSC (H5b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect emotions, such that

autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining negative emotions ( $R^2 = 0.676$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 206.638$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in negative emotions as well ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.016$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 147.58$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -0.651$ ,  $t(197) = -3.198$ ,  $p < .01$ ). While the summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found in Table 38, interaction scores can be found in Table 39. Figure 19 represents the interaction plot.

Table 39. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Negative Emotions (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.720	0.036	-19.909	0.000
	LMXSC	-1.015	0.081	-12.553	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	-0.159	0.179	-0.890	0.375
	LMXSC	-0.245	0.253	-0.968	0.334
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	-0.163	0.051	-3.198	0.002

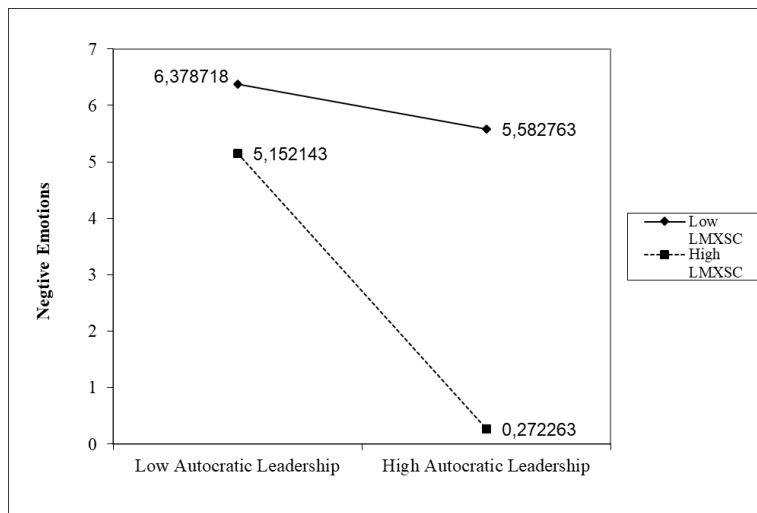


Figure 19. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and negative emotions

Table 40. Negative emotions scores for Interaction of LMXSC between autocratic leadership and negative emotions

Negative Emotions	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	6.37	5.15
High Autocratic Leadership	5.58	0.27

Examination of the interaction plot showed a diminishing effect that as autocratic leadership and LMXSC increased, negative emotions decreased. Followers with low LMXSC scores who have low autocratic leaders had the most negative emotions. These findings does not support H5b (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions sub-scale, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative emotions sub-scale for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

For the moderation between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions sub-scale of negative affect outcomes (H5b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect emotions, such that

autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining antisocial emotions ( $R^2 = 0.793$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 168.092$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in antisocial emotions but was not statistically significant in terms of F change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.000$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 0.100$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.071$ ,  $t(197) = .317$ ,  $p > .01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that LMXSC does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions. These findings does not support H5b (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions sub-scale, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on antisocial emotions sub-scale for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

#### 5.4.2 Moderating role of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes

To test the hypothesis whether LMXSC moderates the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes (H6), a hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety (H6a), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining psychological safety ( $R^2 = 0.587$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 140.595$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the

regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in psychological safety ( $\Delta R$  squared = 0.027,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 13.89$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -0.849$ ,  $t(197) = -3.72$ ,  $p < .01$ ). While Figure 20 represents the interaction plot, the summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 40, interaction scores can be found in Table 41.

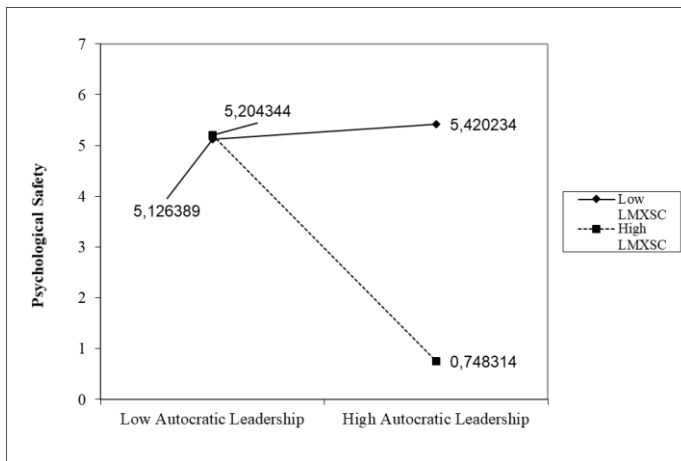


Figure 20. Interaction of LMXSC between autocratic leadership and psychological safety

Table 41. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Psychological Safety (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.594	0.036	-16.295	0.000
	LMXSC	-0.880	0.081	-10.803	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.059	0.179	0.329	0.743
	LMXSC	0.016	0.253	0.062	0.951
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	-0.190	0.051	-3.725	0.000

Table 42. Psychological safety scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and psychological safety

Psychological Safety	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	5.12	5.20
High Autocratic Leadership	5.42	0.74

Examination of the interaction plot showed both an enhancing and a diminishing effect that as autocratic leadership and LMXSC increased, psychological safety decreased. Followers low on LMXSC scores who have highly autocratic leaders had the most psychological safety. In terms of findings, we can see that the group with the most psychological safety were the Low LMXSC and High Autocratic Leadership group. In contrast, the lowest scores on psychological safety belonged to the in-group, the group with high autocratic leadership and high LMXSC. This suggest that These findings support H6a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity (H6b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining process orientation ( $R^2 = 0.090$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 9.805$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which

accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in process orientation ( $\Delta R$  squared = 0.037,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 8,28$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -0.986$ ,  $t(197) = -2,89$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

Figure 21 represents the interaction plot. The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 42, interaction scores can be found in Table 43.

Table 43. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Process Orientation (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.042	0.014	-2.869	0.000
	LMXSC	0.056	0.032	1.742	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.162	0.072	2.245	0.026
	LMXSC	0.335	0.102	3.288	0.001
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	-0.059	0.021	-2.879	0.004

Table 44. Process Orientation scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and process orientation

Process Orientation	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	5.12	5.93
High Autocratic Leadership	6.80	6.13

Examination of the interaction plot showed an enhancing effect: as autocratic leadership increased, process orientation increased as well. Followers low on LMXSC scores who have highly autocratic leaders had the most process orientation. This suggest that these findings support H6b (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

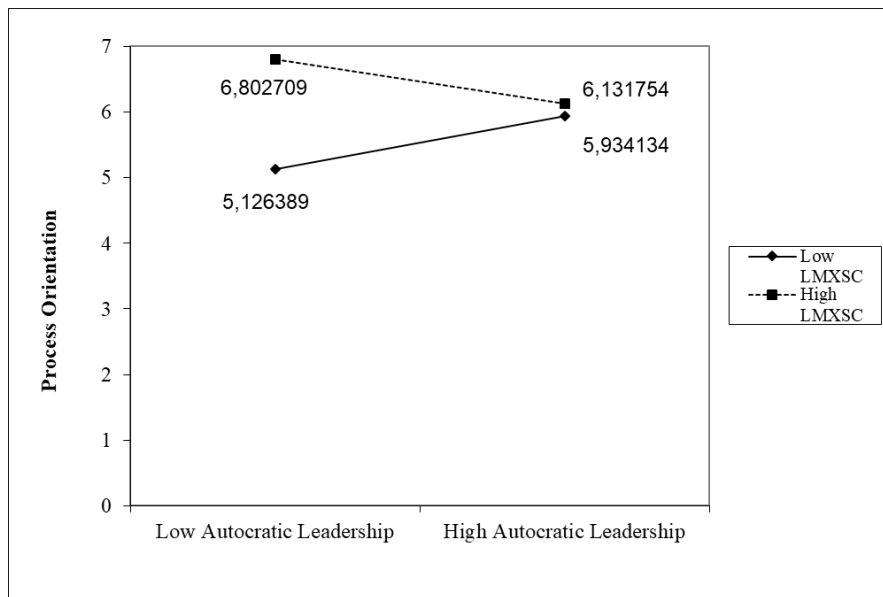


Figure 21. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and process orientation

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity (H6b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining goal orientation ( $R^2 = 0.201$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 24.832$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in goal orientation ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.060$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 16.06$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -1.261$ ,  $t(197) = -4.01$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 44, interaction scores can be found in Table 45. Figure 22 represents the interaction plot

Table 45. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Goal Orientation (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.072	0.014	-5.115	0.000
	LMXSC	0.065	0.031	2.060	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.197	0.069	2.873	0.005
	LMXSC	0.434	0.097	4.468	0.000
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	-0.078	0.020	-4.001	0.000

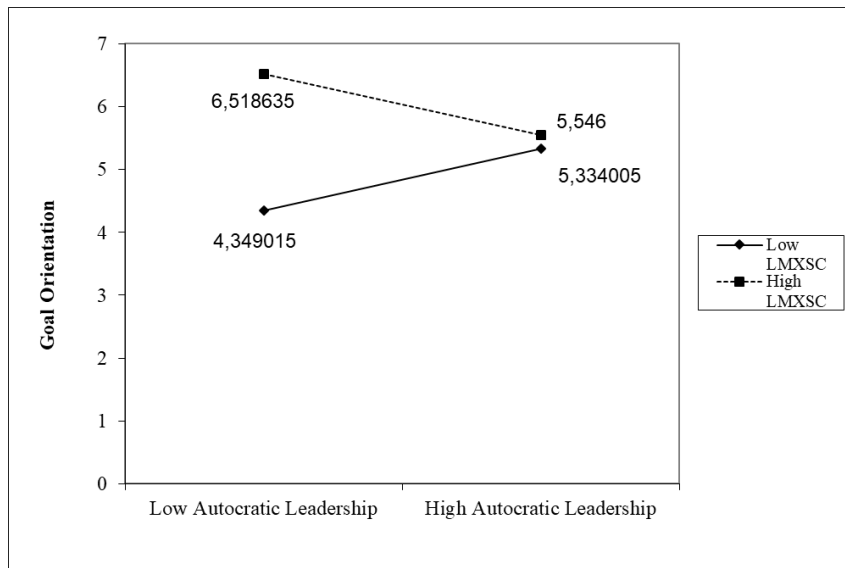


Figure 22. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and goal orientation

Table 46. Goal Orientation scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and goal orientation

Goal Orientation	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	4.34	5.33
High Autocratic Leadership	6.51	5.54

Examination of the interaction plot showed both an enhancing and diminishing effect: for the low LMXSC group, as autocratic leadership increased,

goal orientation increased as well. For followers high on LMXSC scores, as autocratic leadership increased, goal orientation decreased. These findings does not support H6b: (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance (H6c: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining job performance ( $R^2 = 0.471$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 88.034$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in job performance ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.026$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 10.03$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.824$ ,  $t(197) = 3.16$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 46, interaction scores can be found in Table 47. Figure 23 represents the interaction plot

Table 47. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Job Performance (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.175	0.032	-5.419	0.000
	LMXSC	0.608	0.072	8.429	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	-0.670	0.160	-4.200	0.000
	LMXSC	-0.073	0.226	-0.321	0.749
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	0.144	0.046	3.168	0.002

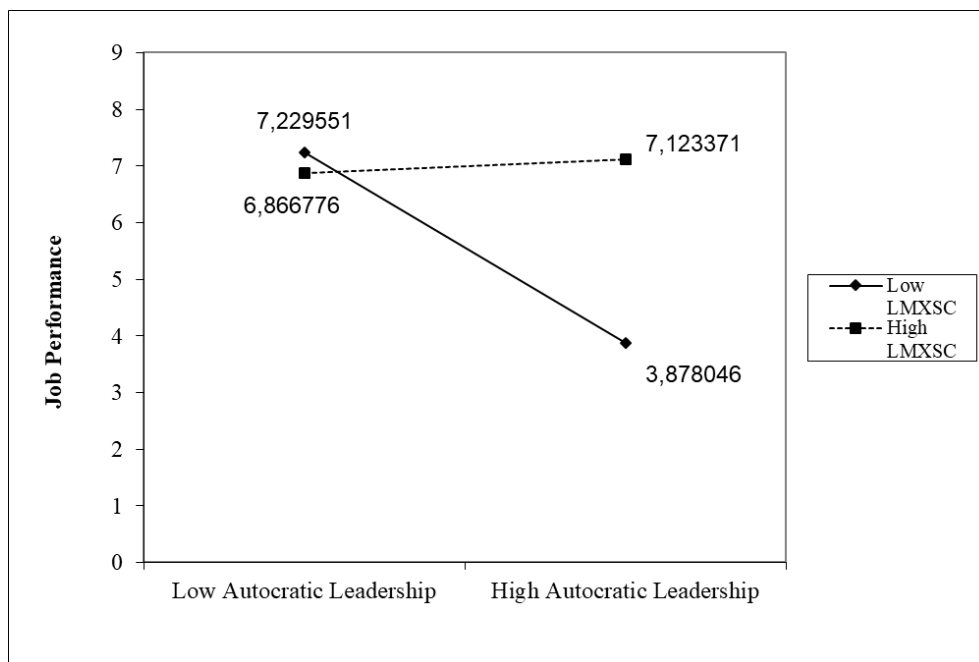


Figure 23. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and job performance

Table 48. Job Performance scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and job performance

Job Performance	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	7.22	6.86
High Autocratic Leadership	3.87	7.12

Examination of the interaction plot showed both an enhancing and diminishing effect: for the low LMXSC group, as autocratic leadership increased, job performance decreased. For followers high on LMXSC scores, as autocratic leadership increased, job performance increased as well. The group with the highest score on job performance were the followers with low LMXSC relationships with their low autocratic leaders. This suggest that these findings support H6c (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC), since the most disadvantaged group in this analysis is the high Autocratic and low LMXSC group.

#### 5.4.3 Moderating role of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes (H7), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining helping behaviours (R squared = 0.639,  $F(2, 198) = 175.284$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in helping behaviours but was not statistically significant in terms of change in R squared ( $\Delta R$  squared = 0.007,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 3.83$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.427$ ,  $t(197) = 1.95$ ,  $p > .01$ .) Thus, we can conclude that LMXSC does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behaviours. This suggest that these findings does not support H7a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between

autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes (H7), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining negative citizenship ( $R^2 = 0.457$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 26.171$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in negative citizenship but was not statistically significant in terms of F change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.014$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 3.52$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -0.607$ ,  $t(197) = -1.87$ ,  $p > .01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that LMXSC does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative citizenship. This suggests that these findings do not support H7a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC)

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes of rule orientation (H7), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining rule orientation ( $R^2 = 0.412$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 20.195$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in rule orientation but was not statistically significant in terms of change in  $R^2$  or F change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.001$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 0.186$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.144$ ,  $t(197) = 0.431$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ).

Thus, we can conclude that LMXSC does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and rule orientation. This suggest that these findings does not support H7a (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC)

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours (H7b: LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has an enhancing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are low on LMXSC as compared to those who are high on LMXSC), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and LMXSC) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining deviant behaviours ( $R^2 = 0.379$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 60.358$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and LMXSC was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in deviant behaviours ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.044$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 15.17$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -1.085$ ,  $t(197) = -3.89$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 48, interaction scores can be found in Table 49. Figure 24 represents the interaction plot

Table 49. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Deviant Behaviours (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	0.158	0.034	4.593	0.000
	LMXSC	-0.531	0.077	-6.889	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.802	0.169	4.759	0.000
	LMXSC	0.353	0.239	1.477	0.141
	Autocratic Leadership x LMXSC	-0.187	0.048	-3.896	0.000

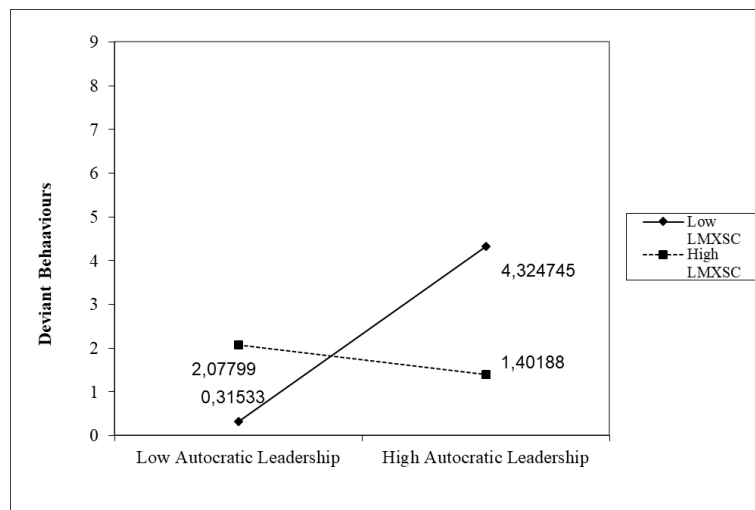


Figure 24. Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours

Table 50. Deviant Behaviours scores for Interaction of leader-member exchange social comparison between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours

Deviant Behaviours	Low LMXSC	High LMXSC
Low Autocratic Leadership	0.31	2.07
High Autocratic Leadership	4.32	1.40

Examination of the interaction plot showed both an enhancing and diminishing effect: for the low LMXSC group, as autocratic leadership increased, deviant behaviors increased as well. For followers high on LMXSC scores, as

autocratic leadership increased, deviant behaviors decreased. The group with the highest score on deviant behaviours were the followers with low LMXSC relationships with their high autocratic leaders. This suggest that these findings does support H7b (LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has an enhancing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are low on LMXSC as compared to those who are high on LMXSC)

#### 5.4.4 Moderating role of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes

To test the hypothesis whether POS (perceived organizational support) moderates the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes (H8), a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions sub-scale (H8a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining positive emotions ( $R^2 = 0.721$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 255.974$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in positive emotions ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.016$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 12.29$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.818$ ,  $t(296) = 3.50$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 50, interaction scores can be found in Table 51. Figure 25 represents the interaction plot.

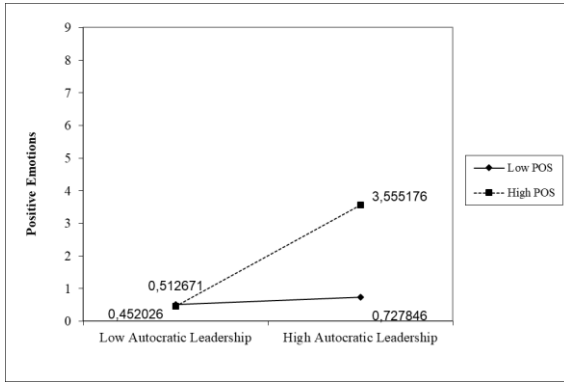


Figure 25. Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and positive emotions

Table 51. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Positive Emotions (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	0.743	0.033	22.383	0.000
	POS	0.601	0.043	13.935	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	0.043	0.202	0.213	0.832
	POS	-0.012	0.180	-0.067	0.946
	Autocratic Leadership x POS	0.116	0.033	3.506	0.001

Table 52. Positive Emotions scores for Interaction of LMXSC between autocratic leadership and positive emotions

Positive Emotions	Low POS	High POS
Low Autocratic Leadership	0.45	0.51
High Autocratic Leadership	0.72	3.55

Examination of the interaction plot showed an enhancing effect: for the low POS group, as autocratic leadership increased, positive emotions increased as well. For followers high on POS scores, as autocratic leadership increased, positive emotions increased. The group with the highest score on positive emotions were the

followers with high POS from their organizations with their high autocratic leaders. This suggest that these findings does support H8a (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions subscale (H8a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining social emotions ( $R^2 = 0.725$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 261.590$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in social emotions but was not statistically significant in terms of change in  $R^2$  or  $F$  change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.000$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 0.000$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = -0.003$ ,  $t(197) = -0.013$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and social emotions.

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy (H8c), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining energy ( $R^2 = 0.809$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 187.155$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in energy ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.021$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 12.58$ ,  $p = 0.001$ ,  $b = 0.921$ ,  $t(296) = 3.54$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis

can be found In Table 52, interaction scores can be found in Table 53. Figure 26 represents the interaction plot.

Table 53. Energy scores for Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and energy

Energy	Low POS	High POS
Low Autocratic Leadership	1.14	0.70
High Autocratic Leadership	0.75	3.37

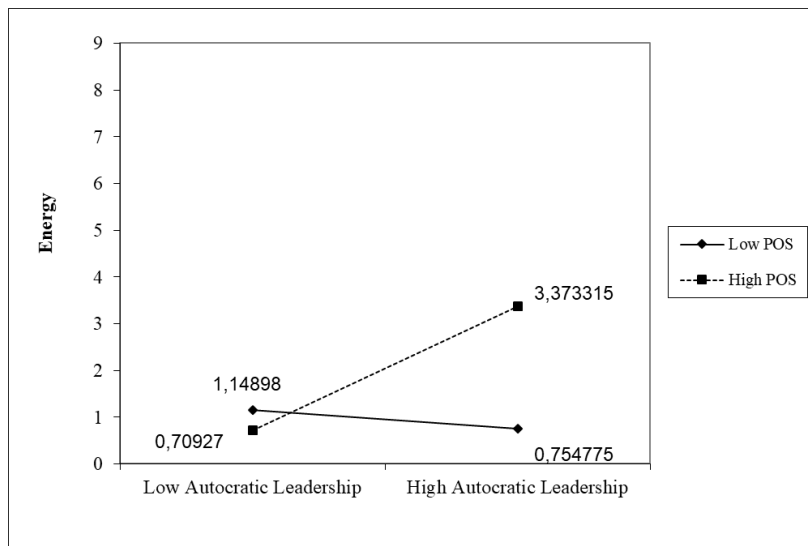


Figure 26. Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and energy

Table 54. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Energy (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	0.662	0.035	19.055	0.000
	POS	0.561	0.045	12.427	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	-0.079	0.212	-0.373	0.710
	POS	-0.088	0.188	-0.468	0.641
	Autocratic Leadership x POS	0.122	0.034	3.548	0.000

Examination of the interaction plot showed both a diminishing and an enhancing effect: for the low POS group, as autocratic leadership increased, energy decreased. For followers high on POS scores, as autocratic leadership increased, energy increased. The group with the highest score on energy were the followers with high POS from their organizations with their high autocratic leaders. This suggest that these findings does support H8a (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions (H8b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS) , the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining negative emotions ( $R^2 = .651$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 185.058$ ,  $p < .001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in negative emotions ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.016$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 9.35$ ,  $p = 0.003$   $b = -0.804$ ,  $t(296) = -3.05$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 54, interaction scores can be found in Table 55. Figure 27 represents the interaction plot.

Table 55. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Negative Emotions (N = 201)

		B	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.737	0.039	-19.089	0.000
	POS	-0.577	0.050	-11.510	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	-0.022	0.237	-0.091	0.927
	POS	0.049	0.211	0.234	0.815
	Autocratic Leadership x POS	-.118	.039	-3.059	0.003

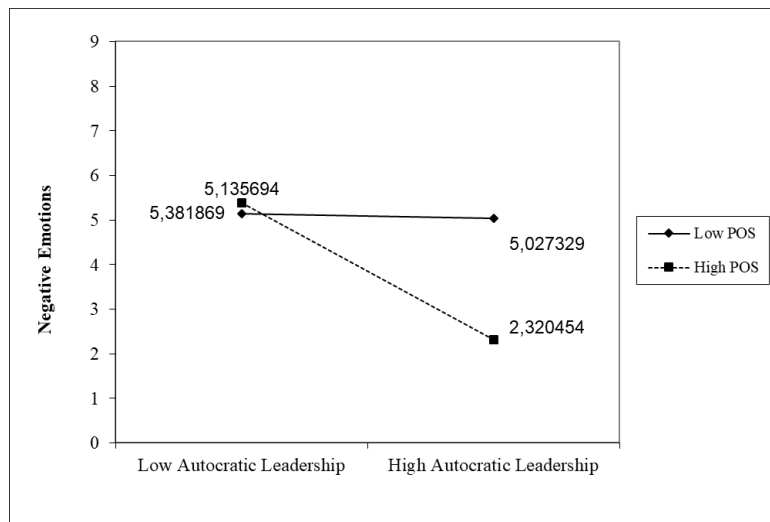


Figure 27. Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and negative emotions

Table 56. Negative emotion scores for Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and negative emotions

Negative Emotions	Low POS	High POS
Low Autocratic Leadership	5.38	5.13
High Autocratic Leadership	5.02	2.32

Examination of the interaction plot showed a diminishing effect: for the low POS group, as autocratic leadership increased, negative emotions decreased. For followers high on POS scores, as autocratic leadership increased, negative emotions decreased. The group with the highest score on negative emotions were the followers

with high POS from their organizations with their low autocratic leaders. The followers with the lowest negative emotions, are the ones who feel the support of their organizations (high POS) under the supervision of high authoritarian leaders. This suggest that these findings does support H8b (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions (H8b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining antisocial emotions ( $R^2 = 0.783$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 157.092$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in antisocial emotions but was not statistically significant in terms of change in  $R^2$  or  $F$  change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.006$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 3.23$   $p = 0.074$ ,  $b = -0.505$ ,  $t(197) = -1.798$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and antisocial emotions. This suggest that these findings does not support H8b (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

#### 5.4.5 Moderating role of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes

To test the hypothesis whether POS (perceived organizational support) moderates the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes (H9: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety (H9a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining psychological safety ( $R^2 = 0.646$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 180.866$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in psychological safety ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.011$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 6.39$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $b = -0.674$ ,  $t(296) = -2.53$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 56, interaction scores can be found in Table 57. Figure 28 represents the interaction plot.

Table 57. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Psychological Safety (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	-0.737	0.039	-19.089	0.000
	POS	-0.577	0.050	-11.510	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	-0.022	0.237	-0.091	0.927
	POS	0.049	0.211	0.234	0.815
	Autocratic Leadership x POS	-0.118	0.039	-3.059	0.003

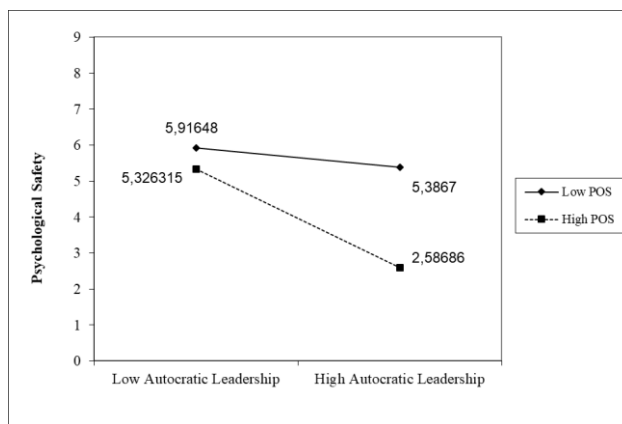


Figure 28. Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and psychological safety

Table 58. Psychological Safety scores for Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and psychological safety

Psychological Safety	Low POS	High POS
Low Autocratic Leadership	5.91	5.32
High Autocratic Leadership	5.38	2.58

Examination of the interaction plot showed a diminishing effect: for the low POS group, as autocratic leadership increased, psychological safety decreased. For followers high on POS scores, as autocratic leadership increased, psychological

safety decreased. The group with the highest score on psychological safety were the followers with low POS from their organizations with their low autocratic leaders. On the other hand, the lowest psychological safety group are the followers who have high perceived organizational support from their organizations and high autocratic leaders. This suggest that these findings does not support H9a (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity (H9b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity ( $R^2 = 0.083$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 8.967$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which did not account for a significant proportion of the variance in process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity in terms of change in  $R^2$  or  $F$  change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.008$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 1.64$ ,  $p = 0.201$ ,  $b = -0.557$ ,  $t(197) = -1.282$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and process orientation aspect of goal and process clarity. This suggest that these findings does not support H9b (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and

process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity (H9b: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity ( $R^2 = 0.433$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 22.863$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity but was not statistically significant in terms of change in  $R^2$  or  $F$  change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.003$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 0.838$ ,  $p = 0.361$ ,  $b = -0.375$ ,  $t(197) = -0.915$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity. This suggest that these findings does not support H9b (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance (H9c), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining job performance ( $R^2 = 0.585$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 139.365$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between

autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in job performance but was not statistically significant in terms of change in R squared or F change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.003$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 1.673$ ,  $p = 0.197$ ,  $b = 0.378$ ,  $t(197) = 1.294$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance. This suggests that these findings do not support H9c (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.).

#### 5.4.6 Moderating role of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes

To test the hypothesis whether POS (perceived organizational support) moderates the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes (H10: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), a series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behaviour aspect of OCB (H10a: POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining helping behaviour aspect of OCB (R

squared = 0.680,  $F(2, 198) = 210.657$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in helping behaviour aspect of OCB but was not statistically significant in terms of change in R squared or F change ( $\Delta R$  squared = 0.003,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 1.906$ ,  $p = 0.169$ ,  $b = 0.354$ ,  $t(197) = 1.906$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behaviour aspect of OCB. This suggest that these findings does not support H10a (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and helping behaviour aspect of OCB (H10a), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining negative citizenship aspect of OCB ( $R$  squared = 0.353,  $F(2, 198) = 53.976$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in negative citizenship aspect of OCB but was not statistically significant in terms of change in R squared or F change ( $\Delta R$  squared = 0.012,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 3.872$ ,  $p = 0.050$ ,  $b = -0.714$ ,  $t(197) = -1.968$ ,  $p > 0.01$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative citizenship aspect of OCB. . This suggest that these findings does not support H10a (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and rule obedience aspect of OCB (H10a), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining rule obedience aspect of OCB ( $R^2 = 0.218$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 27.565$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in rule obedience aspect of OCB ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.016$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 4.23$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ,  $b = 0.821$ ,  $t(197) = 2.05$ ,  $p < 0.01$ ). The summary of the hierarchical regression analysis can be found In Table 58, interaction scores can be found in Table 59. Figure 29 represents the interaction plot.

Table 59. Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Rule Obedience (N = 201)

		$\beta$	Std. Error	t	Sig.
Model 1	Autocratic Leadership	0.076	0.064	1.192	0.000
	POS	0.574	0.083	6.961	0.000
Model 2	Autocratic Leadership	-0.727	0.395	-1.840	0.067
	POS	-0.128	0.351	-0.365	0.716
	Autocratic Leadership x POS	0.132	0.064	2.059	0.041

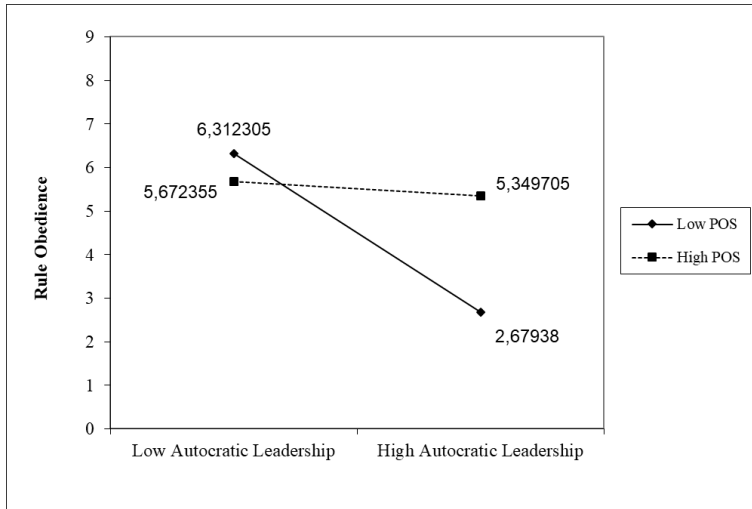


Figure 29. Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and rule obedience

Table 60. Rule Obedience scores for Interaction of perceived organizational support between autocratic leadership and rule obedience

Rule Obedience	Low POS	High POS
Low Autocratic Leadership	6.31	5.67
High Autocratic Leadership	2.67	5.34

Examination of the interaction plot showed a diminishing effect: for the low POS group, as autocratic leadership increased, rule obedience decreased. For followers high on POS scores, as autocratic leadership increased, rule obedience decreased as well. The group with the highest score on rule obedience were the followers with low POS from their organizations with their low autocratic leaders. On the opposite end, the group with the lowest scores were the followers with low POS from their organizations with high autocratic leaders. This suggest that these findings does support H10a (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

For the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours (H10b), the predictor terms (autocratic leadership and POS) without the interaction accounted for a significant amount of variance in explaining deviant behaviours ( $R^2 = 0.574$ ,  $F(2, 198) = 133.542$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). Next, the interaction term between autocratic leadership and POS was added to the regression model, which accounted for a significant proportion of the variance in deviant behaviours but was not statistically significant in terms of change in  $R^2$  or  $F$  change ( $\Delta R^2 = 0.008$ ,  $\Delta F(1, 197) = 3.62$ ,  $p = 0.058$ ,  $b = -0.564$ ,  $t(197) = -1.903$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). Thus, we can conclude that POS does not significantly moderate the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours. This suggests that these findings do not support H10b (POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has a diminishing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS).

The results of the hypotheses testing can be found in the Appendix G of this thesis.

## CHAPTER 6

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the beginning pages of the thesis, I have mentioned how leadership is a construct which is very hard to define, and how there are hundreds of definitions scattered across the literature. Although I still believe this to be true, there are lessons which I have learned from conducting this research. One of the most important aspects of leadership which I learned is the impact it has on emotions of employees within the organization. Research in its own right has to be objective, but sometimes we forget that these “subordinates” or “followers” or “employees” we talk about are human beings with emotions they feel, cognitions they process and behaviours they demonstrate. In this context, I now believe leadership to be a human construct, which looks at the human relationship, not only from a management standpoint but from a psychological and sociological standpoint as well. I believe leadership, as it was focused on the great leader itself, now should turn its focus to the employee and how the leader exercises its power on them. Thus, I will start the discussion with a definition which is quite old, but one which I believe to be still true for leadership in 2020:

“Not only is leadership both a personality and a group phenomenon, it is also a social process involving a number of persons in mental contact in which one person assumes dominance over the others” Bogardus (1928).

Although the social relations aspect of leadership has been around for a long time, it is not wrong to say that affective antecedents and consequences of leadership has been overlooked in the literature. This conceptualization of leadership as a purely cognitive or behavior based phenomenon is starting to change though. Researchers in

the last two decades have shifted their attention to more affect-based relationships and outcomes in defining leadership (Bass, 1985; Yukl, 2002).

“One cannot fully understand the nature of authoritarianism in followers without also considering autocratic leadership” (Harms, Wood & Landay, 2018)

Although this shift in change can be deemed correct for the extant literature of leadership, the emotional impact of autocratic leadership in the literature seems to be almost non-existent. Latest work about autocratic leadership is generally interested in the cognitive and behavioral aspect of the construct such as group stability (Van Vugt, Jepson & 2004), leadership preferences (GLOBE, 2006; Schoel, Bluemke & Mueller, 2011), leadership self-sacrifice (de Cremer, 2006). In this context, one of our aims in this thesis is to further uncover the relationships that autocratic style of leadership has with emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes. When we look at the literature, we see autocratic leadership usually attributed to negative outcomes. This is because authoritarianism is conceptualized as a “dark trait” by certain researchers in the field. Most of the measures in examining authoritarianism or autocratic leadership uses items from the right-wing authoritarianism scale (Altemayer, 1996), which was derived from the early F (Fascist) scale (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson & Sanford, 1950). In looking at the measures used in the literature to understand the construct, we can immediately point out to the close proximity to political science studies. This is expected, since early studies on authoritarianism and autocratic leadership tried to answer the question why people blindly followed authoritarian leaders during World War 2. Today, the view towards autocratic leadership has not changed much, although it is fair to say that autocratic leadership in organizations is not purely attributed to negative outcomes on part of the follower. Harms et al. (2018) argue that although

autocratic leadership is not included in destructive styles of leadership in textbooks, it is still considered as a style which is destined to fail in modern organizations, and often attributed to styles of leadership such as toxic leadership and abusive supervision aspects. In modern society, it is understandable that a style of leadership which entails taking responsibility of all decisions taken can be seen as toxic, but it must not be forgotten that autocratic leaders may take responsibility for the well-being of their followers as well. It is quite easy to look at one aspect of a leader and deem it to be toxic, but what researchers must do in this instance is to release their early biases from the conceptualization of the construct and try to also examine if there are positive aspects of this style of leadership, which is quite prominent in modern organizations as well and the boundary conditions.

When examining the positive and negative aspects of autocratic leadership, we believe the emotional consequences of the construct on followers is an aspect of leadership that cannot be overseen. The relationship between leaders and followers is expected to create emotional outcomes on part of the followers, and this is not different for autocratic leaders (Lazarus, 2000). By investigating the individual level emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes of autocratic leadership in organizations, this thesis focuses on both the dark side and the light side of autocratic leadership by grouping outcomes depending on their nature, rather than their positive or negative effects on the followers. Accordingly, in this study, autocratic leadership is investigated as the antecedent of affective (positive emotions, negative emotions, social emotions, antisocial emotions, affective commitment), cognitive (job performance, goal and process clarity) and behavioral outcomes (OCB, deviant behaviours).

According to the above line of reasoning, by integrating social hierarchy theory (Pratto & Stewart, 2011) and affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996), within the context of autocratic leadership, the dissertation's focus is to explore the processes that are involved in explaining to *which* and *how much* *emotional, behavioral and cognitive outcomes* on the individual level, autocratic leadership is associated with. For this purpose, this research aims to investigate the curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and emotional, cognitive and behavioral individual level employee outcomes. Furthermore, with an aim of offering insights into the effects of boundary conditions on the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes, this study investigates the moderating effects of LMXSC and perceived organizational support.

The results of the study show that there is indeed a curvilinear relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes. These curvilinear relationships can also be captured for cognitive and behavioral outcomes in the model. Therefore, we confirm that autocratic leadership not only effects cognitive and behavioral outcomes on part of the follower, but also emotional outcomes as well. Additionally, the results of the examination of the curvilinear effects of autocratic leadership, we also confirm the idea that the construct is neither purely good or purely bad, the nature of the effect of the construct changes according to the level of autocratic leadership displayed by the leader, and also boundary conditions that influence this relationship. Conclusively, autocratic leadership have both positive and negative outcomes not on the level of different outcomes, but within the same outcome as well. Our examination of the curvilinear effects prove that the nature of the relationship between autocratic leadership and outcomes change when looked for low, moderate and high levels of autocratic leadership.

These findings of the thesis confirm the important role of autocratic leaders in organizations of today. People from all around the world encounter this type of leadership in their work lives daily and uncovering the effects of such a leadership type is undoubtedly important for both the field and practice. Additionally, one other strength of the study is the idea behind the assessment of employee outcomes. Cognitive and behavioral outcomes in the theses defined in the study is assessed by the immediate supervisor of such employee, in order to eliminate the common method bias included in the study. Emotional outcomes on the other hand were assessed by the employees themselves, which adds to the validity of the study since emotions are almost always self-assessed within the literature. The major findings of the study will be discussed in the next section.

#### 6.1 Major findings of the study

In relation to the major findings, we can argue that the thesis reached its aim of uncovering the relationships between autocratic leadership and emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes. More specifically, on the emotional outcomes part, we can talk about the relationships of autocratic leadership between positive and negative affect outcomes as a contribution to the literature. In examining these relationships, we have found support for the curvilinear relationships. On part of the positive affect outcomes (H1a), we have discovered a reverse U-shaped relationship of autocratic leadership and positive emotions, social emotions and energy, which suggests that moderate levels of autocratic leadership leads to improved positive emotion outcomes compared with low autocratic and high autocratic leadership. Relating this finding to social hierarchy theory, where it is argued that certain amount of hierarchy and authority is accepted and beneficial within groups. On the other end, for the

relationships between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, we have found support for a U-shaped curvilinear relationship, which suggests that negative affect outcomes are most prevalent at the low and high levels of autocratic leadership. The final curvilinear relationship we aimed to uncover was the autocratic leadership and affective commitment relationship. In our hypothesis's generation phase, we expected this relationship to be curvilinear, but the data analysis proved otherwise. For the loyalty factor of affective commitment, we only discovered a negative linear relationship. At the other end of the spectrum, for the relationship between autocratic leadership and disloyalty factor of affective commitment, we have found a slight positive linear relationship ( $R^2 = 0.312$ ). On part of the cognitive outcome relationships investigated in the thesis (H3), we found support for the U-shaped curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity and job performance, while discovering a reverse U-shaped relationship on part of psychological safety. This reverse U-shaped relationship suggests to us that psychological safety as a function of autocratic leadership is highest at the moderate levels. In terms of the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes (H3), we have found partial support for our hypothesis. For deviant behaviours, we expected a positive linear relationship, which was supported by the literature in arguing that high levels of autocratic leadership would lead to unwanted behaviours for the organization on part of the employees. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, we have found partial support where autocratic leadership had a cubic curvilinear relationship with the helping behaviours aspect of OCB. For the negative citizenship aspect, we have found a positive linear relationship which did not support our hypothesis. Finally, autocratic leadership was linearly and negatively related to the rule obedience aspect

of OCB. Although these relationships between autocratic leadership and negative citizenship and rule obedience aspects was something which was not expected, it would be fair to argue that the effect is quite small (R squared = 0.149 for negative citizenship, R squared = 0.026 for rule obedience).

Another important aim of this thesis was to uncover the boundary conditions of autocratic leadership and social hierarchy theory through looking at the interactions of autocratic leadership with LMXSC and Perceived organizational support in relation to the emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes present in the model. The first important finding in this aspect was the moderating role of LMXSC for the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions on part of the follower. We have found strong support for the moderating role of LMXSC ( $\Delta R$  squared = 0.02). For the in-group effects of the construct (High LMXSC) the enhancing effects are clear (1.25 for low autocratic and 6.31 for high autocratic group). This suggests to us that for the in-group, an increase in autocratic leadership leads to a huge increase in positive emotions. But on the other hand, the out-group effects are interesting as well. For the out-group, the same effect of increase in positive emotions can be observed for the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions (0.30 for low autocratic and 0.77 for high autocratic group). The same effect can be observed for the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy. For the in-group effects of the construct, the enhancing effects are strong (1,72 for low autocratic and 6,24 for high autocratic group). On the other hand, there is a slight increase for the out-group on part of energy as well (0.41 for low autocratic and 0.92 for high autocratic group). For the final proven moderation within the emotional outcomes, we found a diminishing effect of LMXSC on the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions. For the in-group,

the diminishing effect was quite strong (5.15 for low autocratic and 0.27 for high autocratic group). For the out-group, the effect was weaker but still significant (6.37 for low autocratic and 5.58 for high autocratic group). This diminishing effect shows us that having a high-quality relationship with the high autocratic leader provided the lowest scores on negative emotions. On part of the moderating effect of LMXSC between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, we have discovered an interesting finding on part of the psychological safety outcome. The interesting effects here were also captured for the in-group, where psychological safety scores were the lowest compared to other interaction effects (5.12 for low autocratic and 0.74 for the high autocratic group). This finding suggests to us that employees with high autocratic leaders and high-quality relationships with these autocratic leaders are feeling the least safe in their organizations. Another aspect of this finding was at the out-group, where we saw an enhancing effect on psychological safety. For the out-group employees, having a high-quality relationship with a high autocratic leader resulted in higher psychological safety scores, which suggests that the diminishing effects are not present, but reversed for the out-group. For the relationship between autocratic leadership and process orientation factor of goal and process clarity moderated by LMXSC, we saw the same out-group effects as psychological safety. In our analysis, we have found that autocratic leadership had a negative linear effect on psychological safety. In looking at the moderation analysis, we have uncovered a slight improving effect on process orientation for the out-group (5.12 for low autocratic, 5.93 for high autocratic group). This finding suggests to us that people who have a low-quality relationship with the autocratic leader still can observe improved scores on process orientation as the autocratic leadership increases. For the goal orientation aspect of goal and process clarity, the same interaction effect is

observed. For the out-group, there is an improvement in goal orientation scores when autocratic leadership increases (4.34 for low autocratic and 5.33 for high autocratic group). In looking at job performance as the result of the moderation of LMXSC, we have unearthed a diminishing effect on performance for the out-group (7.22 for low autocratic and 3.87 for high autocratic group). In this instance, the most disadvantageous group in terms of job performance was the group with high autocratic leaders who had low-quality relationships with their supervisors (Low LMXSC). On part of deviant behaviours, we have found a positive linear relationship, but on the moderation angle, our analysis shows that for the out-group, there is a significant increase in deviant behaviours as autocratic leadership increases (0.31 for low autocratic and 4.32 for high autocratic group). This finding suggests that followers who have a low-quality relationship with high autocratic leaders will display the most deviant behaviours within the organization.

As with LMXSC, this thesis has captured interesting effects of perceived organizational support's interaction with autocratic leadership on employee outcomes. First of all, we have discovered an enhancing effect on positive emotions for employees who perceive higher support from their organizations. In terms of positive emotions, the group with the highest score was the high POS high autocratic leadership group. This suggests to us that employees with higher perceptions of organizational support displayed higher positive emotions as autocratic leadership increased. The same effect of POS was captured for the relationship between autocratic leadership and energy. For the high POS group, energy increased as autocratic leadership increased. The opposite of this interaction effect was expected for negative emotions, and the study was successful in capturing the decline in negative emotion scores for the high POS group as autocratic leadership increased.

The group with the lowest scores on negative emotions was the high POS-high autocratic group. On part of the cognitive outcomes, we have captured moderating effects of POS on psychological safety, where the high POS and high autocratic leadership group displayed the lowest scores on psychological safety. Finally, on part of the behavioral outcomes, we have observed a moderation effect of POS on the relationship between autocratic leadership and rule obedience aspect of OCB. The interesting effect here was the sharp decline in rule obedience for the low POS group (6.31 for low autocratic and 2.67 for high autocratic leadership group). This finding, where both the highest and the lowest scores on rule obedience belonged to the low POS group, suggests that employees who perceive their organizations to be unsupportive are most impacted by the increase in autocratic leadership in relation to rule obedience results.

Furthermore, the results of the moderation analysis showed that the LMXSC of the focal employee in the model acts as a boundary condition by moderating the effects of autocratic leadership on the emotional, cognitive and behavioral employee outcomes. The results of the analysis show that as LMXSC changes, there are differences in the relationship between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes. First, when looked at the role of LMXSC as an enhancing mechanism, we can see that as LMXSC of the employee increases, positive emotions on part of the employee increases as well. This enhancing effect of the moderation is also observed for energy aspect of emotional reaction to the leader. Examinations of the interaction effects of the construct show that there are diminishing effects for certain relationships, which means as autocratic leadership increases, the outcome variable decreases. This type of diminishing effect for LMXSC can be found for the relationships between autocratic leadership and negative emotions and job

performance. The third effect is a mixed one, as autocratic leadership increases, there is both an enhancing and diminishing effect of LMXSC as a moderator on employee outcomes. We can observe this kind of effect for the relationships between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, process orientation, goal orientation and deviant behaviours. Same analysis was conducted to look for the moderating effects of perceived organization support on employee outcomes. First, when looked at the role of POS as an enhancing mechanism, we can see that as POS of the employee increases, positive emotions and energy on part of the employee increases as well. Additionally, we can observe the diminishing effects of POS on the relationship between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes. Examinations of the interaction effects of the construct show that there are diminishing effects for certain relationships, which means as autocratic leadership increases, the outcome variable decreases. This type of diminishing effect for POS can be found for the relationships between autocratic leadership and rule obedience, psychological safety and negative emotions. In relation to POS as a moderating variable, we have not encountered any effects where there is both an enhancing and a diminishing effect.

The findings of this research offer several theoretical contributions to the leadership, autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes of leadership literatures as well as practical implications which are both important for leaders and their followers. In the following segments, the theoretical implications of the study is discussed, and then the strengths and limitations of the research and future suggestions are presented. Finally, the thesis ends with the practical implications of this research.

## 6.2 Theoretical implications

The most important theoretical implication of the thesis comes from the aim of discovering autocratic leadership and its outcomes from an affect, cognition and behaviour-based perspective, and thus exploring the under-studied outcomes in the literature from an empirical standpoint. In contrast to previous research on autocratic leadership, this thesis aims to have a more complete look at both the consequences of this style of leadership by integrating emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes at the same time, and also by not describing the construct as purely positive or negative in its own right, but exploring the changing effects of the construct on the outcomes by looking at the relationships from a curvilinear standpoint rather than a linear one. As mentioned, studies starting from Lewin et al. (1939) have cast a negative shadow on autocratic leadership, and we feel that this approach overlooks some of the outcomes. Thus, this research aims to look at both the negative and positive relationships autocratic leadership has with employee outcomes.

Another theoretical contribution of the study comes from the explanation of the effects of the construct, especially ones on the extreme level, from a Social Hierarchy Theory standpoint. As mentioned in the Chapter 3 of this thesis, we aim to explain the effects of autocratic leadership, especially on the high to extremely high levels of the construct through social hierarchy theory. Social hierarchy theory argues that since early childhood, we start to compete with others in our environment. This competition starting from birth until adulthood prepares us for the organizations that we will work in. But this competition has another aspect in terms of leader preference. In our preference for some leaders, people often assess options depending on who in the group is better, who is smarter or more favoured. With this idea, we theoretically try to understand how autocratic leaders come to power. But

the part of social hierarchy theory which explains the positive effects of extreme autocratic leadership from another standpoint. According to theory, people want to listen, follow and emulate someone with the skills and traits they consider to be the most desirable or important. Conclusively, our research uses social hierarchy theory standpoint a theoretical framework: we argue that when the leaders in the question are autocratic, followers within our sample will react in ways where they want to “listen, follow or emulate” as well in some contexts. Organizations have hierarchies for a reason. There is no doubt about the increase in cohesion and proactivity that hierarchies bring to organizations. As leaders are at the top of this hierarchy, we propose that autocratic leaders who occupy leadership positions within organizations would draw ideas that they are “better, smarter and more favoured”. Consequently, the extreme levels of this style as shown in the thesis produces spikes, or deviations from the normal curve. We can explain this by how followers of autocratic leaders legitimize their use of power and decision-making strategies by attributing them these leadership qualities, and as a result emulate or produce positive results as a consequence of this legitimacy which is based on social hierarchy theory.

The third contribution of this thesis comes from its use of affective events theory (Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996). As previously mentioned, affective events theory conceptualizes these events as either mediators in explaining the relationship between events and outcomes within the model, or by placing them as an outcome or response to certain events within the organization. Our approach to affective events theory follows the path of defining affective events as outcomes of autocratic leadership. It is fair to say that affective events are often used as mediators in the literature, and our conceptualization of the construct is novel in its approach.

### 6.3 Strengths, limitations and future research

This thesis derives most of its strengths from the methodological advances it brings to the field. These methodological strengths of the study increase both the confidence in the results as well as the comprehensiveness of the study. First of all, the collection of data from both the leaders and their followers is very helpful in eliminating common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). While the data for the degree of authoritarianism of the leaders was gathered from the followers, some data for the followers such as job performance, deviant behaviours and OCB were gathered from their respective leaders. This method of increasing data sources helps with the common method bias and increases the trustworthiness of the research itself.

Furthermore, the second methodological strength the thesis brings is the focus on curvilinear relationships between variables rather than linear ones. A curvilinear relationship can be described as a type of relationship between two variables that has a pattern of correspondence or association between the variables that change as the values of the variables increase or decrease (Allen, 2017). Linear models are often quite easy to understand and interpret while the same thing can't be argued about curvilinear relationships because the nature of the relationship is different at different levels of variables. In looking at curvilinear relationships, we opted to look for U-shaped and reverse U-shaped relationships. U-shaped relationships convey that there is a negative association between two variables until a certain point, and then the nature of the relationship turns positive. At the opposite end, an inverted U-shape relationship conveys that the two variables are related positively to a certain point and then are related negatively. In management and psychology research, the need to focus on curvilinear relationships is apparent (Hayes, 2018). Conclusively, our

research takes a novel approach in looking at the relationships between variables, and thus this can be described as a methodological strength of the study.

In terms of future research, a promising direction would be to include a time-based assessment of the curvilinear relationships between variables. Both affective events theory (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), and the nature of curvilinear relationships suggest that there is great opportunity to assess the relationship at several different times in the future. Another promising future research direction would be to look at the mediating mechanisms between autocratic leadership and employee outcomes. .

Both for these suggestions for future research can be considered as a weakness of the thesis in hand as well. The fact that this research missed the opportunity of conducting a time-based research was not possible due to limitations in time and resources available to the researchers. The fact that this is a cross-sectional study, a study which does not incorporate time into the model, limits its ability to observe the long-term effects of autocratic leadership on employee outcomes. In this instance, especially as emotions and moods fluctuate through time (Weiss and Cropanzano, 1996), a longitudinal research would capture more interesting effects of the construct especially on the emotional outcomes presented. One other limitation of the study is the application of the surveys in Turkey. Although the measures we have used in the study are supported empirically and could be used to make universal assumptions, looking at the different effects of autocratic leadership on employee outcomes in different cultural environments could yield interesting results for the future.

One other aspect of the future research that could stem from this thesis is the idea that job performance could be categorized both as a cognitive outcome and a

behavioral outcome. Researchers in the field have the option to clearly define job performance either from a cognitive or behavioral approach in linking it to employee outcomes. On top of this, job performance can also be categorized as an emotional outcome in the future, where the autocratic leader affects emotional performance of the subordinate.

The final future research stream from this thesis is the lack of an industry specific approach to see in which industries autocratic leadership is more prevalent, and to see how these variables can be controlled depending on different industries and sectors. Although we have checked the impact of industry as a control variable in this study, we were not able to find any change in outcomes directly relating to the control variables or the differences were negligible. Thus, we argue that future researchers in the field could focus on different industry specific variables where they can derive specialist results for the respective industries. Finally, an industry variable could be used in the future as a moderator to see how these relationships work under different industries.

#### 6.4 Practical implications

On a practical level, this study has shown that emotional, cognitive and behavioral outcomes as a result of autocratic leadership is not linear, but curvilinear in nature. Leaders in organizations could face different type of outcomes depending on the level of autocracy and authority inhabited in their behaviours. In this context, leaders within the organization need to have a good understanding of how much authority and power they should exercise on their followers. Autocratic leaders in organizations could face different type of outcomes as a result of the intensity of their behaviours. In this context, autocratic leaders need to have a good

understanding of the intensity of the behaviours they present to their followers. In a modern organization where dynamism and change is constant, autocratic leaders need to understand that their behaviours are not resulting in a one-type response from their followers, but the outcomes to these actions change whether it is emotional, cognitive or behavioral.

Consequently, authoritarianism and autocratic leadership is a construct which is gaining popularity, both in organizations and in nations. While the literature has not cast a purely negative shadow on autocratic leadership, it is generally interested in the negative consequences of the construct. This research has shown that there can be positive outcomes of autocratic leadership as well. This remark should not be understood as autocratic leadership leading to positive outcomes, but rather having a more balanced look into autocratic leaders within organizations, and accepting that they too could be effective and useful to the organization if they employ the right amount of authority on their followers in particular circumstances. Fiedler's (1964) contingency theory of leadership effectiveness is a good explanation in this instance, where he rejected the idea of a single style of leadership fitting every situation, rather he came up with the idea of leadership as contingent on each situation. In Fielder's (1964) theory, the interaction between leadership style and situation predicted the effectiveness of the leader (Verkerk, 1990). In relating this to autocratic leadership, we argue that the amount of authority exercised on the followers should be dependent on the situation rather than staying the same.

To sum up, autocratic leadership is a practice which is gaining popularity in organizations. Especially with the increasing number of political leaders who have chosen to walk on the authoritarian path, and their relative success in popularity and elections, it is not a surprise to expect organizational leaders taking the same

approach to leadership as well. Some leaders feel it to be a necessity to exercise authority on their followers. While the style of leadership which the leader chooses to convey to the follower is in the discretion of the leader, we argue that it is also the leader's responsibility to be aware of both the negative and positive outcomes it derives from the followers, and make adjustments accordingly to get the best outcome possible from their followers. While most of the work falls into the hands of the leader in minimizing the negative effects of autocratic leadership on the employee, HR divisions in organizations could take precautionary measures in order to mitigate the risks of followers being exposed to autocratic leadership which is detrimental both to the organization and the employees.

#### 6.5 Concluding remarks

The major aim of this research was to uncover the curvilinear relationships between autocratic leadership and emotional, cognitive and behavioral group of outcomes. Social Hierarchy Theory mainly implies that leader selection is based on certain criteria and the assessments of the group members on which a member has the qualities to be the leader. In basing our assumptions on the propositions of social hierarchy theory, we argue that autocratic leadership, as their position implies create a quality assessment on part of the employee. As a result, there is legitimacy for the autocratic leaders in their actions. This legitimacy then leads to the acceptance of the autocratic leader. One of the most important aspects of this research, the idea that extreme autocratic leadership leads to positive spikes in curvilinear relationships is based on social hierarchy theory. As hierarchies are essential to the well-being of group life, followers of autocratic leaders feel the need to accept the authority and behaviours extreme autocratic leaders exert on them.

The significance of the study lies in its integration of autocratic leadership, social dominance and affective events literature with the aim of understanding the emotional, cognitive and behavioral consequences of autocratic leaders in organizations.

The results of the current research show that by providing an explanation to the effects of autocratic leadership, especially on the extreme ends, autocratic leadership does not have a linear effect on outcomes, but the effect changes depending on the level of autocratic leadership behavior presented. This effect is especially apparent in emotional outcomes described in the study. In looking at these relationships, we have employed a different methodological analysis, looking at the curvilinear relationships rather than linear ones. Examining the curvilinear effects of autocratic leadership on emotional (and other) outcomes provided us with the ability to measure the effects for different levels of autocratic leadership. Thus, in talking about the findings of the study, we developed arguments on the level of autocratic leadership (low, moderate and high) which leads to these employee outcomes in the model.

In conclusion, the current research exhibits significant results which are valid both for theory and practice; therefore, it can make important contributions to practical implementations of leaders and organizations as well as prospective research studies in leadership. The two major contributions of this dissertation are as follows, firstly, it provides a comprehensive theoretical background as well as empirical evidence for the existence of different effects of autocratic leadership on emotional, cognitive and behavioral employee outcomes. Secondly, the thesis employs a novel approach to looking at relationships between variables by using a curvilinear analysis rather than a linear one. Third, it makes an important

contribution to the Social Hierarchy Theory within the context of research about leadership.

APPENDIX A  
HYPOTHESES

<u>No.</u>	<u>Hypotheses Type</u>
PATH HYPOTHESES	
H1	There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Emotional Reactions and Affective Commitment
H1a	There is a reverse U relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Affect Outcomes in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions is positive. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative.
H1b	There is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Affective Commitment in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative.
H2	There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Emotional Reactions (negative emotions and antisocial emotions) in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.
H3	H3: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and cognitive outcomes (psychological safety, goal and process clarity and job performance)
H3a	There is a reverse U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and psychological safety in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.
H3b	There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Goal and Process Clarity in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.

H3c	There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and job performance in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.
H4	H4: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and behavioral outcomes (OCB and deviant behaviours)
H4a	There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and OCB in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.
H4b	There is a positive linear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Deviant Behaviours.
<b>Interaction Hypotheses</b>	
H5	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on emotional outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H5a	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H5b	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H6	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H6a	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.

H6b	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H6c	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H7	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on behavioral outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H7a	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.
H7b	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has an enhancing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are low on LMXSC as compared to those who are high on LMXSC.
H8	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H8a	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H8b	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H9	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H9a	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H9b	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and

	process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H9c	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H10	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H10a	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.
H10b	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has a diminishing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.

## APPENDIX B

### FACTOR STRUCTURE

Factor 1 : AUTOCRATIC LEADERSHIP	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Items		0.87
My supervisor is the boss and gives the orders	0.938	
My supervisor thinks ultimately, he/she should be the boss	0.933	
My supervisor acts tough if necessary	0.821	
My supervisor assesses new ideas very critically	0.706	
My supervisor never loses sight of his/her interests	0.645	
Dimensions of GOAL AND PROCESS CLARITY	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor 1: Process Orientation		0.79
How my work relates to the overall objectives of my work unit.	0.783	
The procedures I use to do my job are correct and proper.	0.780	
How to divide my time among the tasks required of my job.	0.739	
My duties and responsibilities	0.709	
The expected results of my work.	0.616	
Factor 2: Goal Orientation		
What aspects of my work will lead to positive evaluations	0.792	
How to determine the appropriate procedures for each work task.	0.777	
The goals and objectives for my job.	0.684	
Factor 3: Task Orientation		
How to schedule my workday.	0.884	
Considering all your work tasks, how certain are you that you know the best ways to do these tasks?	0.654	
Factor: LMXSC	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Items		0.92
My manager is more loyal to me compared to my co-workers	0.895	
My manager enjoys my company more than he / she enjoys the company of other group members	0.891	
I enjoy a better relationship with my manager than most other managers in my work group.	0.869	
Relative to the others in my work group, I receive more support from my manager	0.862	
The working relationship I have with my manager is more effective than the relationships most members of my group have with my manager	0.843	
When my manager could not make it to an important meeting, he/she will ask me to fill in.	0.772	

Factor : DEVIANT BEHAVIOURS	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Items		0.94
Taken additional or longer breaks than it is acceptable	0.931	
Left his/her work for someone else to finish	0.928	
Intentionally worked slower than he/she could have worked	0.926	
Put little effort into his work	0.923	
Neglected to follow my (or other bosses') instructions	0.902	
Made fun of someone at work	0.790	
Said something hurtful to someone at work	0.780	
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work	0.604	
Factor : JOB PERFORMANCE	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Items		0.97
He/she meets formal performance requirements of the job	0.963	
He/she adequately completed assigned duties	0.954	
He/she performs tasks that are expected of him/her	0.940	
He/she fulfils responsibilities specified in job description	0.914	
Dimensions of ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR (OCB)	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor 1: Helping Behaviours		0,97
Keeps updated with organizational announcements & memos.	0.915	
Attends meetings that aren't compulsory but help the department anyway.	0.907	
Always ready to lend a helping hand to those around.	0.753	
Always keeps abreast of changes in the organization.	0.751	
Mindful of how his/her behaviour affects other people's jobs.	0.735	
Willingly helps newcomers to get oriented towards the job.	0.722	
Always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.	0.684	
Willingly helps fellow professionals when they have work related problems.	0.662	
Factor 2: Negative Citizenship		
Usually finds fault with what the organization is doing.	-0.864	
Usually focuses on what is wrong rather than positive side of the situation	-0.804	
Always requires frequent doses of motivation to get the work done.	-0.700	
Factor 3: Rule Oriented Citizenship		
Obeys organizational rules even when no one is watching.	0.915	
Doesn't take extra or long breaks while on duty.	0.895	
Attendance at work is above the norm.	0.838	

Factor : AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Factor 1: Loyalty		0.93
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization	0.952	
I enjoy discussing about my organization with people outside it	0.948	
I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own	0.918	
I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organization R	0.902	
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization R	0.588	
Factor 2: Disloyalty		
This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me	-0.827	
I think that I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one	0.783	
I do not feel a 'strong' sense of belonging to my organization	0.748	
I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organization	0.637	
Factor : PSYCHOLOGICAL SAFETY	Factor Loadings	Cronbach's Alpha
Items		0.79
If I was thinking about leaving this company to pursue a better job elsewhere, I would talk to my manager about it.	0.913	
If you make a mistake on this team, it is often held against you. R	0.912	
Often when I raise a problem with my manager, s/he does not seem very interested in helping me find a solution. R	0.898	
It is difficult to ask other members of this team for help.	0.883	
My manager often encourages me to take on new tasks or to learn how to do things I have never done before.	0.862	
If I had a problem in this company, I could depend on my manager to be my advocate.	0.582	
Factor : EMOTIONAL REACTION TO THE LEADER		
Items: Positive Emotions		0.98
I had ongoing positive emotional experiences	0.977	
I experienced prolonged positive emotions	0.960	
My positive emotions kept re-surfacing	0.974	
Different situations kept bringing back my positive emotions	0.975	
Items: Social Emotions		0.98
I connected with others	0.979	
I socialized with others	0.969	
I felt included	0.976	
I was interested in interacting with others	0.978	

Items: Energy		0.98
I felt energized	0,972	
My energy level increased	0,963	
I felt re-connected to my work	0,965	
I felt energetic	0,966	
I felt stimulated	0,951	
Items: Negative Emotions		0.98
My negative emotional experiences were ongoing	0,980	
I experienced prolonged negative emotions	0,959	
My negative emotions kept re-surfacing	0,979	
Different situations kept bringing back my negative emotions	0,975	
Some negative emotional experiences just did not go away	0,982	
Items: Antisocial Emotions		0.98
I withdrew from others	0,966	
I isolated myself	0,963	
I felt alone	0,977	
I lost interest in interacting with others	0,976	
Others ignored me	0,975	
I felt exhausted	0,979	

APPENDIX C

RESULTS OF HYPOTHESES TESTING

No.	<u>Hypotheses Type</u>	
PATH HYPOTHESES		Result
H1	There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Emotional Reactions and Affective Commitment	Partially Supported
H1a	There is a reverse U relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Positive Affect Outcomes in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive emotions is positive. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative.	Supported
H1b	There is a reverse-U shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Affective Commitment in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and affective commitment is positive. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative.	Not Supported
H2	There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Negative Emotional Reactions (negative emotions and antisocial emotions) in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative emotions is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.	Supported
H3	H3: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and cognitive outcomes (psychological safety, goal and process clarity and job performance)	Partially Supported
H3a	There is a reverse U-shaped relationship between Autocratic Leadership and psychological safety in such a way that for low levels to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety is negative. For high to extremely high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.	Supported
H3b	There is a curvilinear (U-shaped) relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Goal and Process Clarity in such a way that for low levels to moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity is negative. For moderate to high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.	Partially Supported
H3c	There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and job performance in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.	Supported
H4	H4: There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and behavioral outcomes (OCB and deviant behaviours)	Partially Supported
H4a	There is a curvilinear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and OCB in such a way that for low levels of autocratic leadership the relationship is positive. For moderate levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is negative. For high levels of autocratic leadership, the relationship is positive.	Partially Supported
H4b	There is a positive linear relationship between Autocratic Leadership and Deviant Behaviours.	Supported

	<b>Interaction Hypotheses</b>	
H5	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on emotional outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Supported
H5a	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Supported
H5b	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect emotions, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative emotions for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Not Supported
H6	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Partially Supported
H6a	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Not Supported
H6b	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Not Supported
H6c	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Supported
H7	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and behavioral outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on behavioral outcomes for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Partially Supported
H7a	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on LMXSC as compared to those who are lower on LMXSC.	Not Supported
H7b	LMXSC moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has an enhancing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are low on LMXSC as compared to those who are high on LMXSC.	Supported
H8	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and emotional outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Partially Supported

H8a	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and positive affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on positive affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Supported
H8b	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and negative affect outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on negative affect outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Partially Supported
H9	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and cognitive outcomes, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on cognitive outcomes for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Partially Supported
H9a	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and psychological safety, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on psychological safety for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Supported
H9b	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and goal and process clarity, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on goal and process clarity for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Not Supported
H9c	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Not Supported
H10	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and job performance, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on job performance for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Partially Supported
H10a	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and OCB, such that autocratic leadership has a stronger effect on OCB for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Partially Supported
H10b	POS moderates the strength of the relationship between autocratic leadership and deviant behaviours, such that autocratic leadership has a diminishing effect on deviant behaviours for employees who are higher on POS as compared to those who are lower on POS.	Not Supported

APPENDIX D

EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Goal Clarity						
My duties and responsibilities.						
The goals and objectives for my job.						
How my work relates to the overall objectives of my work unit.						
The expected results of my work.						
What aspects of my work will lead to positive evaluations						
Process Clarity						
How to divide my time among the tasks required of my job.						
How to schedule my workday.						
How to determine the appropriate procedures for each work task.						
The procedures I use to do my job are correct and proper.						
Considering all your work tasks, how certain are you that you know the best ways to do these tasks?						
My supervisor is the boss and gives the orders						
My supervisor acts tough if necessary						
My supervisor thinks at the end of the day, he is the boss						
My supervisor doesn't overlook related issues						
My supervisor has a critical stand to new ideas						

	1	2	3	4	5
I enjoy a better relationship with my manager than most other managers in my work group.					
When my manager could not make it to an important meeting, he/she will ask me to fill in.					
Relative to the others in my work group, I receive more support from my manager					
The working relationship I have with my manager is more effective than the relationships most members of my group have with my manager					
My manager is more loyal to me compared to my co-workers					
My manager enjoys my company more than he / she enjoys the company of other group members					
Positive Experiences					
I had ongoing positive emotional experiences					
I experienced prolonged positive emotions					
My positive emotions kept re-surfacing					
Different situations kept bringing back my positive emotions					
Socially Connecting Behaviours					
I connected with others					
I socialized with others					

	1	2	3	4	5
I felt included					
I was interested in interacting with others					
Others noticed me in a positive way					
Energy					
I felt energized					
My energy level increased					
I felt re-connected to my work					
I felt energetic					
I felt stimulated					
Negative Experiences					
My negative emotional experiences were ongoing					
I experienced prolonged negative emotions					
My negative emotions kept re-surfacing					
Different situations kept bringing back my negative emotions					

	1	2	3	4	5
Some negative emotional experiences just did not go away					
Socially Disconnecting Behaviours					
I withdrew from others					
I isolated myself					
I felt alone					
I lost interest in interacting with others					
Others ignored me					
I felt exhausted					
If I make a mistake in this job, it is often held against me. (R)					
It is difficult to ask others in this department for help.(R)					
My manager often encourages me to take on new tasks or to learn how to do things I have never done before					
If I was thinking about leaving this company to pursue a better job elsewhere, I would talk to my manager about it.					
If I had a problem in this company, I could depend on my manager to be my advocate.					
Often when I raise a problem with my manager, s/he does not seem very interested in helping me find a solution. (R)					

	1	2	3	4	5
The organization values my contribution to its wellbeing.					
The organization strongly considers my goals and values					
If given the opportunity, the organization would take advantage of me.					
Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.					
The organization would ignore any complaint from me					
The organization disregards my best interests when it makes decisions that affect me.					
The organization is willing to help me when I need a special favour					
The organization really cares about my well-being.					
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization					
I like to talk to people about my organization					
I see the organization's problems as my own					
I can be as committed to another organization					
I don't feel like family in the organization					
I don't have any emotional connection to the organization					
This organization has a great deal of meaning for me					
I don't feel a great deal of commitment to the organization					

## APPENDIX E

## EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH)

	1	2	3	4	5	6
Hedef Netliđi						
Görevlerim ve sorumluluklarım						
İşimin hedef ve amaçları						
Yaptığım işin biriminin hedefleriyle ne kadar bağlantılı olduđu						
Yaptığım işten beklenen sonuçlar						
İşimin hangi unsurlarının pozitif değerlendirmelere yol açacağı						
Süreç Netliđi						
İşimin gerektirdiđi görevleri yapmak için zamanımı nasıl değerlendireceğim						
İş günümü nasıl planlayacağım						
İşteki her ayrı görev için gerekli prosedürleri belirleme						
İşimi yapmak için kullandığım prosedürlerin doğruluđu						
Tüm işleriniz düşünöldüğünde, bu görevlerin her birini doğru şekilde yapmayı bildiğinizden ne kadar eminsiniz?						

	1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)
Amirim patronumdur ve emirleri o verir									
Amirim gerekirse sert davranır									
Amirim en nihayetinde kendisinin patron olduğunu düşünür									
Amirim ilgilendiği konuları asla gözden kaçırmaz									
Amirim yeni fikirleri eleştirel olarak değerlendirir									

	1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum)	2	3	4	5 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)
Kendi amirimle iş grubumdaki diğer amirlere göre daha iyi anlaşıyorum					
Amirim önemli bir toplantıya gelemediğinde yerine benim katılmamı ister					
İş grubumdaki diğer amirlere göre kendi amirümden daha çok destek alıyorum					
Amirim ile olan iş ilişkim, iş grubumdaki diğer insanların amirümlerle olan ilişkilerinden daha iyidir					
Amirim iş arkadaşlarıma göre bana daha sadıktır -					
Amirim benimle vakit geçirmeyi diğer iş arkadaşlarıma göre daha çok sever					
Pozitif Deneyimler					
Sürekli pozitif duygusal deneyimler yaşadım					
Uzun süren pozitif duygular yaşadım					
Pozitif duygularım sürekli olarak tekrar ortaya çıktı					
Farklı durumlar pozitif duygularımı ortaya çıkardı					
Sosyal Bağlantı Yaratıcı Davranışlar					
Diğerleri ile bağlantı kurdum					
Diğerleri ile sosyalleştim					
Kendimi dahil hissettim					
Diğerleri ile etkileşim içinde bulunmakta istekliydim					
Enerji					

	1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum)	2	3	4	5 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)
Enerji verilmiş gibi hissettim					
Enerji seviyem arttı					
İşime yeniden bağlanmış hissettim					
Enerjik hissettim					
Canlanmış hissettim					
Negatif Deneyimler					
Negatif duygusal deneyimlerim hep sürdü					
Sürekli negatif duygusal deneyimler yaşadım					
Negatif duygularım sürekli olarak tekrar ortaya çıktı					
Farklı durumlar negatif duygularımı ortaya çıkardı					
Bazı negatif duygusal tecrübeler asla ortadan kalkmadı					
Sosyal Bağlantı Yok Eden Davranışlar					
Kendimi yalnız hissettim					
Kendimi diğerlerinden geri çektim					
Kendimi diğerlerinden soyutladım					
Diğerleri ile etkileşim içinde bulunmakta istekli değildim					
Diğerleri beni görmezden geldi					
Kendimi tükenmiş hissettim					

	1 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)	2	3	4	5 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum)
Bu işte bir hata yaptığımda yüzüme vurulur					
Bu departmanda iş arkadaşlarımdan yardım istemek zordur					
Amirim genelde yeni görevler almam veya hiç yapmadığım işleri öğrenmem konusunda beni teşvik eder					
Bu şirketi daha iyi bir iş için bırakmayı düşünürsem, bunu amirimle konuşabilirim					
Bu şirkette bir sorunum olduğunda, amirim benim tarafımda olur					
Genelde amirimle bir sorunumu paylaştığımda, bir çözüm bulma konusunda ilgili değildir					

	1 (Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum)	2	3	4	5	6	7 (Kesinlikle Katılıyorum)
Organizasyon faydalı katkılarına değer verir							
Organizasyon yerime daha az maaşlı birini alma fırsatı yakalarsa bunu yapar							
Organizasyon değerlerimi ve hedeflerimi düşünür							
Organizasyon bir sorun olduğunda can kulağıyla dinler							
Organizasyon benden gelen herhangi bir şikayeti dikkate almaz							
Organizasyon beni ilgilendiren kararlar verirken beni düşünmez							
Bir problem olduğunda organizasyonumdan yardım alabilirim							
Organizasyonum iyiliğim hakkında ilgilidir							
Kariyerimin geri kalanını bu organizasyonda geçirmekten mutluluk duyarım							
Dışarıdan insanlar ile çalıştığım organizasyon hakkında konuşmayı seviyorum							
Organizasyonun sorunlarını kendi sorunlarım gibi görüyorum							
Bu organizasyona olduğu kadar başka bir organizasyona da bağlı olabileceğimi düşünüyorum							
Çalıştığım organizasyonda “aileden biri” olarak hissetmiyorum							
Çalıştığım organizasyonla duygusal bir bağım yok							
Çalıştığım organizasyonun benim için büyük bir kişisel önemi var							
Organizasyonuma karşı yüksek bir aidiyet hissetmiyorum							

APPENDIX F  
LEADER QUESTIONNAIRE

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
He/she adequately completed assigned duties							
He/she fulfils responsibilities specified in job description							
He/she performs tasks that are expected of him/her							
He/she meets formal performance requirements of the job							
Taken additional or longer breaks than it is acceptable							
Neglected to follow my (or other bosses') instructions							
Intentionally worked slower than he/she could have worked							
Left his/her work for someone else to finish							
Put little effort into his work							
Made fun of someone at work							
Said something hurtful to someone at work							
Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.							
Willingly helps fellow professionals when they have work related problems.							
Willingly helps newcomers to get oriented towards job.							
Always ready to lend a helping hand to those around							
Tries to avoid creating problems for co-workers.							
Mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs							
Doesn't abuse the rights of others.							
Always keeps abreast of changes in the organization							
Keeps updated with organizational announcements & memos.							

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attends meetings that aren't compulsory but help the department anyway.							
Always requires frequent doses of motivation to get the work done							
Usually finds fault with what the organization is doing							
Usually focuses on what is wrong rather than positive side of situation							
Obeys organizational rules even when no one is watching.							
Doesn't take extra or long breaks while on duty							
Attendance at work is above the norm							

## APPENDIX G

## LEADER QUESTIONNAIRE (TURKISH)

	1 (Hiç Göstermedi)	2	3	4	5	6	7 (Hep Gösterdi)
Kendisine atanan görevleri yerine getirdi							
Kendisi iş tanımında yer alan sorumlulukları yerine getirdi							
Kendisinden beklenen görevleri yerine getirdi							
Kendisi işin resmi performans gerekliliklerini yerine getirdi							
Kabul edilebilirden daha fazla veya uzun molalar almak.							
Amirinin veya başka bir amirin direktiflerini yerine getirmemek							
Kasti olarak çalışabileceğinden daha yavaş çalışmak							
İşin tamamlanması için başkasına bırakmak							
İşine çok az efor sarfetmek							
İşte biriyle dalga geçmek							
İşte birine kırıcı yorumlarda bulunmak							
İşte etnik, dini ya da ırkçı yorumlar yapmak							
Bir problem yaşadıklarında iş arkadaşlarına isteyerek yardım eder							
İşe yeni başlayanlara isteyerek yardım eder							
Etrafındakilere yardım etmeye her zaman hazırdır							
İş arkadaşları için sorun çıkarmamaya özen gösterir							
Davranışlarının diğer insanların işlerini nasıl etkilediğinin farkındadır							
Başkalarının hakkını yemez							

	1 (Hiç Göstermedi)	2	3	4	5	6	7 (Hep Gösterdi)
Organizasyondaki değişikliklerden her zaman haberdardır							
Kendini organizasyon hakkında duyurular okuyarak güncel tutar							
Zorunlu olmayan fakat departmanına yardımcı olan toplantılara katılır							
İşini yapmak için sürekli olarak motivasyona ihtiyaç duyar							
Sürekli olarak organizasyonun yaptıklarını hatalı bulur							
Bir olayın pozitif yanına odaklanmaktansa, negatif yanına odaklanır							
Kimse izlemediğinde bile organizasyonun kurallarına uyar							
İş esnasında ekstra veya gereğinden uzun molalar almaz							
İşe devamlılığı normalin üzerindedir							

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